Students' Perceptions of Quality Teaching in Higher Education in the UK: The MA in Education Case

Paulo Charles Pimentel Bótas

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Institute of Education – University of London

June 2008

Abstract

This study provides an account and analysis of students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the UK, in the context of higher education policy demands and the debate about quality of teaching and learning in higher education. It is an investigation of how MA students in Education perceive quality teaching and what criteria students use to establish their judgements. In this study, I examine power relations in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. I also analyse the implications of these perceptions and criteria for policy and practice relating to quality teaching and learning in higher education in the UK.

This study is based on a qualitative research design in which the objective was to describe, understand and explain students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education. The empirical data was gathered from in-depth, semi-structured interviews with 43 post-graduate (home and international) MA students of Education in higher education in the UK. The qualitative data analysis is based on a Foucauldian analysis of power relations in the teaching and learning process aided by pedagogical, sociological, cognitive psychological and psychoanalytical theories.

In this study, I create a space for students to voice their perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the UK. I conclude, based on the findings of this study, that good quality teaching in higher education means different things to different students: what good quality teaching is for some, is not for others. The findings demonstrate that students know what their learning needs are, as they know what does and does not motivate them to engage in the teaching and learning process. They also demonstrate that students associate good quality with a teacher's teaching style when they learn in the teaching and learning process. When they do not learn, they associate poor quality with a teacher's teaching style. I argue (1) that some students are not able to evaluate the quality of teaching at the point of delivery; (2) that it is not possible to have a single way of measuring quality teaching in higher education; and (3) that quality as a concept cannot be applied to teaching and learning in higher education.

Declaration and word length

I hereby declare that this thesis has not been submitted either in the same or different form, to this or any other university for a degree. I also declare that, except where explicit attribution is made, the work presented in this thesis is entirely my own. The word length of this thesis (inclusive of tables and figures, and exclusive of references and appendixes) is 85,628.

Dedication

I want to dedicate this thesis to my friends, supervisors and participants of this study. Without them I would not have been able to complete this work.

Acknowledgements

First, I would like to thank my supervisors Professor Louise Morley and Doctor Anne Gold for their invaluable guidance, sustained support and intellectual engagement with my work. Their generosity, openness, wise comments and suggestions, and mainly the challenges they offered me throughout this work, made this thesis possible. I also would like to thank especially Doctor Anne Gold for her invaluable and genuine emotional support and guidance through the last two years of the completion of this work.

Second, I would like to thank my upgrade examiners Doctor Penny Jane Burke and Doctor Kelly Coate for their insightful comments, suggestions and challenges, and mainly the kindness and gentle manner in which they carried out my upgrade examination. Third, I would like to thank the course managers/administrators and MA coordinators at the Institute of Education for their help in inviting MA students to take part in my study. Fourth, I especially would like to thank the MA students who took part in this study, for their time, interest in my study, promptness to be interviewed, and permission to use their stories.

Last, I would like to thank especially my friends Tann vom Hove, William Peter James Jensen, Doctor Graham Cunningham, Doctor Patricia Furst Santiago, Doctor Aparecida the Jesus Ferreira, Doctor Tamar Bajgielman, Professor Lucíola Licinio de Castro Paixão Santos, and my professors Professor Diana Leonard, Professor Miriam David and Professor Ronald Barnett for their emotional and motivational support.

List of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Abbreviations

BERA	British Educational Research Association
BSA	British Sociological Association
CAL	Computer-aided Learning
DES	Department for Education and Skills
HEFCE	Higher Education Funding Council for England
HMSO	Her Majesty's Stationary Office
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ILTHE	Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education
IT	Information Technology
MA	Master of Arts
NCIHE	National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
QAA	Quality Assurance Agency
UK	United Kingdom

Chapter I

Introduction: teaching, quality, policy and power

A. Rationale

The aim of this study is to provide an account and analysis of students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the UK, based on a Foucauldian analysis of power relations in the teaching and learning process, aided by pedagogical, sociological, cognitive psychological and psychoanalytical theories. It is based on semi-structured interviews with 43 MA students (home and international) in Education at the Institute of Education, University of London. This is an investigation of how MA students in Education perceive the quality of teaching and what criteria students use to establish their judgements on the quality of teaching. It examines power relations in the teaching and learning process in the classroom in the context of higher education policy demands and the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education. I analyse the implications of these perceptions and criteria for policy and practice relating to quality teaching and learning in higher education in the UK.

My intellectual engagement with quality teaching in higher education started with my first degree in Letters (Portuguese and English Languages and their Literatures), in Brazil, where I had to demand from the university, as a representative of my class, that two teachers were substituted by two professors who we [students] thought and believed taught better and had our best interests at heart. Then, on my Postgraduate course in Portuguese and Brazilian Literatures, I had to deal with power relations with a professor who seemed to deny me access to references on the topics he was teaching. In my MA in Higher and Professional Education in the United Kingdom, I also had to deal with power relations with a famous professor who seemed to refuse to share information on the topic he was teaching. All of these led me to investigate 'students' perceptions of teachers' pedagogical styles in higher education' (Bótas, 2000)

in my Master's dissertation. In that research, I found that students' perceptions of teachers' pedagogical styles in higher education had implications for quality of teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. In this study, I set out to investigate students' perceptions of quality teaching and their implications for the debate, policy and practice relating to quality teaching and learning in higher education in the UK.

The debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education has been around for quite a long time. While sociologists take into consideration the social context of teaching and learning in the classroom, cognitive psychologists ignore it by making teaching and learning a technical process, in which a teacher teaches in such a way, and a student learns in the same way. Since the early 1990s, cognitive psychology has dominated the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education, such as Ross (1991), Chalmers and Fuller (1996), Ramsden (1996, 2003), Laurillard (1997, 2002), Bligh (1998), Dart and Boulton-Lewis (1998), Rogers (1998), Biggs (1999, 2003), Biggs and Tang (2007), Hativa (2000), Light and Cox (2001), Brown and Race (2002), Nicholls (2002), Kember and McNaught (2007) and Moon (2008). Sociologists of education from critical and feminist pedagogies, such as Freire (1974, 1994, 2000), Luke and Gore (1992), Gore (1993), Luke (1996), Giroux (1997), Ellsworth (1997), Culley and Portuges (1985), Shor (1992) and many others, have been concerned with the quality of teaching and learning not only in relation to the cognitive aspect of teaching and learning, but also in relation to the issues that affect the cognitive development of students in higher education, such as issues of gender, ethnicity, sexuality, social class, religion, nationality etc. However, since the late 1970s, studies which focus only on the cognitive aspects of teaching and learning in higher education, such as Marton and Säljö (1976b, 1976a), Ramsden (1987), Trigwell and Prosser (1991), Kember (1997), Kember and Wong (2000) and many others, have been developed without taking into consideration these very issues of gender etc. which make us individuals. I critically engage with the cognitive aspect of teaching and learning in the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education in chapter III.

B. Definitions of the concepts of teaching, learning and quality

In this study, I have been asked by my supervisor Doctor Anne Gold to define what I mean by teaching, learning and quality, in the teaching and learning process in higher education. This task could easily have been done at the beginning of my PhD study, but the definitions would not have done justice to the findings of this study. Now, after the completion of this study, I find it an impossible task to accomplish. However, in this section, I will attempt to offer definitions for these concepts, not for the purpose of this study, but as a consequence and a result of this study. I define *teaching* as: when someone engages physically (demonstration/coaching), and/or verbally (dialogue/discussion), and/or intellectually (silent engagement) with another person or persons, in order to develop in that person or persons an interest in learning. I define *learning* as: when someone develops an understanding and/or a critical perception of something, which leads to a change in behaviour, and/or way of thinking, and/or approach to the world. I define *quality* as: the individual, subjective perception of satisfaction with a product and/or service. I will engage with other definitions of quality, such as value for money, satisfying the needs of customers/consumers, fitness for purpose, excellence/zero-defect and transformation, in section E of this chapter. The rationale for these definitions is presented in the conclusion of this study, in section E: My learning journey.

C. The political and socio-economic context of this study

Since the early 1980s changes in the political economy have driven the British government to restructure its public sector. Inflation, depression of demand and investment, unemployment and world recession, largely brought on by the oil crises of 1973 and 1979, and the decline in British manufacturing industry, resulted in recessionary policy responses from central government in order to control public spending (Meegan, 1996, Morley and Rassool, 1999, Morley, 2003). In implementing these policies the government made demands of accountability on the part of public services, under the control of the local authorities, in order to ensure the economic,

efficient and effective use of their resources. This was the birth of the audit culture in the British public sector. We now seem to have a culture where accountability has become the main argument and reason for introducing auditing mechanisms to the public services. Higher education, as part of the public sector, has to be accountable not only for its spending, but also for the quality of its teaching, learning and research, while at the same time having its funding reduced (Deem, 1998, Shore and Wright, 2000). The accountability of the higher education sector seems to be focused on the economy as educational policy in Britain has become increasingly focused on its economic function (Beckman and Cooper, 2004). Efficiency and effectiveness in the higher education sector reside in meeting the needs of Britain's performance in national and international markets. In *Table I*, on the following page, I analyse the main policy documents in relation to quality for teaching and learning and discuss their purposes and impact on teaching and learning in higher education.

Table I – Policy documents and their purposes in higher education

Policy document	Purpose
Audit Commission (1984)	it had a duty to: monitor the quality and effectiveness of performance and service provision; identify best practice; improve and secure value for money; ensure efficiency and effectiveness in the management and use of resources; and ensure the accountability of higher education. It was the official engagement of central government with the quality of teaching in higher education. It also marked the birth of the new managerialism in higher education in the UK. In chapter II, I will address new managerialism in relation to the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education in the UK.
White Paper: **Higher Education Meeting the Challenge** (DES, 1987)	in its White Paper the government suggested that the British higher education system had not been responding sufficiently and effectively to the needs of British industries and commerce. According to the White Paper, higher education should enhance the quality of courses' design and contents and validation procedures, reflecting academic standards and their fitness for purpose and what the institutions require of students, and also reflecting the needs of employers.
White Paper: **Higher Education A New Framework** (DES, 1991)	in its White Paper the government proposed the abolition of the distinction between universities, polytechnics and colleges, as it considered that the distinction between those institutions had become an obstacle to widening participation in higher education. Teaching and learning quality was the main concern of the government in the cost effective process of widening participation in higher education, and the accountability of teaching explicitly became a public concern.
Dearing Report (NCIHE, 1997)	in this report it was contended that if the quality of students' educational experience was not to fall, innovative teaching strategies, promoting students' learning effectively, would have to become widespread. In this report the homogenisation of teaching practices was recommended under the umbrella of promotion of effective learning, the innovative teaching strategies being disseminated throughout universities.

In the following paragraphs I focus on the White Paper: The Future of Higher Education (DES, 2003), where I analyse its impact on teaching and learning in higher education.

Teaching and learning in higher education, together with access, funding, tuition fees and research excellence and productivity, has been one of the central focuses of government policies. In this White Paper the government stated that effective teaching

and learning were essential for the promotion of excellence and opportunity in higher education. It maintained that all students were entitled as of right to high quality teaching. They were entitled to be taught well. No student had to tolerate poor teaching. It also asserted that student choice would increasingly work to drive up quality, because students would become intelligent customers/consumers of an increasingly diverse provision. And to meet their own diverse needs, students required accessible information on the quality of teaching based upon up-to-date and robust assessments of the quality of learning and teaching. It stated that as well as making sure that students made well-informed choices, good quality teaching must be guaranteed for all. That meant being clear about the teaching and learning practices and standards that students and government, as the principal funders, had a right to expect from all higher education providers. In this White Paper, the UK government seems to be giving students a "voice" in the debate about quality of teaching and learning in higher education. However, the student's voice is not included in the establishment of what quality teaching and learning in higher education in the UK are.

This White Paper consolidated the homogenisation of teaching practices in higher education by establishing that no students should accept poor teaching and that good quality teaching should be guaranteed for all, whatever good teaching means to the government. Good teaching would happen in an environment in which the government's target for higher education was to 'increase participation in higher education towards 50 per cent of those aged 18-30 by the end of the decade' (DES, 2003: 57) 'from all backgrounds' (ibid.: 22) including "under-represented', 'disadvantaged', 'mature' or 'ethnic minority' groups' (HEFCE, 2001b: 6). According to the government, institutions should meet the increasingly diverse needs of students and also meet the expectations of customers: because students are contributing more to the costs of their tuition, their expectations of teaching quality will rise (DES, 2003) and will therefore need to be met. In this White Paper quality is entangled with widening participation and with the individuality (the learning needs) of students in higher education, where all students should reject poor teaching and be guaranteed good quality teaching. Quality, then, is open to interpretation from each individual student in the classroom in higher education. My research shows that what can be perceived as

good quality teaching by some students can be perceived as poor quality teaching by others.

D. Students as customers/consumers of higher education

Students are now recognised as customers/consumers of higher education, since the Dearing Report (NCIHE, 1997) places increased emphasis on recognition of the individual student as customer or consumer of higher education. As customers/consumers pay for higher education, it is intended that the institutions of higher education will be more responsive to their demands (Scott, 1999, DES, 2003). The issue of students' demands reconstructs them as customers/consumers who know what they want. Students, then, become 'discerning consumer[s]' (Morley, 2001: 472), consumers who demand care and have entitlements. As Ellis (1995a: 3) states, the first priority of university teaching is to 'satisf[y] the primary customer, the student[s]'. Students are reconstructed as consumers or purchasers of the educational product (Morley, 2002b, 2002a), 'purchasers of an expensive product' (Morley, 2002c; 1, 2003: 129), i.e. 'culture' (Bourdieu, 1977: 488), 'knowledge' (Skeggs, 1991: 257) and skills for employability 'which may or may not translate into employment' (Lambert et al., 2007: 533).

The nature of the relationship between traditional institutions and the individuals they serve has changed (NCIHE, 1997: 64). According to Rowland (2006) the empowerment of students as 'client' [customer/consumer] is bound to increase a 'litigious relationship' between students and higher education institutions rather than a 'relationship of trust' (ibid.: 66) and 'collegial relationship' (ibid.: 120), as student identities shift from learner to consumer (Kaye et al., 2006). In other words, 'the customer care revolution has hit the academy' (Morley, 2002b: 133, 2002a: 10), and with it come 'further implications for [teachers'] control over the labour process' (Randle and Brady, 1997: 132), as the idea of the student as a participant in the learning process is in competition with the notion of student as a paying 'customer' (Clegg, 2003: 805). Fabos and Young (1999) argue that students are active consumers and

passive learners. However, I challenge their understandings and conceptions of what passive and active learners/learning are. Is there physical evidence of passive and active learners/learning? Are passive and active learners/learning psychological and sociological constructions? What about the "silent engagement" of students in the teaching and learning process? And, is learning an automatic result of teaching? I will question these assumptions in chapter III.

Students have been put at the centre of the teaching and learning process as active consumers of educational services. They are 'the direct consumers of higher education' (Pollitt, 1990: 64), but some writers such as Scott (1999) and Brennan and Bennington (1998) would challenge this position by saying that it is not clear to what extent students are the primary customers of higher education. Alexiadou (2001: 427) questions if students 'are the products' of teacher's work, or the customer that the products have to be sold to'. And Porfilio and Yu (2006: 1) argued that 'school as business and student as consumer' mentality undermines the democratic and moral missions of teaching and learning. However, teachers are expected to see the knowledge they offer in market terms, as they have to identify customers'/consumers' needs and address them. If these 'needs are not served, there will be political or economic repercussions against providers who do not provide – who fail to serve their customers' (Magrath, 2000: 252), as customers/consumers 'have the power of the purse' (Richards, 1994: 44). For Haggis (2006) meeting the diverse needs of paying students is in direct opposition with the conventional idea that the purpose of the university is to challenge students. And according to Palmer and Collins (2006) some students may not perceive a challenging teacher as excellent, as challenge can create adversity.

Teachers (academics) have become 'knowledge brokers' (Kenway et al., 1993: 4) and higher education institutions are being considered as 'marketer' (Slaughter and Rhoades, 2004: 1). In this market model of higher education the consumer is right at the centre, as education in this model is treated as a commodity (Gibbs, 2001). According to Naidoo and Jamieson (2005b: 40), commodification in higher education implies that the education process and knowledge can be 'captured' and 'packaged' in order to be bought and sold under market conditions where, in the teaching and learning

transaction, the teacher becomes the commodity 'producer' and the student becomes the commodity 'consumer', having distinct, if not opposing, interests. In this 'consumerist ethos towards knowledge' (Skeggs, 1991: 257), taking into account the expectations of customers/consumers, can quality as a concept be defined in and applied to the teaching and learning process in higher education?

E. Quality as a concept in higher education

In this section, I engage with the concept of quality applied to teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. Quality can mean different things to different people, in different times and circumstances, and this difference in meaning reflects a difference in perceptions or measurement of quality. According to Sir Christopher Ball (1985: 97), quality is the 'Achilles' Heel' of higher education because it is a sensitive issue, and nothing will take away that sensitivity. Quality is a contested concept because it is a metaphor for rival views over the aims of higher education, the various voices contributing to the debate either defending or trying to impose alternative views of higher education with new means of assessing it (Barnett, 1994). Quality is an elusive concept when applied to teaching and learning in higher education because the criteria used to judge it are influenced by when, where, for whom and by whom judgement is made, and also because of the complexity of teaching and learning in higher education (Baird, 1988). Quality is an 'ambiguous term' (Harvey and Green, 1993, Ellis, 1995b, D'Andrea and Gosling, 2005). According to Morley (2002b, 2002a) quality assurance is a discourse of power. In my understanding, quality, as an ideology, is power because it 'involves the constitution and patterning of how human beings live their lives as conscious, reflecting initiators of acts in a structured, meaningful world' (Therborn, 1982: 15), one in which, according to Therborn (1982), ideology operates as a discourse addressing human beings as subjects. Like power, quality can be productive and destructive at the same time. Barnett (2003) argues that, on the one hand, quality has the capacity to be a virtuous ideology because it can be a force for improvement. On the other hand, quality becomes pernicious when it becomes a project in its own right.

Five well-documented concepts of quality are applied to higher education, which have been influenced by the political and socio-economic contexts mentioned earlier. In *Table II*, on the following page, I introduce these concepts of quality by focusing on their meaning in relation to teaching and learning in higher education.

Table II – Established concepts of quality in higher education

Concept of quality as:		Definition and relationship to teaching and learning
1	**value for money**	is presented by the Audit Commission (1984), implies paying less for the best product, 'getting "more for less"' (Green, 1995: 5).
2	**satisfying the needs of customers/ consumers**	is a notion related to the idea of student demands. Scott (1999: 194) observed that 'students who pay for their education will demand more from the provider of that education; institutions that compete for the revenue derived from the students will be more responsive to students' demands', and the issue of student demands reconstructs them as customers/consumers who know what they want. I understand this conception in higher education as relating to quality teaching. Satisfying the needs and demands of customers/consumers/clients (students) in the teaching and learning process in higher education is now being bound up with the notion of choice.
3	**fitness for purpose**	is related to the purpose of a product or service. It is a functional definition because it is based upon a judgement of whether a product or service fits its purpose – whether the product or service does the job it is meant to do. Sir Christopher Ball (1985), when questioning fitness for purpose in higher education, was actually asking whether institutions and course leaders were doing the job they were meant to be doing. Fitness for purpose can be associated with the notion of meeting the requirements of customers/consumers.
4	**excellence (exceptional)/ zero-defect (perfection or consistency)**	is related to high standards of performance or achievement. I understand excellence in higher education as the most able students working in the best equipped institution, taught by the most able teachers, using the best library and resources, thus automatically becoming the best achievers. Excellence as quality is linear and limiting, mainly if quality is referred to fulfilling minimum standards. According to Harvey and Green (1993), quality, as zero-defect, is related to the idea of '*getting things right first time*' (ibid.: 15, authors' emphasis). Zero-defect is the notion that everything is correct and there are no mistakes or faults. In higher education it would be translated into all outputs (students' achievements) being free of defects, i.e. students' achievements (standards) being uniform.
5	**transformation (enhancement/ empowerment of participant)**	is intrinsically connected to the concepts of 'value added' (Ball, 1985: 101, Harvey and Green, 1993: 25) and fitness for purpose (discussed earlier). In this conception the notion of change is the key factor in determining quality. In the case of higher education change would be related to the skills, knowledge and abilities (physical and cognitive) transformed or enhanced in students. The notion of empowering the participant in higher education, according to Harvey and Green (1993: 25), 'involves giving power to participants to influence their own transformation'. Such transformation may lead to increasing 'critical awareness', and the enhanced 'self-confidence' and 'political acumen' (Harvey and Green, 1993: 26) of students.

My point in this section is that, now, we have a sixth, new concept of quality in higher education, quality as meeting the expectations of customers/consumers, which was introduced by the White Paper: *The Future of Higher Education* (DES, 2003). In this White Paper the meanings of quality of teaching and learning in higher education range from fitness for purpose and meeting the needs of students and employers, to meeting the expectations of consumers. It can be seen that a huge paradigm shift in quality as a concept occurred in the last higher education policy. Quality moved from meeting the needs of students and employers to meeting the expectations of customers/consumers, whatever their expectations are. In my view, this will have huge implications for teaching and learning in higher education, because if the teaching and learning process is not what students (customers/consumers) are expecting, then quality teaching cannot be established in higher education. In a classroom with more than 20 students, meeting all the expectations of a varied group of people will be a challenge.

F. Power relations

I argued in the section above that quality is power, and as I mentioned earlier, in this study I examine the power relations manifested in teacher-student relationships at the micro-level of education in the classroom. These power relations were exercised through the pedagogical styles of teachers. In this section I provide the definitions of categories of power and tools/mechanisms of power relations in the teaching and learning process, which constitutes a description of the theoretical framework of my study. I will come back to my theoretical framework in chapter IV, under section C.

1. Concepts of power

Power is a very controversial concept because of its omnipresence, its changeability, its reversibility, and its instability. Despite this variety of mutative characteristics, power does not exist on its own. It is not a self-contained and self-sufficient entity. Power, to exist, needs to be exercised in dynamic ways, such that the

boundaries between the powerful and powerless are not entirely explicitly delineated, but subtly manifested in sophisticated ways. The dynamics of power allow it to move from **A** to **B** and from **B** to **A**, while both are interacting with one another. Without this interaction, power would not exist. In the operation of power both sides should exercise a certain form of free choice: comply with it or resist it. Foucault (1994: 12) says that relations of power are 'changeable, reversible and unstable' and 'there must be on both sides at least a certain form of liberty'. These dynamic characteristics make power an utterly, irresistibly fascinating and attractive exercise that we, as human beings, unconsciously or consciously exercise in our encounters and this is true of the teacher-student relationship in the classroom.

The dynamics of power consist in that dimension of a relationship whereby **A** is trying to impose on **B** beliefs, knowledge, truths, interests and desires, or specific behaviours that **A** necessarily wants **B** to adopt or to change, in a manner contrary to **B**'s own interest. However, the possibility of **B** resisting **A**'s power still exists. Should **B** resist the power **A** holds over her/him, **B** would revert, destabilise and change the power relation to her/his advantage. Lukes (1974, 1978) emphasises the imposing characteristic of power, when he defines his concept of power by saying that: **A** exercises power over **B** when **A** affects **B** in a manner contrary to **B**'s interests. And Foucault (1994) emphasises the relationship between power and the desire to control another's behaviour by saying that:

> in human relations, whatever they are – whether it be a question of communicating verbally..., or a question of a love relationship, an institutional or economic relationship – power is always present: it means the relationships in which one wishes to direct the behaviour of another (Foucault, 1994: 11).

Some educators would find imposition a strong word to be used in relation to the teacher-student relationship in the classroom. Imposition implies control, and control is the teacher's middle-name. I am not contesting the existence of control in the classroom. A degree of teacher control should and must exist in the classroom, because up to a certain point, the curriculum agenda should and must be pursued.

Power, to exist, needs freedom. Freedom is an important component of power. Without the freedom to choose between complying with and resisting the power exercised over one's self, power would not exist. According to Foucault (1994), relations of power are everywhere because freedom is everywhere. I cannot conceive of any human interaction or relationship in which the exercise of power would not be present. In order to socialise, human beings need to relate to one another. Foucault (1982: 224) considers a society without power relations an abstraction, for 'power relations are rooted in the system of social networks'. Possibility or future potential forms the basis of the power dynamics: the possibility to change itself, revert poles, adapt to the momentum, disguise itself, and, above all, the possibility to be resisted.

Foucault (1980b) connected power and knowledge. The connection between power and knowledge can be a vicious circle: the more power, the more knowledge; the more knowledge, the more power. As power recreates itself, knowledge of this power has also to evolve to make resistance possible. Mayo (1998: 116) drew attention to the fact that 'the more power infuses everything, the deeper the knowledge of the subject about itself becomes'. His argument establishes the cycle that power and knowledge go through constant change. It is a 'web-like system' (Tanabe, 1999: 147) that transcends expectation.

Being concerned with this going beyond of power mechanisms, moving from concrete to abstract, from intellect to emotion, from psychological to physiological, Foucault (1980a) conceptualised power as a web system which extends the relations of power to the 'discursive, practical, material, intellectual, and psychological' (Burbules, 1986: 104). Foucault (1980b) is concerned with the capillary mechanisms of power. According to him, this form of power touches peoples' bodies, inserts itself into their actions, attitudes, their learning processes and their everyday lives. Tanabe (1999: 147) expanded this concern by adding that 'relationships of power are shaped by the broader social context in which they exist'. The understanding of this capillary form of power is essential to the understanding of the relationship between teachers and students during the learning process, and in particular to the understanding of how students perceive the quality of teachers' pedagogical styles.

2. Theories of power relations

The power relation between two parties is a relationship whereby their activities are restrained (dynamically) and restricted between the two parties. Because of these dynamic activities, their individual interests, strategies, and agendas are constantly reshaping themselves according to the mutative power characteristics of one part to the other. This endless battle for control over one party by another, originating in a conflict of interests, causes the pendulum of power to oscillate freely between both parties. The parties can be individuals, groups or sub-groups that comply or resist one another. Burbules (1986), drawing on work by Giddens (1979) and Poulantzas (1978), defines conceptions of power relations as 'a relation of power [that] binds and constrains the activities of both parties, and each party defines its purposes and range of alternatives partly in terms of the other' (ibid.: 103). He also says that '[i]n the power relation itself each party might gain a particular gratification from the negotiated balance between compliance and resistance' (ibid.: 103). The categories of power are presented and defined in *Table III*, on the following page.

Table III - Categories of power

Category	Definition
Consent	requires previous approval and responsibility for the decision from the party which is consenting. Consent is not based on conflict of interests. The parts involved in the consent both recognise the common purpose to which they ascribe.
Domination	involves physical and/or psychological strategies which do not allow the possibility of resistance. Domination involves total control, absolute ruling, and final incontestable command. Domination destroys social human relations, and can involve the use of physical and/or psychological force. Freedom, as mentioned earlier on, is the essential part and basis for the exercise of power. Burbules (1986: 100) argues that domination is based on 'incompatibility of interests' and that domination can involve 'physical or psychological strategies' such as 'threat and brainwashing'.
Compliance	is considered by Burbules (1986) as a grey area of power relations, because it involves negotiation. When compliance is a result of an agreement, it is close to consent. And when compliance is a result of an explicit or implicit threat, it is close to domination.
Resistance	is the more dynamic category of power relations. Resistance always implies a changing of strategies on the part of the one who is exercising power, as well as on the part of the one over whom power is being exercised. That is why resistance by the individual subjected to power makes power so seductive, enchanting and exciting to the subject of power. The more resistance to power, the more gratifying and inebriating the exercise of power will be.

I see consent as the idealised democratic relationship between human beings, provided it is reached by all parties on equal terms. Like Foucault (1982) and Burbules (1986), I dismiss the idea of consent and domination as power relations, because they are extremes and do not offer scope for compliance and/or resistance. I also consider compliance to be a grey area of power relations, because it involves bargaining/negotiation. When compliance is a result of an agreement, it is close to consent. And when compliance is a result of an explicit or implicit threat, it is close to domination. Resistance, the more dynamic category of power relations, is characterised by the constant creation and re-creation of strategies on the part of the one who is exercising power, as well as on the part of the one over whom power is being exercised. Power relations are associated with control, direction, prevention and domination, as well as with production and creation. The tools/mechanisms through which teachers exercise power in the teaching and learning process in higher education are presented and defined in *Table IV*, on the following page.

Table IV - The tools/mechanisms of power in the teaching and learning process

Tool/ mechanism	Definition
Authority	Teacher's authority is maintained by social and institutionalised mechanisms that allow teachers to exercise their power based on status quo and on their specialist knowledge or expertise. This tool/mechanism is also responsible for maintaining teachers' privileges, customs and traditions. By maintaining teachers' privileges, their authority is also maintained, and remains unexamined, in the sense that one never challenges a teacher's expertise or specialist knowledge.
Influence/ manipulation	Teacher can make suggestions, give advice, persuade and convince student to make some decision, to take some action, to join a group or to support a decision. This tool/ mechanism can also be exercised indirectly by the authority of the teacher who is using her/his expertise or specialist knowledge to persuade the student to make a decision that will directly or indirectly benefit the teacher who is exercising influence/manipulation. It consists of the provision and transfer of information from one person to another.
Bargaining/ negotiation	Teacher negotiates with student, in order to get student to do what teacher wants him/her to do. In this negotiation, teacher will offer individual student some privileges that student was seeking and interested in, and those privileges, when given to student, will not jeopardise teacher's position and interests. The problem with bargaining is that conflict can be resolved only for a certain period, until student understands that every time student offers resistance to teacher's interests, student will get something she/he wants and is interested in. It is most frequently exercised as a disciplinary tool, where the teacher controls the student's behaviour, attitudes and engagement in the classroom, but it is also exercised when teachers and students negotiate work to be done in the classroom.
Surveillance/ supervision	Teacher exercises a constant close control by observing, supervising and monitoring carefully an individual's attitudes, behaviour, movements, actions, activities, skills, knowledge, performance, product, engagement and learning, with the intention to increase production, engagement and learning in a shorter period of time. This constant observation and registration are carried out in a subtle way, and the teacher who is observing and registering can intervene or not with the student who is being observed and registered. It can be done through coaching of students' work. Through one-to-one tutorial (scrutiny of students' learning, knowledge, production of knowledge and learning needs). Through observation of students' engagement, participation and interest in the classroom and in the subject. And mainly through examination/assessment of the students' product (learning).
Coercion	Teacher is capable of punishing or threatening to punish student, with the intention of having student comply with teacher's interests. Through coercion teacher finds his/her way to control the psyche (mind) and/or the physical (body) of student. Coercion, in the past, was the main pedagogical style for teaching students. Today, teachers are no longer allowed to relieve their frustrations on students through physical punishment or even the threat of it. However, punishment and threat of punishment are still present in education and thriving because the dynamics of power, through coercion, has evolved and recreated itself to fulfil the demands of new powers in the education system: teachers' control over the grading and the establishment of deadlines for handing in students' work or drafts; and teachers' control of students' entire future.

The teacher's *authority* passes unexamined and unquestioned by the majority of students in the classroom, where a fear of challenging the teacher's expertise or specialist knowledge suppresses any instinct to challenge. This power appears unproblematic and indiscernible, and seems largely to be taken for granted. The majority of teachers consider knowledge as property, because the ownership of knowledge gives and maintains for teachers their comfortable position of power.

Teacher's *influence/manipulation* persuades student to comply with teacher's agenda or interests. Teachers are the ones that will directly or indirectly benefit from students' decisions. Teachers use their authority to influence and manipulate students' decisions, but teachers' coercive power can also influence and manipulate students' decisions. The grading power – coercive power – of teachers can influence students to go for the right answers to achieve learning or to comply with teachers' agendas.

Teacher's *bargaining/negotiation* is mostly exercised through teacher's desire to control students' behaviour, attitudes and engagement in the classroom. To a lesser degree, bargaining/negotiation can be manifested in teachers and students negotiating work to be done, dates for handing in work, and to a limited extent, the pedagogical activity to be carried out in the classroom, in so far as it does not jeopardise teachers' power in the classroom. Teachers fulfil some of students' requests, in order to pursue their larger agenda.

Teacher's *surveillance/supervision*, this grey area in teachers' pedagogical styles, is commonly exercised by teachers to keep students under close control. Through it, teachers will observe, supervise and monitor students' skills, knowledge, performance, productivity, engagement, learning and learning needs in the classroom and/or in tutorials. It can be manifested through the list of recommended readings for their session, mainly when the texts, articles or books are highlighted by the teachers. It can also be manifested through invitations to students to comment on some issues presented in the recommended readings.

Teacher's *coercion*, as mentioned before, is also commonly exercised by teachers in the classroom when teachers punish or threaten to punish, physically or psychologically, with the intention of making students comply with their interests. Coercion in the classroom can be manifested at two levels: First, at the psychological level, which I consider to be the informal exercise of coercion as a threat of punishment. And second, at the physical level, which I consider to be the formal exercise of coercion through the grading power. The threat of punishment, which is the psychological level of teachers' coercion, can be manifested through teachers pressuring students to complete a task. Coercion can be exercised through teachers' advice to students on how to produce work and also through telling students what is acceptable and what is not when doing their work.

Power relations are not only a means of control and direction, they are also a means of prevention. Power is not only exercised when there is a conflict in process. Power is also exercised when conflict is not allowed to occur in the first place. The simple fact of not allowing one's views, ideas, arguments or beliefs to be known is an exercise of power. Power relations involve decision-making and non-decision-making. Lukes (1974: 18-19, 1978: 18-19), drawing on the decision-making and non-decision-making analysis of Bacharach and Baratz (1970), says that:

> non-decision-making is 'a means by which demands for change in the existing allocation of benefits and privileges in the community can be suffocated before they are even voiced; or kept covert; or killed before they gain access to the relevant decision-making arena; or failing all these things, maimed or destroyed (...)' (Bacharach and Baratz, 1970: 44).

The silencing that the non-decision-making can create in some parts of society is reinforced by the social-political and economic inequities that permeate society's structure.

In the following chapters of this thesis I will be analysing power in the teaching and learning process in higher education.

G. Overview of the thesis

Chapter II provides a critical analysis of new managerialism and its impact on the public services, focusing on the higher education sector, where I look at its definitions, mainly focusing on its meaning for higher education, and its inheritance from Taylorism, Fordism and Japanization. I examine the new systems of power that new managerialism created in higher education, its discourse and the connection between new managerialism and teaching and learning in higher education.

Chapter III provides the theoretical background, where I critically engage with and review the literature on the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education. It not only originated the research questions, but validated them in the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education.

Chapter IV outlines the development of the research design in order to achieve the objectives, where I consider the methodological and ethical issues and describe the method used in this study, while also providing a critical analysis of the research process and my role as a researcher. I also consider the issues of analysis and presentation of the data originated in this study.

Chapter V explores and analyses the expectations of MA students in Education of good quality teaching in higher education in the UK and what the expectations of students entail for the debate about quality for teaching and learning. I examine the criteria students use to establish their judgements on the quality of teaching and their implications for policy and practice for quality teaching and learning in higher education in the UK.

Chapter VI explores and analyses the issue of preference and choice in the teaching and learning process in higher education from the perspectives of MA students

in Education in the UK. I examine students' preference and choice and what they entail for policy and practice for quality teaching and learning in higher education in the UK.

Chapter VII explores and analyses the perceptions of MA students in Education of the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. I examine the criteria used by students to establish their judgement on the impact of teachers' research activities on the quality of teaching and learning of students in higher education in the UK.

Chapter VIII explores and analyses from a sociological perspective how MA students in Education perceive the quality of their teachers' teaching in higher education, examining and deconstructing power relations in the teaching and learning process in the classroom in higher education in the UK. I examine the criteria used by students to establish their judgement on the quality of teaching and learning in higher education in the UK.

Chapter IX provides a broad discussion and conclusion to this study, where I analyse the implications of the answers to the research questions and examine their implications for policy and practice relating to quality for teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. I present a critical evaluation of this study and provide suggestions and recommendations for future research, policy and practice supported by the findings of this study.

Chapter II

The ideological context of the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education in the UK: new managerialism

In chapter I, I argued that since the early 1980s the British government implemented recessionary policies in order to control public spending and to ensure the economic, efficient and effective use of resources in the public sector (Meegan, 1996, Morley and Rassool, 1999, Morley, 2003). I further argued that accountability has become the main argument and reason for introducing auditing mechanisms to the public services, and higher education, as part of the public sector, has to be accountable not only for its spending, but also for the quality of its teaching, learning and research, while at the same time having its funding reduced drastically. In this chapter, I examine new managerialism and its impact on the public services, focusing on the higher education sector. I look at definitions of new managerialism, mainly focusing on its meaning for higher education, and its inheritance from Taylorism, Fordism and Japanization. I also examine the new systems of power that new managerialism created in higher education. I look at the discourse of new managerialism, examining its language as a form of control and compliance in the higher education sector, and the connection between new managerialism and teaching and learning in higher education.

A. New managerialism and marketisation in the public services in the UK

New managerialism is the name given to the management style which came out of the 1990s and which favours the accountability process and measurement of outcomes of public services. Morley (1997) mentioned that a fundamental premise of new managerialism is the belief that objectives of social policy can be promoted at a lower cost when the appropriate management techniques are applied to the public services. However, Shore and Roberts (1995: 8) claim that higher education policy is a 'discourse of power'. Deem (1998) considers new managerialism to be technologies, a

set of values, ideas and practices of private management in the public sector. She defines it as a term generally used to refer to the adoption by public sector organisations of organisational forms, technologies, management practices and values more commonly found in the private business sector. According to her, new managerialism fosters competition between employees, the marketisation of public sector services and the monitoring of efficiency and effectiveness through the measurement of outcomes and individual staff performances, where the objective is to change the regimes and cultures of organisations and to alter the values of public sector employees to resemble more closely those found in the private for profit sector. Smith (1999: 317) spells out new managerialism as a technique to be used to ''manage' and ultimately control almost any human activity'. Clarke et al. (2000) reinforce the control feature of new managerialism spelled out by Smith (1999), as they define new managerialism as a set of expectations, values and beliefs. For them, new managerialism is a normative system concerning what counts as valuable knowledge, who knows it, and who is empowered to act in what ways as a consequence (Clarke et al., 2000). Their definition reflects Lyotard's (1989) concerns with the transfer of knowledge: who has knowledge and how knowledge is transmitted. Lyotard's concerns are presented in his questions: 'Who transmits learning? What is transmitted? To whom? Through what medium? In what form? With what effect?' (Lyotard, 1989: 48).

Throughout the writing of my research, my supervisors, Professor Louise Morley and Doctor Anne Gold, have challenged the novelty ascribed to "new managerialism" in my thesis, as it has been around for more than 20 years. According to Deem and Brehony (2005) and Brehony and Deem (2005) some authors, such as Hood (1998) and Alvesson and Deetz (1999), also question the novelty of new managerialism as it exhibits characteristics and interests associated with earlier forms of managerialism. Hood (1998) argues that the difference between the traditionalists' and modernizers' views of managerialism, lies in the way they see the past and the future. According to him, traditionalists use 'rose-tinted spectacles to view the past and grey-tinted glasses to look at the present, while for the latter the lens tints are reversed' (Hood, 1998: 5). Alvesson and Deetz (1999) argue that nothing fair, coherent and brief can be written about these two different views of managerialism, as '[m]any researchers draw on both traditions' (ibid.: 185). For Deem and Brehony (2005) and Brehony and

Deem (2005), new managerialism is an ideology, i.e. an ideological model and construction of governmental and institutional order derived from practices once used by the private sector, that is firmly based on interests concerning relations of power and dominance. As an ideology it 'has changed and will continue to change what universities do and how they do it' (Deem and Brehony, 2005: 231). In that sense it is new, and it has become a well-known term in its own right to represent this ideology. These are the reasons why I use the term "new managerialism" in my thesis.

For Clarke et al. (2000), new managerialism has changed the dynamics of power in the political system. They mention that it 'has changed the dynamics of power between senior managers and politicians, enlarging the power and scope of those deemed to be 'strategic', but also offering politicians new means of control 'at a distance'' (Clarke et al., 2000: 10) i.e. a Bentham's panopticon system of surveillance of the public services. Newman (2000), defines new managerialism as a discourse which sets out the necessity of change; a set of tools to drive up performance; and a means through which an organization can transform itself to deliver a modernized notion of public purpose to a modern conception of the people. New managerialism is a management style based on technologies and techniques which control and change the dynamics of power in the public sector, in this case, higher education. In this style of management, trust is replaced by suspicion and surveillance of workers (teachers and researchers), processes (teaching and learning, tutorial, supervision and research) and products (graduates and research). New managerialism is a normative system, in which its beliefs, values and practices are aimed at indoctrination, transformation and formation of culture in the work place, by favouring the accountability process and the measurement of outcomes of the public services, in this case, higher education institutions. In short, it is a belief in the practice of certain management processes focused on the 'promotion of a corporate mission, with goals, monitoring procedures and performance measurement' (Morley, 1997: 45), 'constantly striving for greater and greater cost efficiencies' (Beckman and Cooper, 2004: 4).

New managerialism in higher education is also understood as new 'regime[s] of truth[s]' (Foucault, 1980b, Gore, 1993, 1997, 1998, Morley, 1999, Walker, 2001c), and

'new regimes of regulation' (Morley and Rassool, 1999, 2000). As new regimes of truths, new managerialism determines what is to be perceived, counted, validated, accepted, and also what is to be functioning as true (Foucault, 1980b, Walker, 2001c). As new regimes of regulation, new managerialism prioritises meanings, technologies and mechanisms through which the new regimes of truths will be (re)produced, exercised, and controlled (Morley and Rassool, 1999, 2000). New managerialism is a regime of power relations in which power produces things, knowledge and discourses (Foucault, 1980b). In new managerialism, the exercise of power creates and recreates itself through knowledge, as Foucault (1980b: 52) claims '[t]he exercise of power perpetually creates knowledge and, conversely, knowledge constantly induces effects of power'. New managerialism is the (re)invention and (re)creation of 'governmentality' (Foucault, 1991b, 1997, 2002). By governmentality, Foucault means the procedures, analyses, and reflections, the calculation and tactics of the process that allows the exercise of complex forms of power, i.e. the technical apparatus of power which informs itself and develops whole complexes of knowledge about itself (Foucault, 2002). New managerialism became the assertion of the 'right to govern and the power of government' as Fergusson (1994: 96) puts it. This power of the government is 'a means of getting things done' (Giddens, 1995: 162) by maximising opportunities and financial budgets (getting value for money), and minimising risks and wastage of human, physical and financial resources. It became the recreation of governance.

New managerialism also became the technology through which the state can maintain its survival, i.e. the 'way in which the behavio[u]r of a set of individuals became involved, more and more markedly, in the exercise of (...) power' (Foucault, 1997: 68). New managerialism is the 'reimagination' (Gay, 2000: 65) and the 'reinvention of government' (Power, 1994: 17). It is a recasting of the structure and culture of public sectors (Clarke et al., 1994). New managerialism offered governments around the world new ways of gaining and using control over public institutions, whatever their political purposes. In the UK, the government wanted to gain more control over its public institutions. In Japan, the government wanted to gain control over and use its public institutions to promote its own interests. In Denmark, the government also wanted to gain more control over its public institutions, for fear of loosing the political control over them (Flynn, 2000). Governments are the 'regulating force[s]'

controlling the mechanisms of national economies (Dominelli and Hoogvelt, 1996: 74). In the case of the British state, according to Clarke and Newman (1997: ix), new managerialism 'is shaping the remaking of the British state – its institutions and practices as well as its culture and ideology'. This remaking is happening under the New Labour's buzz word of "partnership" which, according to Stephen Ball (2008: 142), 'dissolves important differences between public sector, private sector and voluntary sector modes of working'. It is a dynamic and transformative process in which power, culture, control and accountability is being transformed (Clarke et al., 1994). The issue of power in new managerialism will be discussed in a later section. However transformative and dynamic the process of new managerialism is, it remains open to contestation, bargaining and resistance from its workers (students, teachers, researchers, departments, institutions and society in general), because it redefines relations with customers/consumers/users/clients, producers, citizens, communities and society in general.

B. New managerialism and its inheritance from Taylorism, Fordism and Japanese Management Style (Japanization)

New managerialism has characteristics of *Taylorism* (management control), *Fordism* (mass production) and *Japanization* (quality control, assurance and continuous improvement). The rationalisation and standardisation of production techniques are essential to the development of economy, efficiency and mutual prosperity of employers and employees in *Taylorism*, in which training the employee in techniques to reduce the time of production would increase his/her production performance and the earning of employers and employees. Performance measurement is central to Taylorism. Taylor's systematic and scientific time study, in which with the co-operation of the workers, he would break (fragment) each job down into simple basic elements and would time and record them, identifying the performance indicators and measuring them (Dominelli and Hoogvelt, 1996, Sheldrake, 1996). Fukuyama (1995: 226) mentions that a 'rule-based factory system' is the logical conclusion of Taylorism, because it carries low-trust in workers. Workers are passed the message that they are not going to be trusted, because their work is going to be measured against their performance. And the measurement of

performance *per se* is the certification of low-trust, or maybe even distrust, in any worker. Obedience and prescription are the basis of Taylorism. Workers have to follow by heart the prescribed rules for working. Fukuyama (1995) describes the goal of scientific management as

> to structure the workplace in such a way that the only quality required of a worker was obedience. All of the worker's activities, down to the very motions by which he [sic] moved his [sic] arms and legs on the production line, were dictated by detailed rules prescribed by the production engineers. All the other human attributes - creativity, initiative, innovativeness, and the like - were the province of a specialist somewhere else in the enterprise's organization (Fukuyama, 1995: 226).

Here one can see that workers were de-skilled (loss of initiative, creativity, autonomy, competence, etc.) and over-specialised (machinery like behaviour and attitude) in the scientific management. Performance indicators and their measurement, worker's obedience and prescription are essential to new managerialism. For the focus of this study, the measurement of the performance of teachers, i.e., measurement of teaching performance and the obedience in following the prescribed methods of teaching, are essential to new managerialism in higher education.

The reduction of the cost of production, the increase of production and durability of the product are the basis of *Fordism*. Ford's focus point was to improve manufacturing techniques to produce greater numbers of products with low cost of production. The three basic elements of Ford's mass production system were accuracy (standardisation), continuity (line/series production) and speed (time of production). Due to the high level of labour turnover and the constant competition for good quality workers, inefficient employees were punished by being fired. Efficiency is central to Fordism, to achieve mass production. Intrinsically related to the concept of mass production is the concept of mass consumption. Mass production requires mass consumption (Sheldrake, 1996). Efficiency is also essential to new managerialism. For the focus of this study, efficiency of teaching is essential to new managerialism in higher education. Unfortunately, the measurement of the efficiency of teaching in higher education assumes that students are equally effective learners, i.e., efficiency of learning as an input in the teaching and learning process.

Effectiveness and quality control are the basis of *Japanization*, a Japanese-style model of management practice which empowers workers with trust in workers' decision-making and quality control and assurance of the lean production process and the product. Effectiveness and quality control is achieved by development of human resource. The development of the human resource is carried out by transforming the human resource into technical and management experts. As technology and management evolves, continuing development of human resource is needed, because 'workers are expected to switch tasks frequently and thus need to be multi-skilled' (Morley and Rassool, 1999: 42). Technical and management expertise is the basis for effectiveness and quality control in Japanization (Sheldrake, 1996). Within the quality control of the Japanese framework of management come the concepts of Total Quality Control (TQC) and Total Quality Management (TQM). Total Quality Control is characterised by monitoring the quality of the product and the process during the production, where there is a commitment to 'zero-defect', i.e. 'every process is controlled by monitoring the quality during production' (Bratton, 1992: 27). Total Quality Management is characterised by continuing improvement, self-assessment and peer review of the human resource, as Morley and Rassool (1999: 43) put it 'self-surveillance and 'Neighbour Check' monitoring' of one's performance. However, effectiveness and quality control in Japanization cannot be achieved without homogenisation of the culture of the organisation and a culture of trust between managers and workers. Homogenisation, in an organisation, is the consequence of sharing the same values, aims, beliefs and objectives, and the co-ordination of effort to achieve what is good for the organisation, i.e. the total commitment on the part of the workers and managers. The culture of trust, according to Fukuyama (1995), is

> formed not on the basis of explicit rules and regulations but out of a set of ethical habits and reciprocal moral obligations internalized by each of the community's members. These rules or habits [give] members of the community grounds for trusting one another. (...). [It is] not based on narrow economic self-interest (Fukuyama, 1995: 9).

According to him, trust also permits a wide variety of social relationships to emerge. The culture of trust facilitates stability, collaboration and cohesion between workers and managers. This is very important to teaching and learning in higher education. Teachers need to trust and be trusted by their managers, politicians, and society in general, and by

their main partners – students – to collaborate and co-operate in the interaction of teaching and learning. Without trust between teachers and students there is no learning.

Another important characteristic of the Japanese management style is the 'life-time employment system' (Cool and Lengnick-Hall, 1985: 13), a system which easily helps employees to move from compliance to commitment, because a life job demands a life commitment. Fukuyama (1995) mentions that a life-time employment contract is an agreement between the workers and the company, in which workers have an internalised sense of loyalty and moral obligation to provide the company with their best efforts, because the company looks after their long-term welfare. This reciprocal moral obligation to work needs to have a high degree of trust, not only between workers and managers, but within society in general. Security and stability, these powerful characteristics of Japanization, are being reduced in the UK higher education sector. Life-time employment is no longer part of the higher education public sector, because of the increasing use of contract and part-time teachers in the sector. The bond of reciprocal obligation between the higher education sector and the government is being replaced by short-term contracts, which eliminate the sense of belonging and family like attitude that stems from them. However, the use of short-contract staff or casual staff is meant to ease the way towards homogenisation of the academic culture in higher education. As Dominelli and Hoogvelt (1996: 83) claim 'casualization gives intellectuals a precarious hold in their profession' and therefore makes it easier for the government to control the academics and their activities because it plays on academics' unemployability.

Homogenisation of culture in the academic environment is so far a difficult task to achieve, because academics and managers perceive the university in different ways. Pollitt (1990) argues that

> [t]wo categories of provider are distinguished, partly because it seems likely that their interests diverge. Although both university managers and academics no doubt seek to protect 'the university' it is by no means clear that it is the same 'university' that each is defending. Academics seek to preserve their own freedom of action - to teach and research as they see fit

(...) [and] managers, by contrast, are more concerned with preserving universities as large, powerful institutions, and with enhancing their own (...) positions within them (Pollitt, 1990: 64).

These different perceptions of universities create a division inside the universities. A division which Stephen Ball (1988: 293) called 'workers [teachers/researchers] versus managers'. A division caused by the globalisation, industrialisation, marketisation and proletarianisation of higher education and education in general (Ball, 1988, Pollitt, 1990, Kirkpatrick et al., 1996, Randle and Brady, 1997, Troman, 2000).

As I argued earlier, new managerialism was introduced in the higher education sector because of the government's concerns with its performance. In the views of the UK government, the higher education sector had not been responding sufficiently and effectively to the needs of British industries and commerce (DES, 1987). Putting it bluntly and crudely in the words of Shore & Wright (1999: 563), 'universities were accused of having failed the economy'. Burrage (1993) mentions that failure was the keyword of the concern of the government with the British educational system's response to national economic needs. According to him, the British educational system failed 'to provide industrially relevant skills and qualifications' (ibid.: 140), i.e., failed the economy. New managerialism, by providing the public sector with a 'new system of authority', a 'new mode of control' (Newman and Clarke, 1994: 16), a 'new control system' (Newman and Clarke, 1994: 20) and 'new forms of control' (Flynn, 2000: 34), by ''moving employees' relationships from compliance to commitment' (ibid.: 19) and by promising 'to create a homogeneous and shared culture which binds all workers to the pursuit of corporate objectives' (ibid.: 19), would challenge its old structures of management and provide it with a new sense of direction and purpose. It would revive and rescue the public sector from its failure.

Effectiveness and quality control are also essential to new managerialism. For the focus of this study, effectiveness and quality control of teaching performance is essential to new managerialism in higher education. New managerialism is applied to teaching and learning in higher education through the prescriptions of how students learn best and good teaching practice, such as the *Strategies for learning and teaching*

in higher education: A guide to good practice (HEFCE, 2001a) and *Learning from subject review 1993-2001: Sharing good practice* (QAA, 2003), which assume that effectiveness and quality control of teaching performance will result in effective and quality learning. Raban (2007) argues that the improvement of teaching and learning and the dissemination of good practice are important in higher education and that management can provide the intelligence and stimulus for quality in the teaching and learning process in higher education. It seems to me that for Raban, quality in the teaching and learning process is achieved through standardisation and homogenisation of the teaching and learning practices.

C. Power in new managerialism: 'new mode of control' of academics' work

Following the 'ideology' of new mangerialism (Deem and Brehony, 2005), workers and departments are meant to be empowered, by becoming managers of their own tasks and performance, responsibilities, budgets, targets and results. The corporate objectives of the higher education sector, for the focus of this research will be teaching and learning in the classroom. Here important questions deserve attention: How can commitment to teaching and learning be obtained in teachers and students, the workers in the classroom, in higher education? How can homogeneity of teaching and learning styles, culture of teaching and learning, perceptions, conceptions, objectives, aims, and purposes be obtained in the environment of the classroom, in higher education? Homogeneity in the classroom environment seems to me to be a difficult task, because one size cannot fit all. My study has demonstrated that the classroom in higher education is a diverse environment where different teachers and students try to work towards learning, not always succeeding. My study provides evidence that students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education vary, as quality teaching in higher education means different things to individual students: what is good quality teaching for some is not for others.

Teachers, in higher education, became empowered by becoming managers with the advent of new managerialism. According to Deem (1998), based on her knowledge,

experience, examination and research of the financial crisis which affected Lancaster University in the UK in mid-1995, which was aggravated by a shortage of resources, new managerialism is replacing the organisational structures and staff relationships in the pre-1992 universities in the UK. Amongst them, she claims, new managerialism is replacing the 'collegiality of academics of equal status working together with minimal hierarchy and maximum trust, and the rather 'hands-off' but also 'gentlemanly' governance practices which were once widespread in [the higher education sector]' (Deem, 1998: 48), with 'requirements for hard data and business plans and (...) increasing[ly] internal and external demands for more form-filling and bureaucratic consistency in procedures' (ibid.: 65), and 'control and regulation of academic labour' (ibid.: 52). She argues that academics are being deprofessionalised, where their professional autonomy, collegiality, discretion and professionalism are gradually being eroded, by moving considerations of academic freedom to ones of academic performance.

Academics (teachers and researchers) are being deprofessionalised and reprofessionalised by new managerialism, under the pressure of the three Ms: managerialism, marketisation and massification of higher education (Tapper and Palfreyman, 2000), as managers and chief executives and, above all, as competitors between themselves. Teachers are meant to manage their courses, finance, curricula, topics, teaching performance, learning activities and resources, student learning and learning result. Sometimes, even the management of the individual budget becomes one of the tasks of teachers. Teachers have assumed an 'atomistic role' by becoming 'part of the causal [management] chain' (Smith, 1999: 320-321). Teachers 'live in a world of numbers, office hours and competition for limited resources' (Culley et al., 1985: 12). Teaching in the classroom now represents only one part of teachers' work in higher education as teachers, among others such as: generating grants, supervising and pastoral care (advising and emotional management) (Thornton, 2001b, 2001a); form-filling and bureaucratic procedures (Deem, 1998); research and consultancy (Deem, 2001); planning, administration and work with parents and the community (Troman, 2000); selling courses and knowledge (Trowler, 1998, Fox, 1999); and budget managing. For example at the Institute of Education – University of London, teachers have their agenda filled with scholarly and research activities, including: writing articles, preparing

research grant proposals, peer review of journals; editorship of an international peer reviewed journal, membership of Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) panel; consultancy; conferences; teaching; continuous professional development (CPD); research student supervision; and committee commitments (Institute of Education, 2006).

