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THE 1ST ANNUAL FORUM
FOR UNIVERSITY TEACHING

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Towards Better Univrersity Teaching

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

Preface

The relationship between the teacher and the taught in the university pedagogy has undergone a tremendous transformation during the recent decades. Classroom lectures have no more remained a monotonous repetition of phrases by the same person standing in front of chalkboard every day. Today, student is the center of educational activity. The introduction of computerized gadgetry and new initiatives in the educational techniques has revolutionized modes of pedagogy. This, subsequently, has opened up new vistas of attainment for the human mind. The student-teacher equation, too, has undergone a complete metamorphosis.

Today's student has become more inquisitive, more wanting, and the teacher more open, more willing to impart. The edifice of higher education today is erected upon three basic foundations: peer consultation, active learning, and incentive of scholarship in teaching and learning.

Sometimes the teacher, despite being well-versed, can not employ proper techniques of teaching methodology. His teaching sessions do not produce expected results, making it necessary for him to speak on the matter to one of his experienced colleagues, and get his advice. The learning process is improved through this peer consultation.

Also gone are the days when students sat as silent listeners to every word uttered by their professors. Now pedagogy has introduced new trends. The student listens, but he speaks, and acts, too. He practices what he ponders, and draws conclusions from what he experiments. He has become an active learner.

Time has never stood still. And with it, the field of education has made strides. Universities have always remained the centers of higher studies and research of any nation. In parallel, faculty profession enhancement endeavors have been developed to coop with the universities demands and ambitious plans. Teaching and learning development centers have been established and many creative initiatives have been launched.

Staff have also stood in need of upgrading their knowledge. It is, therefore, imminent that they be periodically offered scholarships to conduct their studies in the latest modes of university pedagogy.

King Saud University, arguably the best in the Arab World today, boasts of having achieved all these criteria in the shortest time possible. The Deanship of Skills Development is proud to be a part of these endeavors.

The First Annual Forum on University Teaching aims at not only inviting scholarly views of eminent pedagogues on various aspects of university teaching but also letting them know of the endeavors being put here at King Saud University in achieving scholastic excellence.

The Deanship of Skills Development is thankful to the University Rector, Dr. Abdullah Al Othman, without whose continued patronage, we wouldn't have been able to hold this event. We are also grateful to all the speakers and the participants who were able to spare their invaluable time for us.

Thank you very much once again.

Dr. Mohammed Ahmed Al Sudairi
Dean, Skills Development.

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About Speaker

James Rhem, Ph.D.

Executive Editor, The National Teaching and Learning FORUM, USA

In 1990 James Rhem created The National Teaching & Learning FORUM, publication devoted to discussion of college teaching and learning. Earlier in his career, Dr. Rhem had created The Teaching Professor and a number of other publications for higher education well known in the United States. The FORUM differs from these earlier efforts. It's articles are longer and more intellectually rich and varied. Indeed, the FORUM has been praised for its leadership in the conversation about college teaching and learning in the United States. Dr. Rhem has keynoted both national and regional conferences on faculty development and teaching, and worked with the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and Learning. Dr. Rhem took his Ph.D. in English Literature at the University of Wisconsin-Madison in 1979. He has taught at the University of Wisconsin and at a number of colleges in the Midwest. His independent scholarship is in the history of photography where he has published several books, including an award-winning study of Ralph Eugene Meatyard's "The Family Album of Lucybelle Crater" in 2002.

Veronica Bamber

Director of CAP, Queen Margret University, Edinburgh, UK

Dr Roni Bamber is Director of the Centre for Academic Practice at Queen Margaret University, Edinburgh (http://www.qmu.ac.uk/). The Centre for Academic Practice is responsible for enhancing learning, teaching and research at the University. Previously Roni was Director of Educational Development at Heriot-Watt University. She has worked as an educational developer for ten years, and has participated in numerous national initiatives, including the Scottish Enhancement Themes (http://www.enhancementthemes.ac.uk/). Prior to this, Roni was a lecturer in Spanish for 18 years, teaching in four different universities around the UK.

Roni's current research relates to universities as organizations, the development of staff, and the evaluation of development programmes. Recent books include Enhancing Learning, Teaching, Assessment and Curriculum in Higher Education (2009) (http://mcgraw-hill.co.uk/html/0335233759. html); Reconceptualising Evaluation in Higher Education: The Practice Turn (2011) (http://www. mcgraw-hill.co.uk/html/0335241611.html; and Tribes and Territories in the 21st-century: Rethinking the significance of disciplines in higher education (forthcoming, January 2012), all jointly with Professors Paul Trowler and Murray Saunders.

د / محمد السديري

عمادة تطوير المهارات - جامعة الملك سعود

عميد عمادة تطوير المهارات بجامعة الملك سعود، وأكاديمياً يعمل استاذاً مشاركاً بكلية إدارة الأعمال تخصص «نظم المعلومات الإدارية»، لديه العديد من الاهتمامات البحثية والأبحاث العلمية المنشورة في مجلات ومؤتمرات محلية ودولية في مجال التخصص وفي مجال التطوير الأكاديمي والقيادة.

أسس عمادة تطوير المهارات بجامعة الملك سعود، عمل مستشاراً غير متفرغاً في وزارة التعليم العالي، ومستشاراً غير متفرغاً في مؤسسة عكاظ للصحافة و النشر. عضو في العديد من الجمعيات العلمية والمهنية كعضو، وجمعية التدريب، والجمعية البريطانيةللتطوير المهني لأعضاء هيئة التدريس SEDA، الجمعية الأمريكية للتدريب والتطوير ASTD، والشبكة الأمريكية للتطوير المهني لمؤسسات التعليم العالي POD، كما شارك في عضوية ورئاسة العديد من اللجان الخاصة بالتطوير التعليمي والأكاديمي داخل وخارج الجامعة.   له عدد من الكتب المؤلفة في مجال التخصص وفي مجال التطوير الأكاديمي ، وايضاً العديد من المقالات الصحفية في مجال التدريب والتقنية وتطبيقاتها القيادة والشؤون الاجتماعية.

David Hay

Senior Lecturer, King's College London

David is a Senior Lecturer in Higher Education at King's Learning Institute, King's College London. He is also Assistant Director for Research there. His current work involves studies of the epistemic cultures of the sciences and the academic practices of other subjects like History and Classics. David is particularly interested in the ways that pedagogy may make research-like practice available to student and his work addresses the issues of relationship that potentially include the students in our academic practice.

Ian Kinchin
Senior Lecturer, King's College London

Dr Kinchin taught Biology and then Science Education for twenty years before moving in 2004 to King's Learning Institute (KLI) at King's College London. He is currently Assistant Director of KLI where he teaches and researches on various aspects of Academic Development. His academic interests are in the application of a knowledge-structures-perspective on teaching and learning as revealed through the qualitative analysis of concept maps generated by teachers and students. Within this work, Ian has developed a dual-processing model of professional expertise that he is currently seeking to exploit to produce materials for the support of the expert student (= one who recognises the existence and complementary purposes of different knowledge structures, and seeks to integrate them in the application of practice). This work aims to tackle the educational status quo in which Ian has described traditional universities as 'centres of non-learning'. Much of Ian's research is currently in collaboration with the Dental Institute at King's College and also with colleagues in various bio-science and clinical discipines. Ian Holds a B.Sc. in Biology; an M.Phil in Zoology and a Ph.D. in Science Education. He has published over 100 papers in the fields of Zoology, Science Education and Academic Development.

د / لطيفة بنت صالح السميري

أستاذ المناهج العامة بقسم المناهج وطرق التدريس – كلية التربية – جامعة الملك سعود.

شغلت عدة مناصب إدارية في جامعة الملك سعود وجامعة أم القرى آخرها وكيلة كلية التربية بجامعة الملك سعود. لها كتابان وعدة بحوث منشورة في مجال التخصص، كما أشرفت على وناقشت عدد من رسائل الدكتوراه والماجستير. عضو في عدد من اللجان العلمية والتطويرية داخل وخارج الجامعة.

Gill Jones
PGCE, PCET, MA PCET, FHEA
Director of Enterprise, Cardiff School of Education

Gill is a member of the School's Senior Management Planning Team and a member of the Cardiff School of Education Directorate. Gill's primary role is to work with academic staff within the Cardiff School of Education to promote enterprise activity. This is considered to be part of the university's mission for Innovation and Engagement. Gill develops links between pedagogy, research and enterprise for the School.

Gill also lectures on the portfolio of programmes that relate to Post-compulsory Education & Training. She has gained vast experience in working with lecturers and vocational teacher trainers who wish to develop their skills as practitioners. Gill is innovative in her approach and advocates the use of creativity in the design and delivery of courses. Gill has taught on the Post-graduate Certificate in Post-compulsory Education and Training (PGCE PCET) for 13 years and instils best practices in her students.

From an institutional perspective, Gill was the Programme Director for the PGCE/Cert Ed PCET programmes. Gill makes a contribution to UWIC's Quality systems with involvement in committees/ panels such as Mitigating Circumstances and Unfair Practice.

At School level, she has been instrumental in developing the International Staff Development programme which includes courses such as the high profile Quality and Accreditation in Higher Education programme, the Managing Quality: an International Perspective, the Strategic Planning in Higher Education and, more recently the delivery of the Post-graduate Certificate Learning, Teaching and Assessing. In 2011, Gill received a delegation from the NCAAA (National Council for Academic Accreditation and Assessment) and in June 2011 presented a keynote speech at the 3rd AROQAE (Arab Organisation for Quality Assurance in Education) conference 'Towards Harnessing Quality in Education and Research'; entitled 'Quality Assurance: Developing the Capability of Academic Staff and Senior Managers'.

1 ⬦ **Peer Observation:**

Peer Observation and Review

James Rhem, Ph.D.

Executive Editor, The National Teaching and Learning FORUM, USA

THE 1ST ANNUAL FORUM FOR UNIVERSITY TEACHING

Towards Better Univrersity Teaching

The larger concept of peer observation and review has always been with us. We live and work in a larger world, a community of peers whose judgment assess and evaluate our efforts and achievements on many levels. In the academic world peer review has always been part of scholarship. Peers review and assess our work, decide when and where it will be published and, following publication, have much to do with establishing the importance of the work within the scholarly discourse in our disciplinary area whatever that is. Peers, thus, play a valuable role, even an essential role in maintaining the integrity and vitality of scholarship. The same has not been true of our teaching.

For generations the presumption about teaching has been that if one knew his or her material, had command of the content knowledge, the ability to teach that knowledge would naturally follow. This presumption has continued in many, perhaps most, academic cultures despite the fact that, as individuals, we have always known it was not true. Everyone has had "good teachers" and "bad teachers." We have always known that the ability to teach well was not directly related to intelligence or mastery of content knowledge or skills in research or even in writing. We might speculate endlessly on what caused us to cloak ourselves in this mistaken presumption. Was it ego? Were we afraid to admit we might not be as skilled as teachers as we were in our research? Whatever the reasons may have been, in the last twenty years the tide has turned and more and more campuses have begun to embrace a variety of practices known collectively as "the peer review of teaching."