Teachers are seen as 'production workers' (Beckman and Cooper, 2004: 5) and 'process worker[s] whose work is controlled by the process itself' (Smith, 1999: 320). Rust (1985) argues that management, in a technicist sense, is an essential feature of the classroom, where every teacher is a manager and every classroom is a micro-organisation. Reynolds (1997), adding to this technicist sense of management in the classroom, suggests that teaching is a technology, and that improving this technology will result in more education for more students. According to Brehony and Deem (2005: 401) '[t]he personal qualities that formerly reflected a 'good' teacher have been replaced by an increasing emphasis on the technical competencies associated with managerial and bureaucratic roles'. In this technicist sense, teaching and learning in the classroom are seen as 'sequenced activities' (Smith, 1999: 320), in which learning is a result of teaching, and not the product of the interaction between teachers and students in the classroom. New managerialism publicises a sanitized and clinical view of the teaching and learning process in higher education ignoring the 'contextual' (Walker, 2001a: 192) and 'intrinsic' (Nixon et al., 1997: 15) complexities of the teaching and learning process. According to Ellsworth (1997), teaching is not normalizable because where, when and how it happens are undecidable, and this is what then prevents it from being a skill or a technology.

At the same time, according to Power (1994: 23), in this ideology, power is meant to shift 'from professionals to the public, from experts to stakeholders', i.e., producers are to be controlled (have their power and autonomy reduced) and consumers are to be empowered. Fergusson (1994: 95) mentions that one of the features of new managerialism is the 'dismantling of the power base held in the name of professionalism, or specialist or elite knowledge'. Clarke et al. (1994: 9) say that 'a central issue in the managerialization of public services has been the concerted effort to

displace or subordinate the claims of professionalism'. However, one of the features of new managerialism is to empower mangers and consumers, and teachers in higher education are considered to be managers. In other words, power is to be re-distributed, where all are to be empowered: providers (through horizontal management) and consumers (through information and choice). And in the case of higher education, teachers and students are to be empowered. Now the question is: if this empowerment is really happening, to what extent can the empowered provider and the empowered consumer relate to one another in a "balanced" way?

Power (1994) expresses his concern about empowerment, about whether it is really happening to the agents which it is intended to serve. As a way of controlling these decentralised activities of some public services, auditing became the mechanism of power utilised by governments to centrally control the market-based activities of these services. A pervasive mechanism which 'works not on primary activities but rather on other systems of control', i.e. 'control of control' (Power, 1994: 19) ritualised through compliance. According to him, based on the works of Poster (1990) and Baudrillard (1983), this control of control means that

> [w]hat is subject to inspection is the auditee's own system for self monitoring rather than real practices of the auditee. What is audited is whether there is a system which embodies standards and the standards of performance themselves are shaped by the need to be auditable. In this way, the existence of a system is more significant for audit purposes than what the system is; audit becomes a formal 'loop' by which the system observes itself (Power, 1994: 36-37).

In new managerialism, power is self-created because it creates and re-creates itself, where surveillance and internalised surveillance form a vicious circle. Cameron (2003: 133) comments that '[teachers] are regulated within an inch of [their] miserable lives'. In Foucault's (1991b) terms a downwards line of governmentality transmits to individual behaviour the same principles as the good government of the state and the capillary mechanism of power 'reaches into the very grain of individuals, touches their bodies and inserts itself into their actions and attitudes, their discourses, learning processes and everyday lives' (Foucault, 1980b: 39). Teachers by being 'empowered' as

managers have to internalise the rules, systems and techniques of new managerialism. By internalising them, teachers become the bodies of auditing themselves, because they are meant to be shaped by the need to be auditable. The embodiment of auditing can only happen if teachers move their relationships towards new managerialism, from compliance to commitment. That means that teachers will have to have internalised the rules, values and norms of the new managerialism, and new managerialism will have to become their aspiration, purpose, aim and objective, because it will become their ideology and ideal.

Teachers' compliance with new managerialism has already fragmented their professional identities, because teachers are now not only teachers and researchers, but also managers. And Rowland (2006: 62) adds to this list 'learning technologist, academic developers, multimedia specialists and learning managers'. In my view, this fragmentation of teachers, and of teaching as well, will bring consequences not only for teachers' identities, but also for teaching and learning in the classroom. Therefore, students will also be affected by the fragmentation of the professional identities of their teachers. According to Rowland (2002, 2004, 2006) the relationship between teacher and students and the forms of communication between them have been changing as the student casts him/herself as customer/client/consumer and the teacher as service deliverer. On the reprofessionalisation of teaching and teachers, Ozga (2000), based on the work of Menter et al. (1997), mentions that one of the consequences of new managerialism is that teachers have to deal with the consequences of the fragmentation of their professional identities. The fragmentation of the professional identity of teachers happens because of the covert coercion, embedded in new managerialism, which becomes internalised and demands that the responses from teachers should be internalised as well. To move teachers and researchers from compliance to commitment means eliminating teachers' space for resistance, because in compliance there is still space for resistance at any time, and in commitment there is no space for resistance at all. The transition from compliance to commitment can have an impact on teachers' psychological and physiological beings as any change is stressful.

D. Teachers and stress in higher education

According to a report by the University and College Union (UCU) (2006), nearly 62 per cent of UK academics have considered quitting Britain to work overseas and 52 per cent have considered leaving academia altogether. The report highlights that bureaucracy, an overwhelming workload, poor management and external interference are the main reasons for these feelings among academics, and almost half of the academics in the poll have suffered ill health because of their job. This report reinforces the findings of Blackburn et al. (1986) that faculty satisfaction is declining and stress in colleges and universities is increasing; Brown et al. (1986) and Gmelch et al. (1986) that time constraints and relationships with people (including students), amongst others, are the main listed source of stress among academics; and Kinman et al. (2006) that job insecurity, stress, poor prospects for promotion, lack of respect and recognition, long working hours, work overload and conflicting job roles and demands placed on teachers by UK government policy for widening participation have not improved in the period 1998-2004. However, Shor (1992) states that teachers thrive on responses to their labours, and silent classes weaken their morale, because without lively student participation, teachers risk declining into burnout year by year. Here, one can see that it is not only the relationship with students that makes teachers stressed, but also the lack of it. Trowler (1998) reported examples of how the demands and pressures of academic and administrative work are impacting on academics' health and stress levels. Tysome (2006) reported that union leaders are complaining of rising workloads and stress levels due to the rapid increase in student numbers in higher education, the student-to-staff ratio sometimes being as high as 46:1 in the UK. Trowler (1998) found that many of his respondents pointed out that time constraint (class contact time/teaching time) is one of the areas of concern among academics, as there is not enough time for assimilation of knowledge and/or skills. Lucas and Webster (1998) reported that at Oxford Brookes University the teaching time had reduced by as much as 50 per cent between 1984 and 1994.

Some research has shown disagreement as to whether teaching/teaching load is a dimension of stress. On the one hand, Gmelch et al. (1984) stated that academics

reported a higher mean stress score for the teaching scale than for either the research or service indexes. On the other hand, Blackburn and Bentley (1993) claimed that teaching can be inaccurately interpreted as a stress factor in academic life, as academics ritualistically must complain about their teaching load and can feel obliged to identify it as a source of stress when in fact it may not be one of the principal causes. However, Hargreaves (1998b) argues that teaching is an emotional practice and that it involves immense amounts of emotional labour, and that teaching and learning involve 'emotional understandings' (ibid.: 838) which control our perceptions and reactions to our emotions. As teaching is both an emotional practice and labour, it is possible that it could be a source of stress for some teachers. Shaw (1995: 68) argues that teaching is a very draining, enervating activity, associated with an 'imagery of being 'drained' or 'eaten up' which expresses just how much of oneself has to be 'given' in the teaching relationship'. According to her,

> When teaching is done well, it is particularly difficult to identify and disentangle the contribution of the teacher from the contribution of the pupil or student. For, as with the baby, there is an important confusion or illusion which leads the pupil to experience as their own achievement some of the effort of the teacher. This illusion can be very debilitating for teachers and is one of the reasons why teaching can be such a depressing occupation. The better teaching is done, the harder it is to see one's product, and it takes a fair degree of emotional maturity to be able to bear this for years on end. But this blurring of what comes from the teacher and what comes from the student is also the reason why teaching may be understood as a 'transitional space' (Shaw, 1995: 92).

The complexity in which teaching is involved and the complexity involved in teaching 'can generate real challenge, and even stress, but they are in principle manageable, if only one had more resources' (Barnett, 2000: 415).

E. New managerialism: a conflicting discourse

New managerialism presented the public sector with a 'messianic' (Flynn, 1997: 4) like, redemptive, 'inspirational' (Newman and Clarke, 1994: 19) and 'ideological' (Newman and Clarke, 1994: 20) rhetoric, with a technicist language, which would

evangelically redeem the public sector from its sins. Like Jesus Christ, the mission of new managerialism was to 'save' (Flynn, 1997: 4) the public sector from its failure – in the case of this study, the higher education sector, and in terms of the focus of this study, the teaching and learning process in higher education. Higher education would have to renounce its past to achieve redemption in the eyes of the government by renouncing its archaic, parochial and selfish ways of teaching, researching etc. Flynn (1997) mentions that, by renouncing its old ways and following the messianic good intentions of governments, higher education will be saved if it becomes a learner, focuses on customers, becomes entrepreneurial, empowers its staff, re-engineers its business process, makes itself into a network organization or even installs a better costing system. Re-engineering is an example of such technicist language of this messianic-like, redemptive, inspirational and ideological rhetoric of new managerialism, in which it means 'doing things differently' (Flynn, 1997: 2). New managerialism's rhetoric is 'expressed in the discourse of values, people, empowerment, customers, quality and so on' (Newman and Clarke, 1994: 20), a discourse of conflict, tensions, contestation, unpredictability, uncertainty, or maybe even a discourse of impossibility of what the end product of teaching and learning will be. Clarke et al. (2000) say that the discourse of new managerialism is an unstable discourse, one that is emergent, beset with tensions and the focus of conflict and contestation, and it is therefore impossible to predict with any certainty what the outcomes will be.

However, it is an 'active' and 'outward-looking' discourse (Newman, 2000: 47). A discourse of modernisation and innovation which will challenge the old, the parochial and the bureaucratic assumptions and practices in the higher education sector. A discourse made of a cutting edge business/management/accountancy technical language. A discourse which uses progressive aspect verbs, indicating that the action is in progress and is ongoing. A discourse in which the verbs not only indicate the dynamics of the actions, but seduce, invite, captivate, liberate, enable, give hope, and offer a sense of assurance, security, unity, inclusion, trust and belief. Newman (2000: 47) on her reading of the front cover of the leaflet *Modernising Government*, highlights the series of images of public service action surrounded by text which reads: 'developing... involving... delivering... listening... supporting... helping... engaging' (Cabinet

Office, 1999: cover). She deconstructs the modernising discourse of the public sector reform embedded in new managerialism, describing it as

> a discourse which sets out an agenda for change across different sectors (health, education, [etc]) It also denotes a wider political transformation, involving the reform of key relationships in the economy, state and civil society. It offers a particular conception of citizen (empowered as active, participating subjects); of work (as the source of opportunity for the 'socially excluded'); of community (non-antagonistic and homogeneous); and of nation (setting out Britain's place in the changing global economy) (Newman, 2000: 47).

New managerialism has a discourse with a narrative of change that constructs itself. A narrative of change which is presented in a language that legitimises change and defines what it means. In this language change is presented as necessary, as the way forward and the solution to social problems. A change for better, but a change with flair, because it requires a reconceptualisation of individuals as economic agents responsible for their performance as professionals (Gay, 2000). A change that makes up new ways of being, which leads to status. Change in which teachers become managers and producers, and students become customers, consumers, clients, users, producers and stakeholders, as even 'public service organizations were recast in the image of the business world' (Newman, 2000: 45). Everybody becomes empowered and included in this homogeneous society. However, these narratives constructed in a language that is itself contradictory, a language full of 'paradoxical polarity' (Giddens, 1995), offering solutions to problems and at the same time creating new problems. Change has happened, but change from one problem to another, because the same narrative which proclaims decentralisation, centralises power in the hands of the government. As Dominelli and Hoogvelt (1996: 74) point out '"deregulation" in fact involve[s] a considerable amount of centralization and interference by central government'. This interference by central government is embodied in quality control, performance indicators etc., 'these regulatory codes [which] pervasively penetrate every sphere of organized human activity' (Dominelli and Hoogvelt, 1996: 75). The government's interference can be seen mainly in those public institutions in which the government has total or partial power over their finances.

The narrative of new managerialism which proclaims the individuality of workers is also the narrative that standardises the work process. In the case of higher education, teaching and learning methods are being standardised through guides prescribing how students learn best and the best practice of teaching, mentioned earlier. Teachers in higher education in the UK are required to improve the quality and standards of their teaching by learning to adopt innovative teaching styles, which are described in *Table V*, bellow, and by becoming conversant with ICT in order to improve their teaching, thereby improving the quality and standards of their students.

Table V – Innovative teaching styles

Innovative teaching styles as defined by the QAA (2003: 22-27)	
Group activities	Introduction of enquiry and action learning giving students the responsibility for their own learning.
Practical class, workshop, laboratory-based activities, industrial visits, fieldwork and group poster sessions	Encouraging independent learning.
Innovative practice	Live projects, case-studies, paired work, peer tutoring, student-led seminar, tutor-less tutorials, role plays, simulations of professional practice.
Computer-aided learning (CAL)	Tailored software packages and the use of internet-based virtual-learning environments.
Updated material	Providing sufficient intellectual challenge to students.
Seminars, group seminar teaching, small-group seminar teaching and group discussion	Providing opportunities for participation in group.
Peer discussion	Providing regular opportunities for students to develop their communication skills.
Independent learning	Learning contracts, personal records of achievement, distance learning packages, ICT, use of IT, logs and journals, reflect critically on their progress, portfolios of skills attainment, negotiated learning agreements, student-managed project work, dissertation or major project.

These "innovative" teaching styles, which are meant to represent and embody quality teaching and learning in higher education in the UK, are based on students' interaction, i.e. peer, pair and group work; independent learning; CAL; and up-dated material. These "innovative" teaching styles have been practised by critical and feminist

pedagogy since the late 1960s (Shor, 1980, 1987, Shor and Freire, 1987, Luke and Gore, 1992, Shor, 1992, Gore, 1993, Freire, 1994, McLaren, 1995, Shaw, 1995, Freire, 1996, Luke, 1996, Shor, 1996, Ellsworth, 1997, McLaren and Farahmandpur, 1999, Freire, 2000). There is nothing innovative in them, apart from ICT and IT which came into play in the teaching and learning process in the 1980s (Lyotard, 1989) and nowadays they are used to enhance classroom teaching or to substitute for teachers (Duvall and Schwartz, 2000).

It seems, according to the White Paper (DES, 2003), that in order to improve the quality of students' learning, teachers first have to improve their own teaching skills. Therefore, teachers appear to be held responsible for the quality of teaching and learning in higher education. By putting pressure and making demands on teachers in higher education, the White Paper appears to be saying that good quality learning derives from good quality teaching. This idea that good teaching produces good learning implicitly assumes that two distinct groups – teachers and students – are themselves homogenous, whereas in practice these groups are diverse in their own natures. There is an implicit belief behind the government's policies that all students respond to teachers' teaching in the same way, and therefore, if teachers improve the quality of their teaching, then the quality of student learning will also improve as a result.

The same narrative, which proclaims empowerment, induces compliance and domination through commitment to the system. In the case of higher education, teachers, researchers and management commit to accountability. The same narrative which proclaims inclusion, practises exclusion by homogenising teachers and students in the classroom, and homogenising teaching and learning and pedagogical practices and activities in the classroom in higher education. Narratives which do not take into consideration the 'wicked issues' (Newman, 1998: 370, 2000: 53), issues of gender, race, sexuality, class, religion, nationality etc., which constitute a multicultural society, homogenise communities and citizens in society in general. These narratives, by homogenising communities and citizens, may very well prevent discourses of differences from being elaborated, in the name of raising standards. Newman and

Clarke (1994) points out that new managerialism has opened up new ways of articulating and legitimating meanings and power, because it has been used to discount some claims to power, as well as creating a field of conflict in which new routes to legitimate claims have arisen. It has shifted rather than abolished the potential for attempts to articulate power and interests through meaning – ideological or cultural struggles continue in a new contested domain.

The language of the discourse, in the rhetoric of new managerialism, is based on competing definitions, meanings, struggles and articulated interests. This competitive diversity opened up space for contestation from different groups and minorities, as well as for potential new alliances of interests to be explored and developed (Newman and Clarke, 1994). However, new managerialism can neutralise and displace conflicts of power between different social, political, and economic agendas, and between the requirements of different stakeholders (Newman, 2000). This neutralisation and displacement of conflicts can trigger adverse consequences of various kinds and originate resistance from minorities. All this rhetoric of new managerialism can be taken seriously as a 'significant motivating force' (Newman and Clarke, 1994: 20) guiding managers and employees towards 'self-actualization' (Maslow, 1978), or it can be approached with 'cynicism and dismay' (Newman and Clarke, 1994: 20). Some teachers/researchers would find that new managerialism in higher education has offered them a real opportunity for pedagogy, the opportunity to teach students critical thinking, and also has empowered them by 'offering opportunities for promotion, development' (Morley, 2002d, seminar) etc. Others would find that new mangerialism in higher education has not offered them any space for critical and radical engagement with the 'liberation' (Shor, 1992, Gore, 1993, Freire, 1994, Giddens, 1995, 1996, 2000) and 'emancipation' (Giroux and Shannon, 1997, Giroux, 2001) from inequalities. For them, the real issues of social justice and equality are eliminated from teaching and learning practice in the government's guides to prescribed teaching and learning methods. Therefore they feel disempowered and excluded from the decision-making process relating to teaching and learning in the classroom in higher education.

F. Summary

In this chapter, I have examined new managerialism and its impact on the public services, focusing on the higher education sector. I have examined the new systems of power that new managerialism created in higher education, where compliance and commitment become a means of domination. I have looked at definitions of new managerialism, mainly focusing on its meaning for higher education, and its inheritance from Taylorism, Fordism and Japanization. I have also examined the discourse of new managerialism and its language as a form of control and compliance, a language which promises to redeem the higher education sector, and the connection between new managerialism and teaching and learning in higher education. As I have been arguing, new managerialism in higher education placed the business of higher education, i.e. teaching and learning and research, under suspicion and surveillance. Performance, efficiency and effectiveness of teaching and learning are assessed in a "homogenised" way in the diverse academic environment such as the UK higher education system.

Homogenisation of the teaching and learning process in higher education is promoted by the best practice discourse of quality for teaching and learning in higher education, such as guides to good practice. Ozga (2000) maintains that new managerialism depends entirely on standardisation, uniformity and homogeneity of performance in order to permit its mechanisms of auditing and benchmarking to work. Homogenisation of content and the standardisation of pedagogies have made teaching an unattractive profession, because the processes have stripped teaching of its intellectual challenge. The homogenisation of content has serious implications for new managerialism because it eliminates competition from the environment in which new managerialism should flourish. The standardisation of pedagogic practices has a more serious implication for new managerialism because it eliminates the space for issues of equality. Trow (1994b, 1994a) points to the inherent problems associated with accountability of teaching in higher education, contending that the fundamental difficulty of trying to assess teaching lies in the assumption that teaching is one kind of activity, and excellence in teaching is one kind of excellence.

Homogenising under excellence in the teaching and learning process means that uniqueness is described in exactly the same way (Readings, 1999) in order to be assessed, because excellence overcomes other concerns and aims. According to Readings (1999), excellence is rapidly becoming the watch-word of the university, and to understand the university as a contemporary institution requires some reflection on what the appeal to excellence may, or may not, mean. New managerialism eliminates the space for and the possibility of diversity in the teaching and learning process in higher education, and produces inequalities. It also does not recognise disciplinary differences in the teaching and learning process in higher education, as excellence becomes a common denominator across disciplines, because excellence masquerades as a neutral word. It is presented as a popular word beyond criticism, 'after all who [w]ould want anything less?' (Clegg, 2007: 92). According to Clegg (2003: 808) 'much of the new language of higher education pedagogy appears to downplay the significance of discipline- and subject-based differences'. As David (2007: 687) argues, 'it is clear that there are a diversity of forms of 'knowledge' and knowledge transfer, as well as forms of learning'. There is, now, evidence that teachers' approaches to teaching are affected by the discipline and the context of teaching (Lindblom-Ylänne et al., 2006).

New managerialism, however, reconstructed students as customers/consumers in higher education, and as customers they exercise choice in higher education. I will address some MA students' choices and preferences in the teaching and learning process in chapter VI. My argument is that as the student body is diverse in higher education, its perceptions of the quality of teaching are diverse as well. It is rather difficult to reconcile diversity and equality in the discourse of new managerialism in relation to teaching and learning in higher education, because learning is not an automatic product of teaching. Learning is not a result, but a process. It can also be a lifelong process. Therefore, the establishment of what good teaching is, or what it is meant to be, cannot be achieved because students will perceive good teaching in different ways, i.e. what is good teaching for some will not be good teaching for others.

Chapter III

The debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education

In the previous two chapters, I explored the political, socio-economic and ideological environment in which the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education is taking place. In this chapter, I examine the tensions within the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education. I also analyse students' and teachers' perceptions and conceptions of teaching and learning and their relationship to the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education.

A. Tensions in the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education

Tensions exist in the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education. On the one hand, Ellis (1995a: 4) argues that 'there are no laws and precious few theories linking teaching and learning'. In other words, there is no direct link between teaching and learning. This claim separates teaching from learning, by establishing the individuality of teaching, and also the individuality of learning. Biggs (1999: 2) supports this claim by asserting that teaching is individual and that 'there is no single, all-purpose best method of teaching'. Teachers have to adjust their teaching to the subject matter and resources, to the weaknesses and strengths of their own teaching, and to students. Andrews et al. (1996) highlighted the complexity of teaching and its often idiosyncratic process. On the other hand, Ramsden (1996: 6, 2003: 8) argued that teaching and learning in higher education are 'inextricably and elaborately linked'. That is, teaching and learning relate to each other and are entwined. This means that teaching affects learning and learning affects teaching in the classroom. According to Smith (1999) teaching and learning in the classroom are seen as sequenced activities, in which learning is a result of teaching. If that is true, then the following questions need to be

addressed. What are students' preferences of teaching styles? What reasons (perceptions and beliefs) lie behind student choice or preference for some teaching styles?

The preceding paragraph gives us two contradictory, opposed and competing views of teaching and learning in higher education. If those views are expressed by writers and researchers in higher education, they probably reflect the views of teachers as well. Taking into consideration both positions, one starts to wonder whether teaching and learning are individual and unconnected, or teaching and learning are intertwined. There exists a vast amount of research into teaching and learning in higher education aimed at the improvement of the quality of teaching, such as Trigwell and Prosser (1996), the quality of learning, such as Trigwell and Prosser (1991), and the quality of teaching and learning in higher education, such as Kember and Wong (2000). These studies focus on the cognitive aspect of teaching and learning. They are studies aimed at identifying conceptions, orientations and approaches to teaching and learning and their implications for quality improvement and assurance, from the perspectives of teachers, students, or both.

1. *Students' and teachers' perceptions and conceptions of learning and their relationship to the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education*

Chambers (1992) suggested that a belief lies behind all the work in relation to students' approach to learning, that the 'quality of learning is profoundly affected by the *approach* to learning that student[s] tak[e]' (ibid., 1992: 142, author's emphasis), and that the approach of students to learning can be affected by the quality of teaching and by methods of assessment. Chambers' assertions mirror those of Birenbaum (1997), Scouller (1998), Gibbs (1992) and Biggs (1999, 2003), in relation to assessment methods and student approaches to learning/studying. These studies all claim that there is no association between the surface learning approach and good performance in assessments. Marton and Säljö (1997) drew a similar conclusion from work that observed and described, in as much detail as possible, what characterises deep and

surface approaches to learning. The dichotomy deep/surface orientations and approaches to learning are defined in *Figure 1*, on the following page.

Figure 1: Orientations/approaches to learning definitions

Deep Orientations/Approaches to Learning

The above approach sees students as seeking meaning and understanding of the subject or material learned (Trigwell and Prosser, 1991). It arises from feelings within students such as the need-to-know, the desire to understand, the desire to make sense of themselves and the world around them, and their curiosity and intrinsic motivation (Biggs, 1999, 2003, Biggs and Tang 2007). It is related to higher quality learning outcomes. That is, higher quality and standards of learning (Trigwell and Prosser, 1991, Trigwell et al., 1999, Marton and Säljö, 1976a).

Surface Orientations/Approaches to Learning

This model is one in which students attempt to learn in order to reproduce the subject or material learned (Trigwell and Prosser, 1991), or carry out the learning task (Marton et al., 1996). It arises from the intention to get a task out of the way (for example, a summative assessment: test or essay) with minimum trouble, while appearing to meet requirements (Biggs, 1999, 2003, Biggs and Tang 2007). It is related to lower quality learning outcomes – that is, lower quality and lower standards of learning (Trigwell and Prosser, 1991, Trigwell et al., 1999, Marton and Säljö, 1976a).

Relating ideas Orientations/Approaches to Learning

This proposes that students try to see connections between previously studied and current learning material (Trigwell and Prosser, 1991). They try to relate new ideas to real life situations and to integrate the subject into the whole, and to see the task in question in a wider perspective. It is a strategic approach.

Achieving Orientations/Approaches to Learning

This approach is based upon a particular form of extrinsic motive: the ego enhancement that comes out of visibly achieving, in particular through high grades (Biggs, 1999, 2003, Biggs and Tang 2007). The related strategies refer to organising time, working space, and syllabus coverage in the most cost-effective way (usually as 'study skills').

Passive Orientations/Approaches to Learning

This is where students see all non-traditional teaching in a negative light, because it challenges their desire to act as passive receivers of knowledge (Kember and Wong, 2000). The conception of passive learning is located under conceptions that are teacher-centred, related to the transmitting, acquiring, absorbing, accumulating and memorising of knowledge and information.

Active Orientations/Approaches to Learning

Kember and Wong (2000) did not provide a definition of what active learning. In my understanding active learning occurs when students act to change the learning environment. This is where student engagement is self-regulated, and to a certain extent controlled by teachers, otherwise it would not represent a formal education setting within the meaning of higher education. I have placed this conception under the conceptions that are student-centred, related to 'participation in the pedagogic experience' (Bruce and Gerber, 1995) (See *Table VI*, column G, in this chapter).

Marton and Säljö (1997) concluded that on the one hand, it is fairly easy to influence the approach people adopt when learning. On the other, it appears very difficult to influence the approach people adopt when learning. They argued that it is relatively easier to induce students to adopt a surface approach, and, therefore, enhance their tendency to take a reproductive attitude when learning, than induce them to adopt a deep approach to learning. This difficulty, according to them, seems to be profound. Chambers' (1992) and Marton's and Säljö's (1997) arguments point to the direction of the Achilles heel of the debate about quality of teaching and learning in higher education. To what extent are student approaches to learning induced by the approaches of teachers to teaching, or a wider social context? And to what extent are teachers' approaches to teaching influencing student approaches to learning in the classroom in higher education?

Eklund-Myrskog (1998) investigated student conceptions of learning in different educational contexts, by researching two different student groups. The groups were of student nurses and student mechanics. She identified five different conceptions of learning among the nurses, and four among the mechanics. Four of them were similar. Her categories of the students' conceptions of learning almost exactly match Säljö's (1979) categories of the conceptions of learning (see *Table VI*, on the following pages), with two simple differences. First, her conception four would have to be moved to five, to follow the order of Säljö. Second, she would have to unpick the meaning of 'getting a new perspective', in order to align with Säljö (see *Table VI*, columns D and E).

Table VI - Conceptions of learning

Author(s)	Held by	Conceptions of Learning						
		A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**	**G**
Säljö (1979), also quoted in Marton and Säljö (1997: 55), and Trigwell and Prosser (1996: 275-6)	Students	Increase of knowledge	Memorising	Acquisition of facts, procedures, which can be retained or utilised in practice	Abstraction of meaning	Interpretative process aimed at understanding reality		
Marton et al. (1993)	Students	Increasing one's knowledge	Memorising and reproducing	Applying	Understanding	Seeing something in a different way	Changing as a person	
Bruce and Gerber (1994), quoted in Franz et al. (1996: 338)	Teachers	Applying academic skills	Acquiring new knowledge	Cognitive experience	Developing professional competence and the capacity to learn		Changing personal attitudes, beliefs or behaviour	Learning as an object of study
Bruce and Gerber (1995)	Teachers	Acquiring knowledge through the use of study skills in the preparation of assessment tasks	Absorbing new knowledge and the ability to explain and apply it	Developing thinking skills and the ability to reason	Developing the competencies of beginning professionals		Changing personal attitudes, beliefs, or behaviours in responding to different phenomena	Participating in the pedagogic experience
Franz et al. (1996)	Students and Teachers	Doing what the lecturer expects	Memorisation	Understanding	Developing professional competence including the capacity to minimise risk	Viewing the world from different perspectives	Personal change in attitude, beliefs and behaviour	Learning about learning, where learning is the object of study

Table VI - Conceptions of learning (continuation)

Author(s)	Held by	Conceptions of Learning						
		A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**	**G**
Trigwell and Prosser (1996)	Teachers	Accumulating more information to satisfy external demands	Acquiring concepts to satisfy external demands	Acquiring concepts to satisfy internal demands		Conceptual development to satisfy internal demands	Conceptual change to satisfy internal demands	
Eklund-Myrskog (1998)	Students		Remembering and keeping something in mind	Understanding	Applying knowledge based on understanding	Getting a new perspective	Forming a conception of one own	
Kember and Wong (2000)	Students	Passive						Active
Biggs and Collis (1982) The SOLO Taxonomy[1], also quoted in Boulton-Lewis (1995: 147; 1998: 209); Hattie and Purdie (1998: 146); Biggs (1992: 3-6; 1999: 38-9)	Students	Prestructural as no idea of the subject or topic	Unistructural as remembering information	Multistructural as understanding and applying	Relational as personal growth and great understanding	Extended abstract as making sense of one's world		

[1] Biggs and Collis (1982) The SOLO Taxonomy represent levels of the structure of observed learning outcomes. They are not conceptions of learning. The introduction of the SOLO Taxonomy in this table highlights the possibility of a relationship between the SOLO Taxonomy and conceptions of learning. The SOLO Taxonomy is cumulative, progressive and cyclical. As students develop and learn more about the discipline, they move through the levels in a cyclical fashion. The conceptions of learning are not cyclical.

Eklund-Myrskog (1998) found that the differences among students in relation to conceptions of learning within the programmes were smaller than the differences in conception among students participating in different programmes. She found that the closer the contexts were to one another, the larger the overlap, and that the influence of the educational context was thus more obvious between the programmes than within them. She also found that some student conceptions of learning represented qualitative views of learning at the beginning of their courses, and that they maintained those views to the end. She further found that some students' conceptions of learning represented quantitative views of learning at the beginning of their courses, and that they had changed their views from quantitative to qualitative by the end of their courses. Furthermore, some students' conceptions of learning represented quantitative views of learning at the beginning of their courses, and that they maintained these views to the end of their courses. She suggested that it seemed that during the educational programmes, some students abandoned their quantitative view of learning in favour of a qualitative view. Students realised the importance of understanding and related learning to a greater extent to themselves. She concluded that the trend of development found within the programmes thus showed that student conceptions of learning were influenced by their educational experiences, and that the quality of those experiences was contextually based. If student conceptions of learning are influenced by their educational experiences, and the quality of those experiences is contextually based, what implications has Eklund-Myrskog's conclusion for the establishment of quality of teaching and learning in higher education? Is there a possibility of establishing a common determinator and a denominator for quality of teaching and learning in higher education?

Trigwell and Prosser (1991) carried out two studies that focused on the relationship between qualitative differences in learning outcomes, perceptions/evaluations of the learning environment and approaches to study. In the first, they explored the relationship between approaches to study, evaluations of the learning environment, and qualitative and quantitative differences in learning outcomes. They identified that a high quality approach to learning is one in which students indicated that they were adopting deeper and more relational approaches rather than surface approaches. They also identified that inventories for researching the approaches

of students to learning have emphasised that these approaches are related to students and the contexts in which they find themselves. Teaching and the nature of the particular course are part of that context. They concluded that a danger existed in attempting to maximise strategies that were expected to lead to meaningful learning if the effects of those strategies were overwhelmed by other factors affecting the approach to learning. In the second study, they focused on student perceptions of the learning environment and its relationship to approaches to study and qualitative differences in learning outcomes. The results suggested that student perceptions of high workload and assessment aimed at rote learning were associated with students adopting a surface approach, which is consistent with Biggs' (1999, 2003) and Diseth's (2007) findings. Trigwell and Prosser (1991) claimed that their second study supported the first study in identifying students who perceived that the teaching concerned was good, that there were clear goals, and some independence in learning – all of which led to a deep approach to learning resulting in a higher quality of learning. They also contended that their second study showed that a relating idea approach (see *Figure 1*, in this chapter, for definition) was more closely related to course perceptions than was a deep approach.

Relating ideas approach/orientation to learning, established by Trigwell and Prosser (1991), mirrors the achieving approach/orientation to learning established by Biggs (1989). I consider these two new classifications to be attempts at coding and classifying that 'middle' group of 'Not clear' level of processing learning that Marton and Säljö (1976b: 10) did not code and classify. Relating ideas and achieving approaches/orientations to learning represent and embody those risky attempts by cognitive psychology to fit students and teachers into a fixed category in order to avoid having to deal with multiple complexities. It is interesting to observe that later on, Biggs (1989) and Trigwell and Prosser (1991), abandoned their projects and returned to the powerful but controllable deep/surface dichotomy, which is far from offering any scientifically convincing characterisation and description of human cognitive ability and behaviour.

Trigwell and Prosser (1991) claimed that the success of implemented ideas for interventions to improve quality of learning depended largely on the extent to which

consideration was given to two important factors. First, their work, and that of Meyer and Dunne (1990), suggests that it is the environment as perceived by the student, not necessarily the objective environment, which relates to the approach to learning. According to Trigwell and Prosser (1991), it may not be sufficient to introduce ideas to make the subject seem more relevant or interesting if the interest or the relevance is perceived by the lecturer, but not by the students. Second, approaches to teaching, like approaches to learning, contain two dimensions: intention and strategy. A teaching strategy such as creating an opportunity for students to ask questions is likely to be unsuccessful if the teacher's intention behind the strategy is just to be seen to be creating an opportunity, rather than to be genuinely encouraging students to ask questions. Only by having the intention of improving the quality of the learning outcome, and responding to those questions in ways that encourage deeper learning, will such strategies have any chance of succeeding. A third factor, built into their study rather than arising from it, concerns the level of intervention. Initiatives at the individual teacher level may be appropriate but, by themselves, they will not be sufficient to improve the quality of teaching and learning in higher education in the UK.

Trigwell and Ashwin (2006), in my view, in their exploratory study of situated conceptions of learning and learning environments appear to be connecting students' perceptions of the learning environment to students' approaches to learning in the sense that the learning environment is determined by the students' approach to learning and not by the teaching style of teachers. According to them, students adopting the deeper approaches to learning experience good teaching and students who adopt surface approaches to learning experience less good teaching. It is interesting to observe how they managed to establish that it is students' approaches to learning and not teachers' teaching styles that make the learning environment in the classroom conducive to good quality teaching and learning in higher education. The same connection is made by Cope and Staehr (2005: 184), who state that 'perception of learning environment has been found to be related to the approach to learning students adopt'. However, one would assume that it is our perceptions of the learning environment that influence our approaches to learning, and not our approaches to learning that influence our perceptions of the learning environment. Bartolomé (1994, 1996) argues that teachers are responsible for the learning environment in which students can empower themselves

in the classroom. Diseth (2007: 373) found that 'students' perceptions of the learning environment are important sources of approaches to learning', and according to him, the learning environment may have an influence on both the quality of learning and the level of performance of students. And Nijhuis et al. (2007) state that given that students' perceptions of the learning environment seem to influence their learning strategies, learning could be enhanced by improving the quality of various components of the learning environment.

Kember and Wong (2000), by researching the validity and reliability of students' evaluation questionnaires of good and poor teaching, investigated students' perceptions of teaching quality. Their objective was to try to determine how students perceived good and poor teaching. In interviews, they asked students to describe the types of teaching from which they had learnt most or least. Kember and Wong organised students' perceptions under another binary metaphor: active and passive orientations, conceptions and approaches to learning (see *Figure 1*, in this chapter, for definitions). The conception of passive learning is located under a conception that is teacher-centred. It is related to transmitting, acquiring, absorbing, accumulating and to memorising of knowledge and information (see *Table VI*, column A, in this chapter). They failed to provide a definition of what active learning means, leaving the task of conceptualising active learning to the reader (see *Figure 1*, for definition). Therefore, I placed the conception of active learning under the conceptions that are student-centred, related to 'participation in the pedagogic experience' (Bruce and Gerber, 1995: 445-46) (see *Table VI*, columns C to G). The dichotomy of Kember and Wong (2000) can be relatively easily compared with the deep/surface dichotomy presented in *Figure 1*. They found an element of incompatibility existing between beliefs in active learning and transmissive teaching. This is, according to them, because the students who ascribed to this conception recognised that didactic forms of teaching were necessary at times, as part of a mix with other teaching strategies, which were labelled as 'necessary teaching' (ibid.: 77). This incompatibility highlighted by them presents us, researchers into quality of teaching and learning in higher education, with a problem when trying to fit complex groups of different peoples, such as teachers and students, into a box called quality of teaching and learning in higher education. This is the problem of picking and mixing. By picking and mixing, I refer to the notion that students pick their approaches to

learning/studying, and mix their approaches with different intentions, purposes, natures, orientations and conceptions of learning. The necessary teaching of Kember and Wong is a good example of students picking and mixing in the learning process. They also mentioned that many other studies, which have involved the introduction of innovative forms of teaching, show evidence of students adapting to a new teaching style. According to Kember and Wong (2000), such students have become used to didactic forms of teaching, so they have become accustomed to behaving passively in the classroom. But eventually many recognise that the more innovative style results in better learning outcomes and so come to prefer it.

Kember and Wong (2000) stated that student resistance is often cited as a disincentive for instructors to introduce more innovative forms of teaching. Their statement reflects the findings of an early piece of research by Gow, Kember and Sivan (1992), which gave an example of how student resistance to a particular teacher's teaching style discourages teachers from trying different methods in the classroom. They include a quotation typical of the attitude of some academic staff:

> ...we do have some resistance from students which I suppose ah... students really like to have lectures, use slides, videos, overhead projection, and other aids. And then as many handouts as possible. That's what they like. That's what they feel comfortable with. If you decide that I'm not going to do it that way and then make them think, and then make them read and do some work and come back and discuss it after the lectures, they really don't like it (Gow et al., 1992: 142).

Kember and Wong (2000) claimed that their study could be interpreted as showing that student conceptions of learning could bias their rating of teaching. Those who conceived learning to be an active process were unlikely to give high ratings to purely didactic teaching. Students having a passive conception of learning were likely to be biased against teaching that required active engagement. Their assertion is biased in itself, because they favour active learning over passive learning. They argued that their latter conclusion was of greater concern because their study showed that a higher proportion of students had a passive conception of learning and their potential bias could discourage innovation in teaching. I agree that this could be one side of the case.

However, students are the ones who actually learn the topic and the subject. They know what they like and what they do not like in the learning process. Teachers are also learning, but they are learning how their teaching styles are being perceived and received, what works and what does not work in their teaching, and how their subjects are being formed, informed and reformed through their teaching practices. Kember's and Wong's (2000) latter conclusion could have a considerable impact on the assessment of the quality of teaching and learning in higher education. It establishes the relativistic characteristics of quality. That is, that quality can be perceived differently by individuals, and that individual perceptions can vary according to time, space and context. This begs the question: Can quality as a concept be applied to teaching and learning in higher education in the UK?

2. *Students' and teachers' perceptions and conceptions of teaching and their relationship to the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education*

Trigwell et al. (1994) focused their research on teachers' perceptions of these innovative teaching styles. They researched the approach of physical science teachers to teaching first-year university science students. They focused on teachers' and students' approaches to teaching (see Table VII, on the following page) and teachers' and students' conceptions of learning (see Table VI, in this chapter).

Table VII - Orientations and approaches to teaching

Author(s)	Held by	Orientations and Approaches to Teaching						
		A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**	**G**
Trigwell et al. (1994) and Trigwell and Prosser (1996)	Teachers	Teacher-focused strategy with the intention of transmitting information	Teacher-focused strategy with the intention that students acquire the concepts of the discipline	Teacher/student interaction strategy with the intention that students acquire the concepts of the discipline		Student-focused strategy aimed at students developing their conceptions	Student-focused strategy aimed at students changing their conceptions	
Trigwell et al. (1999)	Teachers	Information transmission/ Teacher-focused (ITTF)				Conceptual change/ Student-focused (CCSF)		
Hativa and Birenbaum (2000)	Students	Teacher-centred content oriented				Providing instructor	Student-centred/ learning oriented	
		Information-transmitting instructor	Clear and interesting instructor				Self-regulation promoting instructor	

They claimed that the narrow teaching focus of their research was adopted because of the growing evidence that teaching was a relational activity, and that studies of intentions of teachers should be restricted to areas with a minimum of variation. By relational activity, they meant what Ramsden (1987: 283) described as: 'the how and the what of learning as inseparable aspects of learning'. It is interesting to see how the results of these studies, which should be restricted to areas with a minimum of variation, are nowadays being generalised across the board in higher education in the UK. They are being applied, debated, sought for and assessed, under the umbrella of quality, in all areas of specialisation in higher education, completely ignoring Ramsden's (1987: 285) contention that '[w]e cannot be neutral about quality in any aspect of education; we cannot disentangle quality from content'. I would add that we cannot disentangle quality from context as well, as this study has demonstrated.

Quality became the denominator of a common good, disentangled from values and content, presenting teaching and learning as an apolitical activity and process, in which both teachers and students become homogenised in their approaches, orientations and conceptions of teaching and learning. This reflects the ideology behind quality as a social good, which is dependent on standardisation, uniformity and homogeneity of performance in order to permit the mechanisms of auditing and benchmarking to work (Ozga, 2000). In this homogenised process, teachers are teaching using 'innovative forms of teaching' (Kember and Wong, 2000: 80) and students are deeply engaged and learning from those innovative teaching styles. This reflects the assumption that excellence in teaching is one kind of excellence (Trow, 1994b, 1994a). However, Webber (2006: 453) reminds us that in higher education the 'classroom is not typically a small, intimate class with completely engaged learners'.

Trigwell et al. (1994) claimed that they did not suggest any causal relationship between approaches to teaching by teachers and approaches to learning by students. Here, one can see that research into teaching and learning in higher education does not focus on both sides of the coin – that is, the relationship between the teachers' approach to teaching and the students' approach to learning. In this study, I investigate whether there is a causal relationship between the approach of teachers to teaching and that of

students to learning. To what extent do student perceptions of the quality of teaching in higher education have an effect on the quality of their learning? Trigwell et al. mentioned that they did not find any example of teachers who used student-focused strategies to achieve their intentions of transmitting information to students. On that basis, they claimed that so long as teaching staff held transmission intentions in teaching, then student-focused strategies would be a futile and misunderstood pursuit. Could it similarly be identified in students, where their intention to learn and their strategy to learn contradict each other? To what extent do the learning intentions of students contribute to the quality of the relationship between teaching and learning? Can the intentions of teachers and their approaches to teaching *per se* be taken as criteria for quality in teaching, and consequently in learning? Are not teaching and learning based upon a relationship of some kind between teachers and students?

Trigwell et al. (1994) claimed that a loss of improvement in student learning could be caused by the rejection by teachers of some teaching strategies, because such strategies did not fit these teachers' intentions in teaching. This can significantly affect the quality of student learning. They also found that the adaptation by teachers of some teaching strategies to fit their intentions in teaching could also influence significantly the quality of student learning. If we consider teaching and learning to be based upon some kind of relationship, how would the perceptions of students of their teachers' approach to teaching and the learning intentions of students fit in these pictures offered by both their claims? They posed a hypothetical, although realistic question, during their research: 'How will a lecturer, who has an information transmission intention, react to a suggestion of having buzz-groups included in his/her lectures?' (ibid.: 83). They also gave a hypothetical answer to their question: '[s]uch an activity will take up time that could better be used transmitting the content: there is a lot to be covered' (ibid.: 83). They mentioned that this type of response was entirely reasonable if the lecturer held transmission as a conception of teaching, because time would be lost. They also mentioned that many science lecturers held that conception of teaching and perceived others to be a waste of time. Trigwell et al. (1994) used an example from Handal et al. (1990) to illustrate their point:

According to our informants, science teaching is regarded as a straightforward process of information transmission, in which the 'backbone' of the content is presented in an optimally structured way. Teaching quality seems to be judged on the basis of order, correctness and speed in the teachers' presentation. Student activity is restricted to taking down notes (Handal et al., 1990: 321, quoted in Trigwell et al., 1994: 83).

Trigwell et al. (1994) claimed that their research confirmed that there was a logical relationship between intention and strategy in teaching. And that this relationship points out to academic developers that 'in the process of improving teaching ... the intentions and conception of teachers need as much attention as strategies if any improvement in student learning is anticipated' (ibid.: 83). Unfortunately, they did not consider the role played by students' intentions and conceptions of learning in the improvement of their learning. They made clear, however, that their research was not suggesting that these approaches applied to other areas of teaching, or to the teaching applied by these teachers in their subjects at other levels. If that is the case, why are institutions being asked to demand from their teachers professional development in teaching and learning techniques, technology aids and accreditation from courses authorised by the ILTHE (NCIHE, 1997, DES, 2003), such as the Institute of Education's Professional Certificate in Teaching and Learning in Higher and Professional Education? Furthermore, why are demands made upon universities to publicise and spread the so-called 'good teaching practice' (NCIHE, 1997, HEFCE, 2001a, DES, 2003, QAA, 2003) among themselves? Is it not the case of seeking homogenisation among higher education institutions and teaching professionals, and therefore on student learning? Is it in fact possible to homogenise student learning in higher education?

The hypothetical question put by Trigwell et al. (1994) reveals that some teachers perceive 'innovative forms of teaching' (Kember and Wong, 2000: 80) as a waste of time. In an earlier study (Bótas, 2000), I found that some students can perceive some teachers' pedagogical styles as no pedagogy – that is, teachers are giving themselves permission to do nothing in the classroom. Teaching styles that are supposed to facilitate student learning – for example, peer assessment, group work, video lectures, discussions, debates, and seminars – can be perceived by some students as exhibitions

of neglect, laziness, time-wasting, demotivation and downright deception. I gave an example of a student's perception of a teacher using video and buzz-groups as teaching methods. In the words of the participant, a theology student:

> He gave us a video to watch. It was a two hour lecture. The first hour we had to watch the video, and in the second hour, one of his colleagues came in and we all split up in these little buzz-groups. It is so infuriating. And the lecturer left a set of questions for us to do. And having watched this video for an hour, which was irritating in itself.... It just felt so bitter.... So, it was really a waste of time (Bótas, 2000: 39).

In that study I claimed that this sense of being cheated by a teacher's choice of pedagogical styles could affect student motivation, interest and participation in the learning activity. The feeling of students that they are being cheated is directly linked to the concepts of quality as value for money and as satisfying the needs of customers/consumers – that is, student demands. The concepts of quality as value for money and quality as satisfying the needs of customers/consumers were presented by the Audit Commission (1984) (see *Table II*, in chapter I).

It is important to observe in the examples that it was the activity and not the lack of it that made the student (in the preceding quotation) feel as though he had been cheated. The student was not given a choice over the teaching and learning activity in the classroom. The method chosen by his teacher did not suit his learning needs. For him, the quality of that activity was low, because it did not fit his specification and expectations of what quality teaching entails. He believed that he was not getting what he paid for, and therefore, there was no value for money. He felt cheated. This student's perception of group-work goes against the perceptions that cognitive psychologists have of group-work. For the latter, it means developing the student's independence and learning autonomy. For the former, it means a waste of time. I would like to put the following questions. To what extent can these two competing perceptions of the same teaching and learning activity be sustained, in the argument for developing the quality of teaching and learning in higher education through innovative styles of teaching? In a classroom of twenty students, where a teacher has an individual perception of the teaching and learning activity of his or her choice, with each individual student having a completely different perception of the teacher's chosen teaching and learning activity,

can anybody claim that some teaching and learning activities are of better quality than others? Who defines what good quality or better practice of teaching and learning is? Why? With whose authority? And can consumers evaluate quality at the point of delivery? These unanswered questions need to be considered. I will come back to the issues of students as consumers and their choice in the teaching and learning process in chapter VI.

The examples given by Handal et al. (1990) and myself (Bótas, 2000) present similarities. Both illustrate the relationship between conceptions and perceptions held by teachers, in the case of Handal et al., and held by students, in the case of Bótas. An interesting point is that the teacher example comes from science, an area where to a certain extent this kind of answer, because of the nature of the subject, is expected, and that the student example comes from theology, an area where to a certain extent this type of answer is not expected from such students reading the humanities or social science. Here one could consider the teacher example (Handal et al. quotation) as reflecting the nature of the subject. However, when one considers the student example (Bótas quotation), one can see that this student's perception of his teaching experience was not at all related to the nature of the subject. The view of this student casts doubt on the relationship between the nature of the subject and a student's learning, not on a teacher's teaching. This is an area that needs exploration. If one takes into account the difficulties with generalisations, such as 'how teachers teach best' and 'how students learn best' in the classroom in higher education, then one has to question the degree of validity of such statements. One also has to consider the implications of such statements and how they will affect the government's targets for increasing and widening participation in higher education. This involves the 18 to 30 age group, the disabled and minority groups. This representative social mix in higher education institutions is set to increase by 50 per cent by 2010 (HEFCE, 2002: 4, DES, 2003: 22). This social mix will lead to more diversity of students and their learning needs, approaches, orientations, conceptions and nature of learning. The result will be further diversity in student perceptions of the quality of teaching in higher education.

3. Students' and teachers' perceptions of teaching and learning and their relationship to the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education

Trigwell et al. (1999) investigated the relationship between a teacher's approach to teaching and the approaches to learning of the students in the class of that teacher. Their investigation revealed that there were links between the ways that teachers approached teaching, and the ways their students approached learning. Their project's objective was to investigate the missing link between the approaches of teachers to teaching and of students to learning. More specifically it set out to explore quantitatively the extent to which an information transmission/teacher-focused approach to teaching was associated with a surface approach to learning, and a conceptual change/student-centred approach to teaching was associated with a deep approach to learning. They found that (1) when teachers reported that their focus was on what they did in their teaching, and that they believed that their students had little or no prior knowledge of the subject they were teaching, and that they did little more than transmit facts so that students had a good set of notes, then their students were more likely to adopt a surface approach to learning. And (2) when teachers reported that they had the students as the focus of their teaching activities, that it mattered more to them what the students were doing and learning than what the teacher was doing or covering, then the learning was less likely to be of the surface approach. Those teachers who encouraged self-directed learning and made time (in formal teaching time) for students to interact and to discuss the problems they encountered, who brought about conceptual change, provoked debate, took time to question student ideas and develop a conversation with them in lectures, were teachers whose students were more likely to adopt a deep approach to learning.

The research question by Trigwell et al. (1999) is important. However, the answer is not at all convincing. It is implied that teachers' approaches to teaching are directly related to students' approaches to learning. It gives the impression that there is a straightforward (non-problematic) relationship between teaching and learning, and that the relationship between teaching and learning occurs in a social vacuum. They did not

take into account the way in which teachers' approaches to teaching are perceived by students – that is, students' perceptions of teaching. As Ramsden (1996, 2003) argues students' perceptions of teaching determine the quality of their learning. My research supports his argument and demonstrates that students' perceptions of teaching also determine the quality of teaching in higher education. Trigwell et al. (1999) conceded that they did not take causality into account and recognised it to be a problematic issue. They gave an example of how problematic causality can be in teaching and learning. They mention:

> For example, the context established by a teacher using a student-focused approach may influence students to adopt a deep approach, but it is equally likely, as we have observed, that some tutors adapt their approach to teaching in response to the request of students to, for example, go through problems in a transmission/teacher-focused manner (Trigwell et al., 1999: 68).

However, the findings of Trigwell et al. (1999) have something of a cause and effect relationship. They claim that their findings 'highlight the importance in these attempts (to improve the quality of student learning) of working with academic staff to encourage adoption of higher quality approaches to teaching' (ibid.: 67). They also mention that 'it would appear that there is a relationship between approach to teaching and the quality of student learning outcomes' (ibid.: 66). Underneath these statements there lies the implication of a causational relationship, and not the purposeful causality in which students take action on their own learning styles (as their first example illustrates) and use teachers as first-hand sources of information, and/or students take action on their own learning needs (as their second example illustrates) and request teachers to adapt to what better suits the students in the effort to learn qualitatively. It appears that the problematic causality quoted in the example above, considered by Trigwell et al. (1999), is highly problematic, because it can be related to real experience of teaching and learning in the classroom in higher education, an environment of challenge, adaptation, uncertainty and frustration. On the other hand, the results of their survey seem to be related to an ideal experience of teaching and learning, because they describe an environment of certainty where the way teachers teach is the way students learn. Their findings seem to propose a clear and simple solution to the problem of quality in teaching and learning in higher education. However, in their simplistic and

idealistic view of the teaching and learning relationship, they fail to consider the following questions. To what extent is the quality of teaching related to the quality of learning in higher education? If they are related at all, how do students perceive this relationship? What role do students' perceptions of teachers' approaches to teaching (teaching styles) and students' learning needs play in the establishment of quality of teaching and learning in higher education? And to what extent can quality learning be determined by quality teaching, and vice versa?

Samuelowicz and Bain (1992) examined the conceptions of teaching held by academic teachers in the fields of science and social science in two universities: a distance university, The Open University, in the UK, and a traditional one, The University of Queensland, in Australia. The aim of the study was to discover, describe and systematise the direct experience of teaching as perceived, experienced and reported by academic teachers. The research objective was to establish a classification of conceptions of teaching (see *Table VIII*, on the following pages).

Table VIII - Conceptions of teaching

Author(s)	Held by	Conceptions of Teaching						
		A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Fox (1983)	Teachers	Teacher-initiated focused on content			Teacher-initiated focused on student change	Student-initiated focused on content	Student-initiated focused on student change	
		Transfer	Shaping		Building	Travelling	Growing	
Biggs (1991)	Teachers	Transmission of knowledge				Facilitating student learning		
Dunkin (1990, 1991) and Dunkin and Precians (1992)	Teachers		Structuring learning	Motivating learning		Encouraging activity and independent learning		Establishing interpersonal relations conducive to learning
Dall'Alba (1991)	Teachers	Presenting information // Transmitting information	Illustrating the application of theory to practice/ Delivering concepts/ principles and their interrelations		Developing capability to be expert	Exploring ways of understanding	Bringing about conceptual change	
Martin and Balla (1991)	Teachers	Presenting information		Encouraging and developing active learning		Relating teaching to learning		
Pratt (1992)	Teachers	Delivering content			Modelling ways of being	Cultivating the intellect		Facilitating personal agency
Martin and Ramsden (1992)	Teachers	Presenting content of process	Organising content and/or procedures			Organising learning environment		Facilitating understanding through engagement with content and process
Samuelowicz and Bain (1992)	Teachers	Imparting information	Transmitting knowledge			Facilitating understanding	Changing student conceptions	Supporting student learning

Table VIII – Conceptions of teaching (continuation)

Author(s)	Held by	Conceptions of Teaching						
		A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**	**G**
Gow and Kember (1990, 1993) and Kember and Gow (1994)	Teachers	Knowledge transmission				Learning facilitation		
Prosser et al. (1994)	Teachers	Transmitting concepts of the discipline / Transmitting teachers' knowledge	Helping students acquire concepts of discipline/ Helping students acquire teachers' knowledge			Helping students develop conceptions	Helping students change conceptions	
Trigwell et al. (1994)	Teachers	Teacher-focused/ Information transmission	Teacher-focused/ Concept acquisition	Student-teacher interaction/ Concept acquisition		Student-focused /conceptual development	Student-focused /conceptual change	
Trigwell and Prosser (1996)	Teachers	Transmitting concepts of syllabus	Transmitting teachers' knowledge	Helping students to acquire teachers' knowledge		Helping students to develop conceptions	Helping students to change conceptions	
Kember (1997)	Teachers	Teacher-centred/Content-oriented		Student-teacher interaction/ apprenticeship		Student-centred/Learning-oriented		
		Imparting information	Transmitting structured knowledge			Facilitating understanding	Promoting conceptual change/ intellectual development	
Samuelowicz and Bain (2001)	Teachers	Imparting information	Transmitting structured knowledge	Providing and facilitating understanding	Helping students develop expertise	Preventing misunderstandings	Negotiating understanding	Encouraging knowledge creation
Freire (1994, 1996 and 2000)	Teachers	Banking		Problem-posing for critical thinking and conscientisation				

The arrangement of the categories of conceptions of teaching reflects researchers' preferences as to what kind of teaching is desired and should be valued. The findings of their study suggested the non-hierarchical nature of those conceptions. They claimed that the more sophisticated conceptions do not include the less sophisticated ones. These conceptions occupy an ordered continuum. According to Samuelowicz and Bain (1992), two parties are involved in the teaching/learning process: academic teachers and their students. They claimed that conceptions of teaching may be context-dependent, at least for some academic teachers, if not all. Such influences as the level of the course and the students in the course may condition heavily a teacher's approach. Laurillard (1997, 2002) pointed out the influences that teachers' approaches to teaching can have on students' approaches to studying. She claimed that the teacher plays an important part in forming the perceptions of students. How the teacher presents what is required of the student, what is important, the teacher's style of teaching and the assessment method will all influence what and how the student will learn – whether by adopting a surface or deep approach to learning. She also found that the learning style of students was related to student intention and to the nature of the task students were required to carry out. She concluded that student strategies and approaches to learning were context-dependent.

Samuelowicz and Bain (1992) found that preliminary observations suggested the possibility of academic teachers having both ideal and working conceptions of teaching. Their data suggested that the aims of teaching expressed by academic teachers coincided with the ideal conceptions of teaching, whereas their teaching practices, including assessment, reflected their working conceptions of teaching. This disjunction between ideal and working conceptions of teaching in higher education constitutes, according to them, one of the mysteries of higher education – the disjunction between the stated aims (promotion of critical thinking) and educational practice (unimaginative coverage of content and testing of factual recall). According to Samuelowicz and Bain (1992: 110), this disjunction is a mystery which is deeply penetrated in an 'institutional climate that does not reward teaching' in higher education.

Kember (1997) reviewed 13 pieces of research on the conceptions of teaching held by academic teachers (see *Table VIII*, in this chapter). The research reviewed included: Dall'Alba (1991), Dunkin (1990, 1991), Dunkin and Precians (1992), Fox (1983), Gow and Kember (1990, 1993), Martin and Balla (1991), Martin and Ramsden (1992), Pratt (1992), Prosser et al. (1994), Samuelowicz and Bain (1992) and Trigwell et al. (1994). The aim of his review was to analyse and compare the findings of a substantial number of largely independent studies to identify whether commonality existed in the findings. Kember (1997) framed the reviewed researches into two orientations of teaching: teacher-centred/content-oriented and student-centred/learning-oriented (see *Table VIII*). Under the teacher-centred/content-oriented orientation of teaching, he placed the conceptions of teaching as follows: imparting information and transmitting structured knowledge (columns A and B,). Under the student-centred/learning-oriented orientation of teaching, he placed the following conceptions of teaching: facilitating understanding and conceptual change/intellectual development (columns E and F). The intermediate conception, which recognises the interaction between teacher and students as necessary, is considered by him to be a transitionary bridge between the two conceptions of teaching (see *Table VIII*, columns C and D). However, Samuelowicz's and Bain's (2001) newer research on academics' beliefs about teaching and learning proved Kember (1997) wrong. According to them, it was the purpose and nature of the interaction, not interaction *per se*, that differentiated orientations and beliefs about teaching and learning. Some forms of interaction were teaching-focused in that they were intended to maintain student attention and concentration upon what the teacher was saying, or to check whether students were following the teacher's reasoning (Samuelowicz and Bain, 2001).

Kember (1997) argued that these studies suggested a relationship between teaching conceptions, through approaches to teaching, to student learning outcomes. At the level of the individual teacher, the methods of teaching adopted, the learning tasks set, the assessment demands made and the workload specified were strongly influenced by the orientation of the teaching. These contextual variables in turn affected the learning approaches of students. He argued that a relationship existed between conceptions of teaching, teaching approaches and learning outcomes, in which the intervening variable teaching approaches were influenced by teachers' conceptions of

teaching, as well as by curriculum design, which was also influenced by teachers' conceptions of teaching, students' pressage factors and institutional influence. All these variables would directly affect student learning approaches and, therefore, influence the learning outcomes. Kember (1997) claimed that his reviewed research had implications for measures to monitor and improve the quality of teaching in higher education. In saying this, he established that the problems with quality in higher education were solely located in teaching practices. What one finds intriguing is the complete disregard on the part of Kember for the students involved in the process of teaching and learning. Students were excluded from his argument. One should perhaps take into consideration the fact that students do actually take part in the teaching and learning process as co-authors/co-producers of knowledge in the classroom in higher education, knowledge that will be incorporated into their learning and nobody else's.

Kember (1997) also claimed that underlying beliefs about teaching could not be imposed by regulation. This did not imply that all teaching quality initiatives were futile, rather that quality control initiatives of quality control bodies needed to be accompanied by appropriate faculty development programs that were cognisant of the significant influence of conceptions of teaching. According to him, a logical position for improving teaching quality follows from the interpretation of conceptions of teaching as a continuum, and the degree of evidence that suggests that some lecturers in fact alter their positions on the continuum. And if the evidence for the link between conceptions of teaching and the quality of student learning is accepted, then it should be possible to improve the latter by changing beliefs about teaching. He believes that quality enhancement and faculty development measures should incorporate opportunities for participants to shift beliefs along the continuum towards the student-centred/learning-oriented pole. As seen earlier, Samuelowicz and Bain (1992) claimed that conceptions of teaching can be context-dependent, at least for some academic teachers, if not all academic teachers. Again, if teachers' conceptions of teaching can be context-dependent, this means that they cannot be ordered on a continuum. It is important to observe two points in Kember's (1997) proposition. Not only are students seen as remote controlled robots, where a teacher presses a button and students learn in one way, and where the teacher presses another button and students learn in another way, but, that teachers themselves are blamed for not pressing the right button. And if there is

one right button, it has to be a common one shared by all students in the classroom. One conclusion to be drawn from Kember's (1997) proposition is that the classroom is not a complex living environment where human beings – teachers and students – try to interact with one another, but that the classroom is an environment where students respond to teaching methods, rather than react to them. He seems to suggest that learning is neutral and that teaching is solely responsible for the failure of the quality of student learning. Here, one can see that he does not take into account all the variables that would directly affect student learning approaches and therefore influence learning outcomes. Teaching does not work merely in one direction, from teachers to students. It flows in two directions, from teachers to students and vice versa. I do not agree with his position. As one can see throughout this study, student perceptions of teaching vary. Accordingly, their perceptions of the quality of teaching in higher education also vary.

In relation to quality, Kember (1997) claimed that a study of teaching conceptions was important because those conceptions have been shown to relate to measures of quality of student learning, and that an understanding of teaching conceptions then becomes important if measures to enhance the quality of teaching are to have any affect. Can the quality of student learning be improved by only taking into consideration the approaches of teachers, and their orientations, beliefs and conceptions of teaching? What role do student approaches, orientations, beliefs, and conceptions of learning play in the quality of learning? In the end students are the ones who are actually doing the learning. Those are the questions to be considered. The way forward is not to investigate approaches to changing teaching conceptions, as Kember (1997) claimed, but to investigate the effects of student perceptions of the quality of their teachers' teaching styles on the quality of their learning in higher education. Then one will be able to find out if quality can be applied as a concept for teaching and learning in higher education. My study focused on student perceptions of teaching in order to answer my main research question: to what extent do students' perceptions of teaching match the discourses about quality for teaching and learning in higher education in the UK? My research questions will be addressed in chapter IV.

B. Summary

The studies reviewed in this chapter are the results of phenomenographic, action research and survey methodologies. They focus on teachers' and students' orientations, beliefs, conceptions, perceptions and approaches to teaching and learning in higher education. They argue that a relationship exists between conceptions of teaching, teaching approaches and learning outcomes. According to these studies, within this relationship there appears to be a clear cut solution to the problem of quality in teaching and learning in higher education. That is, if the conceptions of teachers were to change, then the quality of their teaching would improve. Consequently, the quality of student learning would also improve. These studies are all concerned with learning outcomes and not with the learning experience. When the issue of student learning experience was brought up, these studies automatically related learning experience to learning outcome, implying that good learning experience produced good learning outcomes. I have difficulty in accepting that a straightforward relationship exists between the learning experience and the learning outcome, as suggested by these studies. First, there are issues over the notion of 'good'. Who defines and decides what 'good' is? What does it actually mean? Second, they do not provide substantial and sufficient concrete evidence of this presupposed relationship. Third, these studies do not take into account the role students play in their own learning experiences and outcomes. Finally, because learning is decontextualised in these studies, the social context in which learning occurs is not taken into account.

Throughout the review of these studies, one gains the impression that the social context of teaching and learning has been ignored. It seems that the process of good teaching and learning happens in a vacuum, where social relations do not occur and where difference and diversity, which constitute human society, do not exist. Instead, it is as though there were a social vacuum, where teachers and students are denuded of their identities, personal characteristics and personalities as they become 'disembodied actors' (Deem et al., 1995: 114). In this vacuum the homogenised bodies of teachers and students are utterly and completely unrelated to and disconnected from their ethnicity, gender, nationality, sexuality, social class, religion, age, abilities, disabilities and the

rest. These studies, rooted in cognitive psychology, put teachers and students in a continuum, where their orientations, approaches, conceptions and beliefs about teaching and learning develop every step of the way: from teacher-centred to student-centred (see *Table VII*, in this chapter), from passive to active (see *Table IX*, on the following page), from applying academic skills to learning about learning (*See Table VI* and *Table VIII*, in this chapter), where learning about learning is the target and not the result of the teaching and learning process, and once it is achieved there is no going back. Somehow, the idea of flexibility and adaptation of teachers and students to the social and wider context where the teaching and learning process takes place has got lost in these studies.

Table IX - Orientations and approaches to learning

Author(s)	Held by	Orientations and Approaches to Learning						
		A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**	**G**
Marton and Säljö (1976)	Students	Surface				Deep		
Entwistle and Ramsden (1983)	Students	Surface		Achieving		Deep		
Biggs (1989)	Students	Surface		Achieving		Deep		
Trigwell and Prosser (1991)	Students	Surface		Relating ideas		Deep		
Biggs (1992, 1999)	Students	Surface				Deep		
Trigwell et al. (1999)	Students	Surface				Deep		
Kember and Wong (2000)	Students	Passive						Active
Biggs and Collis (1982) The SOLO Taxonomy, also quoted in Hattie and Purdie (1998: 146)	Students	Prestructural there is a preliminary preparation, but the task itself is not attacked in an appropriate way	Unistructural one aspect of a task is picked up or understood serially, and there is no relationship of facts or ideas	Multistructural two or more aspects of a task are picked up or understood serially, but are not interrelated	Relational several aspects are integrated so that the whole has a coherent structure and meaning	Extended Abstract that coherent whole is generalised to a higher level of abstraction		

Observation: For definitions of what surface, deep, achieving, relating ideas, passive and active orientations and approaches to learning are, please refer to *Figure 1* in this chapter. Also, for an explanation of why the SOLO taxonomy was added to this table refer to *Table VI* footnote.

This arouses concern over how these 'illuminating and enhancing' (Trowler and Cooper, 2002: 235) models of and guides to good practice for teaching and learning in higher education can be considered at the same time to be representative of good practice and effectiveness. I question the fitness for purpose of these models and guides in securing significant improvements in the quality of teaching and learning in higher education. They represent all that is good in education, therefore all that is good for society. Bernstein (1970: 344) asked 'should we [teachers] try to coax them [students] to that standard, or seek what is valid in their [students'] lives?' He answered by saying that education could not compensate for society. This begs the following questions. Who decides what is good and effective practice for teaching and learning in higher education? Good and effective for whom? Teachers? Students? What types of teacher? What types of student? What types of subject? What of the institutional context? To what extent can the quality of a teacher's teaching be determined by the quality of student learning in the classroom in higher education, if student learning styles, needs, voices and social backgrounds are diverse? If there is a commonality in the preference of student learning styles in the classroom in higher education, and if this commonality could be established by the minimum standards of quality teaching and learning in higher education, can we talk about excellence in teaching and learning in higher education?

Ramsden (1996: 6, 2003: 8) mentioned that 'students' thoughts and actions are profoundly affected by the educational context of the environment in which they learn'. This means that the relationship between teachers and students carries the whole burdensome responsibility of quality for teaching and learning in higher education. If that is the case, is there a pedagogical (teaching) style or process which can address the quality of student learning in the classroom in higher education, when student learning styles and needs, and the teaching styles of teachers are diversified? Whether or not student learning styles follow a common pattern, and whether or not teacher styles affect student learning styles, the following questions are also central to this research. How do students perceive teachers' teaching styles? What lies behind student perceptions? To what extent are student approaches to learning induced by their teachers' approaches to teaching, or a wider social context? And to what extent do discourses of quality for teaching and learning in higher education incorporate an

understanding of equality? I explored these questions from a sociological perspective and examined their implications for the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom in higher education, seeking an understanding and explanation of the relationship between student perceptions of the quality of teaching and the quality of their learning in higher education.

The purpose of this study was to create a space for students to discuss their views and perceptions of teaching in higher education. Very few research studies address the sociological aspects of student orientations, beliefs, conceptions, perceptions and approaches to teaching and learning in higher education: Bótas (2000, 2004), Ellsworth (1997) and Gore (1993, 1995, 1998) are examples of these studies. The importance of researching student orientations, beliefs, conceptions, perceptions and approaches to teaching and learning in higher education, from a sociological standpoint, is that it is more likely that one will be able to build a more realistic picture of how the relationship between teachers and students in the teaching and learning process is perceived and developed in the classroom. The broad canvas is painted by the participants, from their perceptions, experiences and feelings about their relationship in the classroom in higher education, as revealed during in-depth, semi-structured interviews. It is contended that this will be of help to those teachers who are genuinely concerned about the quality of their students' learning and who desire to understand how their teaching practice is perceived by their students, and why. It will also enable those in authority to understand better how their policies are being received and perceived by students, who after all are the main (primary) consumers of higher education in the UK. In the next chapter I provide a description of the methodology used in this study.

Chapter IV

Methodology: positioning myself and reflecting on the study and my role as a researcher

In this chapter I state my research questions and provide a description of the research design, research methods and methodology of my research, while also providing a critical analysis of the research process and my role as a researcher.

A. Research questions

The focus of my study is on students' perceptions of teaching in higher education, as I am interested in students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education, and to what extent these perceptions affect their learning, the research questions of my study are as follow:

1. Main research question

- To what extent do students' perceptions of teaching match the discourses about quality for teaching and learning in higher education in the UK?

2. Sub questions

- To what extent do discourses about quality for teaching and learning in higher education in the UK match the diversity of students' needs, views and learning styles?

- Can quality as a concept be applied to teaching and learning in higher education in the UK?

B. Sample frame of the study and issues of generalisability

In theoretical sampling the sample units are selected according to their relevance to the aim of the research, the research questions, the theoretical position and the analytical framework, and analytical practice and the explanations being developed (Mason, 2002, Morley, 2004). I was aware when conducting one-to-one, face-to-face, in-depth, semi-structured interviews, that considerable care needed to be taken in selecting a sample of participants, because the sample would affect the information that would be collected and also would determine the claims that could be made about the meaning of the information gathered (Arksey and Knight, 1999).

From the outset, I limited the size of my sample to not more than 45 postgraduate students. However, I felt that the make-up of the sample should reflect the male/female ratio of MA students of the Institute of Education. After selecting research participants, and rejecting some, in order to achieve a ratio between female and male similar to the one at the Institute of Education, I ended up with a sample of 43 participants, of which 31 were female and 12 were male. In the academic year during which I collected the data, 2004-2005, 73 per cent of students at the Institute of Education were female and 27 per cent were male.

I believe that at postgraduate level students are partly responsible for their own learning. They are responsible for their own work as they are expected to produce a dissertation at the end of their course which contributes to knowledge in their field. They also have sufficient experience of teaching and learning in higher education to be aware of their learning preferences and needs. I excluded undergraduate students from my study sample because I believed that they would have insufficient experience of learning in higher education and could not critically reflect enough on their teaching and

learning experiences to answer my research questions effectively. I also excluded PhD students from my study sample because I believe that PhD courses are mainly focused on independent learning, as their studies do not involve summative assessments throughout the courses. I recognised that it was important to establish workable criteria highlighting the important categories and to stick to them, as these categories would have a significant impact on the richness of the data to be collected, as well as on the findings of my study (Mason, 1998, 2002). The selection was intended to depict the varied population of the Institute of Education, representing a mixture of the significant categories in my study (see *Table X*, below).

Table X – Categories of sample

Participants'		Origin	
characteristics		Home	International
Gender	Female	14	16
	Male	5	8

Before I started my research, I believed gender might have an influence on results, i.e., male and female students might respond differently to the topics raised in my research. But as it turned out, there was no measurable difference of opinion between male and female students.

The other important category in the make-up of my sample was the ratio between home and international MA students, particularly as the White Paper (DES, 2003) considers that not only is the inclusion of home students of a minorities background relevant for the future of higher education in the UK, but also the attraction of international students from the international market. However, whereas at the Institute of Education the ratio between home and international MA students was 72 to 28, my sample consisted of 19 home MA students (44 per cent) and 24 international MA students (56 per cent). This was deliberate. I believed that international MA students could offer a fresher view of teaching and learning experiences in the UK because their previous experience in higher education took place outside this country. I

did not select participants based on course status, age, ethnicity or fee status as I considered these characteristics to be more management issues rather than teaching and learning related ones. For participants' pseudonyms and a breakdown of their sociological characteristics, see Annex I.

During the collection and analysis of the data, I became aware that students, irrespective of their gender and origin, had in fact very similar experiences. Seidman (1991, 1998) observed, if students are having similar experiences, then a researcher would know that some issues might not be a matter of ethnicity, gender, nationality or status, therefore these issues were not relevant variables in my research findings.

My sample was not selected in order to produce generalisations from the data, but to produce a more realistic picture of the diversity of perceptions of quality teaching held by MA students in Education at the Institute of Education, a picture which could be recognised by teachers, researchers and policy makers in higher education in the UK. I am reluctant to suggest generalisations from my sample population, however, I accept that generalisation can happen as 'the general is always present in the particular' (Arksey and Knight, 1999: 58). I am aware that readers could be prompted to consider whether they recognise some processes, or even patterns, in the experiences reported in my study, because as Arksey and Knight (1999: 58) stated, 'it is not possible to prevent readers from generalising, since that sort of thinking is embedded in the act of reading itself'. Mason (2002) pointed out that generalisation is not easy to achieve in qualitative research, or indeed in any research. According to her, in qualitative research, the researcher is capable of producing very well-founded cross-contextual generalities, rather than aspiring to more flimsy de-contextual versions. These cross-contextual generalities are based on the strategic comparison of sensitive and rich understandings of specific contexts, whose significance in relation to a wider universe can be demonstrated, because these understandings are likely to appear in similar shapes and proportions in the UK population of MA students in Education. This sample provided me with a depth and roundedness of understanding of the diversity of perceptions of quality teaching held by students at the Institute of Education, rather than a broad understanding of surface patterns. In order to enhance the generalisation of my study, I

would have to follow the advice given by Blaikie (2004: 255) that '[g]eneralisability [of qualitative research] can be enhanced by studying the same issue in a number of research sites, using similar methods of data collection and analysis'.

C. Conceptual and theoretical frameworks of my study

The conceptual framework/theoretical underpinning of my research is a sociological perspective, because I am interested in how participants socially construct and interpret their own realities in the classroom in higher education in the UK. According to O'Brien (1998), sociology tells us that, not only do people think, believe and act in different ways but that the forms of the interaction between these thoughts, beliefs and actions create and recreate the characteristics of a particular society. He argues that the systems of belief, thought and action vary – over time and across space – in patterns that are associated with different groups of people, with different cultural characteristics and different social positions, as other human beings have different experiences, different interpretations, and different beliefs from our own. For him, these patterns of thought and action are not immaterial. They do not just simply exist without having some effect on the society in which they are found (Wengraf, 2004). As a sociologist, I set out to discover what accounts for the variation, what explains the patterned diversity within and between students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the UK. From a sociological perspective, I investigated how students interact with teaching in higher education in the UK, how their perceptions influence their behaviour, how their interaction with their teachers influence their working patterns, how these relationships affect the students and how they experience them.

1. Power relations as my main theoretical framework

I believe that students' perceptions of the relations of power involved in the teaching and learning process can influence and form students' perceptions of the

quality of teaching in higher education, as power itself produces reality and meaning. Therefore, I use Foucault's works on power as the main theoretical framework of my study in order to understand and analyse students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education. Foucault's poststructuralist view and understanding of power relations provides useful insights into why students perceive the teaching style of their teachers as good or poor quality teaching, therefore it constitutes the main theoretical thread of my analysis. The theory of power relations and its application to the teaching and learning process was developed in chapter I, under section F. Foucault (1980b) provides a fascinating analysis of the subtle ways in which power manifests itself, when analysing the connection between prison and the transformation of individuals, where prison was meant to teach/train prisoners, i.e. transform criminals into honest citizens. He mentioned that '[t]he problem thereafter was not to teach the prisoners something, but rather to teach them nothing, so as to make sure that they could do nothing when they came out of prison' (Foucault, 1980b: 42). In my experience as a MA student I felt that teachers have the power of teaching and training students or of not. They also have the power to control what students learn or do not learn; how they learn or do not learn (teaching method); how much they learn or do not learn; and even who will learn or who will not learn. This control is exercised through deciding on the information to be given in the classroom through teaching, through supervision of the process of creation of knowledge and through assessment of the product of knowledge. Foucault (1994) argues that he sees nothing wrong in itself for someone who knows more than another to tell, transmit, communicate and teach knowledge and skills to him/her. However, he states that the problem lies in practices of domination, which make students subject to the abusive authority of teachers in the teaching and learning process.

Foucault's theory of power is explored and examined in the educational process by Gore (1995), who studied the power relations which teachers exercise at the micro-level of education, in the classroom, presenting and describing in detail the techniques which teachers use to control students' behaviour and to maintain classroom order. Gore (1998) introduces knowledge as a category related to specific techniques of power relations exercised in the classroom. According to her, 'knowledge was also added because of its necessary link with power relation, in Foucault's view, and because of the importance of knowledge production in pedagogy' (Gore, 1998: 283). She argues that

teachers can exercise their power by controlling, regulating and invoking knowledge. In my study, I used Foucault's theory to explore and examine how students perceive the power relation involved in the teaching and learning process, how their perception impacts on their creation of knowledge through their interaction with their teachers in the classroom, and how their perception impacts on the judgement they formulate about the quality of teaching and learning in higher education.

2. Pedagogical theoretical frameworks: critical, feminist and cognitive psychology theories

In exploring the dynamics of the relations of power in the teaching and learning process and students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education, I have drawn largely on a set of theories and tools associated with: (1) critical pedagogy concerned with the empowerment of students in the teaching and learning process mainly from the perspective of social class, such as Freire (1994, 1996, 2000), Shor (1980, 1987, 1992, 1996) and others; (2) feminist pedagogy also concerned with the empowerment of students in the teaching and learning process mainly from the perspective of gender, race and social class, such as Gore (1993), Luke and Gore (1992), Ellsworth (1997, 2005), Maher (1985) and others; (3) feminist psycho-analytical sociology related to emotions in the teaching and learning process, such as Shaw (1995) and Boler (1999); (4) feminist psychoanalysis concerning otherness, such as Benhabib (1987, 1992); (5) socio-psychology concerning motivation and interaction, such as Bar-Tal and Bar-Tal (1990) and Ames (1990, 1992); and (6) cognitive psychology concerned with best practices for teaching and learning, such as Bligh (1998), Trigwell and Prosser (1991, 1996), Kember (2000) and others. These theories and tools are the sub-threads that together with my main theoretical thread of Foucault's power relations theory helped me to examine, interpret, analyse, explain and report students' perceptions of power relations in the teaching and learning process and its relationship with students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education. They helped me to keep a critical distance between myself and the empirical data and to contextualise the theoretical discussion of the empirical data.

D. Epistemological and ontological views, research methodology and approach

I used a qualitative research design approach because my goals were to explore, describe, understand and explain students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the UK, in a useful manner which will be of value to teachers, practitioners, researchers, and policy makers, showing how and why their practices and policies are received, perceived and understood in the classroom. I wanted to create a space for students to discuss their views and perceptions of teachers' teaching styles in higher education, and what they mean to them. I believe that a qualitative research method was useful for answering these questions, because it addressed students' perceptions of teaching and learning in higher education from a sociological point of view and not from a cognitive psychological one. Up to now, how students perceive teaching in higher education has been addressed by cognitive psychology survey studies, which set out to 'prove or disprove hypotheses [researchers] hold before entering the stud[ies]' (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992: 31). My study addressed how quality teaching was perceived and socially constructed by students in the classroom in higher education.

As qualitative research is 'fundamentally interpretive' (Marshall and Rossman, 1999: 3) and social constructivism is 'often combined with interpretivism' (Creswell, 2003: 8), I aimed at interpreting the meanings and the socially constructed understanding of these meanings which individuals hold of the world in which they live and work. This understanding was based on the subjective meanings of their subjective experiences, that means that there was a variety of and multiple complex views of the world and, therefore, a variety of multiple complex experiences. These complexities could not be captured by quantitative research, as survey studies cannot deal with the complexities of human experiences, because these complexities are consuming of resource and emotion, as well as being time-consuming. To access the complexities of the human experiences of my participants, I established a rapport between the participants and myself as a researcher. I believe that in surveys or questionnaires there is no room for establishing a relationship between the researcher and the participant, because there is no visual contact and there are no cues that enhance the quality of the

data collected. Qualitative research allowed me as a researcher to come face to face with my data source.

Qualitative research allowed the participants themselves to depict their experiences in their own words, following their own sense of what was important and relevant to them, and allowed me, as a researcher, to depict these experiences in a consistent and coherent manner, as subjective meanings were 'negotiated socially and historically' (Creswell, 2003: 8). My intention in using qualitative research was to rely as much as possible on the participants' own experiences, views and perceptions of what they consider to be good and poor quality teaching in higher education, in order to produce rounded and contextual understandings on the basis of rich, nuanced and detailed data. I used social constructionism as the epistemological basis of my study, because in the constructionist view, 'meaning is not discovered but constructed' (Crotty, 1998: 42), developed and transmitted within an essentially social context, where meaningful reality is dependent on human practices, i.e., it is constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world as they engage with the world they are interpreting. I recognised that the meanings and understandings which were constructed were informed by the social interaction between the participants and myself during the interview process. This epistemological view was based on the assumption that knowledge is the result of the interaction and relationship between the 'knower and the known' (Skeggs, 1995: 77).

The methodology (strategy) used in my study was based on an epistemology which says that 'culture can be known through cultural and social settings' (Mason, 2002: 55), where 'claims or assumptions made about the ways in which it is possible to gain knowledge of reality, whatever it is understood to be, and how what exists may be known' (Blaikie, 1993: 6-7). I was committed to understanding socially how and why students construct their perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the way that they do. That meant that I considered students' experiences of teaching and learning in the classroom as phenomena and not as a phenomenon. If I considered teaching and learning as a phenomenon, I would be homogenising teachers and students in the classroom in higher education. I considered students' experiences and perceptions of

teaching and learning in higher education to be phenomena because in the classroom there are as many realities as there are students and teachers, therefore there can be as many interpretations of the same phenomenon as there are students in the classroom. The data presented and analysed in my study illustrate the epistemological and ontological views of my study.

I used an interpretative approach to my qualitative research because I wanted to capture students' perceptions and interpretations of quality teaching in higher education in the UK as the 'primary data sources' (Mason, 2002: 56). In this approach my main concern was to understand the social context in which students produce and reproduce and interpret their realities as social actors who make sense of teaching and of themselves in the teaching and learning process in higher education, as the social reality of social relationships is embedded in the concepts that are used by participants in social contexts to talk about their world. My approach was based on an ontology which sees social actors' identities forming and informing their understandings, interpretations, perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, views, experiences, accounts, stories, narratives, behaviours, actions, reactions, interactions, social relations and processes, where social and cultural practices are seen as multiple realities, i.e., a 'complex of socially constructed meanings' (Blaikie, 1993: 96). I used interpretivism as the ontological basis of my study, because I recognise that social reality is regarded as the product of processes by which social actors together negotiate the meanings for actions and situations, where individuals interpret the conditions in which they find themselves, as social reality is not something that may be interpreted in different ways, but those interpretations, and where 'what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other' (Blaikie, 1993: 6) constitute the nature of social reality. This ontological view was based on the assumption that the 'study of reality, of being, of the real nature of whatever is' (Schwandt, 2001: 157), and 'what is knowable?' (Skeggs, 1995: 77) is rooted in individual interpretation.

E. Research methods and research management and control

1. *Interviews and fieldnotes*

I used interviews to collect my data, because I believed that interviews were the best method to help me to answer my research questions, because of their context, as I wanted to hear about students' personal experiences in their own words, about their own realities as they construct and reconstruct them. I wanted to access their perspectives and explore the meanings that underpin students' experiences and perceptions of quality teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. I particularly wanted to learn about the relationship between students' perceptions of teaching and their learning needs, and learning styles, and how that relationship relates to their concept of quality of teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. The richness of responses that interviews provided made them the best instrument to help me collect my data. According to Punch (1998), interviews are a very good way of accessing people's perceptions, meanings, definitions of situations and constructions of reality. They are also the most powerful way we have of understanding others. Interviews provided me with data on 'understandings, opinions, what people remember doing, attitudes, feelings' (Arksey and Knight, 1999: 2), and also with things that '[could] not be seen or heard, such as the interviewee's inner state – the reasoning behind their actions and their feelings' (Seale, 1998: 202, 2000: 202).

As interviews allowed nuances to be captured during the processes, they allowed social explanations and arguments to be constructed, because they laid emphasis on depth, nuance, complexity and roundedness in data, rather than the kind of broad survey of surface patterns which questionnaires might provide (Mason, 1998, 2002). The strength of the interview conversation is to capture the multitude of the subjects' views of a theme and to picture a manifold and controversial human world (Kvale, 1996). Interviews gave me the opportunity to 'explore the reasons for a person's responses' (Keats, 2001) by using probing. Some writers, such as Forcese and Richer (1973), advise researchers to construct probes in advance of the interview rather than making

them up as various situations arise, because the creation in advance of appropriate probes brings a measure of control to a potentially haphazard form of data collection, improving the probability of consistency in one's study. The same advice was given to me by my supervisors, Professor Louise Morley and Doctor Anne Gold (2004). Although I had prepared ahead some probing questions, I varied the probing according to what participants revealed during the interview process. I was able to probe the answers of the participants and push for specifics, ask the participants to clarify and/or further elaborate their answers, and describe a particular incident to illustrate what they were saying or what they meant, which, *per se*, increased the quality of the data collected, as 'good interviews produce rich data filled with words that reveal the respondents' perspectives' (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992: 97). I believe that my probing of my participants' answers gave them a sense of my responsiveness and interest, as well as respect, for their stories, and it also increased the interpersonal aspect of the research process. This helped me to improve the quality of the data collection in this study.

The type of interview I chose for my study was in-depth, semi-structured interviews, because they were loosely structured, therefore they were less formal than structured interviews. As in-depth, semi-structured interviews allowed space for manoeuvring in the data collection format for on-the-spot changes, flexibility was increased within the research process.

2. *Research management and control*

I recognised that interviewers have their specific agendas to follow, as their topic areas and the themes to pursue relevant to their research are selected beforehand. However, I reviewed each interview I carried out, to see what I did in the interview and the way I did it so as to see how I could have done it differently and better, in order to improve myself as an interviewer for the following interview. I kept detailed notes of the process of negotiating access, fieldnotes for each in-depth and semi-structured interview session, including adaptation to particular settings and circumstances, and notes of questions/insights which arose during the data collection process. These

fieldnotes provided me with a personal log to keep track of the development of the pilot and the main study, to visualise 'how the research plan had been affected by the data collected, and to remain self-conscious of how [I have] been influenced by the data' (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992: 107). I recorded these thoughts, as well as questions, my first theoretical and analytical insights, and first pre-coding of the data on my fieldnotes pad. I recorded substantive and methodological fieldnotes. Substantive fieldnotes consist of a 'continuous record of the situations, events and conversations' (Burgess, 1984: 167) I had with the participants. They are in the form of a record of the observations and interviews I have obtained during the interview process. They record how some participants did or did not understand the meaning of the questions, and issues of access and negotiation. For example, one interview was carried out in a participant's flat, and two at participants' workplace. Methodological fieldnotes consist of my 'personal reflections on my activities in the field' (Burgess, 1984: 172). Some notes dealt with problems, impressions, feelings and hunches, as well as with some of the processes and procedures associated with field research, with the purpose of reflecting on my role as a researcher and on the research *per se*. In these notes, I kept my reflection and speculation on the ways in which my research method and interview schedule were working. I also reflected on how the method and interview schedule were adopted, adapted and developed in particular ways.

I did not choose observation as a strategy for data collection because it would have added an unnecessary burden to the cost and length of my PhD study, as I would have had to engage with the politics of getting access to observe the interaction of students and teachers in the classroom. Classroom observation could be perceived as an ethically sensitive issue, because some teachers could perceive my presence in their classroom as being there to assess their performance in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. Teachers and students could feel uncomfortable and offended by my presence in the classroom and refuse to contribute to and participate in my study. I also did not choose survey as a strategy for data collection because I did not want to replicate cognitive psychological studies carried out in higher education, as I was not interested in the quantity of experiences – the number of students who had the same experience, but I was interested in the quality of the experiences students are having in teaching and learning in higher education in the UK.

F. Interview focus and schedule, and pilot study

1. The interview focus

The interview focused on three broad areas:

- how students like to be taught at university
- how students do not like to be taught at university, and
- what conceptions students have of a good university teacher

2. The interview schedule

The original interview schedule consisted of the following questions:

1. How do you like to be taught at university? Can you give me an example of a particular positive learning experience you have had in the classroom at university?

2. How do you not like to be taught at university? Can you give me an example of a particular negative learning experience you have had in the classroom at university?

3. What in your view makes a good university teacher? Why did you describe a good university teacher in this way?

4. To what extent do you think that what the teachers do in the classroom affects the quality of your learning? Why?

5. To what extent do you think that what you do in the classroom affects the quality of your learning? Why?

3. Pilot study

During the pilot study the interview schedule worked well, with a very flexible flow of questions and rewarding probing. It was streamlined and focused on the points necessary for the purpose of answering my research questions. However, a new theme began to appear in participants' answers. They started referring to their teachers' research activities. After the second interview, in the pilot study, I decided to add two new questions to the schedule:

6. To what extent do you think that the research activities of your teachers impact on the quality of their teaching? And

7. To what extent do you think that the research activities of your teachers impact on the quality of your learning?

I also emailed these questions to the first two interviewees, asking them to answer them, which they did. I considered these two questions to be important because of the relationship that exists between research, teaching and learning.

The relevance of these two questions lies in looking at these relationships through the eyes of new managerialism – that is, teachers' performance management and the demands put on teachers by the UK government, and the discourse of quality in relation to teaching and learning in higher education. These two new questions were added to the main research as it seemed that teachers' performance management was an issue quite close to participants' hearts. They are evidence of the flexible structure of my research design and process, in which the in-depth, semi-structured interviews allowed space for manoeuvring in the data collection format for on-the-spot changes. These two questions form the body of chapter VII of this thesis. In this chapter, I focus on students' perceptions of the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of teachers' teaching and students' learning in higher education.

G. The interview process and interviewing approach, issues of reliability and validity, and bias of the interview schedule

1. Interview process and interviewing approach

Before the interviews, I introduced myself and thanked the participants for taking part in my study. I gave them a copy of the interview schedule for them to read before the interview in order to make them comfortable and not worried about what type of questions they would be facing during the interview. After their reading of the interview schedule, I asked them if they agreed to proceed with the interviews. As they agreed with the interviews, I gave them the Informed Consent Form to be read and signed. The interviews lasted from around thirty to fifty-five minutes and were tape recorded. Strict adherence to time limits was necessary, because of student timetables.

I did not follow a rigid structure when interviewing participants, because this could irritate students, frustrate them and make then angry. It could also jeopardise the whole interview and the willingness of participants to take part in the study, as participants could have the impression that I was not listening to what they were saying. I was more aware of the issue of sensitivity to their answers. I was listening more and paying more attention to what the participants were saying, and not just asking questions from the interview schedule. If the topic to which later questions were related had already been answered, referred to and probed in an answer given earlier, I did not ask questions referring to these themes again. Listening is the main key issue in an in-depth, semi-structured interview. I signalled more the areas which I was going to discuss with the participants. For example, if I was going to discuss their conceptions of teaching etc., I had to draw their attention to the area I was going to discuss. I used signals such as: I really would like to talk a little bit about (the area on which the questions were going to focus) with you now, and then asked the participants the questions, listened to their answers and probed their answers. The questions and probing proceeded in a flexible flow.

2. Issues of reliability and validity

I dealt with the issue of reliability by making sure that the questions in my interview schedule were asked to my participants in the same way in each interview. I tried to build a consistency into the process of asking the questions. I used tape recording equipment to record the interviews, because it helped to improve reliability in the data collection process. Tape recording interviews not only helped the reliability issue of the interviews, but freed me from concentrating on taking notes, and allowed me to probe participants' answers. It also allowed me to listen more attentively to participants' answers. The issue of validity was dealt with by following some of Keats' (2001) aspects of validity: construct validity and content validity. The construct validity of my interview schedule reflects the sociological theory discussed in the literature review of my research; the literature review not only originated the questions, but also validated them. The content validity reflects the topics dealt with in my literature review, i.e., the socio-political context of the debate about quality of teaching and learning in higher education; concepts of quality; and conceptions, perceptions and approaches to teaching in higher education. I also followed Arksey's and Knight's (1999) suggestions for enhancing the validity of the interviews, by making sure that: my interview technique would build rapport, trust and openness and give informants scope to express the way they see things; the interview schedule contained questions drawn from the literature and from pilot work; the questions covered issues raised by the research question; I did not ask questions that were not relevant to the research topic.

3. Bias of the interview schedule and process

I started the interviews with specific questions and not with more conceptual questions, in order to avoid participants establishing a reference point for their answers, as a reference point could guide participants' answers. Wengraf (2004), in relation to leading and biased questions contaminating the response, warned that if researchers let the participants know in any way that they have preferred responses to one of the questions of the interview schedule, the participants are more likely to "tailor' their

responses to what [the researchers] seem to be hoping for' (ibid.: 163). I did not use any leading questions in my interview schedule. My questions were constructed in order to 'keep all alternative answers open' (Keats, 2001: 40). See under section F above.

H. Ethical considerations

Ethical decisions arose throughout the entire research process, because interview inquiry is a 'moral enterprise' (Kvale, 1996: 109), in which personal interaction in the interview affects the participants, and the knowledge produced by the interview affects our understanding of the human situation, because an interview situation is an 'unnatural social situation' (Measor, 1985: 67), two strangers not only sitting face-to-face in the presence of a recorder, but one being prepared to listen to what the other has to say about him/herself. Mason (2002: 65) reminds us that 'it is inappropriate to see social interaction as 'bias' which can potentially be eradicated', and '[f]rom this point of view [one] cannot separate the interview from the social interaction in which it is produced'.

1. Ethical procedure and access to participants

Established ethical procedures were followed for acquiring access to participants for the pilot study and the main study. I completed the form *Outline of Proposed Research to be Submitted for Ethical Approval* and sought the permission of the School of Educational Foundations and Policy Studies' Ethics Committee of the Institute of Education to carry out this study at the Institute of Education, because this seemed to be the appropriate approach to gaining authorisation to carry out my study and checking that my research design complied with the ethical guidelines of the Institute of Education. I considered obtaining this authorization to be a crucial step towards carrying out my research. This was granted. In order to get access to participants for my research, I prepared a letter of presentation, presenting myself as a PhD student researching the perception of students of quality teaching in higher education in the UK,

and I also specified the interview focus, and took the documents to the course managers/administrators and MA coordinators at the Institute of Education. At first, the MA administrators and coordinators refused my request for help, saying that I needed permission from each individual teacher, and that only if each of them agreed, would they help. To have sought permission from each individual teacher would have been a daunting task. I tried to approach MA students at the Institute of Education's premises, but this proved to be impracticable, because of the difficulty of identifying MA students among hundreds of other students. Those I managed to speak to were unwilling to take part.

I learned, with that experience, that access to participants is the greatest challenge a researcher can encounter during the empirical part of the study. After facing this great obstacle to the development of my study, I streamlined the letter of presentation, and I also specified the schedule that I was going to use for the interviews, and took the documents again to the course managers/administrators and MA coordinators at the Institute of Education. They reassessed the documents and gave me authorisation to research at the Institute of Education. I also prepared an email letter (see Annex II), in which I made clear my intentions and the areas of the proposed research, to be sent to participants. I requested the managers/administrators and MA coordinators at the Institute of Education to circulate it among their students. They all cooperated, and the response was huge. This was gratifying. I have learned that it is better to be explicit about one's intentions and areas of interest and to follow the official route by approaching those in authority for permission and help in gathering participants for one's research.

I was contacted by 'would-be' participants through email and telephone. Having in mind that the research design and the research process were not closed processes, and in case the approach I chose to get participants to take part in my research would impede the development of my study, I allowed myself space for manoeuvring by keeping a flexible research design, for which I would, if necessary, use a 'snowball sampling technique' (Arksey and Knight, 1999: 4) to ask one informant to nominate others who might be worth talking with, because my intention was to explore meanings.

The participants were asked orally and in writing for their 'voluntary informed consent' (BSA, 2002/04: 3, BERA, 2004: 6) to be interviewed for my study. I managed to get an agreed date for an interview with the overall majority of participants. Most of the interviews were carried out in the premises of the Institute of Education. However, I had to adapt to circumstances fitting participants' needs, and I had to make allowances in order to cater for the needs, concerns, anxieties, and any additional problems and disadvantages any participant might have, such as easy access for wheelchairs, etc. As mentioned earlier, I had to negotiate with three of the participants a different date and a different place for the interview to take place. One interview took place at one participant's flat, and another two interviews took place at two participants' workplace (office).

2. Relationship between me as an ethical researcher and the participants

In relation to the interview situation, I was concerned with issues of power relations between myself and my participants, because the research interview is not a conversation between equal partners, the researcher defining and controlling the situation (Kvale, 1996), and introducing the topic of the interview and critically following up the participant's answers to the questions. I was concerned about the power relations in relation to gender, where I, a male PhD student, was interviewing female participants. As Bogdan and Biklen (1992) pointed out, gender is another researcher characteristic that has to be considered in thinking of fieldwork relations. They also claimed that gender is a central organising identity and that male and female researchers will be treated differently by the participants and will come to know different aspects of the worlds they study. I was concerned about power relations in relation to level, because I, a PhD student, was interviewing MA students in higher education, and they might feel threatened and intimidated by my seniority in relation to their studies. I was also concerned about power relations in relation to control of the interview process, because I defined and controlled the interview situation. I was aware of the awkward situation which my participants and I were in, with relations of power exchanging between my participants and myself. I was asking questions and expecting

trustworthy answers to those questions, and my participants were answering them and expecting trustworthiness and respect for their stories and the reporting of them.

Yow (1994) points out that power in the interviewing situation is most often on the side of the interviewer and therefore the research must accept that there is inequality in the interviewing situation. However, Oakley (1982: 37) points out that in an interview situation, both interviewer and interviewee have the 'same status from the point of view of the person/people, institution or corporation conducting the research'. I was aware that power is everywhere and that the relations of power are changeable, reversible and unstable, therefore power is dynamic (Foucault, 1994). I was aware that the interviewer could dominate the interviewee and vice versa, mainly when issues of gender, ethnicity and nationality were playing their part in the interview process. Therefore I informed my participants at the beginning of each interview that they had the 'right to withdraw' (BERA, 2004: 6) their consent to participate in my study at any time they felt a need to do so, up to March 2006, when I would be in the final stages of the writing process and would not be able to remove quotations from the document. None of the participants withdrew from my study. I also informed my participants that they were free to choose what to say in answer to a particular question on a specific topic or theme, how much they wanted to say, or even not to say anything at all. I was also aware of the issues related to the "right answers" that some interviewees could be looking for during the interview process, therefore I explained to them before starting the interview that there were no "right" or "wrong" answers to my questions, because what I was looking for was their perceptions, views and experiences of teaching and learning in higher education.

Like Rapoport and Rapoport (1976), I also believe that the relationship between interviewer and interviewee is an important element in influencing the quality of the information. This relationship was the only key I had to access the quality of the information participants had to offer me. In my research design I first thought that one of the major problems would be developing relationships with participants, in order to get their attention and get access to their experiences. That proved not to be the case. All participants were willing to take part in this study. The various reasons students gave for

participating included: (1) believing it would help them to think about their own learning process; (2) a desire to contribute to this study; (3) a genuine interest in and curiosity about this study; (4) wanting to have firsthand experience of a research process; (5) an interest in seeing how research interviews were conducted; and (6) a desire to discuss the general methodology of this study as a future reference for their own research. Their reasons reminded me that interview research is 'a learning process both for researchers and for those who are researched' (Holland and Ramazanoglu, 1995: 131).

3. Me as an ethical researcher, the participants and data presentation

Ethically, as a general principle of data analysis, I decided not to represent any information which could reveal the identity of any of the participants and of any person they referred to during the interview process. As I was accessing participants' experiences, these were directly related to issues of confidentiality and anonymity. I treated as confidential any information they gave me which relates to any particular individual at the Institute of Education. I asked participants' authorization to tape record their interviews, and explained to them that the tape would help me more easily to recall their experiences when analysing my data. The participants in my study learned that their interviews were confidential, and that the tape recordings would be transcribed verbatim by myself, as I realised the importance of personally transcribing each interview, because it helped me to remain close to and to retain an overview of the data. Each taped interview took approximately eight hours to transcribe. This was due both to diction and the quantity of information imparted. Nobody else would have access to the tapes recorded except myself and my supervisors, if they felt it was necessary, after all they were in charge of my training as a researcher. My supervisors would also comply with issues of confidentiality and anonymity. My participants also learned that the analysis of the data collected would be used to produce my PhD thesis, articles and books, and that it would also be presented in lectures, seminars and conferences.

They learned that I would comply with the Data Protection Act 1998 (HMSO, 1998), that their anonymity would be guaranteed and that records which reveal their identity and the identity of others they referred to in the interviews would not be disclosed, nor, except in my thesis, the identity of the institution in which they were studying. I changed their names and personal details for any publication or any kind of lecture, conference or seminar. In my thesis I do not reveal any information which identifies the participants or the people whom they referred to. However, the Institute of Education is identified only in my thesis, as this is the institution in which I am doing my PhD and in which I carried out my research. The participants were also offered the opportunity, if they wanted, to 'review the transcript' (Yow, 1994: 111) of their interviews after the interview. The transcript would be in an electronic format and sent by email. After the interviews, in the debriefing, I asked the participants if they had anything they would like to say or ask about the interview and the study. Some participants asked questions about my methodology. Some participants asked questions about my research and research findings. Others asked advice on how to carry out their research, analyse data and write their dissertations. However, after the interview debriefing, all participants requested an electronic copy of my PhD thesis instead. They were more interested in the end result of their interviews, i.e. the data analysed in a form of report.

I was committed to reflecting upon what participants said, and I was also committed to trying to explain what participants said. As Bogdan and Biklen (1992) remind us, one of the ethical principles of qualitative research is to tell the truth when writing up and reporting findings of research, as researchers should be devoted to reporting what the data reveal. This is also related to validity in qualitative research, as 'it has to do with description and explanation, and whether or not a given explanation fits a given description' (Janesick, 1998: 50). I allowed space for old findings from previous research and for the new findings in my study. By new findings I mean 'findings which don't 'fit', and have not been addressed' (Kelly et al., 1992: 158) so far by other qualitative and/or quantitative studies. This can be observed in the samples of data presented to provide evidence for my thesis.

Throughout the writing of my PhD thesis, I have been constantly challenged by my supervisor, Doctor Anne Gold, on why I decided to give equal weight to views of a minority of participants as to the views of a majority in the analysis of the data. The argument was that if something was felt or experienced by a small number of participants, than it was not important. Her challenge made me to think about the aim, goals and purpose of my study and the core of my ethical standing and position in relation to my study and participants in this study. My stated aim was to provide an account and analysis of students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the UK. My goals in using a qualitative research design were to explore, describe, understand and explain students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the UK. And my purpose was to create a space for students to discuss their views and perceptions of teaching in higher education. In answer to this challenge, I decided, as an ethical researcher, to stick to my aim, goals and purpose of my research. In this study I created a space for students to discuss their views and perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the UK. Therefore, the examples of data presented in this study give equal weight to views of a minority of participants as to the views of a majority, which emphasises the qualitative aspect of this study.

I. The insider research question: the study, the Institute of Education, the participants and myself

During the data collection I was advised by my then supervisors, Professor Louise Morley and Doctor Anne Gold, to look at my position as a PhD student at the Institute of Education researching MA students inside the Institute of Education. In my upgrading assessment, I was also advised by my upgrade examiners, Doctor Penny Jane Burke and Doctor Kelly Coate, to look at my position as I am a sort of an insider researcher. I have taken their challenge and examined my position (in *Table XI*, on the following page, I address some questions related to insider researcher position).

Table XI – What makes a researcher an insider researcher

Questions:	Answers:
Am I an insider researcher?	No, because the nature, purpose, intention, objective and goal of my study were to document and provide an analysis of students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the UK, and to create a space for students' voice and perception in the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education, and not to create a space for self-reflexivity in order to improve my teaching practice in my working place, nor evaluate the Institute of Education policy and practice for quality of teaching and learning. I do not deny that the findings of my study will directly impact on my teaching practice and probably they will improve my teaching practice as much as they will impact on readers' teaching practice or policy formulation. However, that was not the nature, purpose, intention, objective and goal of my study.
What do I have in common with the participants?	What I have in common is that I am a student. However, I am a part-time PhD student who does not attend the same courses as the MA students do. I do not share a social life with the MA students and I do not live with them.
What do I have in common with the Institute of Education?	What I have in common is my research interest in education as a PhD student. I am not a member of staff and I do not have managerial, supervisory and teaching duties at the Institute of Education. I did not have to deal with 'the dual role' (Rabbitt, 2003: 3) in which I am the researcher and an active member of the academic or managerial staff.
Am I an active participant in my sample?	No, because it is not my teaching practice that is the subject of my study. It is students' perceptions of quality teaching that make the body of my study. I am not introducing change and monitoring it in my teaching practice nor am I evaluating some aspects of my teaching practice nor the Institute of Education's policy and practices for assuring quality in the teaching and learning process (Zeni, 1998, Robson, 2002).
Is my study based on insider knowledge?	No, because I do not know all the staff at the Institute of Education nor do I know all the MA students at the Institute of Education. My experience with my own MA at the Institute of Education took place five years earlier before I collected the empirical data of this study. During the period of my study, a lot of staff and students I knew at that time left and new staff and students came into the Institute of Education. Like all institutions, the Institute of Education does not have a static body.
Was my research heavily reliant upon my extensive local network?	No. As I described earlier, it took a lot of convincing and work to get access to participants.
Did I have any kind of information which would take an outsider longer time to acquire?	No, although I could identify some of the teachers, when participants were describing their teaching experience, I did not have any particular kind of information which would impact on the quality of the information the participants were sharing with me in their interviews.

Brown (2004) states that when a researcher is recognised as a member of the participant community there are both advantages in terms of access to rich data and disadvantages as participants share experiences and understandings in ways that would be denied to an outsider. I agree with this statement. However, in my view, one cannot fail to see that sometimes an outsider researcher can have access to information that would be denied to an insider researcher, because of the power relations involved in the relationship between the researcher and participants and their position in the company or institution. Participants would not disclose information that would make themselves vulnerable in front of someone who could use that information against them. I believe that in insider research, even the ethical agreement of confidentiality cannot prevent one from using the acquired knowledge of the other or retaliating against the information disclosed by participants.

J. Values and neutrality in the study

Bryman (2001) asserted that research cannot be value-free. Gouldner (2001) concurred that a value-free sociology is a myth. Janesick (1998) affirmed that there is no value-free and bias-free research design. Kelly et al. (1992, 1995) maintained that the values of the researcher inform the choice of topic, research design and the way the researcher interprets, conceptualises and extrapolates from the data. May (2001) made it clear that values do not simply affect some aspects of research, but all aspects of it, as they enter the process of research at all stages. In these parameters, I recognise that my study was influenced by my values, as I chose the topic and the research design and interpreted the data. However, neither my values nor the values of my participants go uncontested throughout my research. I tried as much as I could to present the participants' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education and contest them in relation to the wider context of quality for teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. I tried to 'keep the distance' (Morley, 2005) and detach myself from the data as much as I could. As Patton (2002) says, detachment from the subject and data is presumed to reduce bias, however, according to him, understanding comes from trying to put oneself in the other person's shoes, from trying to discern how others think, act and feel. He also says that neutrality is not an easily attainable stance and it does not

mean detachment, as qualitative research depends on, uses, and enhances the researcher's direct experiences in the world and insights about those experiences.

In my study I shared a common culture with the participants, as I am a PhD student; with the teachers, as I am a teacher; and with the researchers, as I am a trainee researcher. Because of these common cultures, I had to stay alert in order not to take positions and sides in this research, treat any of these groups with prejudice or favour any of them. I had always to step back and ask 'what [was] going on [in each single extract of the interview transcript of the data]?' (Strauss and Corbin, 1998: 97). Why? How would it relate to the sociological theory of my research? What were the pros and cons that could be applied to each single extract of the interview transcript of the data?

K. Data analysis

Although the process of data analysis started with the interview evaluations and fieldnotes, the formal data analysis of my study was advanced by reading the data on all three levels: literal, interpretive and reflexive (Mason, 1998, 2002). For the literal reading I focused on the literal content, such as the words and language used that made up the literal version of the interview. For the interpretive reading I concentrated on what I thought the data meant or represented, or what I thought could be inferred from it. For the reflexive reading the emphasis was on my role and perspective as a researcher in the generation and interpretation of the data. These levels of reading allowed for easier comparison of the data, which was achieved through a thorough comparative sociological analysis of the interview transcripts. The data was manipulated in order to create 'gestalts and meaningful patterns' (Keats, 2001: 80) from the sociological, pedagogical, psychological and psychoanalytical perspectives which form the basis for the comparisons. The interview material was organised in such a way as to make possible the interpretation of themes, rather than to study word, phrase or theme frequency, as in content analysis. I searched for certain words, phrases, patterns of behaviour, ways of thinking and events which were repeated and stood out. This was done in order to develop categories upon which to focus and organise the retrieval of

sections of texts or elements of data for the purposes of further analysis or manipulation. By comparing the multitude of participants' views, the data was able to be coded by using a system of open coding. The data was broken down into 'line-by-line' (Strauss and Corbin, 1998: 72), which I used to dig for meanings. This involved a close examination, comparison and categorisation of the data. Labels were attached to phrases or even single words that might represent or symbolise happenings, events and concepts within this delicate interplay, this drama enacted between teaching and learning, with all its social interaction – 'talking at you', 'poor', 'good', 'group work', 'asking questions', and others.

I learned that it would be essential to have the help of a computer-aided qualitative data analysis program. The NVivo 2 (QSR NVivo, 2002), with guides on its usage by Bazeley and Richards (2000) and Gibbs (2002), was used for managing the quantities of information obtained for this study. It enabled me to locate and retrieve issues, topics, information, examples and themes that did not appear in an orderly or sequential manner. By this means the sorting, indexing (coding), and organising of the data was also accomplished. This facilitated the comparison and analysis of the data and helped with its handling and management, allowing the identification of what was relevant for the development of my explanations and arguments.