There was a time when teaching was not reviewed very probingly at all. As the pressure for accountability increased – the pressure to "deliver a better product" – more and more urgent calls for teaching to be reviewed and assessed critically were heard. A first response to these calls in the United States was the institution of student evaluations of teaching. The practice of having students file evaluation forms at the end of a course quickly became almost universal. But while these have been proven to have value and validity, faculty has always had various objections to them. Faculty rightly complains that such evaluations give only a partial picture of what goes on in a course. And these reviews come at the end of a course, offering only a static, summative view. And in many places much too much weight is often given to this single measure of teaching effectiveness.

Recognizing the limits of student evaluations alone, many campuses began to add class room visits and observations to their efforts to evaluate effective teaching. Sadly, in most places a single classroom visit was made and a single report filed, once again resulting in a very narrow sample and limited view of a professor's performance as a teacher in conducting a course of study. These

classroom visits became known as "drive bys" or "parachute drops."

In the late 1980s and early 1990s in the United States, a group of top leaders in higher education began to look at effective teaching more methodically, utilizing more measures, more samples and with a view turned more toward "formative assessment" than toward "summative judgment." Perhaps the strongest inspiration for this effort lay in the work of Lee Schulman, Charles E. Ducommun Professor of Education at Stanford University. Schulman had done important work studying medical education and the diagnostic skills and practices of physicians. He made extensive observations seeking to find when doctors were at their best, in what contexts were they effective and why. This approach of looking long and hard at the whole sweep of the teaching involved set the mode of inquiry he then helped the American Association of Higher Education undertake into the peer review of teaching in 1994. That project, directed by Patricia Hutchings, a member of the editorial board of The *National Teaching and Learning FORUM*, has been the cornerstone, the seed, from which efforts to establish the peer review of teaching in the United States have grown.

From the start, this seminal project embraced these two foundational ideas: First, that other faculty who were also teaching students were best qualified to assess effective teaching, and second, that the entire sweep of elements involved in teaching a course needed to be taken into account in forming any useful review of that teaching. Only faculty, it was felt, where in the best position to understand all the complexities of any teaching situation, and thus, other faculty were best positioned by their own experience to offer useful observations. And at the same time, it was understood that a drop-in visit could give only a very partial picture of teaching effectiveness; thus, it would be necessary to look at the entire range of material, all the evidence, relating to the teaching of a course in order to begin to assess the effectiveness of the teaching.

In truth the deep aim beneath the peer review of teaching is not the development of a method for forming judgments about individual teachers and how well they teach. The deep aim is the beginning of an open, positive, -- indeed generative - discourse on teaching, the forming of an academic culture in which teaching is openly discussed and richly valued. In such a culture the prevailing attitude would be primarily formative rather than summative; that is to say, teaching would be regarded as "a practice" much in the way medicine is regarded. The underlying assumptions would be that improvement was always possible and desirable and that working together, supporting one another in the effort, good teachers would always find ways to become even better teachers.

Thus the project began by soliciting eleven major campuses across the country as participants - such schools as Stanford University, Temple University, and the Universities of Michigan and Wisconsin. And it called upon a full range of departments or academic specialties, including the "hard sciences" (math and chemistry), the humanities (English and history), as well as professional schools (nursing, engineering, computer science, accounting).

In addition to Schulman's work, one of the most important documents leading to and shaping the investigation of peer review was Ernst Boyer's book, "The Scholarship of Teaching." Few had acknowledged teaching as an expression of scholarship before this influential book appeared. Few can do otherwise since its publication. Boyer's work in particular shaped the first of three important exercises undertaken by the participants in the Stanford summer institute. That first exercise was called "Teaching as Scholarship: Reflections on a Syllabus." Participants were asked to begin to regard teaching not as technique or presentational method, but as "the kind of serious intellectual invention we associate with scholarly work." And so they were asked to bring a syllabus for one of their courses along with a reflective memo they were to compose on the design and construction of that syllabus. In addition, to begin the process of peers working with peers, each participant had been assigned a teammate for the conference. That teammate shared a syllabus and memo of his own and each participant was asked to also bring a written commentary on his teammate's work.

The assignment for the second of the three exercises was sent to participants a few weeks later. It followed on logically from the first. It asked participants to select a telling episode or particular incident of classroom practice that revealed something distinctive about their approach to teaching in their field. Perhaps they might chose a laboratory demonstration aimed at teaching a key concept. Perhaps they might select an assigned group activity, a follow-up lecture or discussion. Whatever they selected they were asked to document it in one of three ways: videotape it, have a colleague visit and report on it, or construct a narrative case study about it. And each of these documents or artifacts was, again, to be accompanied by a reflective memo. This memo was to respond to one of the following prompts:

1) Why did you choose to document this particular classroom episode? What is it meant to be evidence of?

2) What context is needed to understand the sample? Where are we in the unfolding of the semester? How does the sample relate to what proceeded in the days/weeks before and how does it connect with what will follow in the next week?

3) What where your goals for this day? Did the class go as planned? How so? Why? Did you have to change direction and if so why?

4) What does the sample say about your teaching? Does it show your characteristic style? A distinctive approach? Would others in your field be likely to teach this material differently? Were you trying something new?

This exercise sought to move the investigation of peer review deeper in two ways. First it sought to sharpen skills of critical observation and thought about teaching methods, and second it sought to prompt thinking about the larger conceptual issues involved in making assessments of the quality of teaching. It asked the teams to consider what they had learned about their own teaching through this exercise, especially as they had compared it and the different methods (both teaching method and method of documentation) of their teammate. Was one more successful than the other? Why? Was each successful in a different way? How so? Beyond these local and particular considerations, participants were asked to consider the question of appropriate and best criteria for judging classroom practice. What matters most: the significance of the topic to the field? The teacher's creativity and originality? Accuracy of the teacher's construal of the material?

What other dimensions might properly influence the judgment of the quality of classroom teaching? Should the criteria vary for teachers approaching a course for the first time versus teachers who've taught the course many times? In other words should junior faculty be judged against the same criteria as senior faculty? Are the same standards used for judging scholarly research appropriate to teaching? If so, which ones? Why or why not?

The third and final exercise focused on student learning. The first two exercises looked at how faculty designed and proposed their teaching (as shown in their syllabus) and how they set about conducting their teaching (through documentation of actual classroom practice). In this exercise they were asked to bring a student assignment, that is to say instructions they had given for a student project, a paper, a problem set, a classroom assessment, computer simulation and so on ⁻ something that had been assigned in order to elicit evidence of some important aspect of the learning they had intended for their students in one of their courses. Together with the assignment, they were asked to attach several samples of student work, samples that illustrated the full range of responses to the assignment together with the feedback faculty had given to the students on their work.

And once again, participants were asked to draft a reflective memo (35- pages) commenting on the assignment and what the students' work revealed about their learning.

These three initial exercises undertaken by the eleven participating campuses brought to light four basic findings about peer review, useful findings, basic findings that set the stage not only for the course the project followed to its conclusion and the book on the subject that presented them to a wider audience, but also set the stage for the spread of peer review initiatives begun on other campuses all across the United States. These basic (and encouraging) findings were:

1) With the right "prompts," faculty want to talk to colleagues about teaching.

2) The combination of a product or "artifact" of teaching with the faculty member's reflec-
    tive commentary about it is a powerful model for documentation.

3) It is possible to document teaching excellence in ways that also allow candid self-reflection and improvement.

4) The best ways to prompt and frame the conversation about teaching depend in part on the discipline.

The Stanford Institute and the AAHE project on the peer review of teaching lay out the best introduction to a careful, thoughtful, humane exploration of this topic. Examining this work and the findings that followed and the experience of campuses that took this work as their starting point gives an encouraging picture of what can be gained from teachers working together to review and improve their work as teachers. Peer review emerges as a process that taps one of the most valuable assets academic communities have, that is to say each other, in the common purpose of effectively passing on and expanding our understanding of creation.

Peer observation and consultation as a tool for enhancing teaching across the disciplines

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There is a link between academics developing their skills and knowledge, and student learning. This session will provide an opportunity to think about the different ways in which peer observation and consultation can provide powerful evidence and inspiration to enhance teaching and student learning. We will also consider the potential impact of peer observation and consultation on collegial working and institutional ethos.

Introduction

Peer Observation and Consultation (POC) is very common in UK universities, where it is used, as a minimum, with new lecturing staff, as part of the assessment of the lecturer development programmes (eg PG Cert in Learning and Teaching) which they attend as a probationary requirement. For more experienced staff, POC offers a unique opportunity to 'see over the garden fence' into other people's classrooms. POC is an important tool for academic continuing professional development (CPD), as this paper will show.

The UK Dearing Report (NCIHE, 1997) brought recommendations about professionalisation and training for lecturers, although there was opposition from the start to the notion of mandatory training. Although the provision of CPD for other professions is part of academics' practice, they are often still resistant to their own continuing professional development (Elton, 2002; Trowler and Bamber, 2005). While there is a place for formal, centrally provided learning and development, much knowledge in universities is acquired through a process of social construction between colleagues. The acquisition of that knowledge takes place in many informal ways, including through experience (Eraut, 1985). This is where Peer Observation and Consultation is useful: it provides a framework for academics to undertake professional development which is contextually relevant, collegial and bottom-up. POC is also a valuable source of evidence for those who wish to submit individual applications for accreditation against the UK's national Professional Standards Framework (PSF) (HEA, 2006).

In a survey of Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development members, it was found that the most popular CPD activities were reading books and journals, followed by work-based and organisationally located informal learning (Rothwell and Arnold, 2005: 28). The most favoured activities tended to be "those that occur naturally as part of everyday work" (Rothwell and Arnold, 2005: 28). Academics probably don't differ from this pattern, which means that POC is likely to be an acceptable form of CPD for them.

So, in many UK universities, academics are encouraged to engage with peer review in support of their own CPD and to enhance student learning, even though there is as yet limited published evidence that this is effective in HE. This is in sharp contrast to the CPD of school teachers, which is strongly state-controlled and includes POC as a basis for gaining This paper will outline briefly how POC is done in universities, and what the benefits are for students.

How is POC used?

Peer review can take the form of peer observation of teaching, moderation of assessment design or peer review of curriculum / assessment design. In the case of POC, this can be formative or summative. Formatively, POC aims to improve teaching and learning through acting on peer review and feedback. The intended outcomes are to:

- Evaluate and gather evidence from practice
- Develop the teacher and observer's repertoire of teaching methods
- Improve the quality of teaching practices
- Improve the quality of student learning.

Summatively, POC can be used to assess teaching performance. For example, at the University of Texas (University of Texas, no date) POC is assessed and contributes to an academic's profile for promotion as part of their overall teaching record. However, in most UK universities POC is not used summatively, since the objective is to use POC to enhance learning.