The sorting, indexing (coding), and organising of the data enabled me to achieve deep insights into the material collected and provided a space to discover issues and themes that went 'beyond impressionistic first readings of the data' (Morley, 2004: 2). This analytical process functioned as an evaluation of the purpose of the research questions as well as an evaluation and certification of the 'preconceived' (Strauss and Corbin, 1998: 12) theories. It also served as an orientation for the new theories to be added to fill the 'hole in theoretical formulations' (Strauss and Corbin, 1990: 31) derived from the study. I wanted to see if the data were addressing the research questions and my theoretical concerns – and if so, how well. As mentioned earlier, during the development of the pilot study participants began to develop a certain aspect that had not been taken into consideration in the interview schedule. I had to include this aspect – the impact of teachers' research activities on the quality of teaching and

learning in higher education – in the schedule for both the pilot study and for the main body of research.

The categories under which the open coding would go were then developed. These categories represented the major ideas being discussed in the single words and/or phrases and/or sentences and/or paragraphs. This consistent coding system, the 'cross-sectional and categorical indexing' (Mason, 2002: 150), for indexing the whole data according to a set of common principles and measures, considered to be the most focused, was applied to all the data as a principle of measurement. In the whole study I identified 73 codes. The main codes which comprise the body of this thesis are described in *Figure 2*, on the following page.

Figure 2: The main codes of the body of this thesis

Expectations of a good university teacher

This code covers the descriptions of the conceptions of quality teaching held by students in higher education and their expectations of a good university teacher.

Choice and preference in the teaching and learning process

This code covers the descriptions of the choices and preferences students want to have in the teaching and learning process in higher education.

Good quality teaching

This code covers the descriptions of the perceptions of what students consider to be good quality teaching in higher education.

Poor/bad quality teaching

This code covers the descriptions of the perceptions of what students consider to be poor quality teaching in higher education.

Research impact on learning

This code covers the descriptions of the perceptions of the effect of the research activities of teachers in higher education on the learning process of students.

Research impact on teaching

This code covers the descriptions of the perceptions of what students consider to be the effect of the research activities of teachers in higher education on their teaching.

Power relations in the teaching and learning process

This code covers the descriptions of the perceptions of students and their feelings towards their teachers' teaching styles, which culminate in students' silence or participation in the classroom.

These were focused 'strong concepts' (Strauss and Corbin, 1998: 115) which came with established analytical meanings that could be applied to the whole data without difficulty. This cross-sectional and categorical indexing made the data more accessible in various ways, in accordance with the varying purposes of my arguments. These coding categories served as a means of sorting the descriptive data material enabling themes to be developed and explored throughout the data analysis. A consistent system was devised of cross-sectional and categorical indexing throughout the whole data. This was done in order to obtain a systematic view of the data and gain

a clear idea of its coverage and scope. As my supervisors advised me to keep reading and coding the data, I did so consistently throughout the data analysis and the writing of this thesis.

L. Summary

In this chapter I described my research design, research method and methodology of my research. I also provided a critical analysis of the research process and my role as a researcher. I described how I dealt with ethical issues in my study. I also described how I became aware of the importance of teachers' research activities to the teaching and learning of the participants. It is an account of my learning journey on becoming good researcher and better learner. In the following chapters I describe my learning.

Chapter V

MA students' expectations of what makes a good university teacher in higher education

In this chapter, I address, discuss and analyse MA students' expectations of a good university teacher. The relevance of this chapter to this study is that students' expectations of a good university teacher are directly linked to the new concept of quality as 'meeting the expectation of customers/consumers' (Bótas, 2006: 10). As I mentioned earlier, in chapter I, the government, in its White Paper, claims that institutions should meet the increasingly diverse needs of students and also meet the expectations of customers: because students are contributing more to the costs of their tuition, their expectations of teaching quality will rise and will therefore need to be met (DES, 2003). In this chapter, I demonstrate that students come to their MA courses with a whole variety of expectations and some of these expectations are in direct competition with one another, and some of them are unrealistic. Based on both my data and the literature, I argue that teachers in higher education are not suffering only from an overload of their scholarly and research activities, but also suffering from an overload of students' expectations placed on them. And I further argue that the criteria that students use to define and judge quality teaching in higher education are not only vast, but some students hold and value more than one criterion when judging the quality of teaching in higher education.

According to Sander et al. (2000: 309) education has typically adopted an "inside out" approach, with those on the inside assuming that they know what students need and what they expect the teacher to give. Culley et al. (1985) raise our awareness that teachers are implicated in the classroom dynamics as fully as students, and, like students, teachers have their own 'texts', their own unarticulated needs and expectations. Teachers have to deal not only with their own expectations, but mainly with the expectations of students in the classroom. Sander et al. (2000) maintain that collecting information about students' expectations of teachers could be beneficial to

the design and delivery of modules or courses. My data and the literature show that by getting to know the expectations students have of their teachers, and acting upon them, is not only beneficial to the design and delivery of modules or courses, but also beneficial to addressing the learning needs of students and the quality of their teaching and learning experience in the classroom in higher education.

In my study, the participants stressed four characteristics of a good university teacher. According to them, a good university teacher should know how to teach, motivate students, have knowledge of the subject they are teaching and be available to students.

A. Knowing how to teach

As I mentioned earlier, in chapter III, the concern about the quality of teaching and learning in higher education has been around for a long time. Since the early 1980s, it has become one of the main focuses of policies for higher education in the UK, as universities in the UK are under pressure to increase their accountability for the quality of teaching they provide to home and international students. In this study, all participants mentioned in their interviews that a good university teacher should know how to teach. Knowing how to teach in higher education has been the subject of many studies from sociology and cognitive psychology. From the sociological perspective, i.e. critical and feminist perspective, such as Freire (1994, 1996, 2000), Shor (1980, 1987, 1992, 1996) and Shor and Freire (Shor and Freire, 1987), Culley and Portuges (1985), Luke and Gore (1992), Gore (1993), hooks (1994), Gallop (1995), Luke (1996) and Ellsworth (1997, 2005), studies have been concerned with teaching and learning not only in relation to the cognitive aspect of teaching and learning, but also in relation to the issues that affect the cognitive development of students in higher education, such as issues of gender, ethnicity, sexuality, social class, religion, nationality etc. From the cognitive psychological perspective, examples are Brown and Atkins (1988), Ross (1991), Chalmers and Fuller (1996), Ramsden (1996, 2003), Laurillard (1997, 2002), Bligh (1998), Dart and Boulton-Lewis (1998), Rogers (1998), Biggs (1999, 2003),

Biggs and Tang (2007), Hativa (2000), Light and Cox (2001), Brown and Race (2002), Nicholls (2002) and Moon (2008), the focus is only on the cognitive aspects of teaching and learning in higher education without taking into consideration these very issues of gender etc. which make us individuals. These studies from the sociological and cognitive psychology perspectives are all concerned with the quality of teaching and learning in higher education. However, quality teaching, according to Trigwell and Prosser (1991), is related to an environment in which

> the lecturer gives adequate and helpful feedback, makes clear the objectives, the assessment criteria and generally what is expected of students, demonstrates the relevance of the course and attempts to make it interesting, creates opportunities for questions and time for consultations, is good at explaining things, makes an effort to understand students' difficulties and gives students the opportunity to decide what and how they learn (Trigwell and Prosser, 1991: 263).

The participants in this study expanded the criteria enumerated above of what is expected of quality teaching in higher education in the UK. They define 'knowing how to teach' as teachers: supporting, guiding and helping students and giving emotional support; teaching, presenting, delivering, transmitting and giving information; explaining, making and demonstrating links between the topics, subjects and courses; using language that students can understand and having good communication skills; valuing and respecting students' opinions, contributions and points of view; and performing in the classroom and having a sense of humour. Their definitions of a "good university teacher" reflect their expectations of a good university teacher. In the following subheadings I will analyse and discuss each of these expectations of MA students.

1. Supporting, guiding and helping students to learn and giving emotional support

My research shows that students think that a good university teacher is supportive of students, and that support in the teaching and learning process in higher

education can be understood and occur in a variety of ways. It is important to observe that the students' conceptualisation of support in the teaching and learning process goes beyond Biggs' (1999, 2003) concept and understanding of support. Biggs sees his level 3 theory of teaching as supporting learning, in which teachers are experts in using a variety of teaching techniques and the focus is on what the student does, and on what learning is or is not going on. According to him, teaching is systemic and depends both on what teachers and students do and their abilities. The students, in my study, conceptualise teachers' support as teachers guiding and helping them to learn. Their concept of support also involves teachers transmitting concepts and understanding to students.

Half of the participants in this study expressed, in their interviews, their expectations of a good university teacher in terms of supporting, guiding and helping students to learn. For example, Raja mentioned that:

> They should help students to learn. (...). They should be able to guide students. They should know how to facilitate in the classroom.

Bruce expressed that:

> A good university teacher is (...) someone who feels that he/she is there to support your learning.

And Mizzy observed that:

> I think that a good university teacher (...) has to be very good at looking after the students and giving them support.

In the preceding examples, one can see that students' conceptions of support include guidance, facilitation, interaction, teaching, and caring for students' learning and self. O'Brien and Guiney (2001) called our attention to the fact that the actions of teachers can affect the actions and learning outcomes of learners. They write that teachers need to be able to become aware of their own susceptibilities and how these might affect their practice. They also urged the teacher to 'see beyond the superficial and to consider what can be done to enable the learner to learn' (ibid.: 59). Colbeck et al. (2001) state that

their findings indicate that teachers' efforts in the classroom indeed have important influences on students' self-perception, i.e. positive perceptions of themselves as students and as future professionals, as student gains in confidence, motivation, responsibility, and intent to persist were influenced more by teaching practices than by the students' background characteristics.

Maryam expanded the responsibility of teachers by adding to it the expectation of emotional support from teachers. She mentioned that:

> A good university teacher is somebody who knows that we need some kind of focus, guidance and interaction to understand the subjects. (...). We also need emotional support from the teachers.

Brown (2002) stated that if education is about helping students to discover, release and develop potential, then the role of the teacher goes hand in hand with the role of the counsellor, because it is clear that there are features common to both. Maryam, like Mizzy, also wants to feel the 'pastoral power' (Foucault, 1982: 213) of the teacher over her process of learning and learning development, with the teacher being there to give her support and help when she needs them. Jenkins et al. (2003: 38) mentioned that 'affect barriers' are one of the most common barriers to learning, arising when learners' emotional needs are not met within the learning situation. Ingleton (1999) argues that the teaching and learning experiences of teachers and students are shaped by emotions, as 'the affective and embodied are already aspects of all pedagogical encounters' (Beard et al., 2007: 236) in higher education. However, Shaw (1995) mentioned that teaching is a very draining, enervating activity because of how much of the teacher has to be given in the teaching relationship, as most teachers are subject to unrealistic expectations of nurturance, patience, empathy and knowledge. Looking at these competing perceptions of the duties of teachers and the expectations placed on them, how fair is it, taking into consideration the amount of work and responsibility placed on teachers, to overload them with counselling duties as well? To what extent should teachers also be responsible for the emotional wellbeing of students? What about the wellbeing of the teacher? In a consumer society, to what extent should there be a balance between teachers' duties and students' expectations? Or where do the boundaries between

teachers' duties and students' expectations lie in the teaching and learning process in higher education?

Earwaker (1992), in his interviews with university teachers, found that nearly all of his participants expressed some anxiety about this part of their work, i.e. supporting students. According to him, teachers sometimes find it difficult to operate both as a source of support and as an arbiter of standards (assessors of students' works). He argued that teachers can experience student support not as a fulfilling part of their role, but as a kind of bottomless pit into which they feel sucked, which takes them away from other legitimate professional concerns, and which skews and distorts their professional role. However, he contends that teachers' support of students is a valued and minimum requirement of teaching, and that help and support can often be provided by teachers simply giving their time and attention to students. It is interesting to see that Earwaker is juggling with four important issues here: the issue of support (teaching, counselling and pastoral care); the issue of legitimate professional concern (research); the issue of teachers' availability to students (time); and the implicit issue of maintaining the motivation of students, the same issues which are the core of this chapter. An important question I ask here is: how can teachers provide all these "services" while having their agenda filled with the scholarly and research activities described in chapter II?

Like Drew (2001), I agree that it is common to differentiate between support for personal issues and academic support. However, the examples of Maryam and Mizzy indicate that for some students there is not a clear distinction between support for personal issues and academic support. It appears to me that, according to them, teachers are responsible for the whole physical and psychological wellbeing of students. As Friedman (1985) claims, in the classroom crisis there are pressures, dissatisfactions, and conflicts that both teachers and students feel, as the student need for validation, nurturance, and a personal relationship with a teacher who is both potentially a role model and father/mother-figure is one of the issues teachers have to deal with. Pastoral care/emotional support is not only part of students' expectations of a good university teacher, but it is also part of some teachers' expectations of themselves in higher education, as Kember and Gow (1994) found that some teachers also felt that the ideal

academic would have a pastoral interest in students. Morley (1998) argues that however unsupported and under-resourced feminist teachers may be, they feel the need to be constantly available to meet the needs of others. According to her, in other professions where emotional labour is acknowledged, supervision is provided, but feminist educators often provide quasi-therapeutic services to students without resources to replenish them, and without any checks and balances.

Following the findings of my study, I understand that supporting, guiding and helping students learn and giving emotional support can be perceived as an umbrella under which can go all the other criteria, which will be discussed and analysed in the following sections of this chapter, such as: teaching, presenting, delivering, transmitting and giving information; explaining, making and demonstrating links between the topics, subjects and courses; using language that students can understand and having good communication skills; valuing and respecting students' opinions, contributions and points of view; and performing in the classroom and having a sense of humour, including motivating students, having knowledge of the subject they are teaching and being available to students. However, in my view, supporting, guiding and helping students learn and giving emotional support is a criterion on its own merit because it involves not only academic support, but also personal (emotional) support. That is the reason it is discussed and analysed in the first sub-section of this chapter.

2. Teaching, presenting, delivering, transmitting and giving information

It is my personal belief that teaching is the most important activity in higher education, because the way teachers teach impacts on students' learning. Barnett (1992) maintains that the first responsibility of academic teachers is to their teaching, i.e. their students, and not to their research. He concurs that if we are seriously interested in promoting the quality of higher education and improving the effectiveness with which teachers teach and students learn, it is to the teaching process that we must look. However, Barnett (1990: 154) argues that passive assimilation of knowledge cannot have a part in the teaching and learning process in higher education. Critical, feminist

and cognitive psychology also question the use of teaching as presenting, delivering, transmitting and giving information to students, i.e. the passive assimilation of knowledge. According to critical and feminist pedagogies, such as Freire (1994, 1996, 2000), Shor (1980, 1987, 1992, 1996) and Shor and Freire (1987); Culley and Portuges (1985), Luke and Gore (1992), Gore (1993), hooks (1994), Gallop (1995), Luke (1996) and Ellsworth (1997, 2005), knowledge transmission is not "empowering" and does not bring students to their "conscientização" of themselves and the world around them. And according to cognitive psychology, such as Brown and Atkins (1988), Ross (1991), Chalmers and Fuller (1996), Ramsden (1996, 2003), Laurillard (1997, 2002), Bligh (1998), Dart and Boulton-Lewis (1998), Rogers (1998), Biggs (1999, 2003), Biggs and Tang (2007), Hativa (2000), Light and Cox (2001), Brown and Race (2002) and Nicholls (2002), knowledge transmission is not conducive to higher levels of learning processes.

One quarter of participants in my study, in their interviews, mentioned that a good university teacher should teach, present, deliver, transmit and give information to students. Mian believes that:

> Before students can have their own ideas, the teacher should teach something. Students need to have basic information before we can have our own ideas.

Naomi mentioned that:

> A good university teacher... I would hope that (...) they actually want to present and show that information to the group, rather than showing that they are just there to do a job.

And Amanda noted that:

> It is somebody who can think about his subject, somebody who can take you through the main thoughts and histories of the subject and relate it to your experience.

The examples above contradict critical, feminist and cognitive psychology perspectives of quality teaching and learning in higher education, as the participants expect that a

good university teacher will teach students 'basic information', 'present and show' and 'take [students] through the main thoughts and histories of the subject and relate it to [students'] experience'. Not all students have the same level of knowledge, understanding and background on the subject/topic teachers are teaching, mainly at a postgraduate level, where students come from different backgrounds and different disciplines such as is the case of MA students in Education. I agree with Mian that a good university teacher, independent of the level he/she is teaching, has to teach students the basics of the subject and give them the necessary information for them to develop their own thinking and ideas. Shor (1992) argues that teachers by transferring the approved syllabus to students are controlling and asserting their authority over their students, and that can make students passive and put their learning habits to sleep due to the direct instruction of teachers. It seems to me that Shor chose to ignore the fact that for students to carry out their journey in learning, they need to have a starting point, i.e. exposition/delivery/transmission of the basic concepts, their meanings and usage in the area/subject/topic students are studying, a map of the direction (reading list) to follow on their journey toward their learning (their destination). It seems to be foolish for teachers to assume that all students already have some sort of experience and/or knowledge of the area/subject/topic they are teaching, and that students place the same values and 'attributes to key concepts as teachers do' (Maher, 1985: 39). According to Bartolomé (1994, 1996),

> Creating learning environments that incorporate student language and life experiences in no way negates teachers' responsibility for providing students with particular academic content knowledge and skills. It is important not to link teacher respect and use of student knowledge and language bases with a laissez-faire attitude toward teaching. It is equally necessary not to confuse academic rigor with rigidity that stifles and silences students. The teacher is the authority, with all the resulting responsibilities that entails; however, it is not necessary for the teacher to become authoritarian in order to challenge students intellectually (Bartolomé, 1994: 183, 1996: 240).

However, I do accept that there are ways of engaging students in the transfer of information, by making it more democratic and less alienating, and I believe that students should be engaged and participating in the making of knowledge in the classroom. I believe that teachers can use a variety of teaching methods, including the

use of lecturing, in order to engage students in knowledge creation. Bligh (1998) claims that the lecture method is no better than any other and it is less effective for the promotion of thought and for changing attitudes. He further claims that a variety of teaching methods entails a greater variety of stimuli than a single one, because varied stimuli maintain arousal levels. According to him,

> If students differ in the methods by which they learn best, and teachers should adapt their methods to maximize their effectiveness, it seems reasonable to think that teachers should use a variety of methods to cater for the differences between students. This is not easy to do in a systematic way because of the difficulty of knowing specific students' needs; but it is a further reason for adopting a general policy of using a variety of methods (Bligh, 1998: 228).

I am inclined to agree with his claim that using a variety of teaching methods is more likely to cater for difference between students' learning needs. However, I do not agree with his claim that the lecture method is less effective for the promotion of thought and for changing attitudes. Clearly this is not my experience as a student, and it is also not the experience of some of my participants in this research. I believe that the manner in which teachers deliver their lectures will determine the level of engagement of students. This issue will be addressed in chapter VIII. In my understanding, teaching cannot be disassociated from explaining as teaching involves explaining the subject/topic to students.

3. Explaining, making and demonstrating links between the topics, subjects and courses

My research leads me to contend that the teacher should be explaining, making and demonstrating the links between his/her sessions and lectures, general knowledge and other subjects. Students need to know what they are studying, how it relates to theory and practice, and also how it relates to their experiences and the experience of the teacher. Maher (1985) argues that

a more fundamental change in subject-matter presentation involves making explicit connections in course topics among the three levels of theory, research, and the students' (and teacher's) own observations and experiences (Maher, 1985: 40).

Bligh (1998) argues that by demonstrating to students how to link and connect what they are learning to what they have learned already, in order to consolidate students' learning, the teacher is encouraging and motivating students to engage with new concepts and understanding in the discipline. Elton (2001) makes the point that in teaching the level of understanding must be that of the student, not of the teacher. According to him, teachers have to perform an act of translation – from their own level to that of their students. This is not a dumbing down, but a recognition of the differences in levels of sophistication, and in the best of teaching it results in the raising of the student's sophistication level. Based on the literature and the findings of my research, I argue that explaining how something works, how it is understood and what it means in a subject/topic helps students to understand, learn and develop their level of sophistication in their thinking processes.

One quarter of participants, in their interviews, said that a good university teacher should explain, make and demonstrate links between the topics, subjects and courses. Thomas mentioned that:

A good lecturer should be good in explaining well the information he is giving.

And Amanda said that:

It is someone who can clearly make links between the sessions and how they relate to the whole module and course.

These examples illustrate that students expect their teachers to explain the subject/topic they are studying and make connections/links between the topics, subjects and course. Not all students are able to visualise where the subject/topic they are studying is located in the spider's web-like diagram of the area and discipline of study. Based on the analysis of my data, I contend that it is the responsibility of teachers to explain and

make clear the connections between the subjects/topics students are studying in order to help students understand what they are studying and why they are studying it. Bligh (1998) suggests that the points lecturers want to teach are in a certain context in their minds and only they know what that context is. He contends that the art of teaching is to help students make links, and that when teachers make a point students will see the connection and will make the links for themselves. However, he warns that teachers cannot make links for the students, because that is something that has to go on in their heads. According to him, all teachers can do is show what is in common between the context that explains and the point to be understood, sketching and showing the links teachers make in the context. He argues that 'to explain a fact or some other proposition, it normally needs to be linked to at least two other facts or propositions' (ibid.: 113). When teachers explain, make and demonstrate the links between their sessions and lectures, general knowledge and other subjects, they are in the business of convincing students that the subject/topic is worth studying and that it helps to explain the world. Patricia, one of the participants, mentioned that:

They have to convince the students that the subject is worth studying.

It is my contention that by explaining a particular concept/proposition and how it relates to other concepts/propositions within and without the discipline, in theory and in practice, teachers not only convince and seduce students, but also motivate and help them to learn the subject/topic. According to Shulman (1986) teachers must be able to explain why a particular proposition is deemed warranted and why it is worth knowing. Like Maher (1985), I also believe that teachers should be making explicit connection in course topics across the three levels: theory, research, and students' and teachers' own observations and experiences. Explaining cannot be disassociated from using a language that students can understand in the teaching and learning process.

4. Using language that students can understand and having good communication skills

Education is fundamentally based on how language is used and communication is constructed in the classroom. Beresford and Croft (1988) argue that language is not neutral and is inseparable from power. My understanding of the literature on power relations leads me to argue that language is power and is one of the mechanisms through which power exercises itself, as power can also be exercised through actions, i.e. force – as I discussed and analysed in chapters I and II. Language is a mechanism of power, and the way language is used in communication between teachers and students can establish who has power and who has not. In my view, communication (verbal/non-verbal) is a tool through which power is exercised, as Foucault (2002) notes, communicating always being a certain way of acting upon another person or persons. Habermas (1977) observes that power is exercised through communication, as it can be manipulated and/or distorted in order to achieve a goal, an end, an agreement or not. Bernstein (1996) points out that pedagogic discourse is a carrier of power. I see the classroom as the site of power relations in which teachers and students are in constant struggle for control. Foucault (2002) establishes that

> [a]ctivity to ensure learning and the acquisition of aptitudes or types of behaviour works via a whole ensemble of regulated communications (lessons, questions and answers, orders, exhortations, coded signs of obedience, differential marks of the "value" of each person and of the levels of knowledge) and by means of a whole series of power processes (enclosure, surveillance, reward and punishment, the pyramidal hierarchy) (Foucault, 2002: 338-39).

I contend, based on the literature and the findings of my research, that the manipulation and/or distortion of communication in the teaching and learning process can result in students learning the subject/topic or not.

Less than one quarter of participants, in their interviews, stressed their expectation of teachers using language that students can understand in the teaching and learning process and having good communication skills. Maurice mentioned that:

Good university teachers have to use a language that students can understand, that they are not trying to show up in a way that they are very clever. They have to talk at the level of the students.

And Charlotte mentioned that:

A good university teacher is someone who can communicate to the level of the students and help them to develop to the level of the teacher.

In these examples there is the issue of 'talking at the level of students' i.e. using a language which students understand in order to help students to understand the subject/topic they are studying. Elton (2001) argues that teachers should interpret the language of the subject at the level of the student in order to raise students' level of sophistication on the subject. For him, in teaching, the level of understanding must be of the student and not of the teacher. Researchers on teacher clarity in university teaching, such as Frey et al. (1975), Good and Grouws (1979), Evans and Guymon (1978), Hines et al. (1985), Cruickshank (1985), and Cruickshank and Kennedy (1986), have demonstrated that teacher clarity impacts on students' motivation, learning and perceptions of the quality of teaching and teaching effectiveness. It is important to define teacher clarity here. In this study I define teacher clarity, based on Cruickshank (1985), as teachers communicating the content so that students understand, providing illustrations and examples, and demonstrating the content. Teachers should not assume that all students in the classroom understand what the teacher is talking about and that all students are at the same level and have the same background in the subject. The literature on critical pedagogy suggests that teachers have to use a language when they are communicating the subject/topic to students which resonates with students' language and experience. Maher (1985) argues that teachers have to construct in their classrooms a language that students understand and not assume that students understand the key concepts of their disciplines. And Shor (1992: 257) suggests that teachers should teach in a language that is familiar and 'inside student language and experience'. By using a language that students are familiar with teachers are valuing and respecting students' experiences.

5. Valuing and respecting students' opinions, contributions and points of view

My research shows that when teachers validate students' understanding, knowledge and contribution in the classroom, the teacher is empowering students and also being empowered, as students learn that they also have to value and respect the opinion and point of view of the teacher. Hunkins (1991) argues that teachers should engage all students as active players in the curriculum. Less than a quarter of participants, in their interviews, expressed their expectations of having their opinions, contributions and points of view valued and respected by their teachers in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. I think that the teachers have to respect and value the experiences of MA students. Thomas mentioned:

> A good lecturer at university should not make students feel like they are stupid. (...). He should involve students in the classroom, by making them discuss the topic and give their opinions.

And Ang mentioned that:

> The teacher has to have an understanding that he is not the only one who knows things. (...). He has to be able to relate the ideas of the students into the context of the topic and the course.

These examples illustrate the issue of students wanting teachers to respect and value students' contributions and points of view on the topic they are studying in the classroom. These examples lead me to argue that if students are allowed to express their understanding and knowledge on the subject/topic and illustrate it by reporting their experience with it, teachers are empowering students in the teaching and learning process. Bartolomé (1994, 1996) argues that

> [b]efore teachers attempt to instruct students in new content or learning strategies, efforts are made by the teacher to access student prior knowledge so as to link it with new information. In allowing students to present and discuss their prior knowledge and experiences, the teacher legitimizes and treats as valuable student language and cultural experiences usually ignored in classrooms (Bartolomé, 1994: 188, 1996: 246).

Students need to feel comfortable in discussing and expressing their opinions in the classroom, even when they do not know the subject/topic they are studying. They want their teachers to take their ideas and relate them to the context of their learning. If teachers treat students as if 'they are stupid', as if they have nothing to say that is worth listening to in the classroom, how can teachers engage students in a 'conversation about ideas, events, persons, situations, challenges, problems and so forth' (Hunkins, 1991: 306) and help them to develop understanding and knowledge of themselves and the world around them? Thomas (a participant) provides an answer to this question of mine, by mentioning that the teacher 'should put everything that he is teaching into a context to help students to understand better', be it a comment, an opinion, a question, or even an answer. According to Shor (1992), what students bring to class is where learning begins, where the empowering teacher examines the subject matter from the students' point of view and helping students see themselves as knowledgeable people. He observes that an empowering teacher does not fill students unilaterally with information but rather encourages them to reflect mutually on the meaning of any subject matter before them. He stresses that in a critical classroom, the teacher 'does not talk knowledge *at* students but talks *with* them' (ibid.: 85, author's emphasis). However, he does not reject the teacher's passion for knowledge or desire to pass on his/her expertise to his/her students. My experience as both a student and a teacher lead me to argue that a teacher's prior knowledge is the vital link between students and the new knowledge to be produced through the interaction between teacher and students. In my experience, when teachers manage to put what students are saying into a context, students are able to visualise their knowledge, assess it by identifying their strengths and weaknesses, and only then are they able to accept that their views are and will be open to challenges and also that their knowledge is in need of constant improvement. In my view, this occurs only when the teacher manages to engage the students in an educational conversation. In order to engage the minds of students, teachers need to perform in the teaching and learning process in the classroom.

6. Performing in the classroom and having a sense of humour

Both the literature and the findings of my research make it clear that to teach is to perform and that the classroom is a stage on which teachers (the performers) interact with their audience. Interaction in this section is understood as physical, intellectual and emotional interaction/engagement. The constant gaze of the audience (students) is a sign of interaction/engagement. Gallop (1995) argues that as a teacher she is an impersonator because she sees teaching as performance, and pedagogy as impersonation, through which the teacher carries out pedagogical performance in the classroom. In this pedagogical performance, the teacher is an 'animator' (Frank, 1995: 32), and '[t]he audience's resulting plenitude is their happy illusion of desire being filled: the satisfied sense of having gobbled up a good lecturer' (Frank, 1995: 34). However, Ellsworth (1997: 17) warns teachers that '[p]edagogy is a performance that is suspended in the time between the before and the after of learning' and that teaching is 'a suspended performance in the sense that it is never completed or finished' (ibid.: 158). According to her, teaching is a suspended performance 'in the sense that we, as teachers, must stop ourselves if students are to take on responsibility for the meanings they make' (ibid.: 158). I believe that it is very important to be tuned to the students' (audience's) reactions to what we, teachers, say and do in the classroom, and to read the behavioural clues students give and their facial expressions in the classroom, during the pedagogical process, that is, as hooks (1994: 11) puts it: 'to consider issues of reciprocity' in the engagement between teachers and students in the teaching and learning process.

Less than one quarter of participants mentioned, in their interviews, that they expect a good university teacher to perform in the classroom and have a sense of humour. Natalie mentioned that:

> A good university teacher (...). They have to be performers in order to enthuse students in their lectures.

Emma mentioned that:

> I think that being a people person, in tune with the learners is very important.

And Patricia mentioned that:

> (...) if you can't deliver the information in a way that people understand, and if you can't read the audience, the students, and know when they are understanding and when they are not, then that is really a very big problem. (...) So, a good sense of humour (...) is absolutely important.

Patricia, by using the expression 'read the audience', seems to be equating teaching as a performance, during which teachers are able to read the audience, i.e. students' reaction to their pedagogical styles. Based on the findings of my research and my experience as a teacher, I argue that being able to read the audience is one of the most important things in the classroom, as it can tell teachers whether what they are teaching is being understood and followed by students or not. Following hooks' (1994: 12) statement that '[t]here is a serious crisis in education. Students often do not want to learn and teachers do not want to teach', I want to add to this crisis another one: the lack of interest of some teachers in knowing whether their students (audience) are understanding and following what they are teaching (performing) in the teaching and learning process. For Ellsworth (1997: 142) pedagogy is a 'performative act that is always suspended in thought' and teaching is 'a suspended performance in the sense that it is never completed or finished' (ibid.: 158). The use of humour is also part of the performance of teaching. Shor (1992) claims that humour can help students accept the problem-posing approach to teaching and learning, as they understand 'from the very start that learning is participatory, involving humour, hope and curiosity' (ibid.: 26). I understand that the concept of teaching as performance does not make the life of teachers easy, and does not offer any easy benchmark for evaluating the quality of teaching (performance) in higher education.

Orr (1993: 252) points out, 'the classroom is alive and each one has its own personality, a function of the individual needs, desires, interests, and commitments of its students and teachers'. According to her, good teaching relationships demand that one be alert and responsive to others. I think that performing (teaching) in the classroom demands and involves engagement and interaction with the audience through use of

'questioning, eye contact, finger snaps, hand claps, and other gestures, and by eliciting choral responses and initiating some sort of award system' (Delpit, 1988: 284). Maurice mentioned that:

> Good university teachers (...) have to interact with the students. Engage in discussions with students (...).

Bligh (1998) states that there is considerable psychological evidence that the desire for interaction with other people is a very strong motive, and this may be particularly true with young people. Bar-Tal and Bar-Tal (1990) point out that

> Most of the teaching and learning in the classroom take place by means of interaction. The teacher exchanges communication with a pupil or pupils and a pupil or pupils exchange communications with a teacher or with other pupils. The interaction in the classroom not only serves to attain educational objectives but also functions as a mechanism through which a teacher and pupils realize their personal and social goals. Interaction is the main type of social activity in the classroom and it takes up most of the available time (Bar-Tal and Bar-Tal, 1990: 132).

The literature, the findings of my research and my personal experience as a student and a teacher all persuade me that in the classroom teachers and students should interact/engage with each other. However, I must acknowledge, like Filax (1997: 264), that in the classroom there is the possibility that 'some students will resist the teacher, the teacher will resist some or all students, and that some students will resist each other and in each of these cases this resistance may be because of pedagogical approach'. Bar-Tal and Bar-Tal (1990) argue that interactions do not take place in a vacuum but in physical and social environments, and that these environments influence these very interactions. I would also add to their list of environments, the psychological (emotional) environment, as I believe that students' emotions in the classroom can determine whether they will learn or not. I contend that participation is central to empowerment, as empowerment in critical and feminist pedagogies can only be achieved through engagement and interaction. In my view, engagement, interaction and contact between teacher and student are beneficial to both teacher and student, because they can connect to one another. Tysome (2007a) reported that academics are being encouraged to enliven their lecturers by adopting acting methods used by the Talking

Shop Training at 16 universities in the UK, which encourage teachers to get in touch with their instinctive feelings to connect with members of their audience and motivate them to listen and learn. In my view, this can be applied and lead only to better lecturing.

Breen and Lindsay (1999) state that enhanced interaction between student and faculty is likely to result from shared beliefs and values which derive from the discipline, as this enhanced interaction might in turn be expected to facilitate positive motivations of the course competence and intrinsic motivation types. Neumann (1992: 165) asserts that constant contact with students stimulates academics, keeping them alert, alive and "on their toes". Teachers' interaction, involvement and engagement with students is a mechanism of empowerment and control. As a mechanism of empowerment, teachers can address individual learning needs of student and/or groups. As a mechanism of control, teachers can 'demonstrate the proper approach or technique when a problem [comes] up rather than just give instructions to the whole class' (Bossert, 1978: 56). One can see from these arguments that engagement, interaction and contact not only impact on students' motivation, but also impact on teachers' motivation.

Other criteria described by participants were: controlling the learning environment; knowing and addressing/satisfying students' learning needs; allowing students to explore and think about the subject/topic they are studying; having high expectations of students; and giving feedback to students. All the above criteria directly impact on students' motivation in the teaching and learning process. I will address the issue of motivation in students' expectations of a good university teacher in the next section.

B. Motivating students

Motivation is an important issue in the teaching and learning process in higher education, be it intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is when a person seems to maintain his/her energy and directionality simply as a result of some unknown drive, without apparent reinforcement from outside, and the behaviour of this person is not affected by environmental variables (Gage and Berliner, 1979), as the person learns because he/she is interested in the task or activity itself (Biggs, 1999, 2003, Biggs and Tang, 2007). Extrinsic motivation is when the behaviour of a person depends on observable rewards (Gage and Berliner, 1979), i.e. when the reasons for acting are stimulated and controlled by influences external to the task and individual (Fazey and Fazey, 2001), as the task is associated with the value or importance the person attaches to what the outcome brings (Biggs, 1999, 2003, Biggs and Tang, 2007). As I have argued earlier, in a mass higher education system, such as the UK, motivation is directly connected to students' intellectual and cultural development, their achievement, their integration and persistence in higher education.

Motivation is also directly connected to teachers' expectations of their students, that is, whether teachers' expectations of their students match the ability of students. As Wingate (2007) claims, the rapid increase of students in higher education in the UK has brought about a student population with diverse abilities and learning experiences, and despite the changes in this population, traditional expectations towards students have not changed. Shor (1992) argues that mass education has become notorious for the low motivation of many students and the burnout of many teachers. Bligh (1998: 62) states that 'student motivation is an important factor affecting the performance of students in their course'. According to him, there is evidence that motivation is more important than intelligence. Breen and Lindsay (1999) suggest that the role of the higher education teacher in the motivation of students lies in stimulating and encouraging student interest within a discipline or department. Brown and Atkins (1988) claim that without motivation, attention is lost and there can be little understanding, and without information on a topic there is nothing to be understood.

In my research, three quarters of the participants mentioned that a good university teacher should motivate students. These participants considered motivation to be important in the teaching and learning process, and they also thought that motivation affects the quality of their learning. Maurice mentioned that:

They also have to motivate you to go further in the topic (…).

And Aziz mentioned that:

They should encourage students (…).

Both the literature and my research show that it is very important that students are encouraged and challenged to explore and go further in the area, subject and topic they are studying. Of course challenge can cause adversity in some students (Palmer and Collins, 2006). However, in my view, challenge does not work without encouragement. To take up a challenge one needs to be encouraged to accept it. Teachers in higher education may assume that all students are intrinsically motivated as students have chosen to engage with higher education study. It is argued that learning instigated by intrinsic motivation has deep and more positive effects in a person's life (Shachar and Fischer, 2004) as students adopt deep approaches to learning. Prosser and Trigwell (2001) contend that motivation associated with a deep approach to learning relates to understanding ideas and seeking meanings, as students adopt strategies that help satisfy their curiosity. However, students like to be extrinsically motivated even though they are already intrinsically motivated. As Kember (2000) notes, extrinsic motivation is more likely to enhance intrinsic motivation than diminish it. In my view, motivation is what keeps one going, doing or carrying out something. I contend that motivation is essential not only for students to carry on learning about their subject but for teachers as well. It is my personal opinion that teachers are responsible for keeping students engaged in learning.

The issue of enthusiasm and passion for teaching and learning in higher education is seen as a motivational factor for some students. Han mentioned that a good university teacher:

> [He/she] should love teaching. He should be more enthusiastic in the classroom and motivate the students a lot. (...). I like the teacher to be passionate about teaching.

And Jessica said that:

> [T]eachers have to want you to learn their subject (...). They have to show their passion for teaching and learning. They have to be enthusiastic about you learning their subject. I described it that way, because I think when the teachers are enthusiastic about their subject, they motivate you more and make you also enthusiastic in learning their subject. They help you to be inspired.

For these participants the issue of love/passion/enthusiasm for teaching is considered to be a quality of a good university teacher and an important teaching trait. Clegg and David (2006) claim that love is at the heart of their passionate engagement with the idea that higher education can create new horizons for its participants, as it has done for them as teachers and students in higher education. Some students find the love/passion/enthusiasm of teachers for what they are teaching to be very important to them, as some students seem to be "seduced" by it and feel motivated and inspired to learn the subject/topic they are studying. My research shows that the passionate scholarship of teachers keeps the imagination of students going. It enthuses and motivates students to learn and to be interested in the subject/topic. According to Raymond, the teacher who 'tries to be dispassionate injures not only her [sic] own dignity but her [sic] own insights' (Raymond, 1985: 58).

The students told me that they can be enthused by the teacher's authority on the subject. Students can be seduced by the teacher's power of influencing their minds in order to become passionate about the subject. The authority of teachers on the subject, when exercised in the classroom, can be liberating to some students as it opens students' minds to thinking in ways that are not usual to them, but it can also be 'intrusive and provide opportunities to invade and colonise inner worlds' (Morley, 1998: 20). McWilliam and Jones (1996) warn us of the benefits (strengths) and dangers (weaknesses) of eros, i.e., pleasure, passion and desire, in the teaching and learning process in higher education. According to them,

[i]f teaching-as-usual is unpleasant, dull and restrictive, then 'good', exciting, motivating teaching is erotic, passionate, dangerous, and evokes body-pleasure (McWilliam and Jones, 1996: 128).

Talbot (1994) calls eroticism 'the most dangerous method of teaching' because of the power relations involved in the relationship between the teacher and the student. Power can be productive and repressive at the same time, because the exercise of power 'incites, it induces, it makes easier or more difficult' (Foucault, 1982: 220). As Bligh (1998: 63) reminds us, '[t]here's only one thing more contagious than enthusiasm, and that's the lack of it'. The enthusiasm of teachers for their subject can influence the mind of students and it is the pre-requisite for teacher's success in teaching (Morley, 1999). However, Bligh (1998: 64) points out that 'it pays to be enthusiastic and to act as if you are, even when you are not. But don't be too disappointed if you don't enthuse everyone all the time'.

Rowley (1996) concurs that motivation is key in the establishment and further development of quality in higher education. According to her, most higher education institutions have an implicit or explicit mission to offer a high quality learning experience to all their students, and academic staff manage this learning experience and are the main interface with students. Consequently, their motivation is crucial in determining the quality of this interface. As one can see, the preceding examples illustrate how important teachers' motivation is for students. However, how can teachers keep up their motivational levels in order to motivate their students, in a system where 'targets, standards, benchmarks, performance management, development planning, market choices and committee work' (Hargreaves, 1998a: 316) monopolize the political and administrative agendas of education? Lomas (2004: 159) argues that red tape can 'reduce and limit staff creativity and flexibility, with a consequent deleterious effect on motivation' of teachers in higher education. As I mentioned earlier, Morley (1999) recognizes that it is difficult to give attention to others' needs when one's own needs are unmet.

The need for motivation in higher education is an issue which affects the whole body of the higher education system in the UK, from the macro to the micro level,

including students, according to both the literature and my research. With the increase in the number of students comes an increase in the demands of students. Chevaillier (2002) claims that new types of students, such as mature students, part-time students, working students, and students attending short programmes, entered universities and became a significant part of the student population, and with these new types of students came new demands. According to him, universities will have to know these students, understand their needs and motivations in order to provide them with the kind of education they expect, in terms of content and modes of delivery, in order to survive. However, in my opinion, the higher education system in the UK needs to address the needs of their teachers first in order to enable them to address the needs of students, as teachers are the "main interface" between higher education and students.

As I argued earlier in chapter I, higher education will have to address not only students' needs but also their expectations of teaching. Teachers are in the forefront of the teaching and learning process, and are the ones who will bear the consequences of "dissatisfied" students. However, I believe that students' expectations of teaching have to be seen in relation to the teachers' duties discussed in chapter II and red tape in higher education. My question here is: how can teachers motivate and address students' needs when their own needs, such as physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs (Maslow, 1967, 1970), are not addressed? In this section, one can see that teachers are expected to motivate students and be motivated themselves. The pursuit of knowledge appears to be a motivational aspect not only for teachers but also for some students. I address students' expectations of their teachers having knowledge of the subject they are teaching in the next section.

C. Having knowledge of the subject they are teaching

It is my personal belief that teachers should be knowledgeable in their discipline areas. To have knowledge of a specific area/field/subject/topic involves knowing more than concepts and facts. It involves having an understanding of the relationships between concepts and facts, and their practicalities. Shulman (1986) makes the point

that teachers must not only be capable of defining accepted truths in a domain for students, but be able to explain why a particular proposition is deemed warranted, why it is worth knowing, and how it relates to other propositions, both within and without the discipline, both in theory and in practice. However, knowledge is a commodity (Lyotard, 1989, Barnett, 2000, Thornton, 2002, Naidoo, 2003, Ball, 2004, Naidoo and Jamieson, 2005b). According to McNair (1997), in a knowledge based economy, knowledge is what is bought and sold in higher education. It is a consumable commodity to be packaged and delivered by teachers in the commodification of the teaching and learning process (White, 2007). Teachers are vendors and producers of knowledge in a market-industrialised culture, and the consumer (student) is articulated as having greater significance and power (Usher, 1997: 108). In this 'knowledge economy' (Olssen and Peters, 2005), students are 'consumers of knowledge' (Naidoo and Jamieson, 2005b). Lyotard (1989), writing about the commodification of knowledge, argues that

> The relationship of the suppliers and users of knowledge to the knowledge they supply and use is now tending, and will increasingly tend, to assume the form already taken by the relationship of commodity producers and consumers to the commodities they produce and consume – that is, the form of value. Knowledge is and will be produced in order to be sold, it is and will be consumed in order to be valorised in a new production: in both cases, the goal is exchange (Lyotard, 1989: 4).

In my study, almost three quarters of the participants mentioned that they expect a good university teacher to have knowledge of the subject he/she is teaching, i.e. 'content knowledge' (Shulman, 1986: 9), the teacher having an amount of knowledge which is organised in his/her mind. Samina mentioned that

> A good university teacher has to have a good knowledge of their field.

Charlotte mentioned that a good university teacher:

> is somebody who knows what they are actually talking about, knows their subject. It is someone who keeps up to date their knowledge.

And Bushra mentioned that:

> A good university teacher (...) should be more updated. He should know what is going on in the area.

These participants expect their teachers to have good knowledge of the field, keep their knowledge up-to-date and know what is going on in their area, i.e. they expect their teacher to be engaged with the latest developments in what he/she is teaching. Based on my understanding of the literature, my experience as a teacher and a student, and as a research student, I argue that one can only acquire academic knowledge by studying/researching a specific area/field/subject/topic, and it is only through research that a teacher can update his/her knowledge. In my understanding, researching a subject/topic is not only done by carrying out empirical research, but it can also be done by carrying out a literature review. A literature review is the means of knowing the developments in the discipline, as well as the means of knowing what can be developed in it. I believe that a literature review is also a type of research such as 'Metaethnography', 'Cross-Case Analysis' and 'Case Study' (Schwandt, 2001). I do not conceive of the possibility of teaching without reviewing/researching/studying/knowing what one is going to teach. Teaching involves researching the topic that students are going to learn in the classroom. Research is the means of preparing for teaching, because to be able to teach one has to know and be immersed in the conversations of his/her field. There is a direct relationship between academic knowledge and research, as I believe that research is the way of: (a) keeping academic knowledge up to date; (b) specialising and being a specialist; (c) having practical experience; (d) acquiring and producing new knowledge; (e) broadening the body of knowledge in the discipline; and (f) reporting new knowledge through reports, articles, academic papers, books and teaching (Barnett, 1992, Neumann, 1992).

According to Barnett (1992), teachers in higher education are bound to have a closer understanding of much of the current thinking and work in their intellectual field, but that does not mean that the teacher has to be engaged in actually moving the frontier of knowledge. For him, the responsibility of the teacher lies much more in having an intimate understanding of other academics' research and in being able to give an interpretation of it, as their first responsibility is to their teaching, i.e. their students, and not to their research. However, he argues that every teacher has a professional

obligation to understand the key conversations going on in their research community, as they need to keep up with their field of study and be immersed in its conversations. Neumann (1992) found that the tangible nexus, i.e. the association between teaching and research activities, is related to the dissemination/transmission of the latest advanced knowledge and the most recent facts. One could be inclined to believe that Barnett (1992) and Neumann (1992) are referring to two different types of research. In *Table XII*, below, I contrast the difference between Barnett's and Neumann's concepts of research.

Table XII – Barnett's and Neumann's concepts of research

Concepts	Barnett (1992)	Neumann (1992)
A	keeping academic knowledge up to date	keeping academic knowledge up to date
B	specialising and being a specialist in the area/field/subject/topic	specialising and being a specialist in the area/field/subject/topic
C	having practical experience in the area/field/subject/topic	having practical experience in the area/field/subject/topic
D	acquiring new knowledge on the area/field/subject/topic	acquiring new knowledge on the area/field/subject/topic
E		producing new knowledge and broadening the knowledge on the area/field/subject/topic
F	reporting new knowledge through reports, articles, academic papers and books	reporting new knowledge through reports, articles, academic papers and books

In this table, one can see that what differentiates Barnett's and Neumann's concepts of research is the concept described in letter **E**, where the concept of research is associated with producing new knowledge and broadening the knowledge on the area/field/subject/topic through an empirical study. Some people could argue that Barnett is referring to scholarship and not empirical study. However, the same steps needed for an empirical study are also needed for, one may say, "scholarship". In my view, both Barnett and Neumann are referring to research: Barnett refers to theoretical research and Neumann refers to empirical research. However, Durning and Jenkins (2005: 423) found that 'staff involvement in research and scholarship is vital to their sense of what is effective teaching 'practice', of curricula vitality and to their own identity and motivations for pedagogic improvement'.

In the examples of Samina, Charlotte and Bushra, one can see that some students appreciate and value the authoritative power of the expertise of their teachers in the classroom, because this power is, in my view, what makes the knowledge students are acquiring from their teachers a 'value-added' (Hadley and Winn, 1992, Schmidt, 2002) to their 'cultural capital' (Bourdieu, 1986, Apple, 1997, Bourdieu, 1997, Brown, 1997, Bourdieu, 1998), i.e. credentials, skills and knowledge. Acquisition of knowledge as value-added to the cultural capital of students is related to the concept of 'quality as transformation' (Harvey and Green, 1993: 24), when students go through a qualitative cognitive change having their abilities, skills and knowledge enhanced. Barnett (1994: 74) defines value-added as 'the extent to which students have made progress from their respective starting points while they have been at the [university]'. According to the literature, value-added is directly related to students' learning. Schmidt (2002) argues that the knowledge and skills gained in a course have a delayed value-added effect until after the entire college educational process is complete. However, he was referring to students' perceptions and expectations of the value-added in attending a particular college. Here, one has to ponder whether Schmidt's argument is to be accepted in its entirety, whether it can be applied to all types of higher education courses, and whether it can be applied to all types of higher education course levels, such as Undergraduates, Masters and PhD levels.

However, some participants expanded the issue of being knowledgeable to include the publications of teachers, i.e. the warrant of their credibility. Lindsay et al. (2002) claimed that in their research undergraduate and postgraduate students showed consistency in articulating the benefits of lecturer research, including enhanced knowledge currency, credibility, competence in supervision, enthusiasm and motivation. According to them, postgraduate students commend salience when lecturer research directly benefits their own learning. For some students, the issue of teachers' publications appers to be a criterion of a good university teacher and a warrant of their credibility. Spyros mentioned that:

> A good university teacher has to be knowledgeable about the topic that he is teaching. They have to have some publications on the topic that they are teaching (...).

Raja mentioned that a good university teacher

should have knowledge of the subject. He should have read and written a lot.

And Mushtaq mentioned:

A good university teacher is a person who knows his field very well. It is a person who is not only lecturing but he is also involved in research (...). He must have written books and articles, you know.

Barnett (1992) argues that research has become part of academic currency and that publication lists are a form of intellectual capital. However, for Spyros, Raja and Mushtaq involvement in research and publication is part of the credibility and currency of the teacher. In chapter VII, I will discuss and analyse students' perceptions of the impact of teachers' research activities on the quality of their teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. In this section, one can see that the research activities of teachers impact on and are in direct competition with teachers' availability to students.

D. Being available to students

My findings show that only by being available to students inside and outside the classroom can teachers get to know students and learn about their learning needs. I also believe that when teachers have personal contact with students, they are more susceptible to giving students the support they need, and therefore more likely to be perceived as good university teachers. In my study, the issue of teacher availability to students is one of the criteria which students use to establish their judgement on the quality of teaching in higher education. Research on teacher availability, such as Feldman (1988, 1994), reported that students place moderate-to-high importance to the dimension of teacher availability and helpfulness to students in the teaching and learning process in higher education. Studies on effectiveness of teaching in higher education, such as Feldman (1987) and Lindsay et al. (2002), reveal that students'

perceptions of teacher availability and students' perceptions of teaching effectiveness and good teaching in higher education vary. Some students see it as a disadvantage (Lindsay et al., 2002), others not (Feldman, 1987).

In my research, one quarter of participants mentioned that a good university teacher should be available to students. Maryam mentioned that:

> I need to have the feeling that I can go to my tutor now and she/he will help me with my work.

The main criterion for a good university teacher for Maryam is the availability of the teacher to her, so that the teacher responds to her cognitive and emotional needs, and she has free and direct access to her teacher. This constant availability of teachers to students was questioned by Professor Louise Morley (2005) who argued that no other professional in the world would put up with this constant demand of access to his/her professional expertise, not even medical doctors or lawyers. It seems that Maryam shows no regard for her tutors' needs and the needs of their discipline in assimilation of knowledge and skills. In her conception of the world, there is only her 'self' and not the 'other'. She is only concerned about herself. Here, I want to apply the concepts of 'generalized other' and 'concrete other' used by Benhabib (1987: 163-64, 1992: 10). For Maryam, the teacher is a generalised other, as the needs of the teacher are to satisfy her emotional and learning needs. It seems that for Maryam the concrete other does not exist, as she does not recognise that the teacher (the other) has different needs to her own needs. She does not see the other as an individual with his/her individuality, but as part or projection of her own self. Howie (2002: 140) suggests that 'students are now educated within a system that promotes a form of thought antithetical to the recognition of 'otherness': a prerequisite for any substantial thought about diversity'.

It appears that somehow, Maryam does not see the needs of teachers and the demands placed upon them as being of her concern, for example, the need of 'keep[ing] up with their field of study so that they are immersed in its conversations' (Barnett, 1992: 636), as 'every teacher has a professional obligation to understand the key

conversations going on in the research community' (Barnett, 1992: 629). Morley (1999: 168) reminds us that '[i]t is difficult to give attention to others' needs when one's own needs are unmet'. However, Tinto (1975), Spady (1970), Pascarella and Terenzini (1979) found that informal contact between teachers and students beyond the classroom, i.e. 'interactions focusing on intellectual and course-related matters' (Pascarella and Terenzini, 1979: 217) encouraging students' 'intellectual and cultural growth' (Spady, 1971: 59), is important for fostering students' social and academic integration and the likelihood of students completing their courses, as it may impact on their 'grades and intellectual development' (Tinto, 1975: 116). My question here is: how can the individual needs of teachers and students, and the professional needs of teachers be addressed in the new managerial university in the UK?

In relation to the availability of teachers, Raja mentioned that:

They should also be available and give time to students to help them.

In this example, it is not clear if Raja is talking about availability outside of the classroom or inside the classroom. It seems to me that Raja is referring to the availability of teachers both inside and outside the classroom. Feldman (1984) argued that availability of teachers to students can be affected by class size. Both the literature and my findings lead me to argue that class size can impact directly on the availability of teachers to students because the bigger the number of students demanding to have their learning and emotional needs addressed by teachers in higher education, the less time teachers have to address them. Bezucha (1985) argues that the most important ingredient in the teaching and learning process is not the setting, but motivation. He advises teachers in higher education to use their office hours to meet with students individually and in groups, asking them to define a topic that comes out of their previous experience and/or interest, and advising them how to go about finding the right material to study and learn. In my view, Bezucha's advice idealistically reflects how teachers should behave in higher education. However, his advice seems to be a bit impractical when one sees that teachers in higher education in the UK also have the other duties which I mentioned in chapter II. It is also part of the agenda of teachers to be evaluated in their teaching practice. Manke (1997) mentions that

> [t]his heavy load of responsibility is increased for the teacher who is urged to use methods of direct instruction that centre accountability for student learning ever more clearly on the teacher. More and more often, teachers are evaluated either with instruments that test their possession of skills that are "known to result in student learning" or on the basis of tests that are assumed to measure student learning. When teachers are held fully accountable for student learning, as if they were wholly in control of everything that happens in their classrooms, they are placed under unnecessary and unfair stress. Their complaints that they are unable to do what they are asked to do are often dismissed as whining (Manke, 1997: 129).

Bearing in mind the socio-political, economic and ideological environment in which teaching is located in the higher education system in the UK, discussed in chapter I and II, my questions are: how can teachers use their office hours to meet with students and coach them through the learning process, if their timetable is consumed by 'institutional efforts to be accountable regarding faculty performance' (Fairchild, 2005: 90)? How can teachers deal with and accommodate "demanding students" in an agenda requiring scholarly and research activities? In my view, the issue of teachers' availability to students and its relationship to teachers' duties and demands placed upon them by the massification, marketisation and new managerialism in the higher education system in the UK, and its relationship to students' motivation and retention in higher education, is an issue that needs immediate and serious exploration, if the concern about the quality of teaching and learning in higher education in the UK is to be addressed. McNay (1995) states that many more students may need greater learning support, but as the number of students grows in higher education the time available to staff to provide support reduces.

Astin (1993) argues that the development and satisfaction of students is proportionally related to the amount of contact between teachers and students inside and outside the classroom. Pascarella and Terenzini (1979) state that informal contact between teacher and student foster important interpersonal links between the student and the institution, which in turn lead to greater institutional commitment and an increased likelihood of persistence. The literature shows that interaction and contact between teacher and student are beneficial to both teacher and student, as they can

encourage students to devote greater effort to other educationally purposeful activities during college, because students may feel empowered and able to do more than they thought they could, as they feel validated as full members of the campus community (Kuh and Hu, 2001). One can see from these arguments that interaction and contact not only impact on students' motivation, but also impact on teachers' motivation. I will address the issue of motivation in students' conceptions of a good university teacher in the following chapter. Although, as I mentioned before, I believe that only by being available to students can teachers have personal contact with students, learn about their learning needs and support them, I recognise that there are other means by which teachers can make themselves available to students.