Principles behind PO

PO, then, usually takes the form of a confidential, collegial exchange of views between two (or sometimes three) academics. The 'learning contract' is that both the peer observer and the person being observed are there to learn. There is certainly plenty of anecdotal evidence that participants in POC gain a lot from the process, particularly when it is formative only:

"*I am a trained peer reviewer at my University. From experience I learn as much from the process and experience, as the colleague being reviewed. It's mutually beneficial. Peer observation sparks new ideas and makes you think how things can be done better or at least differently.*" James Derounian, *National Teaching Fellow, University of Gloucester* (*Race et al,* 2009: 9)

POC in Practice

The mechanics of POC are:

- two (or three) academics agree to observe each other.
- They arrange to attend each other's class

- Before the class, they meet and discuss the logistics of observing, and whether the person being observed would like a particular focus to be taken
- During the class, the observer takes notes using a form (and never normally intervenes in the class in any way)
- After the class, they debrief: what the observee felt went well or not so well, the observer's feedback, and what they both learned from the experience
- The observee keeps the observer's notes, perhaps adding them to his / her portfolio.

This experience can help academics 'get out of their (disciplinary) box', and gain a powerful insight into other people's teaching. I once had an experience where a Head of Department of Languages complained about a member of their staff being observed by a lecturer in Mechanical Engineering - but the two lecturers were very happy with the arrangement, since, for once, they were getting to see teaching in other subject areas. There are a number of other benefits: positive feedback reinforces good practices, and an academic's confidence can be built by this positive reinforcement. Also, we can share problems with our colleagues and get good ideas from them as to how to solve the problem - or, at least, empathy, if they are experiencing the same problem. We also have the salutory experience of remembering what it feels like to be a student.

But how does PO enhance students' learning?

Critical reflection

A major benefit for your students is that you take time out to watch and reflect. We often don't take time in our busy lives to deliberately reflect, but

Ongoing use of reflection is essential for building knowledge, and increasing knowledge increases one's ability to use reflection effectively and to develop as a teacher. (*McAlpine & Weston,* 2000)

In the classroom situation, especially for novice lecturers, it can be hard to 'think on your feet', what Schön (1983) calls 'reflecting in action'. An experienced lecturer can think "This isn't going well. I'll do something else instead" and adapt, right in the middle of a class. For less experienced lecturers, this comes later, with practice and when their confidence and repertoire have grown. What can be done by all lecturers, however, is what Schön (1983) calls 'reflecting on action' - "Next time I'll…".

Peer observation provides a structure for mutual reflection on action. As an example, Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle1 (Figure 1, below) can be followed in the POC process:

- At Stage 1, Concrete Experience happens, for example when an observer notes that the students don't participate in a class.

- Stage 2, Reflective Observation, takes place in the post-observation debrief, when the

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1 - For further information on Kolb, see, for example, the tutorial at http://www.ldu.leeds.ac.uk/ldu/sddu_multimedia/kolb/kolb_flash.htm

observing pair discuss lack of student participation, and afterwards, when they take their thoughts away.

- Stage 3, Abstract Conceptualisation, happens later perhaps when the observee reads some theory or empirical data about student participation.

- Stage 4, Planning Experimentation, takes place when the observee tries out some new methods for encouraging participation.

Figure 1: Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle
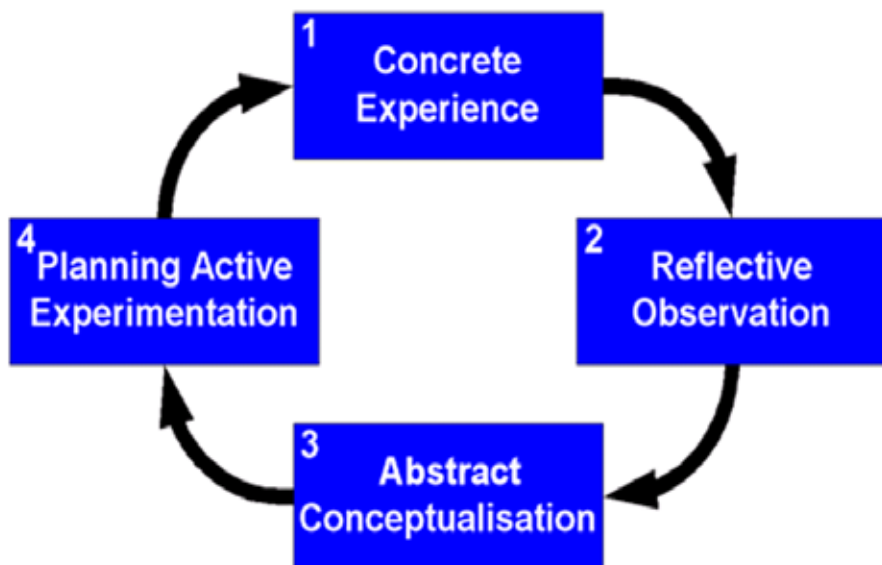
Making the most of POC for student learning

Benefits for students can take the form of the lecturer improving many different aspects of their teaching practice. Some examples of practices which I have seen lecturers improving as a result of POC are:

- Time management

- Classroom management

- Group interaction

- Student participation

- Use of resources (such as Powerpoint)

- Keeping students engaged

- Use of voice

- Use of questions (which we are notoriously bad at).

The following quote shows that very practical outcomes can come from the process of reflecting on PO:

> *I would say that I learned some of my best 'moves' in the classroom from peer observation. I learned to work the room. What this means is that I now know that the physical presence has a role to play in directing, guiding, and enthusing students. By watching a much more experienced lecturer, I realised that by not standing or sitting at the front, but by moving around, sitting among [the students], or even speaking from the back of the room, the students seem more attentive and more inclined to ask questions. Nicola Aries, National Teaching Fellow, Kingston University (Race et al, 2009: 9)*

For all of these improvements to take place, the POC process must work well: a good reciprocal relationship between observer and observee, informed discussion, and a willingness to learn. The post-observation debrief must be honest and supportive, and - most importantly - the observee must act on what they have learned. This might mean making notes on lecture materials as to how the session should be run next time, or simply practising in the following classes (for example, to improve use of voice).

POC is not a straightforward process: none of us are used to having observers in our classroom, and it can feel uncomfortable. When used summatively, for promotion purposes, it is downright worrying. Other difficulties are that a one-off experience of POC is limited: it should be part of an ongoing dialogue. But it is hard to find time for reflection, and for attending others' classes. However, if we manage to use POC to best advantage, student learning is certainly enhanced as a result (Gosling, 2005). Some tips on how to ensure that this happens are:

- Take it seriously: POC should not be just a tick-box exercise

- Get the right partner: this is important for reciprocal learning

- Engage in honest reflection in the debriefing

- Try to maintain ongoing discussion with your peer partner after the POC, (eg regarding a particular teaching issue)

- Structure your learning into a Learning Log, and refer to it regularly

- Act on what you have learned: for example, following an observed lecture, adapt your lecture notes before you forget. Don't leave it till you need to give the lecture again next year

- Do some reading around the topics covered. This is where Abstract Conceptualisation takes you beyond the limits of your own knowledge and disciplinary norms.

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2 # Scholarship of Teaching & Learning (SoTL)

بحوث التدريس والتعلم .. مفاهيم وأساسيات
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Scholarship of Teaching and Learning in Practice
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Research-Led Teaching
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Towards Clinical Pedagogy
Ian Kinchin

بحوث التدريس والتعلم

مفاهيم وممارسات عالمية

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THE 1ST ANNUAL FORUM FOR UNIVERSITY TEACHING

Towards Better Univrersity Teaching

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ثالثًا : أكاديمية كرانجي لمنح البحوث في التدريس والتعلم :

The Carnegie Academy for the Scholarship of Teaching & Learning (CASTL)

انطلقت منح التدريس والتعلم عام ١٩٩٨, من خلال رئيس الأكاديمية السابق إِرنست بوير لدعم تطوير منح التدريس والتعلم، والتي ترتكز على التالي :

١ . دعم وتعزيز منح التدريس والتعلم على المدى البعيد لدعم تعلم الطلاب .

٢ . تحسين ممارسة مهنة التدريس .

٣ . منح أعضاء هيئة التدريس في الجامعات الاعتراف، والجوائز تقديرًا لأعمالهم التطويرية في مجال التدريس والتعلم .

رابعًا : مشروع منح التدريس الاسترالية :

خصائص منح التدريس هي :

١ . تعكس المفاهيم والقيم والمبادئ الأساسية والطرق والأنماط الطبيعية للتخصصات المحددة .

٢ . تراعي تقويم التدريس والمخرجات التعليمية .

٣ . تستقصى عن فعالية الأهداف، وتبحث في التدريس والتعلم .

٤ . تستجيب إلى التحسينات المستمرة للتطوير والناتجة من نتائج الأبحاث وتوصياتها .

٥ . تنقل الأسئلة والمعارف الحديثة عن التدريس والتعلم .

٢ . تطبيق مزاولة منح التدريس والتعلم في البرامج التعليمية والقاعات الدراسية

٣ . تقييم مخرجات التعلم وكفاءة التدريس

٤ . تصميم وإجراء البحوث الخاصة بمشكلات التدريس والتعلم .

٥ . الاشتراك مع الجامعات الأخرى في نشر ثقافة منح التدريس والتعلم و نشر مخرجاتها البحثية

ثانيًا : جامعة آيوا

في جامعة ولاية آيوا، تساهم المنح SoTL في اكتشاف المعرفة حول التدريس والتعلم بالجامعة أو بالتعليم العالي بالعموم، ويجب أن تتمسك بنفس الصرامة والمهنية والمعايير البحثية كمراجعة الزملاء، ونشرها في أوعية النشر المختلفة كما هو متبع في أبحاث التخصص، وتكون بحوث التدريس والتعلم SoTL جزءًا مهمًا مِنْ عملية التعيين في الجامعة ومد الخدمة والترقية . والجدول التالي يوضح الفرق بينهما

بحوث التدريس والتعلم	مهنة التدريس	المهام
+	+	يعمل عضو هيئة التدريس كأستاذ جامعي معتمد وممارس لأدبيات التدريس والتعلم .
+	+	يقوم عضو هيئة التدريس كأستاذ جامعي بتوثيق تعلم الطلاب .
+		يقوم عضو هيئة التدريس كأستاذ جامعي بمشاركة زملائه علنًا في طرق تدريسه .
+		نتائج المخرجات التعليمية لعضو هيئة التدريس تنشر في أوعية نشر مهنية .
+		تراجع أعمال عضو هيئة التدريس من قبل زملائه في التخصص .

عضو هيئة التدريس، مثل:

● لماذا انحرف الطلاب عن المسار المعد لهم و لم يحققوا النتائج المتوقعة؟.

● لماذا أخفق الطلاب في فهم الدرس أو محتويات المادة أو حصولهم على علامات منخفضة؟

● لماذا لا يظهر الطلاب إشارات للتفكير الإبداعي أو مهارات التفكير العليا بالرغم من مجهوداتنا في ذلك؟

● كيف نجعل الطلاب أكثر انتباها في القاعات الدراسية؟

● كيف نجعل الطلاب يقرؤون الكتاب المقرر؟

● ماذا تريد أن يتعلم طلابك قبل خروجك من المحاضرة؟

● تأثير تكوين وحجم الفريق على اكتساب مهارات التعلم التعاوني؟.

● هل تعلم الأقران مناسب؟ وفي أي مرحلة جامعية؟

خبرات عالمية في منح التدريس والتعلم:

أولاً: جامعة إنديانا

خصائص منح التدريس والتعلم في جامعة إنديانا:

١. تعتبر أبحاث منظمة وأنشطة أساسية لتعزيز وتعميق تطبيقات ممارسات التدريس.

٢. يحث على نشر النماذج الحديثة في المعرفة من خلال الأبحاث التي تركز على التطبيقات والممارسات التربوية وسلوكيات الطلاب.

٣. يجب أن تكون مطابقة للمعايير المشابه لدى الجامعات الأخرى والتي تطبق نماذج منح التدريس والتعلم في التخصصات الأكاديمية.

بعض الأنشطة العلمية المدعمة من بحوث التدريس والتعلم من قبل جامعة إنديانا:

١. إيجاد بيئة لثقافة التدريس والتعلم من خلال برنامج قراءة ومناقشة

— مقابلات مصورة .   — ملفات المقررات الدراسية .

— التقييم الطلابي .

كيف يقوم الأستاذ الجامعي بإجراء بحوث التدريس والتعلم؟

للقيام بأبحاث التدريس والتعلم هناك مجموعة من الأسئلة يجب الإجابة عليها، وهي :

١ . ماذا تعلم الطلاب؟ وما الأنشطة التعليمية التي صممت لغرض تعلم الطلاب؟ وكيف يتم تحسين التدريس؟

٢ . إجابة تلك الأسئلةِ تكون من خلال الطريقة المنهجية المنظمة لتحليل نتائج وأوراق تعلم الطلاب .

٣ . شارك نتائج ذلك التحليل علنيًا لغرض دعوة الزملاء لمراجعتها، والإسهام في نشر نتائج تعلم الطلاب من خلال أنشطة وممارسات مختلفة .

وخطوات بحوث التدريس والتعلم هي:

١ . حدد مشكلة تتعلق بالتدريس والتعلم .

٢ . نظم أسئلة البحث بوضوح .

٣ . حضر المراجع والأدبيات الكافية .

٤ . حدد المنهج البحثي الملائم للإجابة على الأسئلة البحثية .

٥ . حلل وقوم النتائج لمعالجة المشكلة البحثية .

٦ . اربط بين نتائج البحث القائم والأبحاث والدراسات الأخرى .

٧ . أنشر النتائج في الأوعية المختلفة وشارك الزملاء فيها .

أفكار وأطروحات ونماذج لأبحاث التدريس والتعلم:

يمكن لأبحاث التدريس والتعلم أن تجيب عن العديد من الأسئلة التي تدور في خلد

‒ تغيير في طرق التقويم المتبعة بالمقرر الدراسي .

‒ تغيير في توقعات الطلاب بالنسبة للمقرر الذي يدرسونه .

‒ توثيق التحسن في تعلم الطلاب .

‒ وضع معايير ومستويات للممارسات التعليمية الجيدة ودرجة إنجاز الطلاب .

أشكال بحوث التدريس والتعلم:

تدعم منح بحوث التدريس والتعلم نوعين رئيسيين، أحدهما بحوث كبيرة والتي تمتد لفترة زمنية طويلة نسبيًا وهي ما تنتهي غالبًا بالنشر العلمي في الدوريات المتخصصة في مجالات التدريس والتعلم الجامعي، وأخرى بسيطة ومحدودة تسعى بشكل رئيس إلى تحسين أحد الجوانب فقط كطريقة التدريس أو التقويم أو غيرها، وتنتهي غالبًا بتقرير ينشر في نشرة التدريس الجامعي داخل الجامعة لتعميم الاستفادة منها أو في منتدى يعقد داخل الجامعة .

إجراء بحوث التدريس والتعلم:

يتبع في إجراء البحوث في مجالات التدريس والتعلم نفس الأسلوب والمنهجية العلمية المتبعة في كثير من البحوث الأكاديمية والتطبيقية في التخصصات المختلفة، وكما هو الحال في توظيف المنهجية المناسبة والحصول على أكبر قدر من الأدلة والبراهين للإجابة عن الأسئلة التي بني عليها البحث، يتم نفس الإجراء مع بحوث التدريس والتعلم .

وفي رحلة جمع البيانات والمعلومات وتحليلها وتفسيرها، فإن مصادر المعلومات التالية وغيرها تكون على درجة عالية من الأهمية لإجراء بحوث التدريس والتعلم:

‒ جمع ومراجعة أعمال الطلاب بشكل دوري .

‒ تصوير القاعة الدراسية والأنشطة التي يؤديها الطلاب بالفيديو .

‒ التركيز على مجموعة عمل من الطلاب كنموذج للتطبيق أو المحاكاة .

‒ مشاهدات التدريس التي يقدمها النظراء المستشارون .

‒ المتابعة المؤسسية "نظام مؤسسي ينفذ بانتظام"، كتقييم الأداء التدريسي أو مخرجات التعلم أو غيرها .

‒ الدراسات المسحية .   ‒ الإستبانات .

– نشر وتشجيع التعليم النشط .

– تشجيع العمل البحثي في مجال التدريس لتحسين التدريس والتعلم .

– تشجيع ودعم البحوث التربوية داخل التخصصات للإجابة عن أسئلة متعلقة بتعلم الطلاب، وإسقاط ذلك على خبرات أعضاء هيئة التدريس، وتبادل المخرجات مع زملائهم .

– الانتقال بمفهوم وثقافة التدريس الجامعي من النمطية إلى التحدي، والعمل الذهني والبحثي الذي يجيب عن الأسئلة والاهتمامات المرتبطة بالتدريس والتعلم .

– الارتقاء بمستوى أعضاء هيئة التدريس في مجال التدريس والتعلم الجامعي من خلال تعميم نتائج هذه البحوث ونشرها على مستوى الجامعة .

– تشكيل شبكة واسعة من أعضاء هيئة التدريس تولي للتدريس والتعلم الجامعي الأهمية اللازمة، وتساهم بشكل فعال في منتدى دوري يعقد في رحاب الجامعة حول التدريس والتعلم الجامعي .

– إحداث نقلة نوعية في التدريس بالجامعة ومن ثم تحسين مخرجات تعلم الطلاب .

– دعم وتعزيز السمعة الطيبة للجامعة وأساتذتها والحفاظ عليها .

– دعم الترقيات والتعيينات الجامعية لأعضاء هيئة التدريس في الجامعة .

مجالات منح بحوث التدريس والتعلم:

١– تطوير أو ابتكار طريقة تدريس أو تعلم حديثة .

٢– إجراء بحث عن أحد تطبيقات طرق التدريس أو التعلم في مجال التخصص انعكاسًا من التجربة الذاتية أو بالمشاركة مع آخرين، وعلاقتها بتعلم الطلاب .

٣– نقل الممارسات الجيدة في التدريس والتعلم بشكل عام، وفي داخل التخصص بشكل خاص .

النتائج المتوقعة من منح بحوث التدريس والتعلم:

أوضح كلًا من هابر وهوتشينجز (Huber, & Hutchings, 2004) أن الانخراط في بحوث التدريس والتعلم الجامعي، تؤدي إلى تحقيق النتائج الآتية:

– تغيير في تصميم المقرر الدراسي .

وإنعكاس تأثير هذه النتائج على الفرد، ومراجعة واستشارة الزملاء (كامبردج، ٢٠٠١).

ويرى كرانتون وكريبر (Kreber, 2000 &Cranton) أن بحوث التدريس والتعلم (SoTL) فيها تعلم مستمر حول كيفية التدريس واكتساب المعارف، بينما يرى رتشلين (Richlin, 2001) بأن المنح التعليمية جزءٌ من العمليات التي تتكون من أجزاء مختارة من التقارير والنتائج [تكامل أو الانعكاس] يتم وضعها في صورة قابلة للنشر في مجلة علمية محكمة أو مؤتمر متخصص، ويرى مارتن بنجامين وبروسير (Benjamin& Trigwell, 1999) أن ثقافة التدريس لها ثلاثة أنشطة هي: ارتباط بالمعرفة الحالية للتدريس والتعلم، وانعكاس ذاتي للتدريس والتعلم في مجال التخصص، واشتراك عام حول الأفكار ومشاريع التدريس والتعلم ضمن التخصص، ويذكر هاتشينز (٢٠٠٢)–عالم كبير في مؤسسةِ Carnegie- أن بحوث التدريس والتعلم SoTL تبنى على العديد من التقاليد القديمة في التعليم العالي تتضمن تقييم البرنامج والمحاضرات وقاعةَ الدراسة وفاعلية التطبيقات والممارسة، ومراجعة الزملاء للتدريس، والبحوث التربوية التقليدية، وجهود تطوير وتحسين عملية التدريس والتعلم، بينما يرى كنشن (Kinchin, 2009) إن أحد أهم مرتكزات ثقافة التعليم والتعلم هي جعل ما يقوم به الأستاذ لإحداث التعلم أكثر رؤية ووضوحًا.

إن البيئة الناشئة للبحوث في التدريس والتعلم أحدثت أشكالاً وطرقًا جديدة لتحسين التدريس، فتعمل بحوث التدريس والتعلم –من خلال الإطلاع ونشر ممارسات التدريس الجيد– إلى تحسين تعلم الطلاب، لذا ينبغي على كل عضو هيئة تدريس أن ينشغل خلال عمله في الجامعة بالأبحاث التي تساعده على تنمية وتحسين طرق تدريسه، وهذا من الأهداف الرئيسية للجامعات، لأن بحوث التدريس والتعلم تحسن في النهاية من تعلم الطلاب، ويحدث ذلك عندما تكون نتائج تلك الأبحاث مرئية للآخرين سواء زملاء مقيمين أو مراجعين أو مناقشين لها أو من زملاء يبنوا على نتائجها ويضيفون للمعرفة فتكون هذه الأبحاث قد أثرت المعرفة العلمية والتطبيقية من الممارسات الجيدة في التدريس والتعلم.

الهدف من منح بحوث التدريس والتعلم:

تمتد بحوث التدريس والتعلم (SoTL) عبر كل التخصصات، وتسهم نتائج منح البحوث في مجال التدريس والتعلم في رفع مستويات الممارسة التعليمية الجيدة، وتقديم الأفكار الجديدة لطرق التدريس والتقويم والمواد التعليمية، وتغيير رؤية الأستاذ وصورته الذهنية من عملية التدريس والتعلم، ومن أهم أهداف منح بحوث التدريس والتعلم ما يلي:

بحوث التدريس والتعلم SoTL:

ما هية بحوث التدريس والتعلم؟

ترتبط بحوث التدريس والتعلم القيام بدراسة منظمة تتعلق بالتدريس أو التعلم والمشاركة العامة وتحكيم هذا العمل ومراجعته من قبل المختصين والزملاء وعرضه في الملتقيات العلمية أو نشره في المجلات العلمية المحكمة أو المؤتمرات المحلية أو الدولية (McKinney, 2007)، وتشمل بحوث التدريس والتعلم جميع التخصصات المختلفة، وجميع المستويات الجامعية، وتسهم في نشر الثقافة والمعارف التربوية بشكل عام، ويتم مراجعتها من قبل المختصين في الحقول المعرفية بشكل علمي من قبل المتخصصين، وبالتالي تنشر هذه النتائج لإثراء المعرفة ويمكن الاستفادة منها في بناء معارف ونظريات علمية إضافية حيث يقوم المختصون بناءً على ما سبق من نتائج من قبل الآخرين في بناء نظريات تربوية تسهم في نمو وازدهار الحقل المعرفي للتخصص (Shulman, 2001)، وتركز بحوث التدريس والتعلم (SoTL) على التدريس والتعلم في مستوى الكلية، والقاعات الدراسية والمستويات التخصصية، وتركز على التطبيقات المثلى للتعليم واستخداماتها لتحسين التدريس.