Teachers can also make themselves available to students via telephone and email in agreed times. Charlotte mentioned that:

> A good university teacher (...) is someone who emails you back, who gives you feedback. It is someone who is available to students.

And Emma said:

> I think that is someone who (...) you are not inhibited to email them or phone them.

It seems to me that the issue of accessing teachers via email is not a problem for Charlotte, as it appears that she contacts her tutors via email anyway. However, what seems to be a problem for Charlotte is that her teachers appear not to answer her emails. Charlotte's teachers are not complying with her need to control her teachers' agenda and timetable. However, Emma goes a bit further than Charlotte on the issue of availability of the teacher to students. She wants to access her "good university teachers" via email and telephone. It seems to me that the issue of availability of teachers to students is an issue of power with some students wanting to have their teachers at their disposal, as a resource and help, 24 hours a day, seven days a week. Availability of teachers is an issue of power because some students want to have 'power over' (Burbules, 1986, Gold, 1997, Robinson, 2000) the teachers' timetable, or even their lives, as teachers are expected to be available to answer their telephone calls and

emails at any place and any time, and deal with the learning and emotional needs of some students. The issue of teachers being available on the telephone and email every hour, every day, every week, seems to me to be an issue of surveillance of teachers' activities and availability: some students may need to contact their teachers and can do so, and some students may, "hypothetically", call just to make sure that the teacher is available to them. In my view, the issue of teachers' availability also points to the concern that, "in the name of quality", teachers are under surveillance by students to see when they can be contacted and approached by the students.

In a massified, marketised and managerial university (Tapper and Palfreyman, 2000), teachers are not only under the constant gaze of Heads of Departments, Deans, Vice-Chancellors and Manager Officers, but they are also under the constant gaze of students. Heads of Departments, Deans, Vice-Chancellors and Manager Officers keep teachers' activities under surveillance as in Jeremy Bentham's 'panopticon' (Foucault, 1977, 1991a). However, students keep teachers' activities and availability under surveillance like 'Big Brother' (Orwell, 1990), teachers constantly being under students' surveillance not only in their offices and classroom, but also in the corridors, library, canteen, pub etc., where the gaze of students follows teachers every where, every time. Tysome (2007b) reports that Doctor Andrew Devlin, a senior lecturer at a major university in the Midlands, expresses the frustration associated with the emerging 24/7 working environment in higher education, with managers and students expecting teachers to be constantly "on call". This is also an area that needs exploration in higher education, because of the impact that students' surveillance of teachers can have on their activities and productivity as teachers and researchers in higher education.

E. Summary

In this chapter, I found that students come to their MA courses with a whole variety of expectations about university teaching and some of these expectations are in direct competition with one another, and some of them are unrealistic. I demonstrated that teachers are not only under pressure from their own institutions and government,

but also from students' expectations of quality teaching, i.e. having their learning needs addressed in the teaching and learning process. In this chapter, one can see that students do not have clear cut expectations of teachers knowing how to teach, because knowing how to teach is one of the criteria students use to judge the quality of teaching that has many sub-criteria as has been demonstrated here. The other criteria teachers have to deal with are: motivating students, having knowledge of the subject they are teaching and being available to students. These criteria can be seen as supporting and depending on each other, or they can be seen as competing and contradicting each other, in the sense that the UK government believes that the research groups of universities in the UK which compete globally with overseas universities should get more funding while 'good researchers will be rewarded, through [...] money earmarked for pay and more time to concentrate on research' (DES, 2003: 24). The UK government policy for research in higher education will directly affect the criteria: *Knowing how to teach* and *Being available to students*, as some students who are attracted by the research departments of some institutions will not have teachers teaching or being available to them because of their research activities. Teachers in higher education are not suffering only from an overload of their scholarly and research activities, working long hours (Tysome, 2006) and being underpaid (Stothart, 2006). They are also suffering from an overload of students' expectations placed on them, such as the ones I have discussed and analysed in this chapter.

My data shows that getting to know students' expectations of a good university teacher not only when they are at the beginning of their courses, but also throughout the course, can be very helpful to teachers in higher education, because teachers can actually address students' expectations of their teaching and learning process. It is also helpful because teachers, by addressing students' expectations of a good university teacher, will address students' criteria of what a good university teacher is for them. Therefore, teachers will address the issue of good quality teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. Now, how realistic and valid this project is, is an issue for debate, in the same way as how realistic and valid measurements of the quality of teaching in higher education are: Who decides what quality teaching is or what makes good quality teaching in higher education? With whose authority? For what purpose? How valid and accurate are the results of assessments of the quality of teaching in

higher education? Whose points of view and interests are being served in the assessments of the quality of teaching in higher education? I believe that these questions need to be answered, if higher education is to address the quality of its teaching in the teaching and learning process. However, how can quality of teaching be addressed, if the criteria students use to judge the quality of their teaching and learning experience are numerous, and some of these criteria might be unrealistic in a mass higher education system such as in the UK?

I argue that the criteria students use to define and judge quality teaching in higher education are not only numerous, but that some students hold and value more than one criteria when judging the quality of teaching in higher education. For example, the participant Charlotte (under sections C and D) holds two competing criteria for defining what a good university teacher is, as she associate 'teacher's availability' with 'keep[ing] up to date [teachers'] knowledge'. The participant Raja (under section C) adds another criterion, i.e. research productivity, to the list of complex and sometimes competing criteria involved in students' conceptions of quality teaching in higher education, which is directly competing with his other criterion of teacher availability. The issue of students in higher education holding competing criteria of what constitutes a good university teacher is also reinforced by the findings of Feldman (1987) and Lindsay et al. (2002) mentioned earlier. It is important to observe that by having and holding competing criteria of what a good university teacher is in higher education students add to the complexities involved in establishing what good quality teaching in higher education is, and brings us to the question: Can the concept of quality be applied to teaching in higher education? In the following chapters I will expand this discussion about students' criteria for judging the quality of teaching in higher education. In the next chapter I examine MA students' choices and preferences in the teaching and learning process.

Chapter VI

MA students' choices and preferences in the teaching and learning process in higher education

In this chapter I examine MA students' choices and preferences in the teaching and learning process in higher education. I show that their preferences and choice in the teaching and learning process are very complex and varied and that some students have more than one choice and preference. I argue that by addressing students' choices and preferences in the teaching and learning process in higher education, students are more likely to perceive the teaching style of their teachers as being of good quality. The relevance of this chapter to this study is that the concepts of quality as satisfying the needs of customers/consumers and as meeting the expectations of customers/consumers are now being bound up with choice, and choice is one of the key words of a consumer society. It is my personal belief that choice and preference are entangled, as preferences are based on choices, therefore there is a relationship between choice and preference. In my view, one can have an "informed choice" when one gets to choose based on information received on a product or service; or a "preferred choice" when one gets to choose based on expectations of and/or previous experiences with the product or service. According to the White Paper (DES, 2003), teaching and learning are central to the purpose of higher education, and the government will ensure that good teaching and learning take place in higher education, by ensuring that standards are high and continually improved. Here, we can see that the improvement of teaching and learning is placed in a never ending continuum, where the better gets ever better.

As I argued earlier in chapter I, the government considers students' consumer choice to be the key mechanism driving up the quality of teaching and learning in higher education. The government hopes that students, by reflecting on the benefits that higher education brings them, will raise their expectations of teaching quality. And, therefore, their choices of which institution of higher education to attend will drive up the quality not only of those institutions chosen, but also of others which are in direct

competition for those same students. In other words, students' consumer choice will be the device which will trigger the quality of teaching and, therefore, the quality of learning in higher education in the UK. Choice, in a mass higher education system, such as in the UK, is presented as a democratic process although it is in reality a mechanism of control. It becomes 'one of the ways that an institution can offer vocational choices and encourage students in that direction' (Shumar, 1997: 175).

However, choice, in the White Paper (DES, 2003), becomes a bit confused, because the government is referring to students' choice of quality teaching and at the same time is also talking about students' choice of courses and qualifications. They are not the same choice. Even if they were, how would they be better tailored to the needs of students? Which students? What needs? And for whom? These are questions that need to be considered. The government states that the UK's system of higher education is not good enough at offering students real choice about how they learn. This statement is crucial to this study, because it does not involve the "real choice about how they learn" in the classroom, in a pedagogical relationship. It does not involve addressing the individual learning needs of students in the classroom in the teaching and learning process. As Trigwell and Prosser (1991) argue, giving students a choice of what and how to learn can have repercussions on department and school levels, and convincing academic and administrative colleagues can prove to be a big challenge.

The White Paper (DES, 2003) says that students need accessible information to become intelligent customers of an increasingly diverse provision, and to meet their own increasingly diverse needs. The government claims that neither students nor employers should have to base their decisions on perceptions of relative prestige which may be outdated or unreliable. They should be able to make their decisions on information based on up-to-date and robust assessments of the quality of learning and teaching. If students do not get what they want, they will shop for it somewhere else. My study, however, shows that quality teaching means different things to different students, and this begs the question: what would happen if students' preferences and choices in the teaching and learning process are not reflected and/or addressed by this robust information on the quality of teaching and learning in higher education? None of

the participants in this study mentioned that their choice of university, or any other choice made by themselves or their parents, was determined through having accessible information on the quality of teaching and learning in their university or course.

A. Students' choices and preferences in the teaching and learning process

In my study, the vast majority of the participants, in their interviews, expressed their choices and preferences in the teaching and learning process. Their choices and preferences included: choice of modules; preference for teaching methods; preference for activities in the classroom; preference for perspectives on the topic; choice of reading material; and choice of course work to be carried out. I will discuss students' choices and preferences in the teaching and learning process in the following sections.

1. Choice of module

A third of the participants expressed, in their interviews, their concerns about having a choice of modules available to them. Mizzy mentioned that she likes to choose what she wants to learn:

> I like to have a flexible structure where I can learn not only what I have to learn in the core modules, but also that I can choose other modules to learn from.

And Mushtaq said:

> I like very much the way that I am being taught here, because I can actually choose the module that I want to learn according to my own experience, you know.

It seems that for Mizzy, a 'flexible structure' means that she can chose the modules she wants to study from other courses and other departments, as happens in her institution. And Mushtaq holds positive feelings towards the way that he is being taught in his

institution because he can choose the modules he wants to study. These two examples illustrates what Shor (1996) argues, that when students and teachers can negotiate the syllabus, they are provided with alternative social developments, alternative ways of being, knowing, speaking, relating, and feeling. The negotiation of the syllabus between students and teachers not only validates students' experiences and interests, but also places upon them responsibilities which otherwise they would not have by being forced into a rigid curriculum. It appears that when students have choices available to them in relation to their curriculum, they are more likely to perceive the quality of teaching and their educational experience as being good. However, the curriculum could determine which teaching method is to be used in its delivery.

2. Preference for teaching methods

A third of the participants expressed, in their interviews, their preferences for teaching methods available to them. George mentioned that in a course, one professor was using just one method of input. He said:

> The worst experience I had here. It is from a professor who was teaching us in the MA, (...) he delivered whatever he did in a monotonous voice as he was reading from a piece of paper. He was very boring. (...). He was using only one method of input through the whole class. (...). I felt so bored that I cannot even remember now what he said in the classroom. (...). The only thing I remember is that it was a bad lesson (...). It was a negative experience.

According to George, his teacher was just reading from a piece of paper in a monotonous voice, and that made him feel bored, and that feeling made him perceive this teaching experience as a bad and negative experience. George's example highlights the issue of teachers' lack of enthusiasm for what they are teaching. As I argued earlier, in chapter V, section B, some students find the enthusiasm of teachers for what they are teaching to be very important to them, as some students seem to be "seduced" by the enthusiasm of their teachers and feel motivated to learn the subject/topic they are studying. I argue that teachers' enthusiasm for their subject/topic can captivate and infect students' imagination in the classroom. Bligh (1998) contends that the lecture

method notoriously neglects the desire for interaction with other people, and he argues that attention would probably be improved if another method was used to satisfy it during a lecture period.

Bruce noticed that he does not like having the teacher talking for three hours and nothing else. He said:

> One class I came out I felt like I want to change the course. (...). We only had the teacher talking for three hours and nothing. (...). After three hours you feel like there is not point in being there. It was frustrating. (...) He could give us a chapter of a book to read, and we could had read it in an hour, and had two hours to discuss it. That would be more beneficial than reading those really basic quotes. It was frustrating, you feel like you have wasted it.

Bruce felt frustrated because he felt that he had wasted his time. One can see, in the examples of George and Bruce, that teachers' choice of pedagogical (teaching) styles can be a demotivational and a disempowering factor to some students. Shor (1992) argues that teacher-talk depresses students, limits their speech and development and demotivates them. He further argues that in a critical classroom, the teacher does not fill students unilaterally with information but rather encourages them to reflect mutually on the meaning of any subject matter. In an earlier study, I found that by using a variety of teaching methods teachers make students feel comfortable, confident, stimulated, encouraged, motivated and happy in the classroom (Bótas, 2000, 2004). Bligh (1998) argues that a mix of methods is best to teach information too. According to him, a variety of teaching methods entails a greater variety of stimuli than a single one. Because varied stimuli maintain arousal levels we might expect varied teaching methods to maintain arousal better than unremitting lectures. He also argues that it seems reasonable to think that teachers should use a variety of methods to cater for the differences between students' preferences of learning styles by which they learn best. He suggests that teachers should adapt their teaching methods to maximise their effectiveness in matching the different learning styles of students in the classroom.

Mushtaq expressed his preference for the type of delivery of the research methods course he was taking. He mentioned:

> The lectures should be delivered in a step-by-step format. This way the students would benefit more, you know. Where we could follow a research process and also analyse something, in order to get hands on experience. It doesn't matter if we are going to use a particular method or not, but we should get to know how to use all of them.

For Mushtaq, the research methods course should be delivered in a step-by-step format, because students would benefit more. It seems that for Mushtaq by following a step-by-step research process, he would acquire hands on experience in the research process. Mushtaq's preference goes beyond the mode of delivery of a course. This has huge implications for new managerialism and the debate on quality for teaching and learning in higher education, as they are not compatible. To allow students to follow up a research process means that teachers will need more time to spend on preparing and delivering the teaching material. That would not be cost effective in new managerialist terms. Neither would it address in an equality manner all the preferred learning styles of all students in the classroom, as my study has demonstrated that students' perceptions of the quality of their teachers' teaching styles vary. According to the government, in its White Paper (DES, 2003), good quality teaching must be guaranteed to everyone, and my study has demonstrated that in order to deliver good quality teaching to students, the teaching has to be tailored to the personal learning preferences of each single student in the classroom in higher education.

Neumann (1994) identified a fourth influencing factor of opportunity for personal interaction with teachers when researching the nexus between teaching and research. According to her, this fourth factor is important for providing a more personalised learning environment and enabling students to have closer contact with knowledge and its creation, complexity and excitement. Elen et al. (2007) contend that a high quality learning environment is an environment that provides challenges with proper safeguards, one in which students are confronted with 'not missions impossible but with safe challenges' (ibid.: 116) and encouraged to work independently with the ample support of the teacher. Ames (1990) states that

> [s]tudents are active participants and the effects of classroom environments as well as their perceptions of these environments depend on the individual student's history. To understand the meaning of different learning environments, we need to ask questions about students' perceptions and thought processes (Ames, 1990: 240).

Following the example of Mushtaq, I would like to add that some students can also get hands on experience when they have contact with knowledge and its creation. I understand that for some teachers it would be very difficult to prepare and use a number of different teaching methods in the classroom, as it requires more time for preparation than teachers have available to them and more knowledge of students' perceptions and preferences of teaching styles, but this is the only way forward if one is to claim that this or that university offers 'good quality teaching'. However, the teaching method can determine what type of activities can be carried out in the classroom.

3. Preference for activities in the classroom

Three quarters of the participants expressed, in their interviews, their preference for activities in the classroom. Sophie remarked that she would prefer small group discussion in her classes. She said:

> I would prefer a smaller group where we could have a high level of critical analysis. We should not be sitting in front of someone and just listening to what they have to say. You should have more questions and discussion. I think it is important to make the class move on. I say something and somebody else says something else and another person reacts to what we said and so on. I think this can impact on my learning.

Sophie does not like to have just one mode of delivering the information in the classroom. It seems that for her, the classroom should be dynamic, constantly moving and changing, to impact on her learning.

Leah observed that she would like more active learning in her Masters' course. She stated:

> I don't like the way that we are taught here, it is actually the stand up lectures. Occasionally we get the Power Point. There is no use of colour. There is no use of diagrams. (...). When you go to the classes, they are almost exclusively auditory. (...). There is not much active learning taking place. They don't adapt to the different dynamics of different groups. (...). They haven't thought about the group learning needs and experiences.

Leah believes that her teachers do not address the learning needs of the group and their experiences, as they do not adapt to the different dynamics of different groups. It seems that for Leah, the teaching styles of teachers should address the learning needs of students in the group.

Naomi stressed that the lecture and small group work in the classroom are important for her. She said:

> I would prefer to have a mixture of straightforward lecture input with the ability to interact with the lecturer and with other people in my class. It has to have an interaction either way, in the beginning or in the end of the lecture. I don't mind if we have a lecture for half an hour to an hour, and then the teacher gives us two questions that we should then discuss in small groups, and then feedback as a whole class discussion.

Group discussion with feedback from the teacher and interaction are real issues for Naomi, because they can make her learning experience more meaningful to her and motivate her to learn more. Bligh (1998) argues that the desire for interaction with other people is a very strong motivating factor, particularly with young people. If another method is used with the lecture, students' attention would improve. Group discussion encourages students to engage with diversity of thought, opinion, views, voices and knowledge, and develops student skills by empowering and transforming them (Brookfield and Preskill, 1999).

Tina felt that students should be given tasks they can accomplish. She stated:

> I think that the most important is to have a range of teaching styles to relate to what is being learned, so that the learning material can be more attractive in a lecture situation. That is what is important, so that the teachers can work out what works for the students. Not giving the students tasks that

they cannot complete or work out by themselves. You don't want the students feeling that they are in a threatening situation. They should reflect on the way that they teach and also on the way that their students learn.

For Tina, as well as for Sophie, Leah and Naomi, it is important to have variety in the teaching and learning process, as it can impact on students' motivation and also make the learning material more attractive (Bligh, 1998, Bótas, 2000, 2004). Based on the evidence presented above, I argue that teachers should provide a variety of teaching and learning activities in the classroom in order to maximise the learning opportunities of different students in the classroom. As my study has shown, students have varying preferred learning styles and to achieve quality teaching and learning in the classroom this variety of preferred learning styles needs to be addressed. However, I understand that the choice of activities to be carried out in the classroom is made by teachers and not students, and that this choice can be determined by perspectives on the topic, and that teachers' choice of activities to be carried out in the classroom might reflect students' preferences or not.

4. Preference for perspectives on the topic

Three quarters of the participants expressed, in their interviews, their preferences for perspectives on the topic they were studying. Bushra stressed that the teachers also have to teach new theories in parallel with old theories. She said:

> In respect of the concepts the teacher should be more updated. He should know what is going on in the area. If you are teaching theories that have been made in the 1960s, and now there are so many new theories that have arrived, why they keep teaching the old theories and not the new theories. It is not just the fault of the teacher. It is also the fault of the curriculum. But if the teacher manages his time well, he can teach the old theories and refer to the new ones.

For Bushra, it appears essential to have the opportunity to learn not only old theories but also new theories in her course. She seems to understand that the curriculum of her course is also responsible for the lack of new theories being taught to students. However, according to her, if teachers manage their time well, they can accommodate

old and new theories into their teaching practice. However, Bushra seems to fail to understand that class contact time/teaching time has been reduced and is one of the areas of concern among academics (Lucas and Webster, 1998, Trowler, 1998), as discussed in chapter II.

Han commented that she does not like it when the teachers are only talking about their own research. She mentioned:

> I don't like when the teachers are talking only about their own research. (...) they only focus on their own studies (...). When you are having a tutorial with them, and you say something, they say that they had written a lot about that. He just pulls you to his own view. I don't want to focus only on his work. I want to express my own views. I want to know more about other views on the same subject. (...). They should have a lot of references that also contradict their own views. They should be able to explain to you other views that do not support their own.

Han does not want to focus only on one perspective on the subject. She wants to be able to explore her own field and find her own way, in order to express her own views. For Han, it appears to be essential to have references and points of view that contradict her teachers' work. She wants to have the "whole picture" in order to make up her own mind and form her own views about the subject/topic her teachers are teaching. Han seems to want to have a dialogue with her teachers' points of view and other researchers'/writers' points of view. Ellsworth (1997) argues that encountering different points of view and differing ways of seeing and knowing leads students to reflect on their own ways of seeing in the light of the opinions and perspectives of others.

Amanda expressed the same concern as Han, because she also thinks that the teachers should mention other researchers and their research on the subject that she is studying. She said:

> In one module I did, one student made the point that we were only reading the articles and chapters that were written by our lecturers, and that we were not given the opportunity to read other writers on the subject, so we don't know what the others have to say about our subject. I think that the teachers

have to have a broad knowledge of other people's works, and so far I think that they should mention other researchers and their research.

Amanda seems to believe that her teachers should have a broad knowledge of other peoples' work and also teach it, as this can help her explore the knowledge around the subject/topic she is studying. According to Maher (1985),

> [a]s students explore different explanatory models for data discussed in courses, they learn that the validity of any strong theory comes from its ability to explain aspects of both learned about and personally experienced reality. They also learn some ways in which different perspectives, including their own, help to determine what data is used and considered important (Maher, 1985: 40).

It appears that for Han and Amanda their teachers have developed what Barnett (1992: 630) called 'tunnel vision', their teachers being not able to see beyond a very narrow focus. This tunnel vision can also mean that teachers are not able to see beyond their own points of view, regarding themselves as the only ones to hold the truth and the only authority on their subjects/topics. Jenkins et al. (1998), Lindsay et al. (2002) and Henkel (2004) found that teachers' research activities can have too great an influence on the curriculum, leading to bias and distortion in the curriculum. Bligh (1998) mentioned that students' understanding is frequently better if they have read or been presented with a variety of viewpoints. Shor (1992) argues that the imposition of a rigid curriculum on students is a mechanism for relieving teachers' insecurity and controlling the students' learning.

Aziz reckons that the MA programme should incorporate teachers' research. He mentioned:

> At the Master level, I like the possibility of having examples from the teachers' research in the classroom. I think that they should incorporate their research into the Master degree programme.

Contrary to the views of Bushra, Han and Amanda, Aziz probably believes that he will benefit more if the research of his teachers were also part of the MA programme. The

preceding examples show that teachers need to have a 'multistructural' (Biggs, 1999: 99) perspective of their topic and field of expertise which goes beyond their own formulated perspectives to include the perspectives of others, and that all those perspectives should be shared with students. These examples also illustrate the diversity of students' perceptions, learning needs, choices and preferences in the teaching and learning process in higher education. They show that teachers should teach not only their own perspectives on the subject, but they should also teach perspectives that contradict their own, if we accept that teachers are in the business of making students aware that there are other sides to one story, and that one's point of view should be based on evidence. Freire and Macedo (1996) argue that

> Conservative educators have the right to propose their view of the world. And as a student, I also have the right to reject this conservative position. What educators cannot do is to impose their view. What educators must do is to never fail to debate various positions without imposing any (Freire and Macedo, 1996: 214).

And Shulman (1999) contends that

> The teacher has special responsibilities in relation to content knowledge, serving as the primary source of student understanding of subject matter. The manner in which that understanding is communicated conveys to students what is essential about a subject and what is peripheral. (...). The teacher also communicates, whether consciously or not, ideas about the ways in which 'truth' is determined in a field and a set of attitudes and values that markedly influence student understanding (Shulman, 1999: 65).

Based on the evidence presented above, I argue that students should be presented and taught all the sides of a debate/subject/topic and should be allowed to make up their own minds about it, i.e. they should be allowed to develop their own opinions. In this way, teachers should not conclude the subject as the closure should be done by students and not teachers. In support of this, one of the participants mentioned that the teacher 'has to be able to not do the closure of the subject, because I don't want him to do the closure of the topic or subject. That is my job' (Ang). However, I am not arguing that teachers should not present and express their own opinions and points of view on the debate/subject/topic in the classroom. I am arguing that their opinions and points of view should be presented and expressed in a context where competing

opinions and points of view of other researchers/writers are also presented in the classroom, in order to allow students to formulate their own opinions and points of views on the debate/subject/topic. The choice of perspectives on the topic could be determined by the curriculum, and it can also determine which reading material will be given to students.

5. *Choice of the reading material*

A third of the participants expressed, in their interviews, their expectations of choice of the reading material. Mian explained that she is personally very satisfied because the classes are very interesting and the choice of reading material is very good. She stated:

> I am personally very satisfied. I learned a lot of things from these courses. I have learned more than I expected. The classes are very interesting and the choice of the reading material is also very good.

In this example, one can see that the choice of the learning material was made by the teacher, however, the choice of the reading material is part of her experience as a whole and is also a factor in determining her satisfaction in learning at her institution.

Raja indicated that he prefers that the reading should be focused on the topic. He felt that:

> There is a lot of reading going on, and it is not possible to read them all. They should focus on the main ones. The reading should be part of the evidence for the topic. I don't like when we are dissipated in the reading and the learning process, when it is not focused.

In Raja's statement, one can see that the reading list of a course or topic should be focused and used as 'part of the evidence for the topic'. The reading list in these two examples can be seen as a motivational factor for students and as an indicator of students' satisfaction or not. Bligh (1998) proposes that teachers should think carefully

about the reading list (information on the reading) that they give to students, because most of the students' learning happens through the reading that students do outside the classroom. He argues that the importance of a reading list is to guide and stimulate the students to read. According to him, the reading list should contain references that are available, as the inability to find the recommended reading can cause frustration in students. I would add that it can even cause students to feel demotivated. Biggs (1999) argues that teachers, through their research and scholarship, develop a perspective of the field of their expertise which cannot be found in textbooks, and that their perspective as well as their multistructural list of things that students need to know can be passed on to students.

However, there are differing opinions about how the reading list/references should be passed on to students. One the one hand, Shor (1996) argues that when teachers choose the reading for their course, they focus on their academic relation to books and not on the role of books and reading lists in the experience of students. According to him, the selection and sequencing of reading matter is something students can undertake as part of the constitutional conventions of the course. On the other hand, Bligh (1998) argues that students' understanding is frequently better if they have read a variety of viewpoints, but, until they know the subject, they cannot guide their own reading in this respect. It is my personal belief that teachers should provide students with a list of references for students to start engaging with the debate/subject/topic, and that students should be allowed to follow their interests from there. I argue that the reading list should be the starting point of the debate/subject/topic and not its destination. The list of reading can point students to the type of work they are interested in and how it should be carried out.

6. Choice of coursework to be carried out

A third of the participants expressed, in their interviews, their expectations of choice of coursework to be carried out by the student. Guan protested that her

supervisor for the dissertation should respect her choice of the coursework that she wanted to do. She said:

> I managed to meet my supervisor for my dissertation only once, and she asked me if I was doing the dissertation course. I said that I was doing it. Then she asked me if I had experience in the field. I said that I didn't, because I had just finished my Bachelor. Then she turned to me and said that she would suggest me to do a report instead of the dissertation. (...). I came here to do a Master degree and to write a dissertation. (...). I feel frustrated.

Guan felt frustrated because her supervisor was not respecting her choice of coursework, and for this participant, her teacher should do so, because they had accepted her on the course. This participant holds the conception of quality as satisfying the needs of customers/consumers (Audit Commission, 1984) discussed in chapter I. Here, one can see a conflict of interests between the teacher and the student. On the one hand, it appears to Guan that her teacher did not have her interests at heart. On the other hand, it appears that the teacher had the interests of Guan at heart, because the teacher knows what is required in the writing of an MA dissertation. Guan seems to have strong feelings in relation to writing a dissertation and not a report. It appears for Guan that writing a report diminishes her capabilities, as she is not allowed to demonstrate her personal ability to develop and manage a piece of research, and devalues her degree, as she did not produce research that could be published or taught in courses. It is interesting to observe that for some students, their perception of how they are going to be assessed impacts on their perception of the quality and value of their qualification, as they feel that it will impact on their cultural capital. It appears to me that students' perceptions of how they are assessed have an impact on students' perceptions of quality teaching and learning in higher education. This is an area that needs exploration in future research.

Niu reported that she had a tutorial and the tutor gave her some advice contrary to her original ideas. She said:

> I don't like when they try to push their western values on my work. I had a tutorial and the tutor gave some advice that was contrary to my original ideas. I want to research the impact of the globalisation in Chinese higher

education, and he wanted me to research the issue of democracy in China. I
don't like that. I felt demotivated about it.

Niu did not like the teacher changing the perspective of her coursework. She considered
it to be an offence to her values, because she felt that her tutor was trying to impose his
western values on her work. In other words, the teacher was choosing what she should
do for her dissertation, and not leaving this choice to her. Biggs (1999, 2003) argued
that by aligning objectives, teaching methods and assessment tasks on learning-related
activities, students are allowed more freedom to construct and display their learning in
ways comfortable to them. The examples of Guan and Niu illustrate that these
participants were being denied this freedom to construct and display their learning in
ways that were comfortable to them, causing these students to feel frustrated and
demotivated. In the examples of Guan and Niu, one can see that the choice of
coursework to be carried out by students does not only reflect the interests of students,
but also reflects the perception students hold of the value and credibility of their course.

Other choices and preferences in the teaching and learning process described by
participants were: preference for the frequency of classes; preference for tutor taking the
course; choice of participating in activities or not; and choice of being taught or not.

B. Summary

In this chapter, I found that MA students' choices and preferences in the
teaching and learning process are very complex and varied and that some students want
to have more than one choice and preference. As I demonstrated in this chapter, choice
and preference in this study is much more complex than the choice of institutions,
courses, qualifications and quality teaching. It involves: choice of modules; preference
for teaching methods; preference for activities in the classroom; preference for
perspectives on the topic; choice of reading material; and choice of coursework to be
carried out. As I mentioned earlier, as choice in higher education is directly related to
the conceptions of quality as satisfying the needs of customers/consumers and as

meeting the expectations of customers/consumers, then it is important and necessary to think about the impact of these choices and preferences, presented by participants in this chapter, on the quality of teaching and learning in higher education, and the extent to which they are part of the criteria on which students form their perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in higher education. One has to consider the impact of offering students in higher education choices of what and how to learn, and consider to what extent these choices would be manageable and cost effective in a mass higher education system such as in the UK. As one can see, in this chapter, students' choices and preferences are part of the criteria for judging the quality of students' teaching and learning in higher education, and this begs the question: can quality of teaching and learning in higher education be assured?

In this chapter I argue that by addressing students' choices and preferences in the teaching and learning process in higher education, students are more likely to perceive the teaching style of their teachers as being of good quality. However, in this chapter, I demonstrated that students' choices and preferences are very complex as students want to choose and prefer different things in the teaching and learning process in higher education, and some of these students expect to have more than one choice and preference. If a classroom includes such students expecting to choose or preferring something different in their teaching and learning process, that would prove very difficult for a teacher who has to cope not only with the demands of his/her agenda, discussed in chapter II, and students' expectations of quality teaching, but also with MA students' demands of choice and preference in the teaching and learning process. In the next chapter, I will discuss and analyse other criteria students use to judge the quality of teaching in higher education: students' perceptions of the impact of the research activities of teachers on the quality of teaching and learning in higher education.

Chapter VII

MA students' perceptions of the impact of teachers' research activities on the quality of teaching and learning in higher education

In this chapter, I discuss and analyse how MA students in Education perceive the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of teaching and learning in higher education. The relevance of this chapter to this study is that the perceptions of students of their teachers' research activities impact on their perceptions of the quality of their teachers' teaching styles. As I mentioned in chapter IV, the issue of students' perceptions of the impact of teachers' research on their teaching and learning experience came out of the pilot study, and it was added to the interview schedule for the main study. This chapter sheds light on the views of students on the debate about the relationship between teaching and research and its impact on the quality of teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. In this chapter, I demonstrate that there are multiple engagements among students of the relationship between teaching and research and the relationship between quality teaching and learning, and that students' perceptions of these relationships are some of the criteria they use to judge the quality of their teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. I also offer insights on how the relationship between teaching and research can be shaped, made closer and stronger.

The relationship/link between teaching and research has been the subject of a great deal of research. There are mixed and contradictory views on the relationship between teaching and research among teachers/academics. Some teachers/academics claim that there is a relationship between teaching and research, where research impacts on teaching and teaching impacts on research, such as Linsky and Straus (1975), Neumann (1992), Kyvik and Smeby (1994), Volkwein and Carbone (1994), Rowland (1996), Noser et al. (1996), Clark (1997), Smeby (1998), Vidal and Quintanilla (2000), Robertson and Bond (2001), Coate et al. (2001) McLean and Barker (2004), and Durning and Jenkins (2005). Some claim that the relationship between teaching and

research is weak, where research and teaching do not necessarily impact on each other, such as Linsky and Strauss (1975) and Noser et al. (1996). Some call for a closer or stronger relationship between teaching and research, such as Rowland (1996) and Smeby (1998). Yet others claim that there is no relationship between teaching and research, where teaching does not have an impact on research, and research does not have an impact on teaching, such as Friedrich and Michalak Jr. (1983), Centra (1983), Feldman (1987), Fox (1992), Ramsden and Moses (1992) and Hattie and Marsh (1996).

Much of this research has been focused on teachers'/academics' perceptions of the link between teaching and research, such as Neumann (1992), Friedrich and Michalak Jr. (1983), Kyvik and Smeby (1994), Robertson and Bond (2001) and others. The research of Coate et al. (2001) and Zamorski (2002) focuses on academics'/teachers' and students' points of views. Only a small amount of research has been conducted focusing on students' perceptions of the link between teaching and research, such as Neumann (1994), Jenkins et al. (1998), Breen and Lindsay (1999), Lindsay et al. (2002), Deem and Lucas (2006), Trigwell (2005) and Chiang (2002, 2004). Neumann (1994) claimed that students are the most important group to consider in examination of the teaching-research nexus because they are the recipients of university teaching. Lindsay et al. (2002) argue that postgraduate students are a neglected group in the debate about the effects of research on learning, though they are crucial to the continuity of the university system. Deem and Lucas (2006) researched postgraduate, Masters students' experience of learning about research in higher education. They also shed some light on the perceptions of postgraduate students of the relationship between teaching and research. They claim that teaching and learning research methods is only one dimension of the relationship between teaching and research, and, according to them, it is a vital relationship. Trigwell (2005) claims that the debate about the relationship between teaching and research might be simplified by focusing more on the student experience and less on what it is that teachers, who may or may not be researchers, do. In the following sections, based on the interview data, I will discuss and analyse students' perceptions of the impact of their teachers' research activities on the quality of their teaching and learning in higher education in the UK.

A. Students' perceptions of the impact of teachers' research activities on the quality of teaching and learning

The participants, in this study, hold different perceptions of the impact of their teachers' research activities on the quality of the teaching of their teachers, and of the impact of their teachers' research activities on the quality of the learning of the participants.

1. Students' perceptions of the impact of the research activities of teachers on the quality of their teaching

Almost all of the participants perceived the research activities of their teachers as having an impact on the quality of the teaching of their teachers. The perception of this impact is threefold: teachers' research activities impact on the quality of the information/knowledge that they are imparting to/sharing with students; teachers' research activities impact on the quality of the teaching style that teachers are using in the classroom; and teachers' research activities impact on the time that teachers dedicate to teaching and make available to students.

a. Impact on the quality of the knowledge and information that they are imparting to/sharing with students

More than three quarters of the participants mentioned, in their interviews, that they feel that the research activities of their teachers impact positively on the quality of knowledge and information that the teacher is imparting and sharing with them. Charlotte felt that the research activities of teachers make them more knowledgeable of the practicalities of their areas. She said:

I think that it impacts a lot. (...). The lecturers, who actually do their research, come with things that actually you can try in your work. That makes you feel that they actually know what they are talking about, because they are interested in their subject, and if they are interested in their subject, they will encourage and inspire you to learn and do research as well. You can also believe and trust the information that they are giving to you.

Charlotte mentioned the issue of trust in the information (knowledge) that is imparted and shared with students. The issue of trust is very important in relation to students' learning, because it facilitates stability, collaboration and cohesion between teachers and students, and this is very important to teaching and learning in higher education. Teachers need to be trusted by students in the classroom, in order to establish collaboration and co-operation between teachers and students in the teaching and learning process. Without trust between teachers and students there is no learning. Students' learning is directly associated with the concept of social capital presented by Coleman (1988, 1997, 1998) and Bourdieu (1986, 1997, 1998). Both Bourdieu and Coleman consider the importance of subscribed membership of durable networks such as family, group, church, club, party, etc. (social capital) to be based on acquaintance, recognition, and acceptance of obligations and trust. Trust is defined by Giddens (1995: 34) as confidence in the reliability of a person or system, regarding a given set of outcomes or events, where that confidence expresses a faith in the probity or love of another, or in the correctness of abstract principles (technical knowledge). Trust/credibility, according to Jenkins at al. (1998) and Lindsay et al. (2002), is one of the advantages and benefits that students perceive from the research of their teachers.

Charlotte also mentioned the issue of teachers-researchers being able to inspire students because of the teachers' interest in the subject. According to Freire and Macedo (1996, 1999), teachers must maintain, on the one hand, their epistemological curiosity and, on the other hand, always attempt to increase their critical reflection in the process of creating pedagogical spaces where students become apprentices in the rigours of exploration. According to them, without an increased level of epistemological curiosity and the necessary apprenticeship in a new body of knowledge, students cannot truly be engaged in a dialogue. In Charlotte's example, it appears that her teachers, who are researchers, are more able to motivate and develop students' enthusiasm for their subjects. Her example supports the view that researchers are more interesting or more

enthusiastic in the classroom when they are teaching and that this interest and enthusiasm is transmitted to students. Centra (1983) stated that research could influence teaching (the spill-over effect) when the excitement and involvement of research is communicated to students, as participation in research could help maintain teachers' interest in the subject. Charlotte's perception of the research activities of her teachers contradicts the findings of Friedrich and Michalak Jr. (1983), who claimed that researchers are not seen as more knowledgeable, more interesting, or more enthusiastic, nor do they appear to be any better at fostering desirable intellectual qualities in students. Teachers who are apparently enthusiastic influence the attitudes of students more strongly (Bligh, 1998).

Guan mentioned that the research activities of her teacher make his teaching more engaging. She observed that:

> The only thing good here is that I really feel that the lecturers are qualified in their fields. They know their subjects. If you ask them questions they know the answers. They are good writers as well. We had a lecturer who showed us the main point of the current research on the subject. Then he would bring other research to his area and present his research comparing to the others. He is very engaging in the way that he talks. (...). Then he asked us questions which were more relevant to us. This is a good impact on the quality of their teaching.

Guan perceives the impact of the research activities of her teacher on his teaching as being a positive one, because her teacher presented not only his research but also the research of other researchers. For Guan, her teacher presented her with 'different points of view and differing ways of seeing and knowing' (Ellsworth, 1997: 94) the subject she is studying. This seems to help Guan to engage with her lecturer, as she learns that 'the validity of any strong theory comes from its ability to explain aspects of both learned about and personally experienced reality' (Maher, 1985: 40). It appears that Guan's teacher has a 'multistructural' (Biggs, 1999: 99) perspective of his topic and field of expertise which goes beyond his own formulated perspectives to include the perspectives of others, and that he is sharing with her those perspectives. According to Ramsden and Moses (1992), teachers who are energetically occupied in creating or reinterpreting the knowledge of their subjects will be competent teachers, as teaching

based solely on the research of other people is dull and fails to inspire students. What engaged Guan was the ability of her teacher to engage his research in comparison with the research of others. This teacher was placing his research into a broader knowledge context. Guan established that her perception of the quality of her teacher's teaching was also influenced by the ability of her teacher to ask questions which were more relevant to students. Friedrich and Michalak Jr. (1983) stated that teachers who expect much of themselves and challenge themselves with research may also be more likely to expect much of students and challenge them. Teachers, by asking questions which are more relevant to the subject, are challenging students to think critically. Questioning can stimulate the interest of students in the subject, particularly when questions are challenging. I will come back to the use of questioning in the teaching and learning process in chapter VIII.

Natalie, like Guan, stressed that the impact of the research activities of her teachers on the quality of their teaching is a positive one. She stated:

> I think that it has a positive side to it. The more you research, the more aware you are of the subject and aware of the contemporary political debate that is out there.

Natalie's perception contradicts the claim of Friedrich and Michalak Jr. (1983) that immersion in research apparently can breed a narrowness that detracts from the broad-based knowledgeability that students perceive as being an important element of good teaching. For Natalie, the more the teacher researches, the more he/she is aware of the contemporary debate around the subject. In consequence, such teachers have more up-to-date knowledge on the subject. According to Barnett (1992), teachers have a professional obligation to understand the key conversations going on in the research community. Neumann (1992) called this relationship between teaching and research the tangible nexus, in which teachers disseminate and transmit the latest advanced knowledge and the most recent facts to students. As teachers are at the cutting edge of their fields, they teach more relevant, up-to-date material, and teach from their immediate research experience rather than reproducing second-hand knowledge from text-books (Coate et al., 2001). Teachers are more aware of current questions/hypotheses and therefore better able to feed back this new information to

students (Robertson and Bond, 2001). Teachers pass new knowledge from their research to students (Henkel, 2004), a knowledge which is up-to-date (Jenkins et al., 1998, Smeby, 1998). Teachers convey to students what is essential and peripheral about the subject, communicating ideas about the ways in which truth is determined in a field and a set of attitudes and values that markedly influence student understanding (Shulman, 1999).

Mushtaq observed that he likes it when his teachers use their research to illustrate the topic they are teaching. He mentioned:

> At the Master level, I think that they should incorporate their research to the Master degree programme, so he can present his research findings and relate it to what he is teaching, you know. He can give examples, you know. (...). Sometimes they discuss the articles and books that they have written, and sometimes they also discuss the articles and books that other writers have written and they tell us to not accept everything as true. They tell us to look at them critically and think critically about what they are saying and presenting. (...). They never say that something is good or bad. I think that it is important to present examples of their findings that relate to the issues that they are teaching. That makes me relate them to my own experience.

For Mushtaq, the research activities of his teachers should be part of the curriculum of the Masters course he is doing, because he finds that it is important to present the research findings of teachers' research and relate them to what he is studying. Mushtaq's perception contradicts the findings of Jenkins et al. (1998), who claim that the inclusion of the research activities of teachers in the course can have too great an influence on the curriculum, and the findings of Lindsay et al. (2002), who claim that the inclusion of the research activities of teachers can cause a distortion in the curriculum. Mushtaq seems to perceive the research activities of his teachers as related and connected to what he is studying and working with. It appears that for Mushtaq the research activities of his teachers complement and enrich the curriculum of his course, rather than distort it. Like Guan and Natalie, Mushtaq also likes the ability of his teachers to engage with their own and others' research in the course, presenting the broader knowledge context of the subject. Mushtaq perceives himself as a stakeholder in his teachers' research activities, as he relates them to his own experience. Mushtaq's perception supports the claim of Lindsay et al. (2002) that postgraduate students

perceive themselves as stakeholders in their teachers' research. Developing critical thinking in students is also an issue for Mushtaq, as he sees this characteristic of a 'critical teacher' (Shor, 1992: 41) as having a good impact on the quality of their teaching, because his teachers pose the subject as a problem for students to critically think through rather than as a bland presentation of official consensus for them to memorize. His teachers encourage him constantly to immerse in temporality without fear of the risks involved (Freire, 1994, 1996, 2000). His teachers are encouraging him to seek reason, consider alternatives and other points of view and withhold judgements until he has sufficient evidence (Boulton-Lewis, 1995). His teachers also encourage him to justify his opinions, be self-critical, and perform intellectually (Harvey and Green, 1993) by empowering (Freire, 1994, 1996, 2000) him, by asking him to think critically about what they are teaching him and not accept everything as true.

However, half of one quarter of the participants, in this study, thought that the research activities of their teachers impact negatively on the quality of the knowledge and information that they are imparting to/sharing with students. Sophie raised the issue of the research of teachers being outdated. She said:

> Not if their research is twenty years old like the research of that teacher I told.

For her, the outdating of the teachers' research has a negative impact on the quality of their teaching, because the knowledge of her teacher is not up-to-date. Her teacher is not complying to Barnett's (1992) argument that teachers have a professional obligation to understand the key conversations going on in the research community. Her teacher is not aware of the current questions, hypotheses, and political debate which his/her subject is engaged in.

Leah pointed out that teachers need to have broad knowledge. She mentioned:

> I suppose if you get too involved in your own research, your knowledge would get narrow. I think that you need to have a broad knowledge, to remain broad. I am aware that in reality teachers do not have time, they

have other constraints upon them, they have to do research. But I think that ideally, it would be excellent if they have a good knowledge of other people's research and are able to talk about it as well.

In this example, Leah finds that teachers having knowledge of other people's research is a sign of excellence in teaching. However, Leah is aware of the 'constraints' which are upon her teachers. She is aware that teaching in the classroom now represents only one part of the teachers' work in higher education. As I mentioned in chapter II, teachers are 'part of the causal [management] chain' and 'process worker[s]' (Smith, 1999: 320-21) in higher education. Leah's perception supports the claim of Friedrich and Michalak Jr. (1983) that immersion in research apparently can breed a narrowness that detracts from the broad-based knowledgeability that students perceive as being an important element of good teaching. The same point of teachers presenting only their own views on the subject and not presenting the research of other researchers was reported by Han, in chapter VI, under section 4, 'Preferences for perspectives on the topic'.

I contend that keeping knowledge up-to-date, by doing research in the area teachers are teaching, and also being able to present other people's research which supports and also contradicts one's own research are perceived as having a positive impact on the quality of teachers' teaching. One could also conclude that when teachers just focus on their own research when teaching, and when they also just focus on other people's research, students find that boring, unexciting and dull. My data shows that students think that teachers should teach not only their own perspectives on the subject, but that they should also teach perspectives that contradict their own. As I argued earlier, in chapter VI, students should be presented and taught all the sides of a debate/subject/topic and be allowed to make up their own minds about the debate/subject/topic, i.e. they should be allowed to develop their own opinions. However, I reiterate that I am not arguing that teachers should not present and express their own opinions and points of view on the debate/subject/topic in the classroom. I am arguing that their opinions and points of view should be presented and expressed in a context where the competing opinions and points of view of other researchers/writers are also presented in the classroom, in order to allow students to formulate their own opinions and points of views on the debate/subject/topic. By acting this way, teachers can avoid influencing and distorting the curriculum, and they can offer students the

opportunity to make up their own minds and find their own way into the subject. The research activities of teachers can impact not only on the quality of teachers' knowledge but also on the quality of their teaching style.

b. Impact on the quality of the teaching style that teachers are using in the classroom

One quarter of the participants mentioned, in their interviews, that they feel that the research activities of their teachers impact positively on the quality of the teaching style they are using in the classroom. Niu perceives a very close relationship between teaching and research. She said:

> I think that teaching and research have a very close relationship, because the teacher can give us a lot of interesting and real examples of what he is teaching. He can teach you with a lot of enthusiasm and you will follow with enthusiasm as well. It is good when the teacher is an expert on what he is teaching.

For her, the enthusiasm with which her teacher teaches comes from his research activities, because he can give the students lots of 'interesting and real examples'. This enthusiasm is shown in his teaching style, because he teaches with 'a lot of enthusiasm'. This enthusiasm is also transmitted to students, as she claims that she also follows with enthusiasm. Teachers' enthusiasm for their subject inspires students (Barnett, 2007). Niu's experience supports the statement of Friedrich and Michalak Jr. (1983) that research is also thought to promote the intellectual involvement and liveliness of the professor, characteristics that may in turn contribute to interesting and enthusiastic teaching. It also supports the claim of Linsky and Strauss (1975) that the sense of excitement which the researcher derives from his/her participation in the creation of knowledge may also be communicated to students. Enthusiasm also makes the teaching of teachers more interesting, according to Thomas. He stated:

> I think that their research activities can improve the quality of what they are teaching, because the information will be up-to-date. I think if they are

enthusiastic about what they research, that might make their teaching a bit more interesting, improving the quality of their teaching.

Shulman (1999) argues that the teacher has special responsibilities in relation to content knowledge, serving as the primary source of student understanding of subject matter, and that this responsibility places special demands on the teacher's own depth of understanding of the structures of the subject matter, as well as on the teacher's attitude toward and enthusiasm for what is being taught and learned.

However, almost one quarter of the participants, in this study, perceived the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of their teaching styles as being a negative one. Guan protested that her teacher was not aware that the students were first-time researchers. She noticed that:

> We also have a course on dissertation, and each session is presented by a lecturer who has experience with the method he/she is talking about. We had a lecturer who did her research on case study. She just talked about what she did without giving the background of the topic, without explaining the practicalities of the research method. She is really good in her field, but she was not aware that we were first-time researchers and we do not know the principles of case study. We just learned about her area, but nothing about case study.

Guan's example illustrates Elton's (2001) claim that in research the level of understanding must be that of the researcher, in teaching it must be that of the student, not of the teacher. As Freire (1994: 64, 1996: 58, 2000: 58) puts it, 'the teacher's thinking is authenticated only by the authenticity of the students' thinking. The teacher cannot think for her [sic] students, nor can she [sic] impose her [sic] thought on them'. This example also supports Feldman's (1987) claim that high producers of research, compared with low producers, are not less likely nor any more likely to be sensitive to class level and progress. For Guan, if teachers do not adjust to the level of students, students do not perceive good quality in their teaching styles. The perception of Guan is associated with the second and third myths of higher education discussed by Terenzini and Pascarella (1994). The second myth is that traditional methods of instruction (the lecture/discussion format) provide proven, effective ways of teaching undergraduate students. According to Terenzini and Pascarella, this myth is based on the assumptions

that all students are equally prepared for the course; that all students learn at the same rate; that all students learn in the same way and through the same set of activities; and that differences in performance are more likely due to differences in student effort or ability than to the faultiness of any of the foregoing assumptions. The third myth is that good researchers are good teachers, i.e. teachers have to do research in order to be good teachers. It seems that this was not the case for Guan.

Shulman (1999) argues that in the manner in which understanding is communicated to students and in the face of student diversity, the teacher must have a flexible and multifaceted comprehension, adequate to impart alternative explanations of the same concepts or principles. Based on my reading of the literature, it is my contention that teachers should explain their subject on a level that students can understand what teachers are trying to communicate to students, in order to bring the understanding of students to the level of the understanding of their teachers.

Patricia said that despite the amount of research and publications of some of her lecturers, their teaching was not exciting. She mentioned:

> I've seen lecturers who are very well qualified academically, with an enormous amount of publication and research, but the way they deliver the subject does not come alive, it is not very clear and you cannot question them.

Patricia also mentioned an important issue in the teaching and learning process, the issue of power relations, as according to her, the way that some lecturers teach 'is not very clear and you cannot question them'. As I mentioned in chapter I, Lukes (1974: 34, 1978: 34) emphasises the imposing characteristic of power when he defines his concept of power as '*A* exercises power over *B* when *A* affects *B* in a manner contrary to *B*'s interests'. Foucault (1994) argued that in any human relation power is always present: the relationships in which one wishes to direct the behaviour of another. In earlier work (Bótas, 2000, 2004), I questioned the extent to which teachers should exercise their power to control the learning of students. I argued that teachers make decisions about what they will and will not teach students, as they decide on the amount of knowledge

and information they will and will not impart/share with students. They decide whether they will or will not interact with students. And they decide whether they will or will not answer the questions of students. Some teachers find it safe not to interact with students and will ignore questions or prevent students from asking questions in the classroom. Some teachers prefer to teach in a comfort zone or safe space or '"safe" place' (hooks, 1994: 39), where they are not challenged and their authority is not tested. They '[keep] students at a distance' (Shor, 1992: 102) in order 'to preserve [their] authority' (Boler, 1999: 139). This distance maintains the teachers' authority and coercive power in the classroom. The authority of teachers in the teaching and learning process can be perceived by some students as an imposition of teachers' control and knowledge. Rowland (1996) claimed that teaching which really encourages students to raise their own questions and offer alternative perspectives is much less secure and predictable than more traditional lecturing methods.

Bligh (1998) warns that by delaying the opportunity for questions, teachers fail to take advantage of the temporary initial interest in a point. My research shows that students think that the classroom is the place where questions should be asked and answered, as it probably will be the only time they will have available to them to interact with their teachers. Later on, in chapter VIII, I will develop and deconstruct the issue of the use of questioning in the teaching and learning process. As I mentioned earlier, the research activities of teachers can impact on the quality of knowledge and teaching style used by teachers. However, it can also impact on the availability of teachers to their students.

c. *Impact on the time that teachers dedicate to teaching and time that teachers are available to students*

One quarter of the participants mentioned, in their interviews, that they feel that the research activities of their teachers impact negatively on the time that they dedicate to teaching and are available to students. Najma observed that teachers do not have time for students. She said:

The only thing that I have felt an impact of tutors, who were engaged in research work, is that they don't care about the students, because they are very busy getting their research work done. And that is what they also say: "I don't have time. Right now, I need to get this piece of work written. I don't have time". There is always something else pressing them and it is usually their research work. I feel very resentful towards their research actually. Their research is taking their time away from me. Teachers are there to teach the students first. That is what the university is supposed to be. If teachers are researching all the time, then the quality of teaching is suffering.

Najma perceives the first responsibility of teachers as being that of teaching students. Her perception supports Barnett's (1992) view that the first responsibility of the teachers is to their teaching (their students), and not their research. Najma's example contradicts the findings of Friedrich and Michalak Jr. (1983) which showed that researchers are slightly more available to students. In Najma's perception, the research activities of her teachers detract from the amount of time and energy that teachers devote to supporting students. It also contradicts the claim of Feldman (1987), who said that there is almost no support, in his research, for the proposition that time or effort devoted to research is inversely related to teaching effectiveness either in some direct way or indirectly through its negative effects on teachers' preparation and organisation, the quality of the teachers' feedback to students, or teachers' helpfulness and availability to students. However, Najma's example supports the fifth relationship between teaching and research that Coate et al. (2001) found in their study, namely that research is perceived as a negative influence on teaching, because research often has a higher value than teaching, and academics may be less inclined to spend time on curricular developments or pedagogical approaches, and research-active staff may also spend less time with students. It also supports the findings of Hattie and Marsh (1996) that time on research is negatively related to time spent on teaching. It further supports one of the four disadvantages associated with involvement of teachers in research mentioned by Jenkins et al. (1998), who found that teachers were not available to students. Najma is aware of the pressures which are upon her teachers and, like Leah, Najma is also aware that teaching in the classroom now represents only one part of the teachers' work in higher education.

Raja protested that teachers who research do not focus on teaching. He mentioned:

> I don't think it has, because they are focused on their own research activities and not focused on teaching. Their research activities are taking their time from teaching. I think that their research activities become more a problem than a help to their teaching practice. They are always very busy doing their research that they do not have time to give us, and this is not good. They don't have time to prepare to teach.

For Raja, the research activities of his teachers are more of a problem than a help to their teaching practice. He stressed the issue of availability of teachers to students, teachers having no time to give to students, and this makes him perceive this as a negative impact on the quality of teaching in higher education. For him, the research activities of his teachers detract from the amount of time and energy that teachers devote to teaching and to supporting students. The same issue was presented by Coate et al. (2001) who stated that, in their study, students complained of inaccessible supervisors who were too busy with their own research. Raja's experience contradicts the research of Friedrich and Michalak Jr. (1983) who found that researchers are slightly more available to students. It is important to observe that Najma and Raja perceived the research activities of their teachers, as well as other 'constraints' or 'pressing' duties, as taking up time from teaching activities and supporting students.

2. Students' perceptions of the impact of the research activities of teachers on the quality of the learning of the students

Almost all of the participants perceived the research activities of their teachers as having an impact on the quality of their learning. The perceptions of the participants are threefold: teachers' research activities impact positively on the quality of the learning of students; teachers' research activities impact negatively on the quality of the learning of students; and teachers' research activities impact only if their research relates to the content/area/subject/topic that students are studying and/or are interested in: what I call the conditional perception.

a. Impact positively on the quality of the learning of students

One quarter of the participants mentioned, in their interviews, that they feel that the research activities of their teachers impact positively on the quality of their learning. Hao believed that she can learn 'different things' from her teachers. She said:

It impacts because I can learn different things from them.