إن العمل الجاد والدءوب في مجال التدريس الجامعي يبدأ مع الفضول والرغبة في فهم أكثر وأوضح عن ماذا يتعلم وكيف يتعلم الطلاب، وترتبط الإجابة عن هذا السؤال لدى الكثير من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بشكل مباشر بخبرتهم العملية في التدريس وممارستهم اليومية في القاعات الدراسية. وقد تُطرح تلك الأسئلة من خلال التركيز على مقرر بعينه، أو مجموعة من المقررات (محور)، أو على برنامج كامل، وقد يكون التركيز في جانب آخر على نوع محدد من التعلم (مهارة محددة)، أو نوع محدد من الطلاب (المستويات الأولية أو النهائية). وقد تطرح بعض الأسئلة من قبل بعض الأساتذة إسقاطًا على القاعة الدراسية الذين يدرسون فيها، في حين أن البعض الآخر من الأسئلة يحتاج إلى فريق من الباحثين يعملون معًا من خلال عدد من البيئات والتخصصات ويتبادلون البيانات والمعلومات للمناقشة والتفسير(Huber & Hutchings, 2005).

وتعرف بحوث التدريس والتعلم (SoTL) في جامعة ولاية إلنويز بأنها: انعكاس منظّم وعلني للتدريس والتعلم، وتعرف في مؤسسةِ كارنجي Carnegie، بأنها: طرح مشكلة حول قضية في التدريس أو التعلم، ودراسة المشكلة بالطرق المستخدمة في التخصص العام أو الدقيق وفق منهجيات ذالك التخصص، وتطبيق النتائج ومزاولتها، ونشرها بين الزملاء،

وإضافة ما يمكن من الملاحق التي تفيد الطالب، ويقدم الكثير من الوقت والجهد في الإعداد والتجهيز للمحاضرات، وينعكس هذا الجهد عليه وعلى أدائه، ويقوم بالتغير وفق ما يرى ضرورة ذلك، ويحسن من تقديم محاضراته رغبة في تقديم خدمات تدريسية جيدة لطلابه، ولا يهتم فقط بتقييم طلابه له، ويعدل أدائه وفق ذلك؛ بل يطلب من طلابه تقيمه أكثر من مرة لتحسين أدائه للأفضل.

الأستاذ الخبير:

في هذه المرحلة يكون الأستاذ ليس فقط كما هو الحال في المرحلة السابقة بل أكثر من ذلك حيث يضاف لها أنه يستخدم منهجية واضحة للتدريس مبنية على أسس علمية وفق برامج تنموية مهنيًا تساعد على جعل التدريس عمل رئيسي ومهني مستمر ومعتمد على التطوير المنهج. فهو يقوم بتوثيق مسيرته التدريسية من خلال ملف تدريسه الذي يحتوي على التطور التاريخي لمهنة التدريس والبرامج التي أسهمت في عملية التدريس، كما يحتوي الملف على مشاهدات من الزملاء لتدريسه ونصائح لتطوير التدريس وتجويده. كل هذا الجهد يصب في تنمية مهارته وتطوير أدائه ولكن لا يقوم بنشر هذا الملف ولا يقوم الزملاء بتقييمه، وبالتالي يكون هذا السجل المهاري لعضو هيئة التدريس الذي يرى فيه سجل للتنمية المهنية المستديمة.

الخبير الباحث في التدريس والتعلم:

إن القيام بالبحث والتحري عن مشكلة ما متعلقة بالتدريس والتعلم ووضع نتائج هذه الدراسة في قالب علمي ومبني على أدبيات تربوية وإرسالها للزملاء لتقيمها وتحكيمها ونشرها في مجلات علمية متخصصة أو في مؤتمرات تجعل الأستاذ المتعلم أو الأكاديمي في المرحلة السابقة باحثا في التدريس والتعلم. فعملية نشر نتائج الدراسات التربوية للشخص بعد تحكيمها من زملائه تجعل منه باحثًا وتضع عليه ختم التميز في التدريس والتعلم، لاشك في أن الفرق الرئيسي والجوهري بين المستوى الثالث والرابع هو تحكيم ونشر الأبحاث، و بلا شك فإن الطلاب سيكونون أفضل مع الخبير الباحث في التدريس والتعلم، فالتعرض لأفضل الممارسات المهنية والإبداع والتطوير وربطهما بالأدبيات التربوية تجعل الفرد بلا شك من أفضل الأساتذة تدريسًا وخدمةً للطلاب وللمؤسسة التعليمية.

وهذه المستويات الهرمية يمكن توضيحها كالتالي :

الخبير الباحث في التدريس والتعلم

الأستاذ الخبير

الأستاذ المخلص

الأستاذ متخذ الخطوة المطلوبة
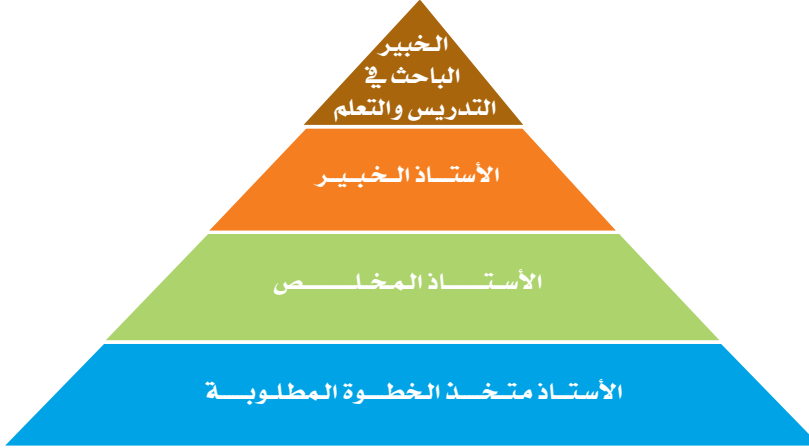
الأستاذ متخذ الخطوة المطلوبة :

هو الذي يقوم بالخطوة المطلوبة منه فقط، فيقوم بالحد الأدنى من الجهد في الإعداد والتحضير ويختار كتاب المقرر بناء على مقترحات من الزملاء أو بناء على ما كان مقرر في السابق وبدون جهد في البحث عن الأفضل أو الأجود، وتحتوي مفردات مادته على الحد الأدنى من المعلومات ولا يعرف ما يجب أن تحتوي مفردات المادة من معلومات للطلاب بل لا يعرف ما يحتاج الطالب من مفردات المادة. ويقدم مذكرات قديمة غير محدثة، وشرائحه التدريسية قديمة وتمارينه كذلك. ويقوم فقط أو في أكثر الأحيان بإلقاء المحاضرات بدون أي أنشطة داخل القاعة أو تفاعل مع الطلاب، ولا يعرف أي شيء عن استراتيجيات التدريس الجيدة والجديدة، ولا يقوم بأي مجهود لتحسين تدريسه، ومتمسك بالأنظمة واللوائح ولا يسمع للطلاب أو يظهر أي تعاطف معهم خصوصًا لمن لديهم أعذار حقيقية.

الأستاذ المخلص :

يأتي في المرحلة التالية، وهو أستاذ يهتم بالطلاب ويدرس بجد وإخلاص، ويقضي الكثير من الوقت والجهد في البحث عن الكتب الجيدة التي يمكن تقريرها للطالب، والتي تكون ذات فائدة وحديثة وذات مردود إيجابي على مسيرتهم التعليمية، ويبحث في جميع الكتب ويقرأ محتوياتها ومكوناتها ويبذل جهد كبير في تقرير تلك الكتب، ويتأكد من الإجراءات التي تتطلبها الجامعة ويقوم بجهد واضح في بناء مفردات المادة وتطويرها

يقوموا بعرض مهارتهم وقدراتهم على النمو المعرفي لموضوع التخصص بطرق إبداعية وبكفاءة عالية وقدرة على المحافظة على جعل القاعات الدراسية والبيئة التعليمية حافزة وداعمة لتعلم الطلاب، ومن الأنشطة والفعاليات التي تجعل أعضاء هيئة التدريس يقدمون تعلمًا نشطًا ما يلي:

● المساهمة في تطوير المناهج بالقسم وهذا يتضمن المشاركة في المقررات والبرامج المشتركة، والمساهمة في لجان بناء المنهجيات والخطط في القسم.

● الإبداع التربوي، وهذا يتضمن دمج التقنيات والمنهجيات والنظريات الحديثة في التعليم والتقييم.

● توثيق الدراسات والبحوث التربوية ودمج نتائجها وتوصياتها في القاعات الدراسية.

● تطوير المواد التعليمية، والمقررات الدراسية.

● إجراء البحوث التربوية.

● المشاركة في مشاريع وبحوث الطلاب.

● المساهمة في الجمعيات والمنظمات المهنية "التخصصية" التي تسعى إلى تحسين وتطوير التعليم.

● الالتزام بتقديم النصح والإرشاد للطلاب حول الأمور المعرفية والمنهج والمواد الدراسية والغير دراسية، وكذلك مساعدة الطلاب في كيفية استخدام مصادر المعرفة بالجامعة.

هرم التدريس: Pyramid of teaching

هناك مستويات هرمية للأستاذ الجامعي، فيرى قرنخ وشوارتز (,Gurung & Schwartz 2009) – في كتابه تحسين التدريس والتعلم – أن هرم التدريس يتكون من أربع مستويات رئيسية هي: الأستاذ متخذ الخطوة المطلوبة، والأستاذ المخلص، والأستاذ الخبير، والأستاذ الخبير الباحث في التدريس والتعلم.

في التدريس ونشر تلك الممارسات التدريسية وتقيمها من قبل زملائه. إن أن نتطرق إلى مفهوم بحوث التدريس والتعلم ما لم نتعرف على التدريس ودوره.

ويعد البحث في أصول التدريس Pedagogic research وتعلم الطلاب، بمفهوم علمي ممنهج متطلبًا مهمًا لتطوير تلك المهنة والرقي بها ونشر خبراتها وممارساتها المثلى بين مجتمعات أعضاء هيئة التدريس داخل الجامعة وخارجها. ومنح بحوث التدريس والتعلم (SoTL) Scholarship of Teaching and Learning ليست بالحديثة، ولكنها ظهرت بشكل واضح في كثير من الجامعات الغربية في مطلع التسعينات من القرن المنصرم، وفيها ركز الباحثون على كثير من ممارسات التدريس والتعلم وعلاقتها بتحصيل وتفكير الطلاب ودرجة تحقيق مخرجات التعلم في المقررات العامة والمتخصصة على حد سواء.

التدريس كمهنة: Scholarly Teaching

يعد التدريس لدى معظم أعضاء هيئة التدريس في الجامعات وظيفة ومهنة رئيسية ومهمة، لها مهام ومسئوليات وواجبات، وتعتبر جودة التدريس عنصرًا رئيسيًا لقياس كفاءة وحسن أداء عضو هيئة التدريس وتقييم إنجازه، كما يعتبر التدريس مسعى علمي ورئيسي ذو نشاطٍ وحركة دائمة يغطي مجموعة من الأنشطة التعليمية مثل تدريس المواد الرئيسية للطلاب في المرحلة الجامعية والدراسات العليا، والإشراف على الرسائل العلمية والمشاريع الطلابية، والتدريب التعاوني، والاشتراك في لجان القسم المتعلقة بتطوير المناهج ولجنة الجودة، واللجنة العلمية والإرشادية، ولجنة الدراسات العليا، ولجنة التوظيف والاستقطاب، وتقديم خدمة الإرشاد الطلابي في المراحل التعليمية المختلفة.

ويعتبر مفهوم التدريس الفعال واسع النطاق، وبالتالي اختلف المتخصصون في تعريفه، فيعرف بأنه: استخدام المهارات التربوية أو التدريسية بطرق مختلفة، كما يعرف بأنه: البراعة في تسهيل مناقشة الطلاب في مجموعات داخل القاعات الدراسية، ويعرف بأنه: القدرة التربوية في تقديم المحاضرات المنظمة واستخدام التعليم التعاوني أو التعامل مع مجموعات العمل داخل القاعات الدراسية.

وعندما يكون التدريس جزءًا من مهام وواجبات عضو هيئة التدريس تكون الفعالية جزءًا مهمًا ومؤثرًا في التنمية المهنية له، لذا ينبغي على معظم أعضاء هيئة التدريس أن

مقدمة

إن الدور الأساسي لعضو هيئة التدريس في الجامعة هو التدريس، لذا كان لزامًا عليه أن يستخدم كل إمكانياته، ويطبق المعايير العلمية في التدريس. كما أن الانشغال بالتدريس والتعلم هو ما يجب على عضو هيئة التدريس أن يقوم به بشكل يومي في القاعات الدراسية وفي مكتبه وخلال ساعاته المكتبية وفي إشرافه العلمي وفي محاضراته وفي مناقشاته مع الزملاء، وينبغي أن يراجع بشكل مستمر ومنتظم عملية التدريس ويحلل نتائجه وانعكاسه على تعلم الطلاب، لأن ذلك يؤدي إلى تقويم الأداء، وزيادة الإنتاجية وتحسين مستوى الطلاب وتحسين مخرجات التعليم.

فينبغي على عضو هيئة التدريس أن يمثل دورًا تربويًا في هذا الإطار، فعمله كأستاذ جامعي يحتم عليه أن يطبق أعلى المعايير العلمية في التدريس، ويحتم عليه أيضًا الوضوح والانفتاح على أحدث المستجدات والتطورات العلمية والأكاديمية، ويراجع بشكل منتظم ومستمر تدريسه الذي قام به ويحلل نتائجه وانعكاسه على تعلم الطلاب، وذلك التحليل والانعكاس يؤدي إلى إعادة حساباته ومراجعة عمله وتقييم أدائه وإعادة حساباته وممارساته التدريسية والتربوية داخل وخارج القاعات الدراسية. كما أن مشاركة طرق تدريسه وخبراته ومرئياته مع الزملاء ووضعها موضع الفحص والدراسة ينقل عضو هيئة التدريس من التدريس التقليدي النمطي إلى التدريس المبدع والمتطور والمبتكر المبني على أسس ونظريات علمية وتربوية، وهو ما يعرف ببحوث التدريس والتعلم التي تُحكم وتُراجع من قبل متخصصين وتنشر في أوعية علمية داخلية وخارجية.

إن مشاركة عضو هيئة التدريس زملائه في مناقشة طرق التدريس والخبرات والمرئيات، ووضعها موضع الدراسة والفحص، ينقله من عملية التعليم إلى عملية أكثر عمقًا وشمولية، وهي بحوث التدريس والتعلم.

وهذه البحوث يقوم بها عضو هيئة التدريس من أجل تقييم أداء طلابه، والتأكد من فاعلية طرق تدريسه وأساليب تقويمه، وتشخيص صعوبات التعلم، وتحديد طرق علاجها والوقاية منها، وتحديد أنماط التعلم، وطرق التدريس التي تناسب كل نمط، واستخدام التقنية

بحوث التدريس والتعلم

مفاهيم وممارسات عالمية

د. محمد بن أحمد السديري
عميد تطوير المهارات - جامعة الملك سعود

Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL)

Veronica Bamber

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THE 1ST ANNUAL FORUM FOR UNIVERSITY TEACHING

Towards Better Univrersity Teaching

Aims of the SoTL Sessions

- To consider some of the theoretical frameworks behind SoTL

- To look at examples of how SoTL is done in other universities

- To consider which SoTL opportunities KSU staff might pursue

- To discuss practical tips for pursuing SoTL.

What is SoTL, and why should we do it?

According to Martin (1999), SoTL has three aspects:

- Engagement with others' scholarly contributions on teaching and learning
- Reflection on one's own teaching practice and the learning of students within a disciplinary context
- Communication and dissemination of aspects of practice and theoretical ideas about teaching and learning.

In order to be able to go down any of these routes, an evidence / research-informed approach is necessary. As Ramsden (2003) makes clear, this is not a 'nice-to-do' activity, but a end result for responsible academics:

To teach is to make an assumption about what and how the student learns;
therefore, to teach well implies learning about students' learning.

and

There ought to be a definite educational justification for every activity, every
piece of content, that is present in a course of study. Tradition and habit are not
satisfactory educational reasons. (*Ramsden*: 2003)

Apart from benefits to student learning, SoTL also offers academics alternative research opportunities, if they are not minded to carry out further research in their own subject discipline. For example, a colleague whose PhD dealt with paint surfaces on cement felt that this did not inspire her to further research investigation, whereas she was passionately interested in how her students learned, and wished to work out why certain approaches to learning and teaching (L&T) worked, and others didn't. Not only that, but why did some of them work in some contexts, for some student groups, but not others. SoTL, then usually involves the ppursuit of knowledge about L&T, not subject content.

Theoretical Frameworks

The challenge of taking an evidence / theory-informed approach is that one needs to enter the theoretical world of another subject discipline: pedagogy. This is a real challenge for those of us who have spent most of our academic lives becoming expert in a science or engineering subject, for example. But it is not impossible. For example, in the UK, the National Teaching Fellowship Scheme recognises and rewards excellent learning and teaching. A look through the Fellows who have received awards makes it clear (HEA, 2011) that these colleagues have moved from their subject discipline base into L&T-related expertise and research.

What are the research frameworks behind SoTL? The first comes from Ernest Boyer (1990) who aimed to reconceptualise academic work, to include the full range of our scholarly activities. Boyer identified four separate but overlapping functions: the scholarship of discovery, the scholarship of integration, the scholarship of application and the scholarship of teaching.

In another approach to conceptualising SoTL, Paul Ashwin and Keith Trigwell (2004) considered the purpose of SoTL, placing different manifestations of SoTL along a spectrum from local to global. In this framework, different levels of pedagogic investigation relate to personal, local and public knowledge profiles. Ashwin and Trigwell's schema (Figure 1) categorised SoTL according to whether the purpose was to inform oneself, to inform a group of colleagues, or to inform a wider audience. At each level, verification of evidence would be different, and outputs would be different, from personal knowledge through to public knowledge.

Level	Purpose of investigation	Evidence gathering processes will be	Investigation results in
1	To inform oneself	Verified by self	Personal knowledge
2	To inform a group within shared context	Verified by those within same context	Local knowledge
3	To inform a wider audience	Verified by those outside of that context	Public knowledge

(Ashwin & Trigwell, 2004, p 122)

Figure 1 - Levels of Pedagogic Investigation

In their 2005 work, Jenkins and Healey looked at the links between research and teaching, showing the relationships between the Scholarships identified by Boyer (1990). Two of Jenkins and Healey's categories are of interest here. Research-oriented teaching is about creating a 'research ethos' for the students, so that they (and you) understand the processes by which knowledge is produced, and they develop research-type inquiry skills. Research-informed teaching happens when academics carry out research into their own teaching practice. To this end, many institutions give small grants, and, in the UK, a number of national grants are available to encourage research-informed teaching. For example, the Higher Education Academy's Teaching Development Grants (HEA 2, 2011) offers bid-based development grant funding, to stimulate evidence-based research and encourage innovations in learning and teaching across the UK. This fund is so popular than in 2010-11 the £1.5million available received bids from 780 individuals - most of which were not successful. Obtaining grant funding for pedagogical research is just as demanding as obtaining grant funding for subject discipline research.

Research-led	Curriculum structured around subject content and content based on staff research interests
Research-orientated	Curriculum emphasises understanding the knowledge production process, and methods of inquiry.
Research-based	Curriculum based on inquiry and research activities.
Research-informed	Curriculum designed by drawing on / carrying out research into teaching and learning process.

Figure 2: *Research - Teaching Links*

The challenge for academics wishing to apply for grants or carry out scholarship in the area of L&T is that they become 'boundary crossers' from their own discipline into another one, and this requires 'retooling' (Tuomi-Gröhn et al, 2003). Retooling can mean acquiring a new discourse and getting to grips with a new set of literature.

What support do you get for SoTL?

Successful SoTL is helped if institutional systems don't militate against it; for example, if university reward and recognition systems (eg for promotion) are rooted in subject discipline research outputs, then the incentive to engage with SoTL is reduced. Senior management, therefore, need to believe

in the value of SoTL. Brookfield (1995) tells us that university cultures and reward systems have to change if reflection on teaching and scholarship are to be encouraged. The small grants being made available for SoTL at KSU are definitely a step in the right direction. The benefits which can accrue from such projects can ripple out to the practice of colleagues, and even to other departments. A small case example might illustrate this point:

Professor Simon Bates (http://sites.google.com/site/simonpbates/home) is Chair of Physics Education in the School of Physics and Astronomy at the University of Edinburgh. He is also Dean of Learning and Teaching in the College of Science and Engineering at Edinburgh. Simon's pedagogical research led to the creation of the Physics Education Research Group at the University (http://sites.google.com/site/edpersite/). There are currently seven people in this group, with a list of eighteen L&T projects, some of which are joint projects with other universities. Simon's work on learning spaces has had repercussions on classroom design across the institution.

Outputs for SoTL

If SoTL intends to go beyond evaluation, then other people need to be involved. This can involve different kinds of networks, for example:

— Writing groups

— Peer reviewers

— Student co-researchers

— Seminars / conferences.

In other words, SoTL needs communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991) for both support and dissemination of outputs. The following case example will illustrate this point.

Milton Cox is Project Director for the FIPSE Project on Faculty Learning Communities at the Center for the Enhancement of Learning, Teaching and University Assessment in Miami University, Ohio. Faculty Learning Communities (http://www.units.muohio.edu/flc/) are groups of ١٢-٨ trans-disciplinary staff and postgraduate students who engage in an active, collaborative, year long program which aims to enhance L&T. Regular activities (eg seminars and retreats) provide support for SoTL and community building.