For Hao, the research activities of her teachers impact on the quality of her learning, because she is getting a broad knowledge from her teachers. It seems that Hao is learning 'some ways in which different perspectives and her own perspective help to determine what data is used and considered important' (Maher, 1985: 40). This can only happen if teachers have a 'multistructural' (Biggs, 1999: 99) perspective of their topic and field of expertise which goes beyond their own formulated perspectives to include the perspectives of others. Her perception contradicts the views of Friedrich and Michalak Jr. (1983), who claimed that immersion in research apparently can breed a narrowness that detracts from the broad-based knowledgeability that students perceive as being an important element of good teaching, and the views of Ramsden and Moses (1992), who claimed that teaching based solely on the research of other people is dull and fails to inspire students. Rabia also holds a similar perception. She stated:

The research activities of my teachers have a significant impact on my learning. I believe that their interests also have an impact on the interest areas we finally get into, since a lot of examples the teachers use are from their own research.

For her, the research activities of her teachers impact significantly on the quality of her learning, because teachers use examples from their research to illustrate the subject. That means that her teachers are at the cutting edge of their fields, teaching from immediate research experience (Coate et al., 2001). They are disseminating the latest advanced knowledge and the most recent facts (Neumann, 1992).

Ang remarked that the research activities of his teachers make his 'learning better'. He mentioned:

> It is interesting when they quote you examples of their research findings and ask you to give your opinions about the findings of their research, research method and methodology, mainly when it is related to what you are learning, because the teacher is providing more background information for students to engage with the subject or topic. I think that their research being presented in the context that students are studying can help the learning of students. I don't think that it makes their teaching better, but it can make my learning better.

For Ang, teacher-researchers have immediate research experience and are at the cutting edge of their fields (Coate et al., 2001). Ang sees himself as a stakeholder in the research activities of his teachers, as he stated that teachers' research 'can make his learning better'. Lindsay et al. (2002) argued that postgraduate students commend salience when lecturer research directly benefits their own learning. This is contrary to the findings of Jenkins et al. (1998) who claimed that students did not perceive themselves as stakeholders in teachers' research. Ang seems to perceive teachers as serving as the 'primary source' (Shulman, 1999: 65) of his understanding of the subject matter. However, some students can perceive the research activities of their teachers as having a negative impact on the quality of their learning.

b. Impact negatively on the quality of the learning of students

One quarter of the participants mentioned, in their interviews, that they feel that the research activities of their teachers impact negatively on the quality of their learning. Guan holds a negative perception of the research activities of her teachers. She said:

> I don't think that it impacts on my learning, because they are always too busy doing their research and I cannot be closer to them for them to help me. Sometimes you want to learn something deeper, and you want to discuss it with someone who knows that subject deeper and you cannot because they are very busy doing their research. They are so busy, that the only thing I have is my own knowledge. They do not use their expertise to help us learn. We are just struggling on our own. They know a lot but there is no time for them to share their knowledge with us.

For Guan, the research activities of her teachers have priority over teaching and supporting students. Teachers' research activities distract them from teaching and supporting students. Her perception contradicts the argument of Feldman (1987) who reported that there is almost no support for the proposition that time or effort devoted to research is inversely related to teaching effectiveness. Guan's perception supports the findings of Jenkins et al. (1998) who found that teachers who are involved in research are perceived by students as preoccupied with their research at the expense of teaching. Like Leah, and Najma, Guan is aware that teaching in the classroom now represents only one part of the teachers' work in higher education. It appears that Guan feels isolated in her learning experience, as she mentions that the only thing she has is her own knowledge and that she is struggling on her own. I believe that in order to set students free on their path of learning, they need to be guided and pointed in the right direction first, and this is the main duty of teachers in the classroom.

Amanda observed that the research activities of her teachers do not impact on the quality of her learning. She mentioned:

> I don't think that it has an impact on the quality of my learning, because I am motivated to learn independently of the teaching. I can learn anyway. Most of the time I have the impression that the teachers do not want to be there teaching, because they are talking above our heads. It seems that they had something better to do somewhere else than being in the classroom teaching.

Amanda holds the perception that her teachers do not want to be teaching, as for her, it 'seems that they had something better to do somewhere else'. Like Guan, Amanda feels that the research activities of her teachers detract them from teaching students. Her perception supports the claims that teachers who research are less available to students and are not focused on teaching (Hattie and Marsh, 1996, Jenkins et al., 1998, Coate et al., 2001). Amanda's perception contradicts the argument of Feldman (1987) who reported that there is almost no support for the proposition that time or effort devoted to research is inversely related to teaching effectiveness. Friedrich and Michalak Jr. (1983) argue that care should be taken to see that involvement in research does not interfere with the instructor's responsibility to maintain a high level of knowledgeability in the areas in which he or she teaches. According to hooks (1994), students often do not want

to learn and teachers do not want to teach, and this is a serious crisis in education. In my view, this crisis is caused by the lack of motivation in students and teachers to engage in the teaching and learning process and/or by the displacement of teachers' motivation from the teaching and learning process to their research activities. Based on the literature and the findings of my data, I believe that when teachers' motivation is placed on their research activities, their motivation to teach is bound to decrease.

Only two participants, Raja and Wang, held the same perception that the research activities of their teachers do not impact on the quality of their learning. They categorically stated: 'I don't think it has any impact at all'. However, some students can perceive the research activities of their teachers as having an impact on the quality of their learning only if teachers are researching what they are teaching.

c. *Impact positively on the quality of the learning of students only if teachers are researching the area/subject/topic that students are studying and/or are interested in: the conditional perception*

Half of the participants mentioned, in their interviews, that they feel that the research activities of their teachers impact on the quality of their learning, only if the research of their teachers is on the content/area/subject/topic that participants are studying and/or are interested in: what I call the conditional perception. Charlotte reckons that the research activities of her teachers impact on the quality of her learning if they are researching something she 'could try and apply'. She said:

> If they are researching something that I could try and apply in my learning and in my professional life, then it impacts on my learning. If they are going to schools and researching teaching and learning, and bring examples of other teachers' experiences, I think that it impacts on my learning. When they tell you what they have just done, and show you how to do it and apply it, then it impacts on my learning.

Relevance to her own learning is the criterion on which she judges the impact of the research activities of her teachers on the quality of her learning. Lindsay et al. (2002)

found that some postgraduate students thought that teachers' research should be useful, interesting and relevant to their learning. Jenkins et al. (2003) claim that postgraduate students insist that the research activities of their teachers should be relevant to the content of their course.

Najma highlighted the importance of teachers researching the area that they are teaching. She mentioned that:

> Unless they are teaching whatever they are researching we cannot get fresh, new information from the field. But that is not what happens. Their research is on other areas and the topic is in a different area. They don't necessarily overlap. Whatever the research they are doing does not necessarily come into the class. It does not necessarily fit the topic that they are teaching. (...). That is why I object to the time that is taken away from the students.

Najma perceives the teachers in her institution as researching areas that are different from the topic that she is studying and which do not fit the topic. Linsky and Strauss (1975) consider that involvement of students in the research of their teachers could lead to productive lines of research, and Najma appears to see some benefits from the research activities of her teachers, as she would be exposed to 'fresh' and 'new' information. However, Najma complains that the research activities of her teachers take away time from students. Coate et al. (2001) claimed that teachers who research are less inclined to spend time with students. Friedrich and Michalak Jr. (1983) stated that the more time and effort teachers devote to research, the less the time they devote to teaching. Najma perceives a disconnection between what teachers are teaching and what teachers are researching, and that makes her object to the lack of teachers' availability to students.

Some participants call attention to the issue of the research activities of their teachers being of interest to participants. Thomas said:

> I don't know. It depends on how well they transmit their research and how much I am interested in learning about their research.

And Gisela mentioned that:

> I don't think that there is a direct link between their research activities and my learning, because in the end it is me that is learning. (...). Only if I find their research topic interesting than I can learn from their research activities.

However, for Gisela, the research activities of her teachers impact on her learning only if she finds any interest in the research of her teachers. She does not share the views of Jenkins et al. (2003) that most teachers see research activity as an important arena in which they themselves learn, teachers consequently being in a good position to share learning experiences with students and project themselves as fellow learners rather than as experts. Teachers are in a good position to be students' model of learners. However, the students who spoke to me believed that teachers should only carry out research that is relevant to or is pushing the boundaries of the area/discipline/subject/topic they are teaching. Like Barnett (1992), I believe that teaching is the main responsibility of teachers in higher education, i.e., disseminating knowledge through direct contact with students. Some teachers in higher education research areas/disciplines/subjects/topics which are not related to their teaching, and which cannot be used, in any case, for publication and/or teaching. My research shows that teachers should not be carrying out research that cannot be used in their teaching. Their main concern should be their teaching and their research should be relevant to their teaching, and not a means of gathering funding for universities. It is my personal belief that universities should have research organisations engaged in gathering funding through research which cannot be used and is not related to the teaching carried out at those universities. That would imply that universities would have to employ research staff only in order to gather funding from their research activities.

B. Summary

In this chapter, I found and demonstrated that there are multiple engagements among students of their perceptions of the relationship between teaching and research and the relationship between quality teaching and learning. On the one hand, the evidence I presented in this chapter allows me to claim that for some students there is a

relationship between teaching and research. On the other hand, it allows me to claim that for some there is no relationship between teaching and research. Here one can see that, like quality teaching, the research activities of teachers are perceived in different ways by students. This variety of perceptions of the research activities of teachers is related to students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education, as determined by their perceptions of the research activities of their teachers and the impact on the quality of teaching and learning in higher education. Students' perceptions of the impact of teachers' research activities on teaching and learning in higher education are among the criteria they use to judge the quality of teaching and learning in higher education in the UK.

In this chapter, I have also demonstrated that students in higher education perceive the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of their teaching as threefold: having an impact on the quality of the knowledge and information imparted and shared with students; having an impact on the teaching style of their teachers in the classroom; and having an impact on the time that teachers dedicate to teaching and their availability to students. As one can see, more than three quarters of participants perceived positively the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of the knowledge and information imparted and shared with students. However, half of one quarter of the participants perceived this impact negatively. One quarter of the participants perceive positively the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of their teaching style in the classroom. However, almost one quarter of the participants perceived this impact negatively. One quarter of the participants perceived the impact of the research activities of their teachers as having a negative effect on the time dedicated to teaching and the availability of teachers to students. None of the participants mentioned, in any way, that the research activities of their teachers had a positive impact on the time dedicated to teaching and the availability of teachers to students. It is important to mention that some participants held more than one perception/view of the impact of teachers' research activities on the quality of their teaching.

Based on the evidence I presented in this chapter, it is clear that there are two relationships (a positive one and a negative one) between the research activities of teachers and the quality of their teaching. The overall majority of participants perceived the research activities of their teachers as having a positive impact on the quality of their teaching, when teaching is perceived as a means of transmitting and disseminating the latest advanced knowledge and the most recent facts on the area/subject/topic to students. In this relationship teachers are more aware of current questions, hypotheses and issues, and therefore better able to feed back this new information to students, as they are at the cutting edge of their fields; they teach more relevant, up-to-date material from their immediate research experience. The manner in which teachers transmit and disseminate this new knowledge is by encouraging students to be critical and to question this new knowledge, as students are exposed to conflicting points of view and encouraged to think critically. This positive relationship can be seen under the subheadings: *Impact on the quality of the information/knowledge that they are imparting to/sharing with students*; and *Impact on the quality of the teaching style that teachers are using in the classroom.*

One quarter of the participants perceived the research activities of their teachers as having a negative impact on the quality of their teaching, when teachers were not available to students and also were not dedicated to teaching. In this relationship time on research is negatively related to time on teaching, because time or effort devoted to research negatively affects teachers' preparation and organisation, helpfulness and availability to students, and research-active staff may spend less time with students and not be available to students, because they are too busy with their own research. This negative relationship can be seen under the subheading: *Impact on the time that teachers dedicate to teaching and are available to students.*

In relation to the impact of the research activities of teachers on the quality of the learning of the participants, I further demonstrated that students in higher education perceive this impact as threefold: having a positive impact on the quality of students' learning; having a negative impact on the quality of students' learning; and having a positive impact on the quality of students' learning, only if the research of their teachers

is on the content/area/subject/topic that participants are studying and are interested in, i.e., teachers are researching what they are teaching: the conditional perception. One quarter of the participants perceived positively the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of their learning. One quarter of the participants perceived negatively the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of their learning. However, half of the participants perceived the research activities of their teachers as having a positive impact on the quality of their learning, only if the research of their teachers is on the content/area/subject that participants are studying and are interested in: the conditional perception.

In this chapter, I found that students perceive the impact of the research activities of their teachers in different ways, and that they use different criteria to form and inform their perceptions. Their perceptions of the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of their teaching are framed by criteria: knowledge and information, teaching style, and time and availability. Their perceptions of the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of learning by students are framed by criteria: positive impact, negative impact, and conditional impact. It is clear that most of the students perceive a positive relationship between the research activities of their teachers and the quality of the teaching of their teachers. It is also clear that some students perceive a positive relationship between the research activities of their teachers and the quality of the learning of the students, assuming that the conditions for the relevance/salience to the course students are taking and the interest of students in the research of teachers are fulfilled. This means that students perceive the research activities of their teachers as having a positive impact on the quality of their learning, mainly if teachers are researching the area/subject/topic that students are studying and learning. In this study there is a strong connection between the relevance and salience of the research activities of teachers to students' learning and the quality of students' learning. If students regard their teachers' research activities as relevant to their learning, then they perceive this relationship as a positive one.

Rowland (1996) and Smeby (1998) call for a closer or stronger relationship between teaching and research, and Coate et al. (2001) call for more effort to be spent

on understanding the ways in which different relationships between teaching and research are shaped. This study throws light on the way forward to understanding the relationship between the research activities of teachers and their impact on the quality of teaching and learning. The way forward is to pay attention to the relevance of the teachers' research activities to the area, subject and topic, and to students' interest, focus of study and needs. If teachers are active-researchers and make sure that their research activities are related to the area, subject and students' interest, focus of study and needs, then students will perceive the research activities of teachers as having a positive impact on the quality of students' learning. One could argue that the interest of students in the course and area they are studying is already established, because students have chosen this area and course as part of their studies. However, I argue that: First, it is up to the teachers to keep the interest of students alive and to keep up the levels of motivation of students in the area, subject and topic of study. Second, the research activities of teachers should be not only relevant and salient to the content, interest and needs of students, but also up-to-date. Third, that the research activities of teachers should be relevant and focused on the area/subject/topic they are teaching. Fourth, teachers should present their own research in comparison with the research of other people in a broader context of knowledge, and illustrate the subject/topic with examples used from their own research and the research of others. Fifth, teachers should not focus only on their own views in the classroom, but also present views that contradict their own views. And last, teachers should be aware of the level of knowledge of the students.

In relation to the categories of home and international students, it is interesting to point out that there seems to be a balance in the perceptions of students of the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of teaching and learning. The ratio of participants is almost 1:1, i.e. little more than one international student for one home student, as 24 participants were international students and 19 participants were home students. More international students than home students perceive positively the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of their teaching. More home students than international students perceive negatively the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of their teaching. In relation to the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of students' learning, half of the international students and half of the home students perceive the research activities of

their teachers as having a positive impact on the quality of their learning. Half of the international students and half of the home students perceive the research activities of their teachers as having a negative impact on the quality of their learning. And half of the international students and half of the home students perceive the research activities of their teachers as having a positive impact on the quality of their learning, only if teachers are researching the content/area/subject that students are studying and learning.

In relation to the gender aspect of the participants, it is interesting to point out that there may be a gender balance in the perceptions of students of the impact of the research activities of their teachers on the quality of teaching and learning. However, it is not possible to establish a more accurate gender balance, because three quarters of the participants were female and one quarter was male. The ratio of participants is 3:1, i.e. three females for one male. Although the findings reflect a 3:1 ratio in all categories (knowledge and information, teaching style, time and availability in teaching; and positive, negative and conditional in learning), I cannot conclusively claim that there is a gender balance in the findings of this study in this area.

The evidence presented in this chapter not only supports the claim that there is a relationship between teaching and research, but fills the gap in relating the perceptions of postgraduate students of the research activities of their teachers to the quality of the teaching and learning experiences of students in higher education in the UK, by offering insights on how the relationship between teaching and research is shaped and can be made closer and stronger, especially through the research activities of teachers being related and relevant to what students are studying.

A significant implication of the findings of my research for the establishment of teaching-only universities is that they will fall behind those that combine teaching and research because students perceive the research activities of teachers as the warranty of their knowledge, expertise and practical ability in their fields. According to my research, students trust the information, knowledge, expertise and practical ability of teachers who are involved in research. Jürgen Enders (2007) considers 'research as

academic fitness for teaching', as it impacts on the knowledge and expertise of teachers, and therefore improves the knowledge economy of their institutions. A higher education institution without teachers who are involved in research has less marketable knowledge than institutions whose teachers are involved in research. International and, increasingly, home students are attracted by the reputation of the research staff who are also teaching in the departments of their universities. These research-active teachers are the market value of those institutions.

The findings of my research also have implications for teaching-only posts (contracts), as home and international students perceive teachers who are not involved in research as not having the same value in national and international markets of higher education. According to my research, home and international students do value and appreciate the research activities of their teachers, and those research-active teachers are regarded as good university teachers. Students consider teachers who only teach and are not research-active as not being at the cutting-edge of their fields, and therefore as not having the knowledge, expertise and practical ability that research warranties. This will have an impact on the trust students place in the knowledge of their teachers. As I argued earlier, without trust between teachers and students there is no learning.

The findings also have implications for the policy for funding research in higher education in the UK, as students only value research that is directly applied to their learning at university. Funded research that is not directly applicable to the learning of students, i.e. to what students are studying, is considered to be not relevant. Research that cannot be disseminated in the teaching and learning process at university and that also cannot be published has no obvious value to students. If policy makers are concerned with the quality of the experience of students in higher education in the UK, they will have to consider funding research that is relevant to what students are studying and learning in higher education.

Chapter VIII

MA students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education

The focus of this thesis has been on MA students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the United Kingdom. Throughout this thesis I have been arguing that students' perceptions are formed and informed by their previous learning experiences and by the socio-political environment of teaching and learning in higher education. By socio-political environment I mean the way that the pedagogical relationship is shaped by the identities, intentions, objectives, purposes, aims, expectations, motivations of teachers and students, and by the learning needs of students. This chapter focuses precisely on what MA students think about quality teaching in higher education. I address MA students' perceptions of good and poor/bad quality teaching and what criteria students use to establish their judgements about quality teaching in higher education. I demonstrate, in this chapter, that students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education vary; that it is very difficult to pinpoint quality teaching in higher education, because what can be perceived as good quality teaching by some students can be perceived as poor quality teaching by others; and that some students are not entirely able to evaluate the quality of teaching at the point of delivery. I argue that the concept of quality cannot be applied to teaching in higher education.

A. Students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education

In the research for this study the participants described their perceptions of the quality of their teachers' teaching styles, such as lecturing, use of questioning and group work, in the teaching and learning process in the classroom in higher education.

1. Students' perceptions of lecturing

Lecturing in this section is defined, according to Bligh (1998: 6), as a 'continuous period of exposition by a speaker [teacher] who wants the audience [students] to learn something'. Brown and Atkins (1988) argue that teachers sometimes forget that lectures are for the benefit of students. They claim that without motivation attention is lost and there can be little understanding, and without information on a topic there is nothing to be understood. According to them, lectures have three purposes, coverage (conveying the information), understanding (generating information) and motivation (stimulating interest), which are therefore interrelated. It is my personal belief that lecturing is a very important part of the teaching and learning process, as it is the starting point of the learning journey of students when they can get the directions and guidance they need for their journey.

In this study, all participants hold different perceptions of lecturing in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. Bushra observed that she feels very good when she learns the subject. She said:

> Yes, I had a teacher... he taught me like this, the moment I want to stop him and ask a question, I would stop him. He said: if you want to ask anything, if you know you have a problem, you can ask me. (...). After coming out of the class, everything was clear in my mind. (...). I feel very good. I feel very clear about the subject. The quality of his teaching was wonderful. It was marvellous, because I knew I have learned this thing.

This example illustrates the issue of some students having their teachers as the source of the knowledge of students, the teacher telling students everything they need to know. The students work like a safe in which the knowledge of the teacher is deposited, in order to become students' learning, i.e. the 'banking system' of education that Freire (1994, 1996, 2000) criticises. This example illustrates how perceptions of students of the teaching and learning process are complex, because what can be inspiring teaching for some students, is not inspiring to others. Bushra's experience equates good teaching with feeding and, consequently, with parenting, as teachers let themselves be ''used up' with no limits and boundaries' (Shaw, 1995: 54).

Shaw (1995) claims that

> [t]eaching is not the same as parenting, but it depends upon it in a wide variety of ways, both practically and emotionally. In particular it is the primitive, primary and practical experience of feeding and being fed that lays the foundations for learning in general (Shaw, 1995: 11).

She also claims that, at the unconscious level, feeding and learning get confused, and success or failure in learning may, therefore, depend on the actual and internalised experiences of feeding that students bring to the classroom (Shaw, 1995: 70). Culley et al. (1985) argue that students see teachers as something more, or certainly something other, than simply their teachers. Teachers, according to them, are 'inescapably, also their mothers – necessary for comfort but reinforcing a feared and fearful dependency if such comfort is too easily accepted. But we are also, in part, their fathers – word-givers, truth-sayers' (ibid.: 14). Feeding does not only mean giving/transmitting information to students, it can also mean, according to Haggis (2006), telling students which authors to read, which ideas to stress, or which quotes to include when students are preparing for an essay (written work). The father figure who allows himself to be used up and who feeds the truth to students is what makes the quality of her teacher's teaching 'marvellous' according to Bushra.

Victoria remarked that she learns a lot from a solid (heavy/substantial) lecture. She mentioned:

> I have some teachers that the structure of their classes was straightforward lecture seminars. They would talk for the whole class. (...). It was not very creative, but it was solid, you know. They provided a set of bibliography that we could have access to. I still remember what they did. It was very good teaching because they were competent teachers. They provided me with a very good background for furthering my studies and career. The quality of their teaching is very good.

Contrary to most of the students in this research, Victoria considers a solid (heavy/substantial) lecture to be good teaching because, in her view, her teachers were competent teachers. Some students feel comfortable in receiving the information that they need from the teacher without having to struggle with the subject/topic. However,

Shor (1992: 12) argues that '[i]f the students' task is to memorize rules and existing knowledge, without questioning the subject matter or the learning process, their potential for critical thought and action will be restricted'. It appears to me that Victoria does not perceive a solid (heavy/substantial) lecture as restricting her potential for critical thought and action. She seems to perceive it as providing her with a very good background for furthering her studies and career, as she felt influenced by the authority of her teacher in the subject. In my view, it seems that Victoria did not have any reason for questioning the subject matter, nor the learning process, because she sees the lecture as a means of getting very good background information. It appears to me that Victoria likes to practise what I call "safe learning", and innovative teaching styles might make her feel like she was taking a risk of not learning in the classroom. Naido and Jamieson (2005a) argue that

> [a]dvanced forms of learning require risk-taking on the part of learners because there is no guarantee of success. According to them, learning requires trust, or more precisely an act of faith, by learners that they can address, if not solve, problems successfully and that their teachers will act as reliable guides in this process of discovery (Naidoo and Jamieson, 2005a: 275).

Victoria's example also illustrates how students' perceptions of the teaching and learning process are complex, because what can be empowering for some students, can be oppressing to others. In my experience, some students prefer to be lectured at because that makes them feel more secure and safe in the classroom, and also in control of their own learning process. The practice of participatory pedagogical styles in the classroom can make some students feel anxious and become defensive because it is an unfamiliar situation that does not match the template of their previous teaching and learning experiences.

George noticed that he does not like a teacher to lecture in a monotonous voice. He stated:

> The worst experience I had here, it is from a professor (...). We all felt that he didn't want to be there, that he was ill prepared and he delivered his

lecture in a monotonous voice as he was reading from a piece of paper. He was very boring. (…). The only thing I remember is that it was a bad lesson and the next time I have the same teacher again I will probably not be there. It was a negative experience. The quality of his teaching was appalling, absolutely appalling. I couldn't engage, neither any of my colleagues, they could not engage as well in that classroom. I think that using different methods of input is the key to the teaching and learning process. It didn't impact on my learning, because I did not learn anything.

In this example, George felt bored because his teacher was lecturing by reading from a paper and not engaging with him nor with his fellow students. For George, his classroom was not a participatory or empowering classroom. His teacher was not a participatory and empowering teacher either. Shor (1992: 26) claims that '[t]o help move students away from passivity and cynicism, a powerful signal has to be sent from the very start, a signal that learning is participatory, involving humor, hope and curiosity'. It seems to me that George's teacher was not willing to make his classroom a participatory and empowering classroom, because he did not send any signal that participation and engagement were allowed and desired in his classroom. As Shor (1992: 26) puts it, '[a]s students, teachers learned early and often that to be a teacher means talking a lot and being in charge'. In my view, in this example, the teacher was in charge by being in control of what was happening in the classroom. Bligh (1998: 163) advises that 'it is better to avoid long periods of uninterrupted exposition' as it can demotivate and does not take advantage of temporary initial interest in the subject or a point. He argues that the lecture method notoriously neglects the psychological desire for interaction with other people in the classroom, and if another method were used during the lecture period to satisfy it, students' attention would probably improve. Bligh's argument is supported by George who stated that he thinks that 'using different methods of input is the key to the teaching and learning process'. For George, his teacher was boring and the way that he was teaching was also boring. His feelings towards his teacher and the teaching style of his teacher made him perceive the quality of the teaching of his teacher as appalling. And it did not impact on his learning because he did not learn anything from this teacher. However, I believe that it did impact negatively in his learning.

It seems that this experience also affected George's motivation to turn up for lectures which this teacher would probably be giving. As I argued elsewhere, emotional distance affects students' motivation and interest in the subject, while at the same time it reinforces the authority of teachers and their coercive power in the classroom (Bótas, 2000). I agree with Leistyna and Woodrum (1996) that power and privilege are maintained when teachers work within the traditional paradigm of teaching (lecturing) in which students are passive recipients of information and teachers are the knower, inevitably reproducing and maintaining particular forms of identity, meaning, authority, and interaction, whether they are aware of it or not. 'At the same time, teachers work and speak from within historically and socially determined relations of power and privilege that are based on their race, ethnicity, class, and gender' (Leistyna and Woodrum, 1996: 4). McDermott (1977) asserts that teaching is a form of coercion and that this inevitable coercion of students can be rendered harmful or harmless according to the actions and interactions of students and teachers. However, Alpert (1991) argues that the way to promote more participation and compliance in an educational setting is by making more room for personal expression and responsive classroom interaction when teaching subject-matter contents.

According to Bligh (1998: 227), '[i]nvolvement motivates; passive listening does not'. It is clear that lack of engagement in the classroom affects students' motivation. Here, again, I want to call attention to the narrow use and understanding of the concept of engagement in the teaching and learning process, in particular its restriction by critical and feminist pedagogies and cognitive psychology to students being physically and actively engaged in the teaching and learning activity in the classroom. My research demonstrates that engagement and interaction in the classroom can take many forms: (1) it can happen through questioning on the part of the teacher and on the part of students; (2) it can happen through eye contact between teachers and students; (3) it can happen through critically listening and thinking about what is being said and done in the classroom; and (4) it can happen through pair, group and whole class discussion/dialogue in the classroom. As I argued in earlier work (Bótas, 2000, 2004), students can be silently engaged with knowledge creation in the teaching and learning process in the classroom, i.e. they can be intellectually engaged with the teacher, their fellow students and the subject/topic of study. I believe that teachers'

attitudes and behaviour in the teaching and learning process can determine if they are going to engage students or not.

Amanda indicated that the teacher should pay attention to the needs of students. She noted:

> I had a module on linguistics in which the articles were quite difficult to read and to understand as well. The teacher was lecturing and he was not explaining what the concepts and terminology were. It was quite difficult because he was just lecturing and not paying attention to our needs. I haven't learned anything from his lectures. I had to find it out by myself afterwards. He would come in and go straight to the lecture using these quite complex linguistics terms, assuming that we all knew what he meant. (...) He did not take into account that other people in the group did not come from a linguistic background. I felt that I had taken too much. (...) At the time, it was a poor experience, but subsequently it became a positive experience because I had to go back and learn about it by myself. At the time, it was a quite bad experience. At the end it was quite a good experience actually.

In Amanda's example, there are three issues I would like to highlight. First, this example points to the issue of teachers assuming that all students in the classroom understand what the teacher is talking about and that all students are at the same level and have the same background in the subject. It is erroneous to hold this assumption in higher education if real learning is to take place in the classroom. To develop their learning in any subject/topic students need some basic understanding of the concepts and how they are used and applied in their discipline. Teachers 'too often assume that students attach the same attributes to key concepts as teachers do' (Maher, 1985: 39), and precisely for this reason, the development of a common language and vocabulary, in which teacher and students can communicate and understand each other, is the key to the development of the learning of students and also a motivational factor for students to "keep on learning". Maher (1985: 40) contends that '[u]ntil teachers explicitly work toward constructing a commonly understood language in their classrooms, the subject-matter concepts will be alien to some students' experiences'. Putting the concepts of the discipline into a context and using the literature in a way that students can understand the teacher's meaning allow students to understand the subject and enable them to work with critical questions in order to develop critical thinking.

If the intention of the teacher is to get students struggling with 'questions that do not have 'right' answers' (Davis, 1985: 251), students have to understand what the concepts of their discipline mean in order for them to situate themselves in relation to the possibilities that critical thinking and engagement open up for them. The teacher is the person responsible for developing a common language in the classroom in order to establish a communication and a sort of "understanding" between the teacher and the students. The literature and my research show that it is erroneous to assume that students completely understand the language and the nuances of the discourse of the discipline, as students are not at the same intellectual level as their teachers and do not have the same knowledge. It seems that this teacher did not address the learning needs of Amanda. The teacher should make sure that students are familiar with the language of the topic/subject before getting into its technicalities. Also in my view, students should tell the teacher when they do not understand the language of the topic/subject.

Second, Amanda's example also points to the issue of the connection between teaching and learning in the classroom: teaching and learning relate to each other and are entwined, and teaching affects learning and learning affects teaching in the classroom, as I argued earlier. For Amanda, the non-existence of a common language between herself and the teacher made her learning in the classroom impossible, as she claims that she did not learn anything from his lectures. Laurillard (1997, 2002) pointed out the influences that teachers' approaches to teaching can have on students' approaches to studying. She claimed that the teacher plays an important role in forming the perceptions of students. How the teacher presents what is required of the student, what is important, the teacher's style of teaching and the assessment method will all influence what and how the student will learn – whether by adopting a surface or deep approach to learning. She concluded that student strategies and approaches to learning were context-dependent. Like Laurillard, Eklund-Myrskog (1998) concluded that students' conceptions of learning were influenced by their educational experiences, and that the quality of those experiences was contextually based. If what teachers do influences what students do in the teaching and learning process, that means that teaching and learning in higher education are 'inextricably and elaborately linked' (Ramsden, 1996: 6, 2003: 8).

Third, Amanda's example, at the same time, points to the issue of disconnection between teaching and learning in the classroom in higher education, when teaching and learning are not related and connected. Ellis (1995a), Biggs (1999) and Andrews et al. (1996) asserted that teaching is individual and that there is no direct connection between teaching and learning. As I mentioned earlier, for Amanda, the non-existence of a common language between herself and the teacher made her learning in the classroom impossible, as she claims that she did not learn anything from his lectures. However, she also claims that she had to learn by herself afterwards. The teaching style of Amanda's teacher motivated her to go back and learn by herself. Amanda was able to go back and learn the subject/topic by herself because she is a very intrinsically motivated person. In my view, she did not allow the teaching style of her teacher to prevent her from learning the subject/topic.

I find Amanda's experience to be a good example of how students (consumers) cannot evaluate quality at the point of delivery, because Amanda, at the time, considered this experience to be a 'poor experience', i.e. a 'quite bad experience', which subsequently became a positive experience because she had to go back and learn by herself. According to her, 'at the end it was quite a good experience actually'. This experience became a positive experience for Amanda because she was determined to learn the topic/subject and to prove to herself that she was able to take on the challenge (the topic/subject) and win. As I argued above, Amanda is a very intrinsically motivated person and knows how to address her learning needs herself. I find that Amanda's example casts doubts on students' evaluations of teaching in courses and their measurement of quality teaching in higher education, as what seemed to be poor teaching at the time of delivery, in the long run became good quality teaching. Her example illustrates that the quality of teaching cannot be evaluated by a single evaluation instrument (Cashin, 1988, 1994), as teaching is a multifaceted (Davidovitch and Soen, 2006) and complex practice. Here, one can see that students perceive teachers' lecturing in different ways: some find it good quality teaching, others do not.

2. Students' perceptions of the use of questioning in the teaching and learning process

In this subsection I analyse the use of questioning in the teaching and learning process in the classroom in higher education. My study reveals that students perceive the use of questioning in the teaching and learning process in higher education as having an impact on the quality of their teaching and learning experience. Some writers, such as Carner (1963) and Wellington and Wellington (1962), contend that teachers' attention should be focused on questions asked by students rather than on teachers' questions. Others, such as Gall (1970), mention that teachers' questions are of little value unless they have an impact on student behaviour. However, Gall points out that the value of focusing on teachers' questions is that they are the basic unit underlying most methods of teaching in the classroom. In the first part of this subsection I analyse the use of questioning by students, and in the second part I analyse the use of questioning by teachers in the teaching and learning process in higher education.

a) The use of questioning by students in the teaching and learning process

In my view, the use of questioning by students in the teaching and learning process in the classroom can be understood in different ways. In *Table XIII*, on the following page, I have created an eightfold template which I use to analyse and deconstruct the use of questioning by students in the teaching and learning process.

Table XIII – *Deconstruction of questioning by students in the teaching and learning process*

Deconstruction of questioning by students in the teaching and learning process	
1	it can be the embodiment of students' learning needs, as students let the teacher know what they need to know and 'how they are thinking about the topic' (Laurillard, 1997: 108, 2002: 92), i.e. it is a mechanism of surveillance;
2	it can be an indication of the plain and blunt interest of the students in the subject/topic the teacher is teaching;
3	it can be a mechanism wherein students are using up, draining or eating up the knowledge of the teacher (Shaw, 1995), i.e. it is a tool for learning;
4	it can be a mechanism wherein students are preventing the teacher from going further in the topic and completing the agenda of the teacher, i.e., a mechanism wherein the students are subverting and resisting the agenda of the teacher;
5	it can be a defence mechanism wherein students are asserting themselves against the authority of the teacher 'to sabotage any regime that subordinates them' (Shor, 1992: 142);
6	it can be a mechanism wherein students are assessing the ability, authority and legitimacy of the teacher's knowledge in the classroom in order to trust their teacher (Metz, 1978), i.e. if the teacher knows the subject/topic he/she is teaching;
7	it can be a mechanism wherein students are letting the teacher know that they want to participate and engage in the teaching and learning process and not be the "silent observer"; and
8	it can be a mechanism whereby the student is trying to break the hierarchical and authoritative power of the teacher in the teaching and learning process, by trying to make it a shared process, where pedagogy is a process of social production and not transmission (Lusted, 1986).

One can see in this table that the use of questioning by students in the teaching and learning process can have different interpretations and meanings, and that the use of questioning by students can move from compliance, interest and engagement (number **1** in *Table XIII*), to evaluation of teachers' knowledge and resistance to teachers' teaching styles in the classroom (number **8** in *Table XIII*).

In this study, all participants hold different perceptions of the use of questioning by students in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. Patricia stated that:

> The teacher that took the session had a lot of hands-on experience. (...) So, questions that we asked about research in general, (...) she was able to give very particular examples of where we should use that type of research method, such as questionnaires, interviews and the pros and cons of them.

(...). It really showed that lecturer's depth of knowledge that she was able to, you know, just go with all of our questions and answer them effectively. That was a good session. That was quality teaching. (...) So, we would have a question, she would illustrate how we might approach with a real life example. (...) All questions we asked were responded until we were satisfied.

In Patricia's example, there are four issues I would like to highlight: First, this example illustrates the value that students place on the ability of the teacher to read the reaction of students and adapt their teaching to satisfy the learning needs of students. Teachers who can read the direction in which students want to go in the classroom are considered to be very supportive by students, as is the case for Patricia. As Shor (1980: 101) puts it, the teacher 'needs to come to class with an agenda, but must be ready for anything, committed to letting go when the discussion is searching for an organic form', as the teacher's 'agenda will usually be one of a number of competing agendas (...) [and it] will be shaped by the agendas and actions of others in the classroom' (Manke, 1997: 132). Second, this example illustrates the issue of teachers allowing themselves, in psychoanalytical terms, to be used up by students in the classroom until students are 'satisfied', the teacher, the 'good mother' (Shaw, 1995), thus satisfying the students' needs for nurturance and knowledge (number **3** in *Table XIII*). The teacher, the 'good mother', is feeding Patricia, the 'baby', until she is 'satisfied'. As Shaw (1995: 64) puts it: '[t]he good teacher is what the ideal parent would like to be, she or he never gets cross with the child, keeps control all the time, produces learning and doesn't have to struggle to do it'. Third, this example illustrates the issue of students' expectations in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. Shaw (1995) claims that most teachers, mainly female teachers, are subject to unrealistic expectations of nurturance, patience, empathy and knowledge. As I discussed in chapter V, under the subheading *supporting, guiding and helping students learn and giving emotional support*, for Patricia, this teacher would not only answer her questions, but the teacher would illustrate how to approach the problem with a 'real life example'. Last, in this example, the use of questioning in the teaching and learning process in higher education is what made this teaching experience good for Patricia. It was the mechanism in which teaching and learning took place in the classroom.

As in Patricia's example, Bruce's example stresses the use of questioning by students in the teaching and learning process in the classroom in higher education. He mentioned that he does not like it when a teacher avoids answering his questions. He said:

> One of the bad experiences I had, where I came out very frustrated, has been where the person taking the lecture did really not know much about it. (...). All the time that a question was asked, it was not answered. He passed it to somebody else. (...). He was so arrogant. There was no evidence that he knew anything. (...). We did not have faith in him. He was not credible. (...). I found it really disappointing. It felt like a waste of time. I came out and I felt like I want to change the course. (...). It was frustrating. (...). The quality of his teaching was very slow and poor, because people were asking difficult questions, he was laughing and saying that is a good question, we talk about it later. That was one of his defence mechanisms.

Unlike Patricia, Bruce did not manage to get the teacher to answer his questions. Bruce's teacher did not adapt his teaching style in order to satisfy Bruce's need for answers to his questions. In Bruce's view, it seems that his teacher did not want to be used up and was not willing to play the role of the 'good mother' (Shaw, 1995, Woollett and Phoenix, 1996) or 'nurturant mother' (Walkerdine, 1992), or good and nurturant father, as the teacher was not answering the questions and was passing them on to 'somebody else' (number **3** in *Table XIII*). This teacher was not satisfying Bruce's expectations and need for nurturance and knowledge. Culley et al. (1985) argue that teachers and students are fully implicated in the classroom dynamics, as both students and teachers alike bring texts to the classroom, 'texts inscribed far beyond their boundaries' (ibid.: 14). According to them:

> [o]ur students see us as something more, or certainly something other, than simply their teachers. We are, inescapably, also their mothers – necessary for comfort but reinforcing a feared and fearful dependency if such comfort is too easily accepted. But we are also, in part, their fathers – word-givers, truth-sayers (...). Teachers see students as unruly daughters who must be both reformed and protected; students see teachers as old fashioned mothers – powerful enough to command children, but necessarily rejected by all who would call themselves adults (Culley et al., 1985: 14-15).

In my view, there seems to be a mismatch between Bruce's 'text' and his teacher's 'text', with their needs, expectations and desires not meeting one another.

They had different agendas, as Bruce appears to be resisting his teachers' agenda (number **4** in *Table XIII*). The lack of fulfilling Bruce's expectations and need for nurturance and knowledge impacted on Bruce's motivation, as he felt like he wanted to 'change the course'. His teacher's failure to give him the answers he was after made Bruce feel that his teacher was not knowledgeable and credible. It also made Bruce perceive his teacher as 'arrogant', as in his view, the teacher when challenged with a 'difficult' question would laugh and say that they would talk about it later (number **6** in *Table XIII*). In Bruce's view, the teacher by laughing and saying that they would talk about it later was using 'one of his defence mechanisms'. For Shaw (1995) defence mechanisms are triggered by anxiety. According to her, education is an anxiety-ridden enterprise in which we worry about starting or choosing, changing or leaving school, taking examinations, facing a class of pupils, having to teach a subject we do not know well enough. For her, the use of defence mechanisms is

> rooted in the normal chaotic and contradictory experience of the first few weeks and months of life where the prime problem is to work out why and how the opposite and contradictory experiences of pleasure and frustration can have the same source (mother or 'breast') (Shaw, 1995: 35).

In my view, Bruce and his teacher could both be experiencing frustration. The teacher could be experiencing frustration, as Bruce did not comply with the teacher's pedagogical intention, purpose and strategy. And Bruce could be experiencing frustration, as the teacher did not satisfy his learning needs and expectations, as it appears that Bruce was trying to sabotage his teacher's teaching style (number **5** in *Table XIII*). However, one could argue that the teacher could also be experiencing pleasure, as the teacher could be trying to show Bruce that not all questions have answers. Bruce perceived the teaching style of his teacher as being 'slow and poor' quality, because he did not have his questions answered by the teacher in the classroom. For Bruce, this class was a waste of time. Patricia's and Bruce's experiences of the use of questioning fit each single characteristic of the use of questioning by students in the teaching and learning process that I described in *Table XIII*.

Wang highlights the issue of teachers spending lots of time answering students' questions. She stated:

> This teacher talked a lot. (…). Some students would ask some questions and the teacher would spend a lot of time answering them. I was very anxious because I was waiting to learn something and that did not happen. I think that the teacher attitude towards the class is the most important thing, because he can make all students motivated to interact and learn from one another. The teacher behaviour will influence the students. I don't think that the knowledge of the teacher is the most important thing in the class, but I think that the most important thing is his attitude and behaviour, and his attitude made the quality of his teaching very poor.

There are three issues I would like to highlight in Wang's experience. First, the issue of teachers' poor management of time, as the teacher, in Wang's view, spent a lot of time focusing on one point and explaining it. It seems that Wang did not feel a need for the teacher to develop a common language between himself and the students. It could be that Wang had the same background knowledge that her teacher had, and therefore any time spent on explaining the subject/topic, which was already within her knowledge, would make her feel 'very anxious' as she was 'waiting to learn something and that did not happen'. Wang seems not to recognise questioning as a tool of learning. Hunkins (1991) argues that students need to learn that questioning is a valuable tool for making meaning and for developing competencies requisite to thinking. According to her, students should be encouraged to use their questions to react to situations and information from various sides of an issue, and to challenge the consequences of rearranging data in novel ways.

The second issue is of "the self" in relation to "the other" in the teaching and learning process, as it seems that Wang is a student who is not concerned about other students' needs for explanation, because she may not need explanations on the subject/topic as other students do. It appears that Wang seems to feel that she is the only one who is allowed to "use up" the teacher in the classroom and nobody else (number 3 in *Table XIII*). She is not concerned about the other in the classroom also taking part in the teaching and learning process. She is only concerned about herself. Here, I want to pick up the concepts of "'generalized other'" and "'concrete other'" used by Benhabib (1987: 163-64, 1992: 10). For Wang, in the classroom there are only generalised others,

as for her all the other students, including the teacher, share the same background, and have the same understanding, expectations, needs and learning needs as herself. For Wang the concrete other does not exist in the classroom, as she does not recognise that other students have different backgrounds, and do not have the same understanding, expectations, needs and learning needs as hers. She does not see the other as an individual with his/her own individuality, but as a part or projection of her own self. Howie (2002: 140) suggests similarly that 'students are now educated within a system that promotes a form of thought antithetical to the recognition of 'otherness': a prerequisite for any substantial thought about diversity'. As education is perceived as a consumer good, Wang, in her consumerist view of the teaching and learning, is worried about her learning needs.

The last issue is of preconceived notions of the cultural characteristics of students in the teaching and learning process. Unlike Patricia, Wang seems not to appreciate students asking questions to the teacher and the teacher answering their questions. She seems to be more interested in learning by interacting with her fellow students. This example and many others in my research contradict the preconceived conception and perception of Chinese students as passive learners, who like to be spoon-fed and told what to do in the classroom. Wang's behaviour and expectations of the teaching and learning process in the classroom go against the works of Woodrow and Sham (2001) who claim that Chinese students do not like to work in groups and do not value peer discussion; and Samuelowicz (1987) who implies that Asian students are passive learners and rely more heavily on memorising than understanding. However, Wang's behaviour and expectations of the teaching and learning process in the classroom are supported by the work of Smith et al. (1998) who claim that Chinese students can also rise to the demands of an educational environment where meaningful learning is emphasized; and Watkins and Biggs (1996) who argue that Chinese students are just as capable or even more capable of high-quality learning outcomes than their Western peers.

Leah reported her experience of a teacher denying students the opportunity to ask questions in the teaching and learning process. She said that:

> This guy, he is a professor. He just mumbled. (...). He mumbled like he was having a chat. He was wandering about, up and down, moving around. So, people were trying to ask questions and he was just stopping them from asking the questions, because he wanted to say what he had to say. And at the end, he just left. It was awful. I had to force myself to stay awake, and really thinking: oh, my God, this is terrible! (...) He just chatted all the way through. (...) It was really, really poor quality teaching.

This example highlights the issue of teachers denying students access to them in the classroom. In Leah's view, her teacher came in, talked, thus preventing students from asking questions, and then left. It seems that Leah did not have access to her teacher as 'the source of knowledge necessary to learn the forms they [students] need to succeed' (Delpit, 1988: 288). Delpit (1988) points out that students must be allowed the resource of the teacher's expert knowledge, while being helped to acknowledge their own "expertness" as well. Leah seems to be trying to let her teacher know about her learning needs and that she is interested in the subject/topic (numbers 1 and 2 in *Table XIII*). Unlike Patricia, Leah saw her teacher as not able to read the reaction of students and adapt his teaching to satisfy the learning needs of students. In Leah's view, her teacher appeared unwilling to break his authority and let students participate in the classroom (number 8 in *Table XIII*). In my view, students, by trying to ask questions, could be offering a teacher an opportunity to charge and change the classroom arena and develop a discussion not only between the teacher and students, but also between the students themselves. In psychoanalytical terms, this teacher seemed to refuse to be used up and satisfy students' needs for nurturance and knowledge. This teacher could be associated with the "bad mother" who does not nurture and care for the child. A bad mother who withholds the breasts from the baby's mouth and does not want to feed the baby, i.e. a bad mother who neglects the child. Such teachers could be associated with the '"wrong" kind of parenting' (Woollett and Phoenix, 1996: 86) whose consequences are dire for the child and society (number 3 in *Table XIII*). In my view, this teacher could be associated with the wrong kind of parenting which leads to the "academic delinquency" of students because of the lack of nurturance and care.

This teacher seemed to refuse to establish a classroom where students felt free to challenge his ideas (Friedman, 1985). In my view, the teacher's power dominated the students in the classroom. It prevented interaction and also prevented the teacher

opening himself to challenge from the students. The teacher's teaching style dominated and silenced Leah, and therefore it eliminated the space for silence to be used as a mechanism of resistance in the classroom. This teacher appeared to refuse to engage in criticism in the classroom, as he did not want to criticise students' understanding of the subject/topic nor have his own understanding of the subject/topic criticised by the students. As Shor (1992: 102) puts it, '[s]ome teachers lecture because it makes them feel more secure, in control of the classes that intimidate them'. In Leah's view, her teacher did not make the classroom a 'safe and democratic space' (Orner, 1992: 84), but a space where students felt terrible, awful and demotivated. Both the literature and my research show that teachers' pedagogical styles in the classroom can be perceived and understood as a motivational mechanism by some students, and this motivational mechanism can motivate or demotivate students to engage with the subject/topic. The attitude and behaviour of Leah's teacher made her perceive his teaching as 'really poor quality teaching'. What differentiates Leah's example from Bruce's is that in Leah's example, her teacher was stopping students from asking questions, and in Bruce's example, the teacher seemed to be listening to the questions of students but not answering them.

One can see from these examples that the use of questioning by students in the teaching and learning process in the classroom can have various and at the same time multiple understandings and interpretations, and therefore students' perceptions of the use of questioning in the teaching and learning process in higher education vary according to their intentions.

b) *The use of questioning by teachers in the teaching and learning process*

In my view, the use of questioning by teachers in the teaching and learning process in the classroom can also be understood in different ways. In *Table XIV*, on the following page, I have created a template in which I analyse and deconstruct the use of questioning by teachers in the teaching and learning process eightfold.

Table XIV – Deconstruction of questioning by teachers in the teaching and learning process

	Deconstruction of questioning by teachers in the teaching and learning process
1	it can be a mechanism through which teachers are checking if students have done the reading required for the class;
2	it can be a mechanism whereby teachers are keeping the knowledge, understanding and learning of students under "surveillance", by invoking their knowledge and understanding, and 'refin[ing] their descriptions and explanations' (Laurillard, 1997: 108, 2002: 92);
3	it can be a mechanism whereby teachers are expecting students to "confess" their "sins" for not knowing the subject/topic they are teaching;
4	it can be a mechanism whereby teachers are establishing their authority in the teaching and learning process, by showing off their knowledge through their questions, i.e. creating a distance between teachers and students;
5	it can be a mechanism whereby teachers are intimidating the students in the teaching and learning process, by making it clear that only teachers' questions are valid and not students', as teachers assert their 'safe place' (hooks, 1994: 39) in the classroom by putting students in a threatening situation where they fear to answer the teacher in order not to sound "stupid" in front of other fellow students;
6	if the intention of teachers is to encourage students to participate and engage in the classroom, it can be a mechanism whereby teachers empower students by inviting and/or provoking them to think critically about the subject/topic, when it is used in a rhetorical and non-rhetorical way;
7	if the intention of teachers is to encourage students to participate and engage in the classroom, it can be a mechanism whereby teachers empower students by validating their answers, i.e. reducing the distance between teachers and students; and
8	if the intention of teachers is to encourage students to participate and engage in the classroom, it can be a mechanism whereby teachers can break their hierarchical and authoritative power in the teaching and learning process, and show students that the teaching and learning process in higher education is a shared process, i.e. a two way process, where teacher and students are active 'producers' (Lusted, 1986: 5) of knowledge in the classroom.

One can see in this table that the use of questioning by teachers in the teaching and learning process can have different interpretations and meanings, and that the use of questioning by teachers can move from domination and surveillance of student learning and activities in the classroom (number **1** in *Table XIV*), to engaging and empowering students in the teaching and learning process in the classroom (number **8** in *Table XIV*).

In this study, all participants hold different perceptions of the use of questioning by teachers in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. Maryam mentioned that:

> There was a teacher who went to the class and just started to ask questions and did not explain anything. (...). She just stayed there asking questions. What was the point of it? You know, in your mind the teacher is somebody who knows more than you. It is somebody who knows that we need some kind of focus, guidance and interaction, to understand the subject. How the teacher interacts with the students and develops a rapport is very important. I felt bored. I felt like I didn't want to be there at all. You didn't even pay attention to what was going on. That is bad quality teaching.

This example highlights the issue of questioning by teachers in the teaching and learning process in higher education. It is important to notice, in this example, that it is the use of questioning in the teaching and learning process that made this teaching experience bad for Maryam. It is interesting to see that Maryam perceived her teacher's questions not as a mechanism wherein the teacher was trying to engage, interact and develop a rapport with her, and was trying to reduce the distance between herself and the students (number **7** in *Table XIV*), but as a mechanism whereby the teacher was establishing a distance between Maryam and herself (number **4** in *Table XIV*), and establishing herself as the omniscient, omnipresent and omnipotent person in the classroom. A mechanism whereby the teacher was putting Maryam in a vulnerable position, as it seems that Maryam felt intimidated by having her knowledge tested in public (number **3** in *Table XIV*). Bligh (1998) observes that questioning is the form of language that requires a response, therefore questions are threatening stimuli as they provoke a fear reaction. According to him, the questions and the way they are asked should produce minimal psychological stress. He warns us that questioning used with the intention of testing, or apparently testing, students' factual knowledge in public will almost invariably provoke an undesirable reaction, for no-one likes to be placed in a position where they may display their ignorance (numbers **3** and **5** in *Table XIV*). However, he suggests that if teachers ask students for their personal opinions or personal reactions, students will be encouraged to give their answers, because their answers cannot be wrong and because they feel respected if their opinions are considered worth hearing. Wolf (1989) claims that after a few experiences of anxiety, some teachers assume a protective style by distancing themselves emotionally from

students in order to protect themselves, and these defensive postures, according to him, can affect the necessary relationship for good teaching. It seems to me that this teacher, almost in a religious manner, could be expecting the students to confess their lack of knowledge of what the teacher is teaching (number **3** in *Table XIV*).

Hunkins (1991) contends that education is an invitation to participate with people in a conversation about ideas, events, persons, situations, challenges, problems, etc., and the purpose of those involved in the conversation is to obtain a sense of and a command of who they are and to acquire knowledge. For her, questions are essential elements of conversation, as they are designed to engage students in learning and to nurture them to go beyond being objective observers and realise that they are part of what they are studying, as students are intertwined with what is studied and consequently known. She also warns us that if only the teacher's questions are legitimate, then there may be indoctrination in the classroom. In Maryam's view, the very action of her teacher in spending the whole class just asking questions to students who did not answer them (numbers **2** and **4** in *Table XIV*) made Maryam feel bored, disengaged with the teacher and demotivated, leading Maryam to perceive the teaching of this teacher as 'bad quality teaching'. This teacher could have one, more than one or even all of the intentions from **1** to **8**, I described in *Table XIV*, when using questioning in the classroom.

Natalie observed that she can feel the passion, interest and enthusiasm of a teacher for their subject. She stated:

> The teacher gave us a summary of the reading (...). Then he asked some questions that really make you think. (...). He really posed questions that made us critically think about it. (...). He did not let us wander off being bored. It is a combination of lecturing and then asking us some critical questions. (...). The quality of this teaching experience was fantastic. It made me feel that I want to learn and prepare for my assignment. (...). I want to keep up thinking what are the political dynamics involved in it. I want to explore the topic.

This example highlights the issue of teachers' questioning motivating students to explore the topic. In this way, by asking questions that make students think about the subject from another perspective, the teacher is helping students to develop critical thinking and challenge accepted truths (number **6** in *Table XIV*). Hunkins (1991) observes that the use of questions by teachers in the classroom should inform students that teacher-questioners trust their ability as meaning makers and their capability to contribute to their own learning, as they are challenged to assume ownership of their own learning process (number **8** in *Table XIV*). It is important to see in this example that the teacher's passion for the subject made Natalie want to learn, explore the topic and prepare for her assignment. It motivated her and made her feel interested in the subject/topic and keen to assume ownership of her own learning process. As I mentioned earlier, in chapter V, the passionate scholarship of teachers keeps the imagination of students going. It enthuses and motivates students to learn and to be interested in the subject/topic. According to Raymond (1985: 58), the teacher who 'tries to be dispassionate injures not only her own dignity but her own insights'. Students can be enthused by the teacher's authority on the subject. They can be seduced by the teacher's power of influencing their minds in order to become passionate about the subject. The authority of teachers on the subject, when exercised in the classroom, can be liberating to some students as it opens students' minds to thinking in ways that are not usual to them, but it can also be 'intrusive and provide opportunities to invade and colonise inner worlds' (Morley, 1998: 20).