Such communities will only have credibility, of course, if they produce outputs. (Becher, 1989: 140) tells us that 'scholarly reputation can be seen as the prime value in academic life', and this is manifested in, for example, the extent of grant funding or published output from each individual or group, and the value put on these outputs by the process of peer review. Such outputs could be seen in terms of Ashwin & Trigwell's (2004) hierarchy. Typically, they will take the form of:

— Grants (internal / external)

— Papers (internal / external)

— Projects (internal / external)

— Research seminars / presentations (int / ext)

— Working with other institutions / networks.

Outputs will be evaluated in the same way as other research outputs, probably with criteria such as the ones used by the Australian L&T Council's Innovation and Development Grants Program:

— Clear project outcomes and rationale

— Approach: strong theoretical framework

— Potential usefulness of the project and its outcomes

— Good project management

— Appropriate budget justification (ALTC, 2011).

What do other universities do?

Practice in promoting SoTL varies, but the following mini case studies give a flavour of the type of initiative which is designed to support SoTL.

At the University of St Andrews (an ancient, research-intensive institution), a Centre for Higher Education Research (CHER) has been created. CHER aims to "conduct evidence-based higher education (HE) research to inform local, national and international policy and practice, and to promote a reflective, analytical review of HE activities; empowering professional engagement in teaching and educational provision" http://www.st-andrews.ac.uk/cher/. This approach is rooted in community-building as a means of supporting individual SoTL researchers. Currently, ٥١ staff across ١٧ Schools and six central University units are involved in cross-departmental collaboration in evidence-based HE research.

At the University of Edinburgh, the Principal's Teaching Award Scheme (PTAS) was set up a few years ago. It currently has a budget of ١١٠,٠٠٠£ per annum, and this funding aims to support L&T enhancement, and a better understanding of student learning through pedagogical innovation and research. Bids are received for discipline-specific pedagogical research projects or development projects. PTAS is not intended to reward past excellence in teaching, but to stimulate good practice and innovation. Projects should

- Demonstrate knowledge of the relevant educational research literature
- Demonstrate knowledge of innovative practices elsewhere
- Be discipline-specific and show how the project will be embedded within the L&T practices of the School
- Outline how project results will be disseminated

Examples of funded projects include:

- Problem-based learning in the chemistry laboratory

- Pre-arrival academic skills acquisition

- Year 1 Physics community building

- Interactive online case studies for taught masters

http://www.ed.ac.uk/schools-departments/institute-academic-development/
learning-teaching/staff/funding/about-ptas

The University of Brighton offers a masters module to guide and support those wishing to write for academic publication (including articles, chapters, books and reports). Participants examine the writing process, develop confidence with writing, explore outlets for publication, select an outlet appropriate for their work and produce a piece of writing suitable for publication. They are supported by workshops, critical friends, online discussion and follow up sessions.

Where do you stand?

What does all of this mean for you? What are you researching now (or what might you research? Figure 3 provides a structure to help you think through which topic you would like to investigate, which theoretical frameworks you might use, which research approach would be appropriate, which networks might be helpful to you, and which outputs you might achieve. Although it is not assumed that you will have immediate answers to all or any of these topics, the afternoon SoTL workshop (SoTL in Practice) will give you the opportunity to consider these questions. We will look at some of the literature available, both subject-specific and generic, and consider what might be appropriate in each of your contexts.
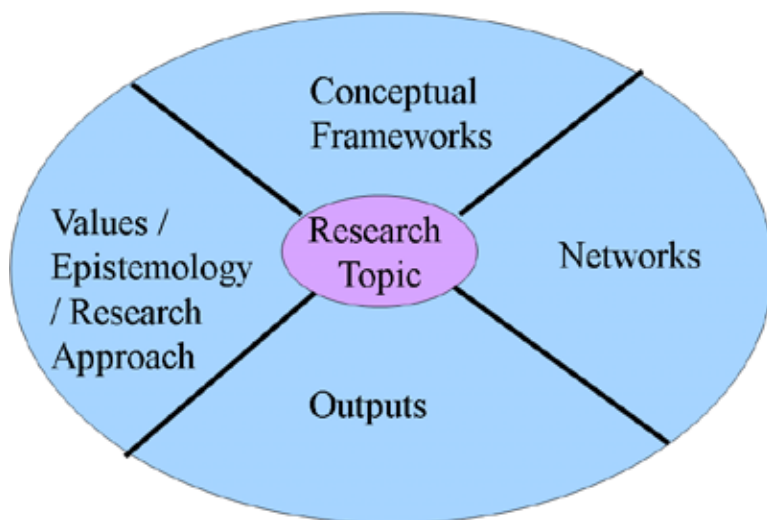

Figure 3: What might you research?

Once you have done the above analysis of your own potential direction in SoTL, start reading!

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Research-Led Teaching

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THE 1ST ANNUAL FORUM FOR UNIVERSITY TEACHING

Towards Better Univrersity Teaching

Abstract

This paper is about the potential distinctiveness of researchers' teaching. I use new data from two resent case studies (one in Applied Chemistry and on in Neuroscience) to explore the differences between science cultures that make extensive use of signs in systems (Applied Chemistry) versus those to do not (Neuroscience). I review some recent research on academic literacy and notions of embodiment and show that different science subjects depend on different pedagogies if they are to be true to science practice. My arguments are also illustrated using the research of others from fields of Particle Physics and Molecular Biology.

For most university science departments, links between research and teaching are a fundamental assumption. Nevertheless the studies that have tried to show a correlation between research and teaching outcomes have been somewhat equivocal (Blackmore, 2009) and for many reasons researcher status is probably not a measure of willingness or ability to teach (see Kinchin & Hay, 2007). But if we acknowledge that learning science at university includes becoming a member of community of practice (Wenger, 1998), then it is also plausible that science researchers have a teaching potential that non-researchers do not. This is because only participants in science research can show themselves as elements within the way the sciences make knowledge (Amann & Knorr Cetina, 1989; Knorr Cetina, 1999).

In Bioscience, this epistemic culture is socially imaginative and physically embodied (Myers, 2007). This is to say that new scientific knowledge arises in experience of object but often invisible "things" like cell-function or neuron growth, and in the dialogic process of communication about these (Hay, 2010). But while some science epistemic cultures (like Particle Physics) occur in sign mediated conversations, where complex sets of working formulae encode principles so that understanding is available in the literacy of these, many science fields do not use signs as systems (Latour, 1999; 2005). The practices of Molecular Biology prefer to point directly at their object (Amann & Knor-Cetina, 1988; 1989) using representation only to make the invisible phenomenal world available in a render of its hidden action (Knorr Cetina, 1999, p. 103). Thus for example, the position of a band in a gel, the longevity of a particular cell lineage, or the intensity of a particular recombinant fluorescent label, are all single inscription points in which information about phenomenon becomes available (Amann & Knor-Cetina, 1988). Thus in Molecular Biology (and as I will show in neuroscience), academic practice depends on knowing which questions to ask, fitting method with hypothesis, and the ability to recognise significant data. Consequently, teaching is a completely different prospect from the situation where the subject can be grasped through literacy (Kress, 2010). Here (in Molecular Biology and in neuroscience) the embodied imagination of the researcher becomes the vital hinge on which the quality of teaching turns, while in Particle Physics (and I show in Applied Chemistry) academic literacy is the primary teaching issue.

Data and analysis

As a whole this paper will comprise new data and a new position for analysis of teaching that hinges on the ways that different disciplines do or do not make used of extended sign mediated conversations. We will focus on the ways that sign mediated subjects can be taught by teaching the academic literacy (c.f. Lea & Street, 1998) and also why this means that probably here it is legitimate for non-researchers to do much of the teaching (since they may steer their students to the signs where understanding of researcher practice is available). But we will contrast this with other subjects where signs are not used to the same extent and from this we will endeavour to construct new frameworks for understanding teaching in these settings. Thus Figure 1 shows some of the drawings of the neuron concept made by undergraduates and elite researchers.
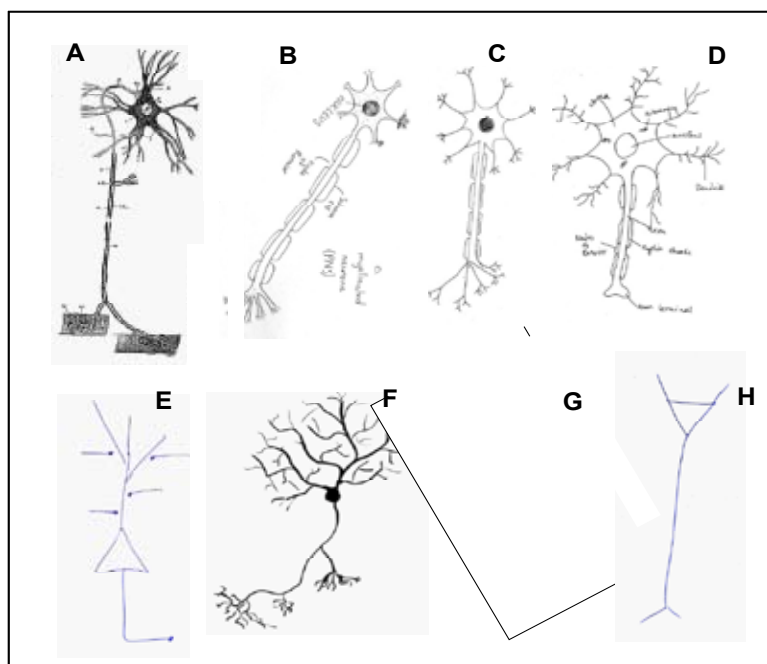

Figure 1. Eight neuron drawings are shown: **A** is the archetypal neuron image produced by the illustrator Lewllys Barker (Barker, 1899) and reproduced in most textbooks (such as Gray's Anatomy); **B – D** are some of the drawings made by third year students of a "Developmental Neuroscience" module; **E – H** are the drawings of laboratory leaders. The students' and researcher's drawings were made without visual reference cues and were elicited by the simple prompt "*please draw a neuron*". Among 174 student drawings, 171 were essentially copies of the Barker-types (A) that Wingate (2009) has previously described as a "*conceptual trough*" *t*hat does not correspond to the ways that Neuroscientists picture the neuron cell in its genuine identity (see Wingate, 2005).

Using this neuroscience drawing data I will show that potentially we have the basis for some simple criteria for measuring "researcher" status and projecting teaching in fields that do not use sign extensively. This is because here the distinctiveness of researcher's practice rests on four ele-

ments: a) a point towards a real identity (i.e. not a text about a think like a cell, but the cell itself; b) questions or hypothesis by which the invisible properties of things like cells may be better known; c) the combination of material and questions in settings that invite response from other scientists; and d) combining all these elements together, a measure of researchers' authenticity through their sense and feeling for the neuron cell identity.