One can see that the use of questioning by teachers in the teaching and learning process in the classroom can be subject to various and at the same time multiple understandings and interpretations, and therefore students' perceptions of the use of questioning in the teaching and learning process in higher education will vary according to their perceptions of the intentions of their teachers.
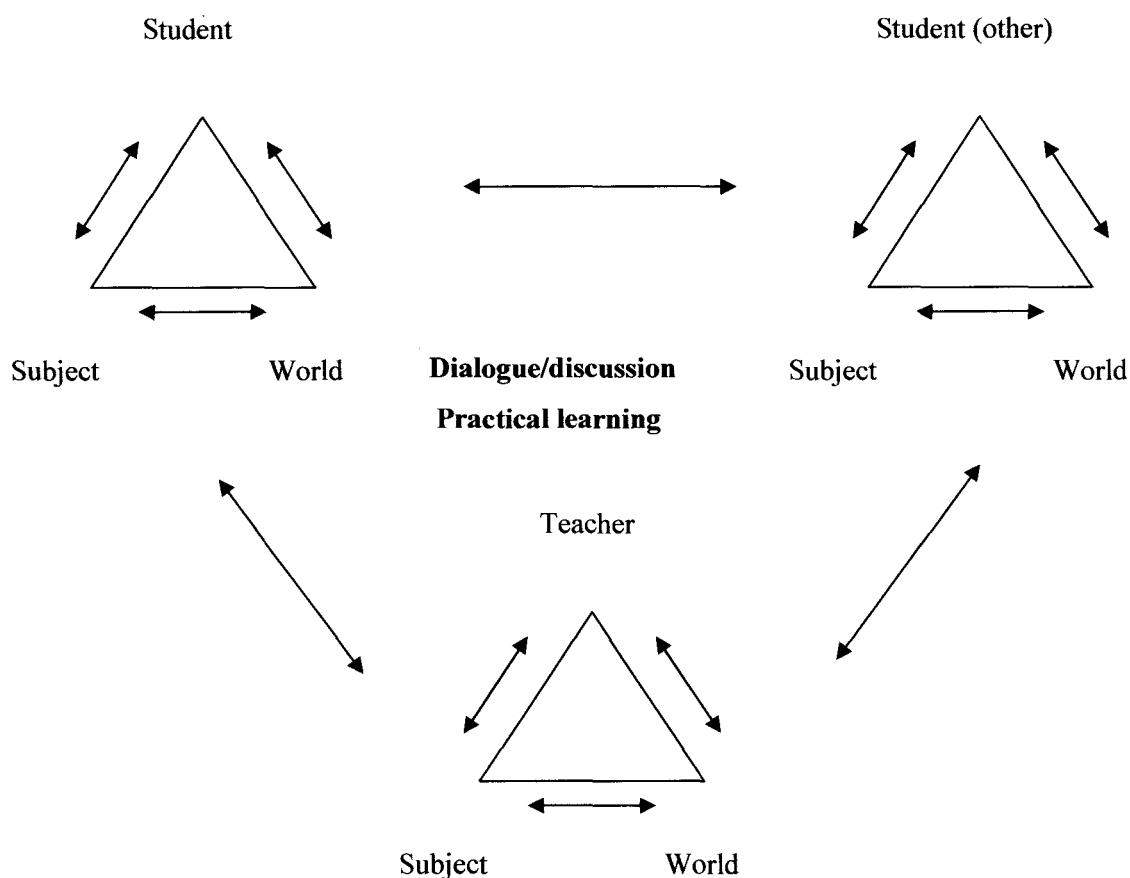
3. Group work, workshop, experiential and practical learning, and learning by doing

Group work is highly valued by critical and feminist pedagogies, cognitive psychology, and by the 'innovative teaching styles' (QAA, 2003), as a mechanism for getting students to participate and develop critical thinking and independence in the classroom. The development of group work in the classroom demands from the teacher a lot of preparation. The teacher has to prepare the tasks to be carried out by the groups in the classroom. The teacher has also to prepare students for the development of these tasks, as students need to have the appropriate background information and understanding of what is required of them, as well as guidance from the teacher for the completion of the tasks. Critical and feminist pedagogies associate the practice of group discussion in the classroom with teachers giving up their authority to students (Amirault, 1995). However, for the authority of the teacher to be "given up" in order that students can develop their authority in the subject, the teacher has to make sure that students are able to carry out the task. The teacher has to bring the subject and task to the level the students are at, in order to raise their level. Group work in the classroom can be a tool used to help students raise the level of their understanding. However, group work can also be perceived as: (1) the teacher is empowering students to develop their own understanding and knowledge, i.e. their "authority" in the discipline/subject/topic; (2) the teacher is sharing his/her authority with students in the classroom, where the students by discussing in groups are "taking the front stage" and the teacher is "the supporting actor" in the background; (3) a mechanism whereby the teacher is neglecting students, by leaving them to wander around without any sense of where to go or what to do in the classroom; (4) the teacher is using group work in order to have a "break" from his/her responsibilities as a teacher and/or researcher and/or manager in the university or college. I believe that the intention of teachers is the key to the success of group work in the classroom.

Throughout this study, I have been dwelling upon what group work, workshop, experiential and practical learning, and learning by doing mean in critical and feminist pedagogies. I have searched critical and feminist pedagogical literatures in order to find

any theory, meaning, understanding, description or definition of group work, workshop, experiential and practical learning and learning by doing, in the teaching and learning process in higher education and I did not find any. Later I came to realise that dialogue/discussion, in pair or group, is the embodiment of group work, workshop, experiential and practical learning and learning by doing in critical and feminist pedagogies. That is the reason why I could not find any literature in critical and feminist pedagogies addressing these topics by their names. As Freire (1994, 2000) puts it, praxis, as the reflection and action which truly transform reality, is the source of reflexive knowledge and creation, and for him, praxis in education is dialogue/discussion. According to him, it is by participating in dialogue that 'people come to feel like masters of their thinking by discussing the thinking and views of the world manifested implicitly or explicitly in their own suggestions and those of their comrades' (Freire, 1994: 120, 2000: 105). Thus it is through dialogue/discussion that people experience the experiences of others and re-experience their own experiences. In *Figure 3*, on the following page, I illustrate how discussion/dialogue works in critical and feminist pedagogies.

Figure 3: Practical learning through dialogue/discussion

Dialogue/discussion, in pair or group, is group work, workshop, experiential and practical learning and learning by doing in critical and feminist pedagogies, because through it students come to: experience themselves in relation to the world and the subject; experience the subject in relation to the world and themselves; and experience the world in relation to the subject they are learning/studying and themselves. In the dialogue/discussion process students' and teacher's experiences and observations shape the subject and are shaped by the subject, which in its turn shapes the world and is shaped by the world, and vice versa. As one can see in *Figure 3*, in critical and feminist pedagogies there is more than one dialogue/discussion going on at the same time, as each member taking part in the dialogue/discussion has its own internal dialogue/discussion going on. In this internal dialogue/discussion the participant (student, teacher and the other) poses him/herself in relation to the subject and the world in order to enter the external dialogue/discussion. All these internal dialogues/discussions are happening at the same time that the external

dialogue/discussion is taking place, and the external dialogue/discussion is the place where all experiences are legitimised. In the internal dialogue/discussion there is cognition and knowledge of the self. In the external dialogue/discussion there is re-cognition and re-creation of knowledge. As Freire (1994, 2000) puts it:

> Teachers and students (leadership and people), co-intent on reality, are both subjects, not only in the task of unveiling that reality, and thereby coming to know it critically, but in the task of re-creating that knowledge. As they attain this knowledge of reality through common reflection and action, they discover themselves as its permanent re-creators. In this way, the presence of the oppressed in the struggle for their liberation will be what it should be: not pseudo-participation, but committed involvement (Freire, 1994: 56, 2000: 51).

According to Maher (1985), dialogue/discussion legitimises the experience of all of those involved in analysing the problems that the subject presents to them, as teachers and students relate the subject to their own experiences. As Shor (1992) puts it, by presenting the subject/topic as debates, controversies, and competing interpretations, the critical teacher would pose the subject matter as a problem for students to think through rather than memorise a bland official consensus. By relating the subject to their own experiences, teachers and students are re-experiencing their own experiences through group work, workshop, experiential and practical learning, and learning by doing. It is not a therapeutic process *per se*, but it is a "quasi therapeutic process" in the sense that there is an experience (problem or tension); there is a subject (theory); there is a teaching and learning style (the process or course of treatment); and there is a possibility of learning (cure). As Shor (1992) mentions, the thoughts, themes and diverse culture of students are the material into which the teacher integrates expert knowledge and social issues. My research demonstrates that workshop, experiential and practical learning, and learning by doing in critical and feminist pedagogies happen through dialogue/discussion, when students become the subject of learning, and the subject of learning becomes the students in order to re-create knowledge and reality. Here, one can see that dialogue/discussion in critical and feminist pedagogies is praxis, and therefore it is workshop, experiential and practical learning, and learning by doing.

In this study, all participants hold different perceptions of the use of group work, workshop, experiential and practical learning and learning by doing, in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. In relation to workshop, Bruce mentioned that:

> She gave us a group work straight away. We were active straight away, and the rest of the lecture was built on the learning we had in the small groups. We were split into small groups to analyse other people's experience of what they have done. (...). It was more of a workshop type. It worked very well. Everybody enjoyed and learned from it. I was right into it. I was happy. (...). It facilitates your own learning I suppose. You find people much more engaged and not sitting at the back listening and taking notes. It was very good, because it was interactive, group focused, and learning by doing. That was quality teaching.

In this example, one can see that the teacher, by giving students the opportunity to engage in group dialogue/discussion to analyse each other's experiences and to question them, in a context, is allowing students to learn by doing in a 'workshop type'. As I argued earlier, dialogue/discussion is the embodiment of workshop, experiential learning and learning by doing in the teaching and learning process in higher education. In my view, the teacher by breaking his/her authority in the teaching and learning process, in the classroom, is letting students experience learning through engaging in dialogue/discussion with each other, where they analyse and challenge each other's experiences by engaging with reflexive knowledge and creation of knowledge. Both the literature and the findings of my research show that the teacher, by making students realise that their own experiences are the very subject to be studied, is sharing his/her authority in the subject with students, by validating and legitimating students' experiences and understanding of each other's experiences, as students relate the subject to their own experiences and the world. Bruce perceived the teaching style of his teacher as quality teaching, because 'it was interactive, group focused and learning by doing', and he enjoyed and was happy in taking part in the workshop. I believe that Bruce's feeling of enjoyment and happiness impacts on his perception of the quality of the teaching experience he had. Blunsdon et al. (2003) claim that the results of their study show that enjoyment increases both perceptions of learning and positive outcomes, as the more enjoyable an educational experience is, the more students perceive it as increasing their learning. They found that students think they have learned more and can apply what they have learned if they have enjoyed the experience. In my view, enjoyment is a key motivational factor in the teaching and learning process.

In relation to learning by doing, Astrid stated that:

> Every week we talk about one chapter, and we discuss what we did understand and what we didn't understand. I think that that is great. They really help you to understand things better. They set up some questions, according to the text, and try to keep the discussion going amongst the students. Then, they go around and talk to the groups. Then we all as a class talk about it all together again. (...). I felt pretty good. It was really fun for me to engage with my fellows and the teachers. (...). The most important thing for me is that I feel that I get engaged by other people. It helps me to understand. This is a rich experience for me, because I am able to exchange knowledge with my colleagues and teachers. This is a process of understanding. This is learning by doing. (...). This is quality teaching.

Astrid considered this experience to be learning by doing, because she was able to exchange knowledge with her fellow students and with her teachers as well, as her teachers went around the groups supporting the discussions. For her, engaging with her fellow students and her teachers in discussion is the 'process of understanding'. She was relating the subject-matter to her own experience and to those of her colleagues and teachers. In my view, it seems that Astrid was practising knowledge in her group discussion and that is the reason why she considered her experience with learning as learning by doing. The analysis of the data of my research shows dialogue/discussion to be the place and space where knowledge is reflected upon, created and experienced. Astrid considered her access to and engagement with the sources of knowledge and understanding of her teachers and her fellow students as 'really fun', and for her that was quality teaching. It seems that Astrid felt empowered and confident to engage in knowledge making with her teachers and fellow students. The engagement/involvement/participation of teachers in students' activities seemed to facilitate the exercise of personal authority of Astrid in the subject-matter. Bossert (1978: 56) argues that teachers, by being involved in the activities of their students in the classroom, can 'actually demonstrate the proper approach or technique when a problem came up rather than just give instructions to the whole class'.

In relation to practical learning, Niu reported that:

> The teacher divided the lecture into two parts. In the first part he talked explaining the topic. In the second part he did like a seminar. He divided us

> into groups, so we had the opportunity to work with different people. We were working towards a project. (...). I liked that experience because I learned a lot working with other people, as they have much more experience than me. They helped me to understand the work. (...). I had no experience and understanding of the education process and my colleagues' experience and knowledge helped me to learn and participate in the project. (...). He made our learning practical and we experienced learning. It was high quality teaching.

It seems to me that Niu was experiencing learning because she did not have as much knowledge and experience of the topic as her fellow students had. The support of her fellow students, i.e. their knowledge and experience, helped her to learn and participate in the group project. Niu considered this experience to be high quality teaching. In this way, group work can provide the "space" for students to learn from one another in a collaborative manner, where students can respect and validate each other's opinions and points of view. Tjosvold and Fabrey (1980) state that the results of their research indicate that social interaction in which persons believe their outcomes depend upon the combination of their actions and the other's facilitates feelings of powerfulness. According to them, experience in interdependent relationships may promote perspective-taking ability in oneself and others.

Alexandra noted that she does not like to learn in a group. She said:

> I don't like pair and small group work. I want to learn from the teacher and not by myself. (...). I don't like when I am not learning from the teachers. I don't like when the students are just discussing. I want to hear from the tutors. I think that the professors are very valuable in the classroom. (...). I think that the most important thing is to be open to learn, where you concentrate on what is being said in the classroom. You are listening, but you are engaged as well. I think that when you try to be open and you focus on what is going on in the classroom, and you think about it, you learn. This was poor quality teaching.

The example of Alexandra demonstrates that not all students can learn from critical, feminist and cognitive psychological practices of teaching and learning in higher education. Some students, like Alexandra, do not like to learn in groups or in pairs. It seems that Alexandra likes to learn directly from the teacher. Shor (1996) contends that some students might have internalised the unilateral authority of the teacher as the

normal way to education, where the teacher lectures by telling students what to learn. It appears to me that being told what to learn does not mean that Alexandra is just memorising what the teacher is saying. She seems to be claiming that by having a personal contact with her teacher, she is able to do more with her personal learning. It seems to me that Alexandra prefers to learn directly from her teacher. It appears that Alexandra is arguing that in order for her to learn, she does not have to ask lots of questions and answer lots of questions. She claims that the most important thing is to be open to learn and to concentrate on what is being said in the classroom. Alexandra seems to be one of these students who silently engage in the teaching and learning process. As I argued elsewhere silent listening does not mean that students are not engaged in an intellectual manner with the teacher and the subject, because some students like to listen to other people's ideas and opinions in order to build their own (Bótas, 2000, 2004). However, Alexandra seems not to like listening to the ideas and opinions of her fellow students instead of her teachers. It seems that the only valid opinions and ideas in the classroom worth hearing are those of her teacher. It seems that when Alexandra is not hearing the "truth" from the "truth-sayer/teller", the quality of teaching is poor. This example shows that some students like to be told the "truths" in the subject, as they want to know what, why and how these "truths" are related within and without the discipline, in relation to both the theory and the practice of the discipline (Shulman, 1986). Although Alexandra claims that 'the most important thing is to be open to learn', she is not open to learn if being open to learn means engaging and interacting with her fellow students in the classroom.

Charlotte described how she finds it difficult to discuss in groups when she does not know what to do. She observed that:

> In that lecture there was quite a lot of difficult reading to do. (...). The lecturer said that he had written the article a few years ago, and that he also finds that article difficult to read. (...). I felt quite upset about that. (...). So I did not want to contribute, because I was too anxious. (...). The teacher put us to discuss this difficult article in groups, but we were afraid of doing group work because we didn't know what to discuss, we did not have guidance. (...). That was a disaster for me. It was very poor quality teaching. (...). He completely demotivated me. His teaching style put me off completely.

This example highlights the problem of teachers selecting reading that is very difficult for students to understand. In order for someone to understand something, he/she needs to be familiar with and understand the language and discourse of the subject/topic first. As I mentioned earlier, in chapter V, under the subheading *using language that students can understand and having good communication skills*, I believe that the teacher is the person responsible for developing a common language in the classroom in order to establish a communication and a sort of "understanding" between the teacher and students. I argued that it is erroneous to assume that students completely understand the language and the nuances of the discourse of their discipline, as students are not at the same intellectual level as their teachers and do not have the same knowledge. This example also points to the problem of teachers using group work in the classroom without having prepared the students to carry out the work (discussion).

Group work is an affective and cognitive activity, in which students are not only engaged intellectually, but also affectively. In the case of Charlotte, her emotions took over her intellectual ability, because she had no understanding of the topic and she did not know what was required of her, and this demotivated her. According to Cartney and Rouse (2006), learning, by its nature, is an unsettling and challenging process which stimulates anxiety, therefore, the emotional context of learning needs to be recognised and accommodated within the educational environment. Charlotte's emotions caused her to be anxious, and her anxiety impacted on her ability to learn and also on her motivation to learn, as for Charlotte this was poor quality teaching because the teaching style of her teacher put her off learning the subject.

B. Summary

I found in this chapter that students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education vary, because students are different people, with different aims, purposes, objectives, intentions, expectations and learning needs. And the classroom is a place with a very complex environment where students' perceptions of the power relations in the classroom vary from one student to the other, because what can be productive and

liberating for some students, can be repressive and intrusive to others. The data used in this chapter demonstrate that it is very difficult to pinpoint quality teaching in higher education, because what can be perceived as good quality teaching by some students can be perceived as poor quality teaching by others. I contend that it is difficult to find a common denominator and determinator of quality teaching in higher education. I also contend that it is more difficult to establish what quality teaching is in higher education because of the varied ways in which students perceive quality teaching. The data demonstrate that some students are not entirely able to evaluate the quality of teaching at the point of delivery, because learning does not always happen in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. It can have an incubation period before being achieved, as was demonstrated by the experience of Amanda.

The data discussed in this chapter challenge the understanding of concepts such as engagement and participation, which critical and feminist pedagogies, cognitive psychology, and the QAA's (2003) 'innovative teaching styles' recommended to higher education. To be engaged and participating in the classroom does not always mean to be physically engaged and taking part in the teaching and learning process and activity. It can also mean that students are intellectually and mentally engaged in the teaching and learning process without being vocal and physical about it. The question here is: to what extent are physical engagement and participation synonymous with learning and understanding in the teaching and learning process, in particular in higher education? The answer to this question will challenge and, at the same time, question the concept of empowering students in higher education, bearing in mind that what can be empowering and liberating for some students, can be disempowering and intrusive to others. Davis (1985: 251) claims that students who 'enter a class with the rigid ideology of the university, believing that good teachers dispense wisdom and good students absorb it, learn only with difficulty how to think critically'. This seems not to be the case, as some students prefer to learn from teachers than from interaction in dialogue/discussion with their fellow students, as the preceding examples have demonstrated. Some of the examples in this chapter point to teachers using lecturing not only to familiarise students with the subject/topic, but also to demonstrate what critical thinking is and how it is done in the subject/topic. Some students need to be taken by the hand in order to develop their critical thinking powers. By "taken by the hand" I mean that teachers need

to put the concepts of the discipline into a context, use the literature in a way that students can understand what the teacher means, allow students to understand the subject, and enable them to work with critical questions in order to develop critical thinking. In my view, students have to understand what the concepts of their discipline mean in order for them to situate themselves in relation to the possibilities that critical thinking and engagement open up to them.

I do not see teaching as malign, but I do consider some pedagogical styles to be malign when they are not used well by teachers, particularly when there are other purposes behind these practices over and above helping students to learn. Foucault (1994) says that he does not see any wrong doing in someone teaching another what he/she knows, but he argues that

> [t]he problem is rather to know how you are to avoid in these practices –
> where power [must] play and where it is not evil in itself – the effects of
> domination which will make a child subject to the arbitrary and useless
> authority of a teacher, or put a student under the power of an abusively
> authoritarian professor, and so forth (Foucault, 1994: 18)

Walker (2001b) concurs that students have an expertise about their own learning which teachers need to hear and take seriously, as their voices and experiences count in the creation and legitimation of knowledge in the teaching and learning process in higher education. I agree with this statement, and as my study has demonstrated, students know what their learning needs are, what does and does not make them willing and engage in the teaching and learning process. The qualitative data used in this chapter has also demonstrated that students associate good quality with a teacher's teaching style when they learn in the teaching and learning process. When they do not learn, they associate poor quality with a teacher's teaching style. In this association lies the danger of the application of the concept of quality to teaching in higher education, as learning can be an immediate result of teaching or a long term result. Therefore, I contend that the concept of quality cannot be applied to teaching in higher education. I argue that it is not possible to have a single way of measuring quality teaching in higher

education, because quality, as a concept, cannot be applied to teaching and learning in higher education.

Chapter IX

Conclusion

My study has provided an analysis of students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the UK. In this study I investigated and provided an account of how MA students in Education perceive the quality of teaching and what criteria students use to establish their judgements on the quality of teaching. I examined power relations in the teaching and learning process in the classroom in higher education, and analysed the implications of students' perceptions and criteria for policy and practice relating to quality teaching and learning in higher education in the UK.

A. Overview of findings

In chapter II, I argued that new managerialism in higher education placed the business of higher education, i.e. teaching and learning and research, under scrutiny and surveillance. I contended that the performance, efficiency and effectiveness of teaching and learning are assessed in a "homogenised" way in a diverse academic environment such as the UK higher education system. I also contended that the homogenisation of the teaching and learning process is promoted by the best practice discourse of quality for teaching and learning in higher education, through the standardisation of pedagogies, which have made teaching an unattractive profession, because teaching has been stripped of its intellectual challenge. I suggested that the standardisation of pedagogic practices has serious implications for new managerialism because it eliminates the space for issues of equality, as new managerialism eliminates the space for and the possibility of diversity in the teaching and learning process in higher education, and produces inequalities. It does not recognise disciplinary differences in the teaching and learning process in higher education, as excellence becomes a common denominator across disciplines, because excellence is presented as a neutral term. I

further argued that just as the student body is diverse in higher education so students' perceptions of quality teaching of their teacher are diverse as well. It is rather difficult to reconcile diversity and equality in the discourse of new managerialism in teaching and learning in higher education, because learning is not an automatic product of teaching. Learning is not a result, but a process. It can also be a lifelong process.

In chapter III, I contended that studies on quality in teaching and learning in higher education, based on phenomenographic, action research and survey methodologies, suggest that there appears to be a clear cut solution to the problem of quality in teaching and learning in higher education. However, these studies do not take into account the role students play in their own learning experiences and outcomes, and the social context in which learning occurs is also not taken into account. It seems that the process of good teaching and learning happens in a vacuum, where social relations do not occur and where difference and diversity, which constitute human society, do not exist. Instead, it is as though there is a social vacuum, where teachers and students are denuded of their identities, personal characteristics and personalities. I concluded that these studies, rooted in cognitive psychology, put teachers and students on a continuum, along with their orientations, approaches, conceptions and beliefs about teaching and learning. They develop every step of the way: from teacher-centred to student-centred, from passive to active, and from applying academic skills to learning about learning. Learning about learning is presented as the target and not the result of the teaching and learning process, and once it has been achieved there is no going back. Somehow, the idea of flexibility and adaptation of teachers and students to the social and wider context in which the teaching and learning process takes place has got lost in these studies. My study has provided evidence that the social and psychological contexts in which teaching and learning take place are bound by students' preferences and personal characteristics, as is shown in chapters V to VIII.

The main finding in chapter V is that students come to their MA courses with a whole variety of expectations and some of these expectations are in direct competition with each another. I demonstrated that students have different expectations of teacher/teaching. Some of these expectations are realistic and some are unrealistic. I

contended that teachers are under pressure not only from their own institutions and government, but also from students' expectations of quality teaching, i.e. having their learning needs addressed in the teaching and learning process. I pointed out that knowing students' expectations of a good university teacher, not only when they are at the beginning of their courses but also throughout the course, can be very helpful to teachers in higher education, because teachers can actually address students' expectations of their teaching and learning process, i.e. teachers can address students' criteria of what a good university teacher is for them. Therefore, teachers will address the issue of good quality teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. My research shows that the criteria that students use to define and judge quality teaching in higher education are not only varied, but that some students hold and value more than one criterion when judging the quality of teaching in higher education.

In chapter VI, the main finding is that MA students' choices and preferences in the teaching and learning process are very complex and varied and some students want to have more than one choice and preference in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. I demonstrated that choice in this study is much more complex than the choice of institutions, courses, qualifications and quality teaching, as students also want the choice of styles and approaches in the teaching and learning process in higher education, and some of these students expect to have more than one choice. My data leads me to argue that by addressing students' choices and preferences in the teaching and learning process in higher education, students are more likely to perceive the teaching style of their teachers as being of good quality. However, I recognised that addressing each single choice and preference of students in the teaching and learning process might not be a realistic and viable enterprise.

The main finding in chapter VII is that there are multiple engagements among students of the relationship between teaching and research and the relationship between quality teaching and learning, and that they use different criteria to form and inform their perceptions. In this chapter, I demonstrated that there are contradictory views among students of the relationship between teaching and research. On the one hand, the evidence I presented in this chapter, supports the claim that there is a relationship

between teaching and research. On the other hand, it partially supports the claim that there is no relationship between teaching and research. The evidence points out that, like quality teaching, the research activities of teachers are perceived in different ways by students and that this variety of perceptions of the research activities of teachers is related to students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education, as their perceptions of the research activities of their teachers impact on the quality of teaching and learning in higher education. I contended that students' perceptions of the impact of teachers' research activities on teaching and learning in higher education are among the criteria they use to judge the quality of teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. In relation to the impact of the research activities of teachers on the quality of the learning of the participants, I further demonstrated that students in higher education perceive this impact as threefold: having a positive impact on the quality of students' learning; having a negative impact on the quality of students' learning; and having a positive impact on the quality of students' learning, only if the research of their teachers is on the content/area/subject/topic that participants are studying and are interested in, i.e. teachers are researching what they are teaching: the conditional perception. I argue that: first, it is up to the teachers to keep the interest of students alive and to maintain the levels of motivation of students in the area, subject and topic of study; second, the research activities of teachers should be not only relevant and salient to the content, interest and needs of students, but also up-to-date; third, that teachers should be aware of the level of knowledge of the students; fourth, that teachers should present their own research in comparison with the research of other people in a broader context of knowledge, and illustrate the subject/topic with examples used from their own research and the research of others; and last, that teachers should not focus only on their own views in the classroom, but also present views that contradict their own views. How these criteria are met will impact on students' perceptions of the quality of teaching.

In chapter VIII the main finding is that students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education vary, because students are different people, with different aims, purposes, objectives, intentions, expectations and learning needs. And the classroom is a very complex environment where students' perceptions of the power relations in the classroom vary from one student to the other, as what can be productive and liberating to some students, can be repressive and intrusive to others. The data used in this

chapter, as well as the data used in chapters V, VI and VII, demonstrated that it is very difficult to pinpoint quality teaching in higher education, because what can be perceived as good quality teaching by some students can be perceived as poor quality teaching by others. I have argued that it is difficult to find a common denominator and determinator of quality teaching in higher education. And I further argued that it is more difficult to establish what quality teaching in higher education is because of the varied ways in which students perceive quality teaching, as the data demonstrated that some students are not entirely able to evaluate the quality of teaching at the point of delivery, because learning does not always happen in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. It can have an incubation period within which to develop, before being achieved.

My study has demonstrated that students know what their learning needs are, as they know what does and does not make them willing and engaged in the teaching and learning process. The empirical data have demonstrated that students associate good quality with a teacher's teaching style when they learn in the teaching and learning process. When they do not learn, they associate poor quality with a teacher's teaching style. I observed that in this association lie the dangers of the application of the concept of quality to teaching in higher education, as learning can be an immediate result of teaching or a long term result. I argue that it is not possible to have a single way of measuring quality teaching in higher education, because quality, as a concept, cannot be applied to teaching and learning in higher education.

B. Answering the research questions

In this study, I explored these questions from a sociological point of view and examined their implications for the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom in higher education. I provided an understanding and explanation of the relationship between student perceptions of the quality of teaching and the quality of their learning in higher education. In this study, I created a space for students to discuss their views and perceptions of quality teaching in higher education. This study is important because it built a more realistic picture of how the relationship between teachers and students in

the teaching and learning process is perceived and developed by students in the classroom, based on their perceptions, experiences and feelings about their relationship in the classroom in higher education. This picture is based on a sociological, pedagogical, psychological and psychoanalytical analysis of the qualitative data on the perceptions of MA students in Education of quality teaching in higher education in the UK. I argue that this study will be of help to those teachers who are genuinely concerned about the quality of their students' learning and who desire to understand how their teaching practice is perceived by their students, and why. It will also enable those in authority to understand better how their policies are being received and perceived by students, who after all are the primary consumers/customers of higher education in the UK.

1. *Main research question*

- To what extent do students' perceptions of teaching match the discourses about quality for teaching and learning in higher education in the UK?

Answer:

They match only two of the innovative teaching styles described by the QAA (2003), presented in *Table V*, chapter II, which are intended to represent and embody quality teaching and learning in higher education in the UK. The two are: students' interaction, i.e. peer, pair and group work; independent learning and up-dated material. Some of the students interviewed for my study mentioned students' interaction, i.e. peer, pair and group work, and up-dated material as their favoured style of teaching and learning while others felt the opposite. The criteria students use to establish their judgement of the quality of teaching in higher education are far more complex than the policies for quality teaching and learning in higher education in the UK allow for. These criteria are:

❖ Teachers lecturing, teaching, presenting, delivering, transmitting and giving information.

- ❖ Teachers not lecturing but allowing students to engage with the teacher and/or other students in the classroom in order to learn the subject/topic they are studying, by giving pair, group and whole class discussion and debate (learning by doing, experiential learning and workshop).

- ❖ Teachers not giving pair, group and whole class discussion and debate (learning by doing, experiential learning and workshop).

- ❖ Teachers using questioning by teachers and students in the teaching and learning process.

- ❖ Teachers not using questioning by teachers or students in the teaching and learning process.

- ❖ Teachers supporting, guiding and helping students to learn and giving emotional support.

- ❖ Teachers explaining, making and demonstrating links between the topics, subjects and courses.

- ❖ Teachers using language that students can understand and having good communication skills.

- ❖ Teachers valuing and respecting the opinions, contributions and points of view of students in the classroom.

- ❖ Teachers performing in the classroom and having a sense of humour.

- ❖ Teachers controlling the learning environment.

- ❖ Teachers knowing, addressing and satisfying the learning needs of students.

- ❖ Teachers allowing students to explore and think about the subject/topic they are studying.

- ❖ Teachers having high expectations of students and believing that they can achieve.

- ❖ Teachers giving feedback to students' learning and work.

- ❖ Teachers motivating and encouraging students to learn and work.

- ❖ Teachers having knowledge of the subject teachers are teaching.

- ❖ Teachers not only focusing on their research but being available to students and having personal and academic contact with students inside and outside of the classroom.

- ❖ Teachers giving students choice in the teaching and learning process in the classroom such as choice of module; teaching method; activities in the classroom; perspectives on the topic; the reading material; work to be carried

out; frequency of classes; tutor taking the course; participating in activities or not; and being taught or not.

❖ Teachers having up-to-date knowledge, experience and practice in research which is relevant to what the teacher is teaching.

❖ Teachers having a portfolio of publications books, articles and research papers.

When comparing the innovative teaching styles described and defined by the QAA (2003), with the diverse, complex, and sometimes conflicting criteria described above, one can see that policy for quality teaching and learning in the UK has a very narrow perception and conception of what quality teaching in higher education in the UK is and is meant to be. This study demonstrated that students perceive the quality of teaching differently from each other. Some teaching styles which are meant to be empowering of students are perceived by some students as oppressive and intrusive. And some teaching styles which are regarded as not conducive to higher levels of thinking, according to the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education, are, in fact, perceived as empowering by some students.

The innovative teaching styles presented by the QAA (2003) do not address the issue of quality in the teaching and learning process in the classroom in higher education, because they do not address the issue of equality by addressing each single preferred learning style of each single student in the classroom and their expectations of a good university teacher. This brings me to a question which seems to be crucial when addressing quality in the teaching and learning process: Can quality be achieved in the teaching and learning process without addressing equality of learning opportunity in the classroom for each single student? This is a question which needs exploration.

2. Sub questions

- To what extent do discourses about quality for teaching and learning in higher education in the UK match the diversity of students' learning needs learning styles and perceptions?

Answer:

They do not match because the innovative teaching styles do not recognise and offer students a 'solid lecture' (participant Victoria, in chapter VIII) as a quality teaching style that is also conducive to high levels of thinking. They do not recognise and accept that students perceive the use of group work in the classroom differently amongst each other. And the QAA (2003) does not define and describe what independent learning is. I believe that the QAA is talking about learning independently from the teacher and not talking about independent learning. Independent learning is not the same as learning independently from the teacher. Independent learning means that students can learn whatever they want to, even if their choice of the area/subject/topic they want to learn has nothing to do with the course they are pursuing in higher education. And I believe that the curricula in higher education, and the higher education system, *per se*, in the UK or anywhere, are unable to cope with, provide and address independent learning in higher education. Higher education cannot address independent learning because students' interests are vast and they are also beyond the scope of the formal setting of learning in higher education, i.e. one has to learn something and have one's learning examined and formally assessed by a teacher. Not even postgraduate learning, for MAs and PhDs is independent learning, because it is totally dependent on supervision by an academic staff with specialised knowledge of the area or around the area students are researching, and the resultant dissertation or thesis must be presented in a format acceptable to a formal educational system. Learning independently from the teacher means that students are pursuing a curriculum to which they formally subscribed, but using their own initiatives and motivation.

- Can quality as a concept be applied to teaching and learning in higher education in the UK?

Answer:

Throughout this thesis, I have been arguing and presenting evidence that quality as a concept cannot be applied to teaching and learning in higher education, because students perceive the quality of teaching styles differently from one another. What is

empowering for some is oppressive to others. As the majority of students associated quality teaching with what and how much they learned, it is impossible to apply the concept of quality to teaching and learning in higher education, because learning can be a straightforward result of teaching or it can be a long-term result, students having to allow time for the learning to take place or to take more responsibility for their own learning.

C. Contribution to knowledge and the argument of my thesis

This study created a new space for students to voice their experiences and perceptions of quality teaching in higher education. It also offered new insights on how students perceive teaching in higher education, and on the criteria they use to establish their judgements of its quality. The empirical data used in this study demonstrate that students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education vary, because students are different people, with different aims, motivations, purposes, objectives, intentions, expectations and learning needs. It has demonstrated that the classroom is a place with a very complex environment. The data used in this study has also demonstrated that it is very difficult to pinpoint quality teaching in higher education, because what can be perceived as good quality teaching by some students, can be perceived as poor quality teaching by others. My study has further demonstrated that quality teaching is directly related to students' perceptions of achieving learning inside or outside the teaching and learning process in the classroom.

My study has provided evidence that for some students, teaching and learning are two parts of a process, and that for other students they are not, i.e. they are the start of their individual pursuit of their own learning journey. It depends on their perception of how their individual learning needs were addressed by their teachers in the teaching and learning process in the classroom, and of their intellectual relationship and engagement with their teachers.

My study has demonstrated that students' perceptions of quality of teaching depend on how they perceive their experience of the interplay of power relations in the teaching style of their teachers, i.e., whether students feel threatened or not, dominated or not, and influenced or not by the teaching styles of their teachers in the teaching and learning process. Students' perceptions of the power relations will determine their judgements about the quality of their teachers' teaching styles.

Quality learning is determined by: motivation; interest; importance of the subject/topic for the field/discipline/area and for the self; time invested in the learning activity; effort put into the learning activity; and the purposes and objectives for studying what students are studying. Quality teaching is determined by: teachers' motivation for teaching the subject/topic and ability to motivate students; their interest in the subject/topic and interest in students' learning; importance of the subject/topic for the field/discipline/area and for the personal and professional lives of students; time invested in preparing the teaching and learning activity; effort put into helping/supporting/guiding students throughout the teaching and learning activity in the teaching and learning process; and the purposes and objectives of the course/subject/topic they are teaching.

My research shows that it is difficult to find a common denominator and determinator of quality teaching in higher education, because the establishment of quality teaching is a very complex issue and quality teaching cannot be established without establishing learning. I also contend that it is more difficult to establish what quality teaching in higher education is because of the varied ways in which students perceive quality teaching. The evidence demonstrates that some students are not entirely able to evaluate the quality of teaching at the point of delivery, because learning does not always happen in the teaching and learning process in the classroom (participant Amanda, in chapter VIII). It can have an incubation period during which it develops before being achieved. I argue that it is not possible to have a single way of measuring quality teaching in higher education, as quality, as a concept, cannot be applied to teaching and learning in higher education.

D. Limitations of this study

Some of the limitations of my research were: first, the limitation of my sample reflecting only the population of MA students of Education at the Institute of Education – University of London and thus not being transferable or applicable to other universities or colleges which do not have the same or similar type of population; second, the subjectivity of my research, as 'the findings could be subject to other interpretations' (Kunes, 1991: 21-22, quoted in Creswell, 2003: 149); and last, that the interview data could include possibly distorted responses due to personal bias, anger, anxiety, and politics as the interviews could be greatly affected by the emotional state of the interviewee at the time of the interview (Patton, 2002) which could affect the validity of their accounts and question the accuracy of their memory (Rabbitt, 2003). If I were to do this study again, I would interview MA students in Education from other universities including the post-1992 universities. This inclusion would add to a more realistic picture of students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the UK. But it would also add a relatively high cost to the project as it would demand more resources and time to accomplish it.

E. My learning journey

I started my journey for this PhD study with what I would call a "very good idea" of what "good and poor/bad quality teaching" in higher education were, and I ended up with uncertainty because potentially all teaching styles are "good quality teaching", and at the same time they are potentially "poor/bad quality teaching". The judgement of what constitutes good and poor/bad quality teaching depends on students' perceptions of the teaching quality of their teachers. Some students perceive the teaching style of their teachers as "good quality teaching", and others perceive the teaching style of their teachers as "poor/bad quality teaching". I have learned that the concept of quality cannot be applied to teaching and learning in higher education, because it is a concept that cannot be pursued in the teaching and learning process. It cannot be pursued because of the number of students' expectations and perceptions in

the classroom, a number which will continue to increase. It also cannot be pursued because of the short span of students attending classes and courses, and the high turnover of students in classes and courses, which means that students experience only once the same class and course with the same tutor at the same university. That does not mean that I consider the pursuit of quality in the teaching and learning process to be a futile exercise. On the contrary, I consider that the pursuit of quality in the teaching and learning process is not only necessary but must be a duty of any teacher in higher education who is interested in the quality of the learning of his/her students. As a result of the analysis of the data of my research, quality in the teaching and learning process can only be pursued if teachers address the learning needs of their students. And the learning needs of students can only be discovered if teachers get to know their students' expectations of a good university teacher together with their best and worst experiences in the teaching and learning process in higher education.

F. The way ahead: my proposal for the debate about quality for teaching and learning in higher education

Following the conclusions of my study, I propose a model for pursuing and achieving quality in the teaching and learning process in higher education:

1) Students' expectations of a good university teacher together with their best and worst experience in the teaching and learning process should be collected before students start their studies;

2) This information should be made known to each member of the academic staff that will teach or supervise these students before they come to have contact with them;

3) Teachers should have a list of the students who will attend their courses containing a description of each student's expectation together with his/her best and worst experiences in the teaching and learning process;

4) Teachers should plan their classes and supervisions based on this information, in order to minimise students' negative feelings towards teachers' teaching styles and maximise the learning opportunity for each single student in the classroom, as this information provides teachers with a socio-psycho-pedagogical profile of students.

I recognise that my proposition would increase the cost of education across the higher education system and require a commitment at the institutional, faculty and departmental levels, and also a political commitment from policy makers, because higher education institutions will have to employ researchers to collect and analyse the data and present the results in a format easy to read and understand. However, if the concern about quality of teaching and learning in higher education is to be taken seriously, my proposition can offer insights on how to pursue quality in higher education. Even though quality can be pursued by following what I propose, I argue that the quality of teaching and learning in higher education cannot be assessed by using one single system of evaluation (Cashin, 1988, 1994, Ramsden, 1996, 2003, Davidovitch and Soen, 2006), because students will probably have taken part in different activities in the classroom which cannot be evaluated in the same way. Another way of using the information, i.e. the socio-psycho-pedagogical profile of students, is to group students with the same preference for teaching styles in one single classroom. But that will also come at a cost, because if higher education is concerned about quality for teaching and learning, it will have to invest more money in contracting more teachers to address the preferred teaching and learning style of other students.

G. Looking to the future

The sample used in this study could be expanded to include, as I mentioned in an earlier section, MA students in Education from the post-1992 universities, as it would provide a more realistic picture of students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the UK. This study could also be carried out in other disciplines from Humanities, Social Sciences and Sciences, and at different levels to include

undergraduate and post-graduate (PhD level). This study indicates that it is helpful to examine students' perceptions of what constitutes quality in their learning in higher education, so the findings from an extended study of what constitutes quality in students' learning would complement the conclusions of this present study and add useful information to the socio-psycho-pedagogical profile of students.

References:

Alpert, B. (1991). Students' Resistance in the Classroom. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly,* **22**(4): 350-66.

Alvesson, M. and Deetz, S. (1999). Critical theory and postmodernism: approaches to organizational studies, in Clegg, S. R. and Hardy, C. (Eds.) *Studying Organization: Theory & Method.* London: Sage Publications. pp. 185-211.

Ames, C. (1990). Effective motivation: the contribution of the learning environment, in Feldman, R. S. (Ed.) *The Social Psychology of Education: current research and theory.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp. 235-56.

Ames, C. (1992). Achievement Goals and the Classroom Motivational Climate, in Schunk, D. H. and Meece, J. L. (Eds.) *Student Perceptions in the Classroom.* Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. pp. 325-48.

Amirault, C. (1995). The Good Teacher, the Good Student: Identifications of a Student Teacher, in Gallop, J. (Ed.) *Pedagogy: The Question of Impersonation.* Bloomington and Indianapolis: Indiana University Press. pp. 64-78.

Andrews, J., Garrison, D. and Magnusson, K. (1996). The Teaching and Learning Transaction in Higher Education: a study of excellent professors and their students. *Teaching in Higher Education,* **1**(1): 81-104.

Apple, M. W. (1997). What Postmodernism Forget: Cultural Capital and Official Knowledge, in Halsey, A. H., Lauder, H., Brown, P. and Wells, A. S. (Eds.) *Education: Culture, Economy, and Society.* Oxford: Oxford University Press. pp. 595-604.

Arksey, H. and Knight, P. (1999). *Interviewing for Social Scientists,* London: Sage Publications.

Astin, A. W. (1993). *What matters in college: Four critical years revisited,* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Audit Commission. (1984). *Report and Accounts year ended 31st March 1984,* Report: London: The Audit Commission for Local Authorities in England and Wales.

Bacharach, P. and Baratz, M. S. (1970). *Power and Poverty: Theory and Practice,* New York: Oxford University Press.

Baird, J. R. (1988). Quality: What Should Make Higher Education 'Higher'? *Higher Education Research and Development,* **7**(2): 141-52.

Ball, C. (1985). What the Hell is Quality? in Urwin, D. (Ed.) *Fitness for Purpose: Essays in Higher Education by Christopher Ball.* Guildford: The Society for Research into Higher Education and NFER-Nelson. pp. 96-102.

Ball, S. J. (1988). Staff relations during the teachers' industrial action context, conflict and proletarianisation. *British Journal of Sociology of Education,* **9**(3): 289-306.

Ball, S. J. (2004). *Education For Sale! The Commodification of everything? - The Annual Education Lecture,* London: Department of Education and Professional Studies of King's College - University of London.

Ball, S. J. (2008). *The education debate,* Bristol: The Policy Press.

Bar-Tal, Y. and Bar-Tal, D. (1990). Social psychological analysis of classroom interaction, in Feldman, R. S. (Ed.) *The Social Psychology of Education: current research and theory.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp. 132-49.

Barnett, R. (1990). *The Idea of Higher Education,* Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Barnett, R. (1992). Linking Teaching and Research: A Critical Inquiry. *Journal of Higher Education,* **63**(6): 619-36.

Barnett, R. (1994). The Idea of quality: Voicing the educational, in Doherty, G. D. (Ed.) *Developing Quality Systems in Higher Education.* London: Routledge. pp. 68-82.

Barnett, R. (2000). University Knowledge in an age of supercomplexity. *Higher Education,* **40**: 409-22.

Barnett, R. (2003). *Beyond All Reason: Living with Ideology in the University,* Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Barnett, R. (2007). *A Will to Learn: Being a Student in an Age of Uncertainty,* Maidenhead: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Bartolomé, L. I. (1994). Beyond the Methods Fetish: Toward a Humanizing Pedagogy. *Harvard Educational Review,* **64**(2): 173-94.

Bartolomé, L. I. (1996). Beyond the Methods Fetish: Toward a Humanizing Pedagogy, in Leistyna, P., Woodrum, A. and Sherblom, S. A. (Eds.) *Breaking Free: The Transformative Power of Critical Pedagogy.* Cambridge: Harvard Educational Review. pp. 229-52.

Baudrillard, J. (1983). *Simulations,* New York: Semiotext.

Bazeley, P. and Richards, L. (2000). *The NVivo Qualitative Project Book,* London: Sage Publications.

Beard, C., Clegg, S. and Smith, K. (2007). Acknowledging the affective in higher education. *British Educational Research Journal,* **33**(2): 235-52.

Beckman, A. and Cooper, C. (2004). 'Globalisation', the New Managerialism and Education: Rethinking the Purpose of Education in Britain. *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies,* 2(2): 1-15. http://www.jceps.com/?pageID=article&articleID=31 (Accessed on: 11th July 2007).

Benhabib, S. (1987). The generalized and the concrete other: The Kolberg-Gillingan controversy and moral theory, in Kittay, E. F. and Meyers, D. T. (Eds.) *Women and Moral Theory.* Totowa, New Jersey: Rowman & Littlefield. pp. 154-77.

Benhabib, S. (1992). *Situating the Self: Gender, Community and Postmodernism in Contemporary Ethics,* Cambridge: Polity Press.

Beresford, P. and Croft, S. (1988). Language for service users. *Social Work Today,* **19**(49): 20-21.

Bernstein, B. (1970). Education cannot compensate for society. *New Society,* **387**: 344-47.

Bernstein, B. (1996). *Pedagogy Symbolic Control and Identity: Theory, Research, Critique,* London: Taylor & Francis.

Bezucha, R. J. (1985). Feminist pedagogy as a subversive activity, in Culley, M. and Portuges, C. (Eds.) *Gendered Subjects: The Dynamics of Feminist Teaching.* Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul. pp. 81-95.

Biggs, J. (1991). Teaching: Design for Learning, in Ross, B. (Ed.) *Teaching for Effective Learning.* Campbelltown: Higher Education and Research Development Society of Australia. pp. 11-26.

Biggs, J. (1992). A Qualitative Approach to Grading Students. *HERDSA News,* **14**(3): 3-6.

Biggs, J. (1999). *Teaching for Quality Learning at University: What the Student does,* Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Biggs, J. (2003). *Teaching for Quality Learning at University: What the Student does,* Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Biggs, J. and Collis, K. (1982). *Evaluating the Quality of Learning: The SOLO Taxonomy,* New York: The Academic Press.

Biggs, J. and Tang, C. (2007). *Teaching for Quality Learning at University: What the Student does,* Maidenhead: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Biggs, J. B. (1989). Approaches to the Enhancement of Tertiary Teaching. *Higher Education Research and Development,* **8**(1): 7-25.

Birenbaum, M. (1997). Assessment preferences and their relationship to learning strategies and orientations. *Higher Education,* **33**: 71-84.

Blackburn, R. T. and Bentley, R. J. (1993). Faculty Research Productivity: Some Moderators of Associated Stressors. *Research in Higher Education,* **34**(6): 725-45.

Blackburn, R. T., Horowitz, S. M., Edington, D. W. and Klos, D. M. (1986). University Faculty and Administrator Responses to Job Strains. *Research in Higher Education,* **25**(1): 31-41.

Blaikie, N. (1993). *Approaches to Social Inquiry,* Cambridge: Polity Press.

Blaikie, N. (2004). *Designing Social Research,* Cambridge: Polity Press.

Bligh, D. (1998). *What's the Use of Lectures?* Exeter: Intellect.

Blunsdon, B., Reed, K., McNeil, N. and McEachern, S. (2003). Experiential Learning in Social Science Theory: An investigation of the relationship between student enjoyment and learning. *Higher Education Research and Development,* **22**(1): 43-56.

Bogdan, R. C. and Biklen, S. K. (1992). *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theory and Methods,* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Boler, M. (1999). *Feeling Power: Emotions and Education,* New York: Routledge.

Bossert, S. T. (1978). Classroom Structure and Teacher Authority. *Education and Urban Society,* **11**(1): 49-59.

Bótas, P. C. P. (2000). *Students' Perceptions of Teachers' Pedagogical Styles in Higher Education,* Unpublished Master's dissertation. Institute of Education - University of London, London.

Bótas, P. C. P. (2004). Students' perceptions of teachers' pedagogical styles in Higher Education. *Educate,* **4**(1): 16-30.

Bótas, P. C. P. (2006). *Students' perceptions of quality teaching in higher education in the UK: the MA in Education case.* Paper presented at the Conference '"Beyond

Boundaries" New Horizons for Research into Higher Education (SRHE Annual Conference)', Society for Research into Higher Education, 11th-14th December, Brighton.

Boulton-Lewis, G. (1998). Applying the SOLO Taxonomy to Learning in Higher Education, in Dart, B. and Boulton-Lewis, G. (Eds.) *Teaching and Learning in Higher Education.* Melbourne: ACER Press. pp. 201-21.

Boulton-Lewis, G. M. (1995). The SOLO Taxonomy as a Means of Shaping and Assessing Learning in Higher Education. *Higher Education Research and Development,* **14**(2): 143-54.

Bourdieu, P. (1977). Cultural Reproduction and Social Reproduction, in Karabel, J. and Halsey, A. H. (Eds.) *Power and Ideology in Education.* New York: Oxford University Press. pp. 487-511.

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The Forms of Capital, in Richardson, J. G. (Ed.) *Handbook of Theory and Research for Sociology of Education.* New York: Greenwood Press. pp. 241-58.

Bourdieu, P. (1997). The Forms of Capital, in Halsey, A. H., Lauder, H., Brown, P. and Wells, A. S. (Eds.) *Education: Culture, Economy, and Society.* Oxford: Oxford University Press. pp. 46-58.

Bourdieu, P. (1998). The Forms of Capital, in Halsey, A. H., Lauder, H., Brown, P. and Wells, A. S. (Eds.) *Education: Culture, Economy, and Society.* Oxford: Oxford University Press. pp. 46-58.

Bratton, J. (1992). *Japanization at Work: Managerial Studies for the 1990s,* London: Macmillan.

Breen, R. and Lindsay, R. (1999). Academic Research and Student Motivation. *Studies in Higher Education,* **24**(1): 75-93.

Brehony, K. J. and Deem, R. (2005). Challenging the post-Fordist/flexible organisation thesis: the case of reformed educational organisations. *British Journal of Sociology of Education,* **26**(3): 395-414.

Brennan, L. and Bennington, L. (1998). *Concepts in conflict: student and customers, Working Paper 19/98,* Caulfield East, Victoria: Monash University - Faculty of Business and Economics.

British Educational Research Association (BERA). (2004). *Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research,* Notts: British Educational Research Association.

British Sociological Association (BSA). (2002/04). *Statement of Ethical Practice for the British Sociological Association,* British Sociological Association. www.britsoc.co.uk (Accessed on: 06/05/05).

Brookfield, S. D. and Preskill, S. (1999). *Discussion as a Way of Teaching: Tools and Techniques for University Teachers,* Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Brown, G. and Atkins, M. (1988). *Effective Teaching in Higher Education,* London: Methuen.

Brown, J. (2004). *Seduction and Betrayal Revisited: Ethical Dilemmas of Insider Research.* Paper presented at the Conference 'the Australian Association for Research in Education', Australian Association for Research in Education, 28th November-2nd December, Melbourne.

Brown, P. (1997). Cultural Capital and Social Exclusion: Some Observations on Recent Trends in Education, Employment, and the Labour Market, in Halsey, A. H., Lauder, H., Brown, P. and Wells, A. S. (Eds.) *Education: Culture, Economy, and Society.* Oxford: Oxford University Press. pp. 736-49.

Brown, R. D., Bond, S., Gerndt, J., Krager, L., Krantz, B., Lukin, M. and Prentice, D. (1986). Stress on Campus: An Interactional Perspective. *Research in Higher Education,* **24**(1): 97-112.

Brown, S. (2002). Student Counselling and Students' Failure, in Peelo, M. and Wareham, T. (Eds.) *Failing Students in Higher Education.* Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press. pp. 139-50.

Brown, S. and Race, P. (2002). *Lecturing: a practical guide,* London: Kogan Page.

Bruce, C. and Gerber, R. (1995). Towards university lecturers' conceptions of student learning. *Higher Education,* **29**: 443-58.

Bryman, A. (2001). *Social Research Methods,* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Burbules, N. C. (1986). A Theory of Power in Education. *Educational Theory,* **36**(2): 95-114.

Burgess, R. G. (1984). *In the Field,* London: George Allen & Unwin.

Burrage, M. (1993). Routine and Discreet Relationships: Professional Accreditation and the State in Britain, in Becher, T. (Ed.) *Governments and Professional Education.* Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press. pp. 140-58.

Cabinet Office. (1999). *Modernising Government,* The Stationary Office. http://www.gov.uk (Accessed on: 15th March 2002).

Cameron, D. (2003). Doing Exactly What It Says On The Tin: some thoughts on the future of higher education. *Changing English,* 10(2): 133-41.

Carner, R. L. (1963). Levels of Questioning. *Education (U.S.A.),* 83(9): 546-50.

Cartney, P. and Rouse, A. (2006). The emotional impact of learning in small groups: highlighting the impact on student progression and retention. *Teaching in Higher Education,* 11(1): 79-91.

Cashin, W. E. (1988). *Student Ratings of Teaching: A Summary of the Research, IDEA Paper No. 20,* Kansas: Center for Faculty Evaluation and Development, Division of Continuing Education, Kansas State University.

Cashin, W. E. (1994). Student Ratings of Teaching: A Summary of the Research, in Feldman, K. A. and Paulsen, M. B. (Eds.) *Teaching and Learning in the College Classroom.* Needham Heights: Ginn Press. pp. 531-41.

Cassady, J. C. (1998). Student and Instructor Perceptions of the Efficacy of Computer-Aided Lectures in Undergraduate University Courses. *Journal of Educational Computing Research,* 19(2): 175-89.

Centra, J. A. (1983). Research Productivity and Teaching Effectiveness. *Research in Higher Education,* 18(2): 379-89.

Chalmers, D. and Fuller, R. (1996). *Teaching for Learning at University,* London: Kogan Page.

Chambers, E. (1992). Work-load and the Quality of Student Learning. *Studies in Higher Education,* 17(2): 141-53.

Chevaillier, T. (2002). Higher education and its clients: Institutional responses to changes in demand and in environment. *Higher Education,* 33: 303-08.

Chiang, K.-H. (2002). *Relationship between research and teaching in Doctoral Education in UK universities: The cases of Education and Chemistry,* Doctor of Philosophy, Institute of Education - University of London, London.

Chiang, K.-H. (2004). Relationship between Research and Teaching in Doctoral Education in UK Universities. *Higher Education Policy,* 17: 71-88.

Clark, B. R. (1997). The Modern Integration of Research Activities with Teaching and Learning. *The Journal of Higher Education,* 68(3): 241-55.

Clarke, J. and Newman, J. (1997). *The Managerial State,* London: Sage Publications.

Clarke, J., Gewirtz, S. and McLaughlin, E. (2000). *New Managerialism New Welfare?* London: The Open University & Sage Publications.

Clarke, J., Cochrane, A. and McLaughlin, E. (Eds.). (1994). *Managing Social Policy*, London: Sage Publications.

Clegg, S. (2003). Learning and teaching policies in higher education: mediations and contradictions of practice. *British Educational Research Journal,* 29(6): 803-19.

Clegg, S. (2007). The demotic turn - excellence by fiat, in Skelton, A. (Ed.) *International Perspectives on Teaching Excellence in Higher Education.* Oxon: Routledge. pp. 91-102.

Clegg, S. and David, M. (2006). Passion, pedagogies and the project of the personal in higher education. *Twenty-First Century Society Journal of the Academy of Social Sciences,* 1(2): 149-65.

Coate, K., Barnett, R. and Williams, G. (2001). Relationships between Teaching and Research in Higher Education in England. *Higher Education Quarterly,* 55(2): 158-74.

Colbeck, C. L., Cabrera, A. F. and Terenzini, P. T. (2001). Learning Professional Confidence: Linking Teaching Practice, Students' Self-Perceptions, and Gender. *The Review of Higher Education,* 24(2): 173-91.

Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital. *American Journal of Sociology,* 94: S95-S120.

Coleman, J. S. (1997). Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital, in Halsey, A. H., Lauder, H., Brown, P. and Wells, A. S. (Eds.) *Education: Culture, Economy, and Society.* Oxford: Oxford University Press. pp. 80-95.

Coleman, J. S. (1998). Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital, in Halsey, A. H., Lauder, H., Brown, P. and Wells, A. S. (Eds.) *Education: Culture, Economy, and Society.* Oxford: Oxford University Press. pp. 80-95.

Cool, K. O. and Lengnick-Hall, C. A. (1985). Second Thoughts on the Transferability of the Japanese Management Style. *Organization Studies,* 6(1d): 1-22.

Cope, C. and Staehr, L. (2005). Improving students' learning approaches through intervention in an information systems learning environment. *Studies in Higher Education,* 30(2): 181-97.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches,* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The Foundations of Social Research: meaning and perspective in the research process,* London: Sage Publications.

Cruickshank, D. R. (1985). Applying Research on Teacher Clarity. *Journal of Teacher Education,* **March-April**: 44-48.

Cruickshank, D. R. and Kennedy, J. J. (1986). Teacher Clarity. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 2(1): 43-67.

Culley, M., Diamond, A., Edwards, L., Lennox, S. and Portuges, C. (1985). The politics of nurturance, in Culley, M. and Portuges, C. (Eds.) *Gendered Subjects: The Dynamics of Feminist Teaching.* Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul. pp. 11-20.

Culley, M. and Portuges, C. (Eds.). (1985). *Gendered Subjects: The Dynamics of Feminist Teaching,* Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

D'Andrea, V. and Gosling, D. (2005). *Improving Teaching and Learning in Higher Education: A whole institution approach,* Berkshire: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Dall'Alba, G. (1991). Foreshadowing conceptions of teaching, in Ross, B. (Ed.) *Teaching for Effective Learning.* Campbelltown: Higher Education and Research Development Society of Australia. pp. 293-97.

Dart, B. and Boulton-Lewis, G. (1998). *Teaching and Learning in Higher Education,* Melbourne: The Australian Council for Educational Research.

David, M. (2007). Equity and diversity: towards a sociology of higher education for the twenty-first century? *British Journal of Sociology of Education,* 28(5): 675-90.

Davidovitch, N. and Soen, D. (2006). Using students' assessments to improve instructors' quality of teaching. *Journal of Further and Higher Education,* 30(4): 351-76.

Davis, B. H. (1985). Teaching the feminist minority, in Culley, M. and Portuges, C. (Eds.) *Gendered Subjects: The Dynamics of Feminist Teaching.* Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul. pp. 245-52.

Deem, R. (1998). 'New Managerialism' and Higher Education: the management of performances and cultures in universities in the United Kingdom. *International Studies in Sociology of Education,* 8(1): 47-70.

Deem, R. (2001). Globalisation, New Managerialism, Academic Capitalism and Entrepreneurialism in Universities: is the local dimension still important? *Comparative Education,* 37(1): 7-20.

Deem, R. and Brehony, K. J. (2005). Management as ideology: the case of 'new managerialism' in higher education. *Oxford Review of Education*, **31**(2): 217-35.

Deem, R. and Lucas, L. (2006). Learning about research: exploring the learning and teaching/research relationship amongst educational practitioners studying in higher education. *Teaching in Higher Education*, **11**(1): 1-18.

Deem, R., Brehony, K. J. and Heath, S. (1995). *Active Citizenship and the Governing of Schools*, Buckingham: Open University Press.

Delpit, L. D. (1988). The Silenced Dialogue: Power and Pedagogy in Educating Other People's Children. *Harvard Educational Review*, **58**(3): 280-98.

Department for Education and Science (DES). (1987). *Higher Education Meeting the Challenge*, Report: Cm114, London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office (HMSO).

Department for Education and Science (DES). (1991). *Higher Education A New Framework*, Report: Cm1541, London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office (HMSO).

Department for Education and Skills (DES). (2003). *The Future of Higher Education*, Report: Cm5735, London: Department for Education and Skills.

Diseth, A. (2007). Approaches to learning, course experience and examination grade among undergraduate psychology students: testing of mediator effects and construct validity. *Studies in Higher Education*, **32**(3): 373-88.

Dominelli, L. and Hoogvelt, A. (1996). Globalization, Contract Government and the Taylorization of Intellectual Labour in Academia. *Studies in Political Economy*, **49**(Spring): 71-100.

Drew, S. (2001). Student Perceptions of What Helps Them Learn and Develop in Higher Education. *Teaching in Higher Education*, **6**(3): 309-31.

Dunkin, M. J. (1990). The induction of academic staff to a university: processes and products. *Higher Education*, **20**: 47-66.

Dunkin, M. J. (1991). Orientation to teaching, induction experiences and background characteristics of university lecturers. *Australian Educational Researcher*, **18**(1): 31-52.

Dunkin, M. J. and Precians, R. P. (1992). Award-winning university teachers' concept of teaching. *Higher Education*, **24**: 483-502.

Durning, B. and Jenkins, A. (2005). Teaching/research relations in departments: the perspectives of built environment academics. *Studies in Higher Education*, **30**(4): 407-26.

Duvall, C. K. and Schwartz, R. G. (2000). Distance education: relationship between academic performance and technology-adept adult students. *Education and Information Technologies*, 5(3): 177-87.

Earwaker, J. (1992). *Helping and Supporting Students: Rethinking the Issues*, Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Eklund-Myrskog, G. (1998). Students' conceptions of learning in different educational contexts. *Higher Education*, 35: 299-316.

Elen, J., Clarebout, G., Léonard, R. and Lowyck, J. (2007). Student-centred and teacher-centred learning environments: what students think. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 12(1): 105-17.

Ellis, R. (1995a). Quality Assurance for University Teaching: Issues and Approaches, in Ellis, R. (Ed.) *Quality Assurance for University Teaching*. Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press. pp. 3-15.

Ellis, R. (Ed.) (1995b). *Quality Assurance for University Teaching*, Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Ellsworth, E. (1997). *Teaching Positions: Difference, Pedagogy, and the Power of Address*, New York: Teachers College Press.

Ellsworth, E. (2005). *Places of Learning: Media, Architecture, Pedagogy*, New York: RoutledgeFalmer.

Elton, L. (2001). Research and Teaching: conditions for a positive link [1]. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 6(1): 43-56.

Enders, J. (2007). *Reshaping Institutions and Systems*, Plenary Symposium of the Annual Conference of the Society for Research into Higher Education, entitled Reshaping Higher Education, on the 13th of December, in Brighton.

Entwistle, N. and Ramsden, P. (1983). *Understanding Student Learning*, London: Croom Helm.

Evans, W. E. and Guymon, R. E. (1978). *Clarity of Explanation: A Powerful Indicator of Teacher Effectiveness*. Paper presented at the Conference 'Annual Meeting of The American Educational Research Association', American Educational Research Association, March. Education Resource Information Center, ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.: ED 151321. Accessed on: 20th October 2004.

Fabos, B. and Young, M. (1999). Telecommunications in the Classroom: rhetoric versus reality. *Review of Educational Research,* **69**(3): 217-60.

Fairchild, T. (2005). Students First! Improving and Evaluating Faculty Responsiveness to Students: A Case Illustration. *School Psychology International,* **26**(1): 89-108.

Fazey, D. M. A. and Fazey, J. A. (2001). The Potential for Autonomy in Learning: perceptions of competence, motivation and locus of control in first-year undergraduate students. *Studies in Higher Education,* **26**(3): 345-62.

Feldman, K. A. (1984). Class Size and College Students' Evaluations of Teachers and Courses: A Closer Look. *Research in Higher Education,* **21**(1): 45-116.

Feldman, K. A. (1987). Research Productivity and Scholarly Accomplishment of College Teachers as Related to Their Instructional Effectiveness: A Review and Exploration. *Research in Higher Education,* **26**(3): 227-98.

Feldman, K. A. (1988). Effective College Teaching From the Students' and Faculty's View: Matched or Mismatched Priorities? *Research in Higher Education,* **28**(4): 291-344.

Feldman, K. A. (1994). Effective College Teaching From the Students' and Faculty's View: Matched or Mismatched Priorities? in Feldman, K. A. and Paulsen, M. B. (Eds.) *Teaching and Learning in the College Classroom.* Needham Heights: Ginn Press. pp. 335-63.

Fergusson, R. (1994). Managerialism in Education, in Clarke, J., Cochrane, A. and McLaughlin, E. (Eds.) *Managing Social Policy.* London: Sage Publications. pp. 93-114.

Filax, G. (1997). Resisting Resistors: Resistance in Critical Pedagogy Classrooms. *Journal of Educational Thought,* **31**(3): 259-69.

Flynn, N. (1997). *Public sector management,* Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall/Haverster Wheatsheaf.

Flynn, N. (2000). Managerialism and Public Services: Some International Trends, in Clarke, J., Gewirtz, S. and McLaughlin, E. (Eds.) *New Managerialism New Welfare?* London: The Open University Press & Sage Publications. pp. 27-44.

Forcese, D. P. and Richer, S. (1973). *Social Reseach Methods,* Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Foucault, M. (1977). *Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison,* London: Allen Lane, Penguin Books.

Foucault, M. (1980a). Body/Power, in Colin, G. (Ed.) *Power/Knowledge, Selected Interviews and Other Writings 1972-1977*. Sussex: The Harvester Press. pp. 55-62.

Foucault, M. (1980b). Prison Talk, in Gordon, C. (Ed.) *Power/Knowledge: Selected Interviews and Other Writings 1972-1977*. Sussex: The Harvester Press. pp. 37-54.

Foucault, M. (1982). Afterword: The Subject and Power, in Dreyfus, H. L. and Rabinow, P. (Eds.) *Michel Foucault: Beyond Structuralism and Hermeneutics. With an Afterword by Michel Foucault*. Hertfordshire: Harvester Wheatsheaf. pp. 208-26.

Foucault, M. (1991a). *Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison*, London: Penguin Books.

Foucault, M. (1991b). Governmentality, in Burchell, G., Gordon, C. and Miller, P. (Eds.) *The Foucault Effect: Studies in Governmentality*. London: Harvester Wheatsheaf. pp. 87-104.

Foucault, M. (1994). The ethic of care for the self as a practice of freedom, in Bernauer, J. and Rasmussen, D. (Eds.) *The final Foucault*. Cambridge: The MIT Press. pp. 1-20.

Foucault, M. (1997). *Ethics: Subjectivity and Truth*, London: Allen Lane, The Penguin Press.

Foucault, M. (2002). *Power*, London: Penguin Books.

Fox, C. (1999). Picky, Coddled Students? Make them read Beowulf. *The Times Higher Education Supplement*, 26th February, p. 16.

Fox, D. (1983). Personal Theories of Teaching. *Studies in Higher Education*, 8(2): 151-63.

Fox, M. F. (1992). Research, Teaching, and Publication Productivity: Mutuality versus Competition in Academia. *Sociology of Education*, 65(4): 293-305.

Frank, A. W. (1995). Lecturing and Transference: The Undercover Work of Pedagogy, in Gallop, J. (Ed.) *Pedagogy: The Question of Impersonation*. Bloomington and Indianapolis: Indiana University Press. pp. 28-35.

Franz, J., Ferreira, L., Loh, H., Pendergast, D., Service, M., Stormont, D., Taylor, L., Thambiratnam, D. and Williamson, B. (1996). Students' and Lectures' Conceptions of Learning in Context: an interdisciplinary study. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 1(3): 325-39.

Freire, P. (1974). *Education for Critical Consciousness,* London: Sheed and Ward.

Freire, P. (1994). *Pedagogia do Oprimido,* Rio de Janeiro: Paz e Terra.

Freire, P. (1996). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed,* London: Penguin Books.

Freire, P. (2000). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed,* New York: Continuum.

Freire, P. and Macedo, D. P. (1996). A Dialogue: Culture, Language, and Race, in Leistyna, P., Woodrum, A. and Sherblom, S. A. (Eds.) *Breaking Free: The Transformative Power of Critical Pedagogy.* Cambridge: Harvard Educational Review. pp. 199-228.

Freire, P. and Macedo, D. P. (1999). A Dialogue: Culture, Language, and Race: a Dialogue, in Leach, J. and Moon, B. (Eds.) *Learners & Pedagogy.* London: Paul Chapman Publishing & The Open University. pp. 46-58.

Frey, P. W., Leonard, D. W. and Beatty, W. W. (1975). Student Ratings of Instruction: Validation Research. *American Educational Research Journal,* **12**(4): 435-47.

Friedman, S. S. (1985). Authority in the feminist classroom: a contradiction in terms? in Culley, M. and Portuges, C. (Eds.) *Gendered Subjects: the Dynamics of Feminist Teaching.* Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul. pp. 203-08.

Friedrich, R. J. and Michalak Jr., S. J. (1983). Why Doesn't Research Improve Teaching? Some Answers from a Small Liberal Arts College. *Journal of Higher Education,* **54**(2): 145-63.

Fukuyama, F. (1995). *Trust: The Social Virtues and the Creation of Prosperity,* London: Penguin Books.

Gage, N. L. and Berliner, D. C. (1979). *Educational Psychology,* Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company.

Gall, M. D. (1970). The Use of Questions in Teaching. *Review of Educational Research,* **40**(5): 707-21.

Gallop, J. (Ed.) (1995). *Pedagogy: The Question of Impersonation,* Bloomington and Indianapolis: Indiana University Press.

Gay, P. d. (2000). Entrepreneurial Governance and Public Management: The Anti-Bureaucrats, in Clarke, J., Gewirtz, S. and McLaughlin, E. (Eds.) *New Managerialism New Welfare?* London: The Open University & Sage Publications. pp. 62-81.

Gibbs, G. (1992). *Improving the quality of student learning,* Bristol: Technical and Education Services Ltd.

Gibbs, G. R. (2002). *Qualitative Data Analysis: Explorations with NVivo*, Buckingham: Open University Press.

Gibbs, P. (2001). Higher Education as a Market: a problem or solution? *Studies in Higher Education*, **26**(1): 85-94.

Giddens, A. (1979). *Central Problems in Social Theory*, Berkeley: University of California Press.

Giddens, A. (1995). *The Consequences of Modernity*, Cambridge: Polity Press.

Giroux, H. A. (2001). *Theory and Resistance in Education: Towards a Pedagogy for the Opposition*, Westport: Bergin & Garvey.

Giroux, H. A. and Shannon, P. (1997). *Education and Cultural Studies: Toward a Performative Practice*, New York: Routledge.

Giroux, H. A. (Ed.) (1997). *Pedagogy and the Politics of Hope: Theory, Culture and Schooling A Critical Reader*, Oxford: Westview Press.

Gmelch, W. H., Lovrich, N. P. and Wilke, P. K. (1984). Souces of Stress in Academe: A National Perspective. *Research in Higher Education*, **20**(4): 477-90.

Gmelch, W. H., Wilke, P. K. and Lovrich, N. P. (1986). Dimensions of Stress among University Faculty: Factor-Analytic Results from a National Study. *Research in Higher Education*, **24**(3): 266-86.

Gold, A. (1997). *'Power To' or 'Power Over': reflections on issues of power raised in development courses for educational managers*. Paper presented at the Conference 'Pedagogical Leadership in a Multicultural Society', 18th-21st September, Orebro, Sweden.

Good, T. L. and Grouws, D. A. (1979). The Missouri Mathematics Effectiveness Project: An Experimental Study in Fourth-Grade Classrooms. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, **71**(3): 355-62.

Gore, J. M. (1993). *The Struggle for Pedagogies*, New York: Routledge.

Gore, J. M. (1995). On the Continuity of Power Relations in Pedagogy. *International Studies in Sociology of Education*, **5**(2): 165-88.

Gore, J. M. (1997). On the Use of Empirical Research for the Development of a Theory of Pedagogy. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, **27**(2): 211-21.

Gore, J. M. (1998). On the Limits to Empowerment Through Critical and Feminist Pedagogies, in Carlson, D. and Apple, M. W. (Eds.) *Power/Knowledge/Pedagogy: The Meaning of Democratic Education in Unsettling Times*. Boulder: Westview Press. pp. 271-88.

Gouldner, A. W. (2001). Anti-Minotaur: The Myth of a Value-Free Sociology, in Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.) *The American Tradition in Qualitative Research.* London: Sage Publications. pp. 373-89.

Gow, L. and Kember, D. (1990). In response to James J. Sharp. *Higher Education,* **20**(3): 337-38.

Gow, L. and Kember, D. (1993). Conceptions of teaching and their relationship to student learning. *British Journal of Educational Psychology,* **63**: 20-33.

Gow, L., Kember, D. and Sivan, A. (1992). Lecturers' views of their teaching practices: Implication for staff development needs. *Higher Education Research and Development,* **11**(2): 135-49.

Green, D. (1995). What is Quality in Higher Education? Concepts, Policy and Practice, in Green, D. (Ed.) *What is Quality in Higher Education?* Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press. pp. 3-20.

Habermas, J. (1977). Hannah Arendt's Communications Concept of Power. *Social Research,* **44**(1): 3-24.

Hadley, T. and Winn, S. (1992). Measuring value added at course level: an exploratory study. *Higher Education Review,* **25**(1): 7-30.

Haggis, T. (2006). Pedagogies for diversity: retaining critical challenge amidst fears of 'dumbing down'. *Studies in Higher Education,* **31**(5): 521-35.

Handal, G., Lauvås, P. and Lycke, K. (1990). The concept of rationality in academic science teaching. *European Journal of Education,* **25**: 319-32.

Hargreaves, A. (1998a). The emotional politics of teaching and teacher development: with implications for educational leadership. *International Journal of Leadership in Education,* **1**(4): 315-36.

Hargreaves, A. (1998b). The Emotional Practice of Teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* **14**(8): 835-54.

Harvey, L. and Green, D. (1993). Defining Quality. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education,* **18**(1): 9-34.

Hativa, N. (2000). *Teaching for Effective Learning in Higher Education,* Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Hativa, N. and Birenbaum, M. (2000). Who Prefers What? Disciplinary Differences in Students' Preferred Approaches to Teaching and Learning Styles. *Research in Higher Education,* **41**(2): 209-36.

Hattie, J. and Marsh, H. W. (1996). The Relationship between Research and Teaching: A Meta-Analysis. *Review of Educational Research,* **66**(4): 507-42.

Hattie, J. and Purdie, N. (1998). The Solo Model: Addressing Fundamental Measurement Issues, in Dart, B. and Boulton-Lewis, G. (Eds.) *Teaching and Learning in Higher Education.* Melbourne: ACER Press. pp. 145-76.

Henkel, M. (2004). Teaching and Research: the Idea of a Nexus. *Higher Education Management and Policy,* **16**(2): 19-30.

Her Majesty's Stationery Office (HMSO). (1998). Data Proctection Act 1998, *Her Majesty Stationery Office.* www.hmso.gov.uk/acts/acts1998/80029--a.htm (Accessed on: 20th April 2004

Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE). (2001a). *Strategies for learning and teaching in higher education: A guide to good practice,* Report: 37, Bristol: Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE).

Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE). (2001b). *Analysis of initial strategic statements for widening participation: Report by Action on Access,* Report: 01/36a, London: Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE).

Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE). (2002). *Funding for widening participation in higher education: New proposals 2003-04 to 2005-06,* Report: 02/22, London: Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE).

Hines, C. V., Cruickshank, D. R. and Kennedy, J. J. (1985). Teacher Clarity and Its Relationship to Student Achievement and Satisfaction. *American Educational Research Journal,* **22**(1): 87-99.

Holland, J. and Ramazanoglu, C. (1995). Coming to Conclusions: Power and Interpretation in Researching Young Women's Sexuality, in Maynard, M. and Purvis, J. (Eds.) *Researching Women's Lives from a Feminist Perspective.* London: Taylor & Francis. pp. 125-48.

Hood, C. (1998). *The art of the state: culture, rhetoric, and public management,* Oxford: Clarendon Press.

hooks, b. (1994). *Teaching to Transgress: Education as the Practice of Freedom,* New York: Routledge.

Howie, G. (2002). A reflection of quality: instrumental reason, quality audits and the knowledge economy. *Critical Quarterly,* **44**(4): 140-47.

Hunkins, F. P. (1991). Educating for critical awareness: A Curricular Challenge. *Education and Urban Society*, **23**(3): 302-12.

Ingleton, C. (1999). Emotion in learning: a neglected dynamic. *Research and Development in Higher Education*, **22**: 86-99.

Institute of Education. (2006). *Introduction of a new Workload Management System for Academic Staff at the Institute of Education*, Minutes, 18th July.

Janesick, V. J. (1998). The Dance of Qualitative Research Design: Metaphor, Methodolatry, and Meaning, in Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.) *Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications. pp. 35-55.

Jenkins, A., Blackman, T., Lindsay, R. and Paton-Saltzberg, R. (1998). Teaching and Research: student perspectives and policy implications. *Studies in Higher Education*, **23**(2): 127-41.

Jenkins, A., Breen, R., Lindsay, R. and Brew, A. (2003). *Reshaping Teaching in Higher Education: Linking Teaching with Research*, London: Kogan Page.

Kaye, T., Bickel, R. and Birtwistle, T. (2006). Criticizing the imabe of the student as consumer: examining legal trends and administrative responses in the US and UK. *Education and the Law*, **18**(2-3): 85-129.

Keats, D. M. (2001). *Interviewing: a practical guide for students and professionals*, Buckingham: Open University Press.

Kelly, L., Regan, L. and Burton, S. (1992). Defending the Indefensible? Quantitative Methods and Feminism Research, in Hinds, H., Phoenix, A. and Stacey, J. (Eds.) *Working Out: New directions for women's studies*. London: The Falmer Press. pp. 149-60.

Kelly, L., Regan, L. and Burton, S. (1995). Defending the Indefensible? Quantitative Methods and Feminist Research, in Holland, J., Blair, M. and Sheldon, S. (Eds.) *Debates and Issues in Feminist Research and Pedagogy*. Bridgend: Multilingual Matters Ltd and The Open University. pp. 235-47.

Kember, D. (1997). A Reconceptualisation of the Research into University Academics' Conceptions of Teaching. *Learning and Instruction*, **7**(3): 255-75.

Kember, D. (2000). Misconceptions about the learning approaches, motivation and study practices of Asian students. *Higher Education*, **40**: 99-121.

Kember, D. and Gow, L. (1994). Orientations to Teaching and Their Effect on the Quality of Student Learning. *Journal of Higher Education*, **65**(1): 58-74.

Kember, D. and Wong, A. (2000). Implications for evaluation from a study of students' perceptions of good and poor teaching. *Higher Education*, **40**: 69-97.

Kember, D. and McNaught, C. (2007). *Enhancing University Teaching: Lessons from research into award-winning teachers*, Oxon: Routledge.

Kenway, J., Bigum, C., Fitzclarence, L. and Collier, J. (1993). Marketing education in the (1990)s: An introductory essay. *The Australian Universities' Review*, **36**(2): 2-6.

Kinman, G., Jones, F. and Kinman, R. (2006). The Well-being of the UK Academy, 1998-2004. *Quality in Higher Education*, **12**(1): 15-27.

Kirkpatrick, I., Whipp, R. and Davies, A. (1996). New public management and the professions, in Glover, I. and Hughes, M. (Eds.) *The Professional-Managerial Class: Contemporary British Management in the Pursuer Mode*. Aldershot: Avebury. pp. 195-215.

Kuh, G. D. and Hu, S. (2001). The Effects of Student-Faculty Interaction in the 1990s. *The Review of Higher Education*, **24**(3): 309-32.

Kunes, M. V. (1991). *How the workplace affects the self-esteem of the psychiatric nurse*, Unpublished Proposal, University of Nebraska-Lincoln.

Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An Introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing*, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Kyvik, S. and Smeby, J.-C. (1994). Teaching and research. The relationship between the supervision of graduate students and faculty research performance. *Higher Education*, **28**: 227-39.

Lambert, C., Parker, A. and Neary, M. (2007). Entrepreneurialism and critical pedagogy: reinventing the higher education curriculum. *Teaching in Higher Education*, **12**(4): 525-37.

Laurillard, D. (1997). *Rethinking University Teaching: a framework for the effective use of educational technology*, London: Routledge.

Laurillard, D. (2002). *Rethinking University Teaching: A conversational framework for the effective use of learning technologies*, London: Routledge-Falmer.

Leistyna, P. and Woodrum, A. (1996). Context and Culture: What Is Critical Pedagogy? in Leistyna, P., Woodrum, A. and Sherblom, S. A. (Eds.) *Breaking Free: The Transformative Power of Critical Pedagogy*. Cambridge: Harvard Educational Review. pp. 1-7.

Light, G. and Cox, R. (2001). *Learning & Teaching in Higher Education: The Reflective Professional,* London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Lindblom-Ylänne, S., Trigwell, K., Nevgi, A. and Ashwin, P. (2006). How approaches to teaching are affected by discipline and teaching context. *Studies in Higher Education,* **31**(3): 285-98.

Lindsay, R., Breen, R. and Jenkins, A. (2002). Academic Research and Teaching Quality: the views of undergraduate and postgraduate students. *Studies in Higher Education,* **27**(3): 309-27.

Linsky, A. S. and Straus, M. A. (1975). Student Evaluations, Research Productivity, and Eminence of College Faculty. *The Journal of Higher Education,* **XLVI**(1 Jan./Feb.): 89-102.

Lomas, L. (2004). Embedding quality: the challenges for higher education. *Quality Assurance in Education,* **12**(4): 157-65.

Lucas, L. and Webster, F. (1998). Maintaining Standards in Higher Education? A Case Study, in Jary, D. and Parker, M. (Eds.) *The New Higher Education: Issues and Directions for the Post-Dearing University.* Stoke-on-Trent: Staffordshire University Press. pp. 105-13.

Luke, C. (Ed.) (1996). *Feminisms and Pedagogies of Everyday Life,* New York: State University of New York Press.

Luke, C. and Gore, J. (Eds.). (1992). *Feminism and Critical Pedagogy,* New York: Routledge.

Lukes, S. (1974). *Power: A Radical View,* New York: Palgrave.

Lukes, S. (1978). *Power: A Radical View,* Hong Kong: The MacMillan Press Ltd.

Lusted, D. (1986). Why Pedagogy? *Screen,* **27**(5): 2-14.

Lyotard, J.-F. (1989). *The Postmodern Condition: A Report on Knowledge,* Manchester: Manchester University Press.

Magrath, C. P. (2000). Globalization and its Effects on Higher Education beyond the Nation-state. *Higher Education in Europe,* **XXV**(2): 251-58.

Maher, F. (1985). Classroom pedagogy and the new scholarship on women, in Culley, M. and Portuges, C. (Eds.) *Gendered Subjects: the Dynamics of Feminist Teaching.* Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul. pp. 29-48.

Manke, M. P. (1997). *Classroom Power Relations: Understanding Student-Teacher Interaction,* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Marshall, C. and Rossman, G. B. (1999). *Designing Qualitative Research*, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Martin, E. and Balla, M. (1991). Conceptions of Teaching and Implications for Learning, in Ross, B. (Ed.) *Teaching for Effective Learning*. Campbelltown: Higher Education and Research Development Society of Australia. pp. 298-304.

Martin, E. and Ramsden, P. (1992). An expanding awareness: how lecturers change their understanding of teaching. *Research and Development in Higher Education,* **15**: 148-55.

Marton, F. and Säljö, R. (1976a). Symposium: Learning Processes and Strategies - II: On Qualitative Differences in Learning - II Outcome as a Function of the Learner's Conception of the Task. *The British Journal of Educational Psychology,* **46**: 115-27.

Marton, F. and Säljö, R. (1976b). On Qualitative Differences in Learning: I - Outcome and Process. *The British Journal of Educational Psychology,* **46**: 4-11.

Marton, F. and Säljö, R. (1997). Approaches to learning, in Marton, F., Hounsell, D. and Entwistle, N. (Eds.) *The Experience of Learning.* Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press. pp. 39-58.

Marton, F., Dall'Alba, G. and Beaty, E. (1993). Conceptions of Learning. *International Journal of Educational Research,* **19**(3): 277-300.

Marton, F., Dall'Alba, G. and Kun, T. L. (1996). Memorizing and understanding: the keys to the paradox? in Watkins, D. A. and Biggs, J. B. (Eds.) *The Chinese Learner: Cultural, Psychological and Contextual Influences.* Hong Kong: CERC & ACER. pp. 69-84.

Maslow, A. H. (1967). Self-Actualization and Beyond, in Bugental, J. F. T. (Ed.) *Challenges of Humanistic Psychology.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. pp. 279-86.

Maslow, A. H. (1970). *Motivation and Personality,* New York: Harper & Row, Publishers.

Maslow, A. H. (1978). *The Farther Reaches of Human Nature,* New York: Penguin Books.

Mason, J. (1998). *Qualitative Researching,* London: Sage Publications.

Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative Researching,* London: Sage Publications.

May, T. (2001). *Social Research: Issues, methods and process,* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Mayo, C. (1998). Foucauldian Cautions on the Subject and the Educative Implications of Contingent Identity. *Philosophy of Education (1997)*: 115-23.

McDermott, R. (1977). The ethnography of speaking and reading, in Shuy, R. (Ed.) *Linguistic Theory: What can it say about reading?* Newark: DE: International Reading Association. pp. 153-85.

McLaren, P. (1995). Critical Pedagogy in the Age of Global Capitalism: Some Challenges for the Educational Left. *Australian Journal of Education,* **39**(1): 5-21.

McLaren, P. and Farahmandpur, R. (1999). Critical Pedagogy, Postmodernism, and the Retreat from Class: Towards a Contraband Pedagogy, in Hill, D., McLaren, P., Cole, M. and Rikowski, G. (Eds.) *Postmodernism in Educational Theory: Education and the Politics of Human Resistance.* London: The Tufnell Press. pp. 167-202.

McLean, M. and Barker, H. (2004). Students making progress and the 'research-teaching nexus' debate. *Teaching in Higher Education,* **9**(4): 407-19.

McNair, S. (1997). Is There a Crisis? Does it Matter? in Barnett, R. and Griffin, A. (Eds.) *The End of Knowledge in Higher Education.* London: Cassell. pp. 27-38.

McNay, I. (1995). The Future Student Experience, in Haselgrove, S. (Ed.) *The Student Experience.* Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press. pp. 169-79.

McWilliam, E. and Jones, A. (1996). Eros and Pedagogical Bodies: the state of (non)affairs, in McWilliam, E. and Taylor, P. G. (Eds.) *Pedagogy, Technology and the Body.* New York: Peter Lang Publishing, Inc. pp. 127-36.

Measor, L. (1985). Interviewing: a Strategy in Qualitative Research, in Burgess, R. G. (Ed.) *Strategies of Educational Research: Qualitative Methods.* London: The Falmer Press. pp. 55-77.

Meegan, R. (1996). A crisis of mass production? in Allen, J. and Massey, D. (Eds.) *The Economy in Question.* London: Sage Publications & The Open University. pp. 136-83.

Menter, I., Muschamp, Y., Nicholls, P., Ozga, J. and Pollard, A. (1997). *Work and Identity in the Primary School: A Post-Fordist Analysis,* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Metz, M. H. (1978). Clashes in the Classroom: The Importance of Norms for Authority. *Education and Urban Society,* **11**(1): 13-47.

Meyer, J. H. F. and Dunne, T. T. (1990). Study orchestration and learning outcome: evidence of association over time among disadvantaged students. *Higher Education,* **20**(3): 245-70.

Moon, J. (2008). *Critical Thinking: An Exploration of Theory and Practice,* London: Routledge.

Morley, L. (1997). *The Micropolitics of the Academy: Feminism, Equity and Change,* Doctor of Philosophy Thesis, King's College - University of London, London.

Morley, L. (1998). All you need is love: feminist pedagogy for empowerment and emotional labour in the academy. *International Journal of Inclusive Education,* **2**(1): 15-27.

Morley, L. (1999). *Organising Feminisms: The Micropolitics of the Academy,* London: MacMillan Press.

Morley, L. (2001). Subjected to review: engendering quality and power in higher education. *Journal of Education Policy,* **16**(5): 465-78.

Morley, L. (2002a). *A Comedy of Manners: Quality and Power in Higher Education.* Paper presented at the Conference 'Students and Learning: What is changing?' The Society for Research into Higher Education, 10th-12th December, Glasgow, United Kingdom.

Morley, L. (2002b). A Comedy of Manners: Quality and Power in Higher Education, in Trowler, P. R. (Ed.) *Higher Education Policy and Institutional Change: Intentions and Outcomes in Turbulent Environments.* Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press. pp. 126-41.

Morley, L. (2002c). *Reconstructing Students as Consumers: New Settlements of Power or the Politics of Assimilation?* Paper presented at the Conference 'Students and Learning: What is changing?' Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE), 10-12th December, University of Glasgow, United Kingdom.

Morley, L. (2002d). *Presentation of her new book: Quality and Power in Higher Education,* Seminar of Sociology of the School of Educational Foundations and Policy Studies of the Institute of Education - University of London, 6th June.

Morley, L. (2003). *Quality and Power in Higher Education,* Maidenhead: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Morley, L. (2004). *Qualitative Data Analysis,* London: PhD course handout on Collecting Data through Interviewing at the Institute of Education - University of London.

Morley, L. (2005). *Discussion during my supervision of my PhD thesis on the analysis of my pilot study,* Institute of Education - University of London.

Morley, L. and Rassool, N. (1999). *School Effectiveness: Fracturing the Discourse,* London: Falmer Press.

Morley, L. and Rassool, N. (2000). School effectiveness: new managerialism, quality and the Japanization of education. *Journal of Education Policy,* **15**(2): 169-83.

Morley, L. and Gold, A. (2004). *Discussion during my supervision of my PhD thesis on the methodology and method of my research,* Institute of Education - University of London.

Naidoo, R. (2003). Repositioning Higher Education as a Global Commodity: opportunities and challenges for future sociology of education work. *British Journal of Sociology of Education,* **24**(2): 249-59.

Naidoo, R. and Jamieson, I. (2005a). Empowering participants or corroding learning? Towards a research agenda on the impact of student consumerism in higher education. *Journal of Education Policy,* **20**(3): 267-81.

Naidoo, R. and Jamieson, I. (2005b). Knowledge in the Marketplace: The Global Commodification of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, in Ninnes, P. and Hellsten, M. (Eds.) *Internationalizing Higher Education: Critical Explorations of Pedagogy and Policy.* Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre, The University of Hong Kong. pp. 37-51.

National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (NCIHE). (1997). *Higher Education in the Learning Society (The Dearing Report),* Report: 850, London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office (HMSO).

Neumann, R. (1992). Perceptions of the teaching-research nexus: a framework for analysis. *Higher Education,* **23**: 159-71.

Neumann, R. (1994). The Teaching-Research Nexus: applying a framework to university students' learning experience. *European Journal of Education,* **29**(3): 323-38.

Newman, J. (1998). Managerialism and Social Welfare, in Hughes, G. and Lewis, G. (Eds.) *Unsettling Welfare: the reconstruction of social policy.* London: Routledge & The Open University. pp. 334-74.

Newman, J. (2000). Beyond the New Public Management? Modernizing Public Services, in Clarke, J., Gewirtz, S. and McLaughlin, E. (Eds.) *New Managerialism New Welfare?* London: The Open University & Sage Publications. pp. 45-61.

Newman, J. and Clarke, J. (1994). Going about Our Business? The Managerialization of Public Services, in Clarke, J., Cochrane, A. and McLaughlin, E. (Eds.) *Managing Social Policy.* London: Sage Publications. pp. 13-31.

Nicholls, G. (2002). *Developing Teaching and Learning in Higher Education,* London: Routledge Falmer.

Nijhuis, J., Segers, M. and Gijselaers, W. (2007). The interplay of perceptions of the learning environment, personality and learning strategies: a study amongst International Business Studies students. *Studies in Higher Education,* **32**(1): 59-77.

Nixon, J., Martin, J., McKeown, P. and Ranson, S. (1997). Towards a learning profession: changing codes of occupational practice within the new management of education. *British Journal of Sociology of Education,* **18**(1): 5-28.

Noser, T. C., Manakyan, H. and Tanner, J. R. (1996). Research Productivity and Perceived Teaching Effectiveness: A Survey of Economics Faculty. *Research in Higher Education,* **37**(3): 299-321.

O'Brien, M. (1998). Social research and sociology, in Gilbert, N. (Ed.) *Researching Social Life.* London: Sage Publications. pp. 1-17.

O'Brien, T. and Guiney, D. (2001). *Differentiation in Teaching and Learning: principles and practice,* London: Continuum.

Oakley, A. (1982). Interviewing women: a contradiction in terms, in Roberts, H. (Ed.) *Doing Feminist Research.* London: Routledge & Kegan Paul. pp. 30-61.

Olssen, M. and Peters, M. A. (2005). Neoliberalism, higher education and the knowledge economy: from the free markedt to knowledge capitalism. **20**(3): 313-45.

Orner, M. (1992). Interrupting the Calls for Student Voice in "Liberatory" Education: A Feminist Poststructuralist Perspective, in Luke, C. and Gore, J. (Eds.) *Feminisms and Critical Pedagogy.* New York: Routledge. pp. 74-89.

Orr, D. J. (1993). Toward a Critical Rethinking of Feminist Pedagogical Praxis and Resistant Male Students. *Canadian Journal of Education,* **18**(3): 239-53.

Orwell, G. (1990). *Nineteen Eighty-Four,* London: Penguin Books.

Ozga, J. (2000). Education: New Labour, New Teachers, in Clarke, J., Gewirtz, S. and McLaughlin, E. (Eds.) *New Managerialism New Welfare?* London: The Open University Press & Sage Publications. pp. 222-35.

Palmer, A. and Collins, R. (2006). Perceptions of rewarding excellence in teaching: motivation and the scholarship of teaching. *Higher Education Research and Development,* **30**(2): 193-205.

Pascarella, E. T. and Terenzini, P. T. (1979). Student-Faculty Informal Contact and College Persistence: A Further Investigation. *The Journal of Educational Research,* **72**(4): 214-18.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods,* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Pollitt, C. (1990). Measuring University Performance: Never Mind the Quality, Never Mind the Width? *Higher Education Quarterly,* **44**(1): 60-81.

Porfilio, B. J. and Yu, T. (2006). "Student as Consumer": A Critical Narrative of the Commercialization of Teacher Education. *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies,* 4(1): 1-9. http://www.jceps.com/?pageID=article&articleID=56 (Accessed on: 20th September 2007).

Poster, M. (1990). *The Mode of Information,* Cambridge: Polity Press.

Poulantzas, N. (1978). *State, Power, Socialism,* London: New Left Books.

Power, M. (1994). *The Audit Explosion,* London: Demos.

Pratt, D. D. (1992). Conceptions of teaching. *Adult Education Quarterly,* **42**(4): 203-20.

Prosser, M. and Trigwell, K. (2001). *Understanding Learning and Teaching: The Experience in Higher Education,* Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open Universtiy Press.

Prosser, M., Trigwell, K. and Taylor, P. (1994). A phenomenographic study of academics' conceptions of science learning and teaching. *Learning and Instruction,* **4**: 217-32.

Punch, K. F. (1998). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches,* London: Sage Publications.

QSR NVivo. (2002). *NVivo 2, 2.0.163,* Research Program, Doncaster Victoria: QSR International Pty.

Quality Assurance Agency (QAA). (2003). *Learning from subject review 1993/2001: sharing good practice,* Report: QAA 040 12/03, Gloucester: Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education.

Raban, C. (2007). Assurance *versus* enhancement: less is more? *Journal of Further and Higher Education,* **31**(1): 77-85.

Rabbitt, E. (2003). *Insider research: The implications of conducting research in your home locale.* Paper presented at the Conference 'Educational research, risks & dilemmas: New Zealand Association for Research in Education/Australian Association for Research in Education', Australian Association for Research in Education, 29th-3rd December, Auckland.

Ramsden, P. (1987). Improving Teaching and Learning in Higher Education: the case for a relational perspective. *Studies in Higher Education,* **12**(3): 275-86.

Ramsden, P. (1996). *Learning to Teach in Higher Education,* London: Routledge.

Ramsden, P. (2003). *Learning to Teach in Higher Education,* London: Routledge-Falmer.

Ramsden, P. and Moses, I. (1992). Association between research and teaching in Australian higher education. *Higher Education,* **23**: 273-95.

Randle, K. and Brady, N. (1997). Managerialism and Professionalism in the 'Cinderella Service'. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training,* **49**(1): 121-39.

Rapoport, R. and Rapoport, R. N. (1976). *Dual Career Families Re-examined,* London: Martin Robertson.

Raymond, J. G. (1985). Women's Studies: a knowledge of one's own, in Culley, M. and Portuges, C. (Eds.) *Gendered Subjects: The Dynamics of Feminist Teaching.* Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul. pp. 49-63.

Readings, B. (1999). *The University in Ruins,* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Reynolds, D. (1997). School Effectiveness: Retrospect and Prospect. *Scottish Educational Review,* **29**(2): 97-113.

Richards, S. (1994). The consumer paradigm in public management, in Doherty, G. D. (Ed.) *Developing quality systems in education.* London: Routledge. pp. 35-51.

Robertson, J. and Bond, C. H. (2001). Experiences of the Relation between Teaching and Research: what do academics value? *Higher Education Research and Development,* **20**(1): 5-19.

Robinson, K. (2000). 'Great Tits, Miss!' The silencing of male students' sexual harassment of female teachers in secondary schools: a focus on gendered authority. *Discourse: studies in the cultural politics of education,* **21**(1): 75-90.

Robson, C. (2002). *Real World Research: A Resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner-Researchers,* Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Rogers, A. (1998). *Teaching Adults,* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Ross, B. (Ed.) (1991). *Teaching for Effective Learning,* Campbelltown: Higher Education and Research Development Society of Australia.

Rowland, S. (1996). Relationships between Teaching and Research. *Teaching in Higher Education,* **1**(1): 7-20.

Rowland, S. (2002). Overcoming Fragmentation in Professional Life: The Challenge for Academic Development. *Higher Education Quarterly,* **56**(1): 52-64.

Rowland, S. (2004). *Overcoming fragmentation in academic life and the questions it poses,* Paper presented in the seminar of The Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE), on 08 January 2004, at University College London.pp. 1-21.

Rowland, S. (2006). *The Enquiring University: Compliance and contestation in higher education,* Maidenhead: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Rowley, J. (1996). Motivation and academic staff in higher education. *Quality Assurance in Education,* **4**(3): 11-16.

Rust, W. B. (1985). *Management Guidelines for Teachers,* London: Ptiman Publishing.

Säljö, R. (1979). *Learning in the Learner's Perspective. I. Some Common-sense Conceptions No. 76.* Paper presented at the Conference University of Gothenburg Press, January, Institute of Education. Education Resource Information Center, ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.: ED173369. Accessed on: 20th January 2002.

Samuelowicz, K. (1987). Learning Problems of Overseas Students: Two Sides of a Story. *Higher Education Research and Development,* **6**(2): 121-33.

Samuelowicz, K. and Bain, J. D. (1992). Conceptions of teaching held by academic teachers. *Higher Education,* **24**: 93-111.

Samuelowicz, K. and Bain, J. D. (2001). Revisiting academics' beliefs about teaching and learning. *Higher Education,* **41**: 299-325.

Sander, P., Stevenson, K., King, M. and Coates, D. (2000). University Students' Expectations of Teaching. *Studies in Higher Education,* **25**(3): 309-23.

Schmidt, R. (2002). A student's initial perception of value when selecting a college: an application of value added. *Quality Assurance in Education,* **10**(1): 37-39.

Schwandt, T. A. (2001). *Dictionary of Qualitative Inquiry,* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Scott, S. V. (1999). The Academic as Service Provider: is the customer 'always right'? *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, **21**(2): 193-202.

Scouller, K. (1998). The influence of assessment method on students' learning approaches: Multiple choice question examination versus assignment essay. *Higher Education*, **35**: 453-72.

Seale, C. (1998). *Reasearching Society and Culture*, London: Sage Publications.

Seale, C. (2000). *Reasearching Society and Culture*, London: Sage Publications.

Seidman, I. E. (1991). *Interviewing as Qualitative Research*, New York: Teachers College Press.

Seidman, I. E. (1998). *Interviewing as Qualitative Research*, New York: Teachers College Press.

Shachar, H. and Fischer, S. (2004). Cooperative learning and the achievement of motivation and perceptions of students in 11th grade chemistry classes. *Learning and Instruction*, **14**(1): 69-87.

Shaw, J. (1995). *Education, Gender and Anxiety*, London: Taylor & Francis.

Sheldrake, J. (1996). *Management Theory: From Taylorism to Japanization*, London: International Thomson Business Press.

Shor, I. (1980). *Critical Teaching and Everyday Life*, Montreal: Black Rose Books.

Shor, I. (1987). *Critical Teaching and Everyday Life*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Shor, I. (1992). *Empowering Education: Critical Teaching for Social Change*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Shor, I. (1996). *When Students Have Power: Negotiating Authority in a Critical Pedagogy*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Shor, I. and Freire, P. (1987). *A Pedagogy for Liberation*, Westport: Greenwood, Bergin-Garvey.

Shore, C. and Roberts, S. (1995). Higher education and the panopticon paradigm: quality assessment as 'disciplinary technology'. *Higher Education Review*, **27**(3): 8-17.

Shore, C. and Wright, S. (1999). Audit Culture and Anthropology: Neo-Liberalism in British Higher Education. *The Journal of the Royal Anthropological Institute*, **5**(1): 557-75.

Shore, C. and Wright, S. (2000). Coercive accountability: The rise of audit culture in higher education, in Strathern, M. (Ed.) *Audit Cultures: Anthropological studies in accountability, ethics and the academy.* London: Routledge. pp. 57-89.

Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those Who Understand: Knowledge Growth in Teaching. *Educational Researcher,* **15**(2): 4-14.

Shulman, L. S. (1999). Knowledge and Teaching: Foundations of the New Reform, in Leach, J. and Moon, B. (Eds.) *Learners & Pedagogy.* London: Paul Chapman Publishing & The Open University. pp. 61-77.

Shumar, W. (1997). *College for Sale: A Critique of the Commodification of Higher Education,* London: The Falmer Press.

Skeggs, B. (1991). Postmodernism: what is all the fuss about? *British Journal of Sociology of Education,* **12**(2): 255-67.

Skeggs, B. (1995). Situating the Production of Feminist Ethnography, in Maynard, M. and Purvis, J. (Eds.) *Researching Women's Lives from a Feminist Perspective.* London: Taylor & Francis. pp. 72-92.

Slaughter, S. and Rhoades, G. (2004). *Academic Capitalism and the New Economy: Markets, State, and Higher Education,* Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Smeby, J.-C. (1998). Knowledge Production and Knowledge Transmission. The interaction between research and teaching at universties. *Teaching in Higher Education,* **3**(1): 5-20.

Smith, M. (1999). After Managerialism: Towards a Conception of the School as an Educational Community. *Journal of Philosophy of Education,* **33**(3): 317-36.

Smith, S. N., Miller, R. J. and Crassini, B. (1998). Approaches to Studying of Australian and Overseas Chinese University Students. *Higher Education Research and Development,* **17**(3): 261-76.

Spady, W. G. (1970). Dropouts from Higher Education: An Interdisciplinary Review and Synthesis. *Interchange,* **1**(1): 64-85.

Spady, W. G. (1971). Dropouts from Higher Education: Toward an Empirical Model. *Interchange,* **2**(3): 38-62.

Stothart, C. (2006). Top cop gets £20K more than professor. *The Times Higher Education Supplement,* 12th May, p. 6.

Strauss, A. and Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques,* Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Strauss, A. and Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory,* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Talbot, M. (1994). A Most Dangerous Method. *Lingua Franca,* **January/February**: 24-40.

Tanabe, C. (1999). Social Power and Education. *Philosophy of Education (1998)*: 145-53.

Tapper, T. and Palfreyman, D. (2000). *Oxford and the Decline of the Collegiate Tradition,* London: Woburn Press.

Terenzini, P. T. and Pascarella, E. T. (1994). Living with Myths: Undergraduate Education in America. *Change,* **January/February**: 28-32.

Therborn, G. (1982). *The ideology of Power and the power of Ideology,* London: Verso.

Thornton, M. (2001a). The demise of diversity in legal education: Globalisation and the new knowledge economy. *International Journal of the Legal Profession,* **8**(1): 37-56.

Thornton, M. (2001b). Among the Ruins: Law in the Neo-Liberal Academy. *The Windsor Yearbook of Access to Justice,* **XX**(OFFPRINTS): 3-23.

Thornton, M. (2002). *Inhabiting a Political Economy of Uncertainty: Academic Life in the 21st Century,* Lecture at the Institute of Advanced Legal Studies, School of Advanced Study - University of London, Wednesday 27th November.

Tinto, V. (1975). Dropout from Higher Education: A Theoretical Synthesis of Recent Research. *Review of Educational Research,* **45**(1): 89-125.

Tjosvold, D. and Fabrey, L. (1980). Motivation for perspective taking: effects of interdependence and dependence on interest in learning others' intentions. *Psychological Reports,* **46**: 755-65.

Trigwell, K. (2005). Teaching-research relations, cross-disciplinary collegiality and student learning. *Higher Education,* **49**: 235-54.

Trigwell, K. and Prosser, M. (1991). Improving the quality of student learning: the influence of learning context and student approaches to learning on learning outcomes. *Higher Education,* **22**: 251-66.

Trigwell, K. and Prosser, M. (1996). Changing Approaches to Teaching: a relational perspective. *Studies in Higher Education,* **21**(3): 275-84.

Trigwell, K. and Ashwin, P. (2006). An exploratory study of situated conceptions of learning and learning environments. *Higher Education,* **51**: 243-58.

Trigwell, K., Prosser, M. and Taylor, P. (1994). Qualitative differences in approaches to teaching first year university science. *Higher Education,* **27**: 75-84.

Trigwell, K., Prosser, M. and Waterhouse, F. (1999). Relations between teachers' approaches to teaching and students' approaches to learning. *Higher Education,* **37**: 57-70.

Troman, G. (2000). Teacher Stress in the Low-Trust Society. *British Journal of Sociology of Education,* **21**(3): 331-53.

Trow, M. (1994a). Managerialism and the Academic Profession: The Case of England. *Higher Education Policy,* **7**(2): 11-18.

Trow, M. (1994b). *Managerialism and the Academic Profession: Quality and Control,* Report: London: Quality Support Centre.

Trowler, P. and Cooper, A. (2002). Teaching and Learning Regimes: Implicit theories and recurrent practices in the enhancement of teaching and learning through educational development programmes. *Higher Education Research and Development,* **21**(3): 221-40.

Trowler, P. R. (1998). *Academics Responding to Change: New Higher Education Frameworks and Academic Cultures,* Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE) & Open University Press.

Tysome, T. (2006). Workloads 'go through roof'. *The Times Higher Education Supplement,* 6th October, p. 1 and 9.

Tysome, T. (2007a). Learn to perform like a Hollywood star. *The Times Higher Education Supplement,* 6th October, p. 7.

Tysome, T. (2007b). 24/7 demand leaves staff besieged: stress levels mount as demands on academics soar. *The Times Higher Education Supplement,* 32nd March, pp. 6-7.

University and College Union (UCU). (2006). Bureaucracy is killing higher education warns poll, *University and College Union.* http://www.ucu.org.uk/index.cfm?articleid=1888 (Accessed on: 2nd January 2007).

Usher, R. (1997). Seductive Texts: Competence, Power and Knowledge in Postmodernity, in Barnett, R. and Griffin, A. (Eds.) *The End of Knowledge in Higher Education.* London: Cassell. pp. 99-111.

Vidal, J. and Quintanilla, M. A. (2000). The teaching and research relationship within an institutional evaluation. *Higher Education,* **40**: 217-29.

Volkwein, J. F. and Carbone, D. A. (1994). The Impact of Departmental Research and Teaching Climates on Undergraduate Growth and Satisfaction. *The Journal of Higher Education*, **65**(2): 147-67.

Walker, M. (2001a). Reconstructing Professionalism in University Teaching: Doing Other/wise, in Walker, M. (Ed.) *Reconstructing Professionalism in University Teaching: Teachers and Learners in Action.* Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press. pp. 191-201.

Walker, M. (2001b). Action Research for Equity in Teaching and Learning, in Walker, M. (Ed.) *Reconstructing Professionalism in University Teaching: Teachers and Learners in Action.* Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press. pp. 21-38.

Walker, M. (Ed.) (2001c). *Reconstructing Professionalism in University Teaching: Teachers and Learners in Action,* Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE) & Open University Press.

Walkerdine, V. (1992). Progressive Pedagogy and Political Struggle, in Luke, C. and Gore, J. (Eds.) *Feminism and Critical Pedagogy.* New York: Routledge. pp. 15-24.

Watkins, D. A. and Biggs, J. B. (Eds.). (1996). *The Chinese Learner: Cultural, Psychological and Contextual Influences,* Hong Kong: CERC & ACER.

Webber, M. (2006). Transgressive pedagogies? Exploring the difficult realities of enacting feminist pedagogies in undergraduate classrooms in a Canadian university. *Studies in Higher Education*, **31**(4): 453-67.

Wellington, J. and Wellington, B. (1962). What is a question? *The Clearing House*, **36**: 471-72.

Wengraf, T. (2004). *Qualitative Research Interviewing: Biographic Narrative and Semi-Structured Methods,* London: Sage Publications.

White, N. R. (2007). 'The customer is always right?' Student discourse about higher education in Australia. *Higher Education*, **54**: 593-604.

Wingate, U. (2007). A Framework for Transition: Supporting 'Learning to Learn' in Higher Education. *Higher Education Quarterly*, **61**(3): 391-405.

Wolf, E. S. (1989). The Psychoanalytic Self Psychologist Looks at Learning, in Field, K., Cohler, B. J. and Wool, G. (Eds.) *Learning and Education: Psychoanalytic Perspectives.* Madison: International Universities Press. pp. 377-93.

Woodrow, D. and Sham, S. (2001). Chinese Pupils and Their Learning Preferences. *Race Ethnicity and Education,* **4**(4): 377-94.

Woollett, A. and Phoenix, A. (1996). Motherhood as Pedagogy: Developmental Psychology and the Accounts of Mothers of Young Children, in Luke, C. (Ed.) *Feminisms and Pedagogies of Everyday Life.* New York: State University of New York Press. pp. 80-102.

Yow, V. R. (1994). *Recording Oral History: a practical guide for social scientists,* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Zamorski, B. (2002). Research-led Teaching and Learning in Higher Education: a case. *Teaching in Higher Education,* **7**(4): 411-27.

Zeni, J. (1998). A Guide to Ethical Issues and Action Research. *Educational Action Research,* **6**(1): 9-19.

Annex I

Participants' pseudonyms and sociological characteristics used in my study

Participants' pseudonyms	Female	Male	Home	International
Raja		√		√
Bruce		√	√	
Mizzy	√			√
Maryam	√			√
Mian	√			√
Naomi	√		√	
Amanda	√		√	
Thomas		√	√	
Patricia	√		√	
Maurice		√		√
Charlotte	√		√	
Tina	√		√	
Ang		√		√
Natalie	√		√	
Emma	√		√	
Aziz		√		√
Han	√			√
Jessica	√		√	
Samina	√			√
Bushra	√			√
Spyros		√		√
Mushtaq		√		√
George		√	√	
Sophie	√		√	
Leah	√		√	
Guan	√			√
Niu	√			√
Najma	√			√
Hao	√			√
Rabia	√			√
Wang	√			√
Gisela	√			√
Victoria	√		√	
Astrid	√			√
Alexandra	√			√
Despina	√			√
Tam		√		√
Michael		√	√	
Rebecca	√		√	
Hiam	√			√
Jodie	√		√	
Lee		√	√	
Kelly	√		√	