But, the implications from the data for Applied Chemistry are very different. Here it is possible to mimic the creativity of the laboratory, just by projecting the interactions between the theoretical understandings of Chemistry and material properties. This is modelled in Figure 2 where we show the productivity of two concept maps: one made by and expert researcher and one by one of his students.
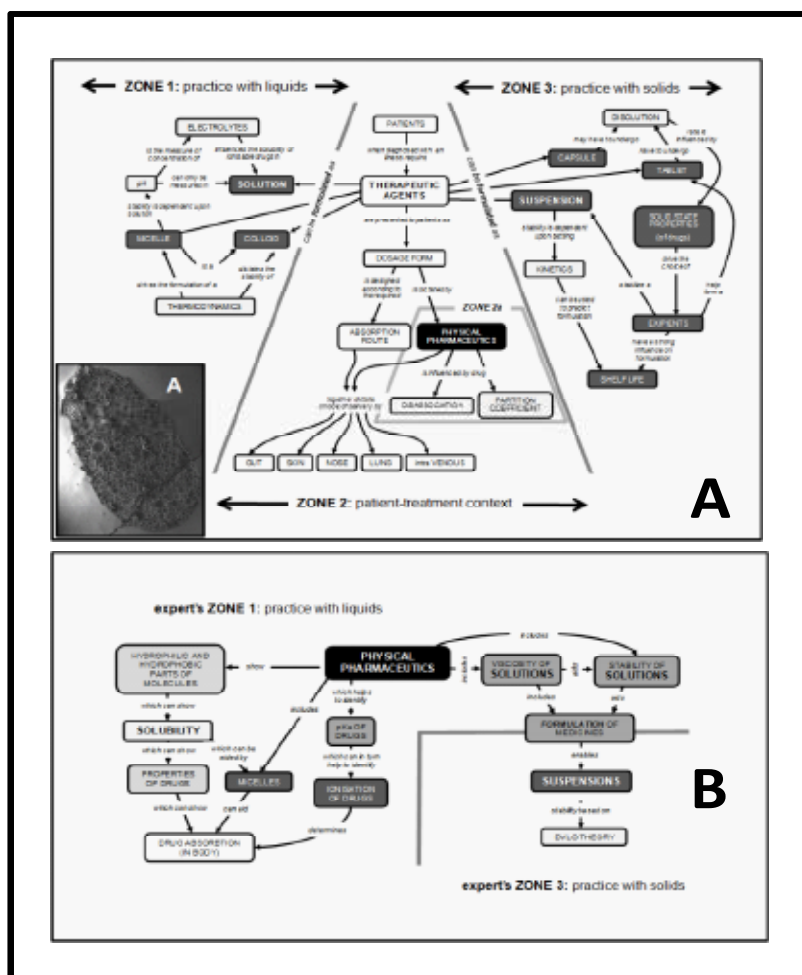
Figure 2. A (top): This concept map was made by the expert (Stuart) and comprises three distinct zones of Pharmacy practice: Stuart's own research work with liquids (zone 1); his work with solids (zone 3); and a zone of patient-treatment (zone 2). The central zone is depicted as a vertical plane and includes a discrete "core" of molecular Chemistry (zone 2a), but other than that, all the zones are completely discrete. The practice zones of Starts map (zones 1 and 3), comprise recursive sets of theory/method labels (light shading) and material/properties (darker), between which are implicated a variety of practice products like the image of a pharmaceutical foam shown in the inset box (A). The map is simultaneously a model of the "physical pharmaceutics" module on which Stuart teaches and also in zones 1 and 3, a working text through which Stuart practices his research. **B (bottom):** This concept map was made by one of Stuart's students and although it is simpler than the expert map, it works in much the same way. Because practice can be shown in a sign mediated system, it is possible for the student to *carry out practice in the sign system.*

Literacy

The issue of making academic practice visible is an important aim within the "new academic literacy" approach (c.f. Lea & Street, 1999 and see Lillis & Scott, 2007). And for the data in Applied Chemistry it is possible to see how the subject is indeed visible in sign systems - like the concept mapping systems both the expert and the student have drawn (above). For studies of non-sign based science practice, however, new methods are still needed. In many branches of Bioscience, the information in textbooks and papers correspond with understanding science only to the extent that the reader (or commentator) supplies sufficient scientific experience that one is able to look through the inscription of data towards the elemental status of its referent (see Latour, 1999. 24-79). In such context we must look to a theory of embodiment to be able to explore good teaching.

Embodiment

There is considerable literature that examines the implicit nature of much of experts' talk (see Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1986 for example). Often this emphasises the ways that making tacit practice more explicit is a vital step for helping students to acquire the traits of expertise (e.g.). But there are least two types of tacit knowledge that are important here. On the one hand, there is the information that often experts neglect to tell assuming that it is agreed already. On the other hand there is the more corporeal aspect of an expert's practice that cannot be rendered into signs because they need to be sensed (Knorr Cetina, 1999). This is part of the line we have been pursuing and now we want to review the ways that neuroscientists practices are part of an experiential register.

In a prize winning paper for the journal *Social Science,* Myers (2007) reports a rich ethnography of the research and teaching practices of protein crystallographers. Her essential point is that what experienced researchers know and think about proteins is inseparable from the ways that they work with their bodies; researchers using postures and gesture, not just to sign to others, but more deeply, to inhabit the imaginative space in which folding of a protein is *experienced*. Myers demonstration is that corporeal knowledge plays a key role in thinking intelligently about structural biology (ibid.). This is an issue of craft (Kaiser, 2005) and it draws particular attention to the engaged agency of researchers as practitioners (Taylor, 1993).

Yanow and Tsoukas (2009) explore similar issues in a Business Studies context. Their research (ibid.), develops the work of Donald Schön (e.g. Schön,…) to show how cognition is embedded in practice activities that are themselves mediated by the "tools of trade", thereby giving rise to knowledge not acquired by any other means. Such knowledge is sensed "…*through active engagement in and with the practice world, not through thought alone*" (Yanow & Tsoukas, 2009., p. 1349). Thus as Taylor (1993) states, for any practitioner's acts to become intelligible to others, it is necessary to place them in the context of their making (p. 325).

Teaching implications

Briefly, this paper explores different types of science practice culture. In one context (Applied Chemistry) much of that culture resides in sign mediated conversation: in neuroscience it resides in single point inscriptions that are also measures of the embodied stance of the researcher. In neuroscience, the lab-leader is the leading figure in their laboratory while in Applied Chemistry this figure is also found in academic text. In this sense, teaching Neuroscience is probably more difficult than teaching Applied Chemistry since for Neuroscience what is necessary is that the researcher is still the researcher in the teaching context. As Knorr Cetina puts it:

"*...the individual scientist in the laboratories studied is not just an author of knowledge and a component of the setting, but also its' integrating element - for example, if anything integrates a molecular biology laboratory, it is the laboratory leader. The laboratory, experimentation, procedures, and objects obtain their identity through individuals. The individual scientist is their intermediary - their organising principle in the flesh, to whom all things revert.*"

(Knorr Cetina, 1999, p. 217)

This if the Neuroscientist is not the agent function in the life-world of teaching, we have also banished neuroscience from the lecture theatre and it cannot finds its way back in by virtue of a sign-system that it does not have. It is the embodiment of neuroscience practice that must make this so and: a) only neuroscience researchers can teach neuroscience; while also b) even these will fail when their teaching is distinct from the embodied practices of research. The question of the distinctiveness of researchers' teaching neuroscience turns on whether researchers are still *researchers* when they teach and whether they are willing and able to extend their life in the laboratory to include the lecture theatre.

Conclusions

Because Applied Chemistry and Neuroscience are different practices we also need different pedagogic theories to describe good teaching. This paper has shown that teaching Applied Chemistry depends on sign mediated conversation and the attributes of teaching are probably found alongside principles of academic literacy. In Neuroscience, however, good teaching depends on the researcher showing themselves in the teaching context in just the same ways as they are embodied in the laboratory.

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Towards clini-
cal pedagogy

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THE 1ST ANNUAL FORUM FOR UNIVERSITY TEACHING

Towards Better Univrersity Teaching

Introduction

The novice teacher often sees teaching as telling and learning as receiving (Van Leuven, 1997). However, decades of research on student learning has shown such a naïve view to be at best unhelpful and at worst harmful to the education of students. Teaching has to support student access to the discipline so that students are actively engaged in their learning rather than passive observers of the field. As the prior knowledge that students bring to their studies is the only starting place for meaningful learning (Ausubel, 2000), teachers are placed in an impossible position if they try to address the diverse learning needs of their students on an individual basis. Grouping of students to alleviate this pressure depends on tools that can adequately discriminate between the diversity of student needs, but even then it is not clear if student characteristics are fixed for any significant period of time or indeed, if teaching strategies need to 'hit the moving target' of evolving student needs. Therefore a pedagogy is required that will address the needs of the discipline and will support the needs of students. It also has to be manageable for the teachers concerned and sit comfortably with their professional values. Many dental schools around the world set about constructing new curricula that are more responsive to student learning and more sensitive to evaluation mechanisms. These new curricula aim towards learning strategies to promote critical thinking and increased problem-solving capabilities within undergraduate programmes that would prepare students to be lifelong learners (e.g. Hendricson and Cohen, 1988). However, in the absence of an embedded pedagogy, the student-centred view of learning creates problems for clinical educators, particularly if they have difficulty in labeling themselves as teachers, rather than as clinicians or researchers. At a time when many dental schools are engaged in the task of changing their curricula (Manogue and Brown, 2007), it is important to emphasize the need for a coordinated development of pedagogy - providing the backbone for any curriculum development.

Evolution of Clinical Pedagogy

The simplified summary in figure 1 offers a focus on content, learning styles and exper-tise as key indicators (but not exclusive characteristics) of the three broad phases of the evolution of clinical pedagogy. We have found this offers sufficient resonance with the experiences of clinical educators to help them access the argument for a practice-based pedagogy (Cabot and Kinchin, 2007).
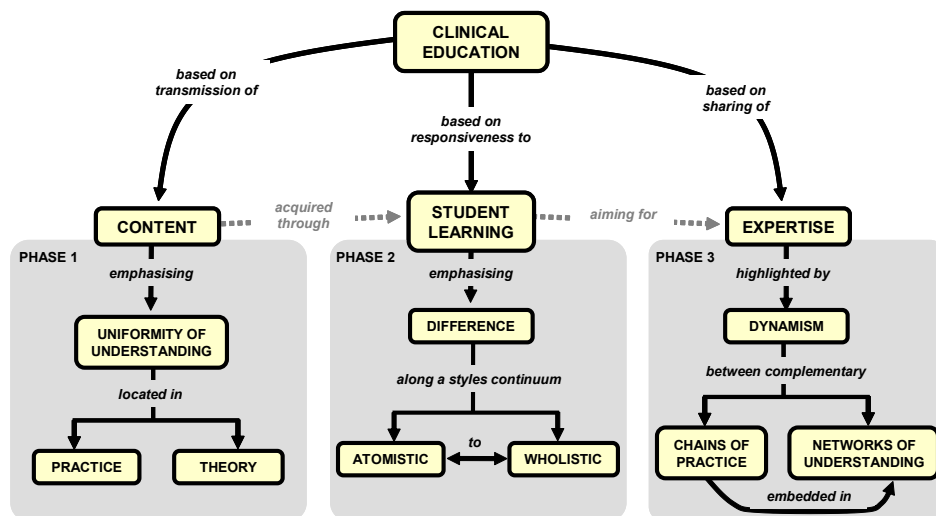

Figure 1: *A summary of the evolution of clinical pedagogy in three broad steps, from*:

(*PHASE* 1) *a content-driven model that is characterised by a transmission mode of teaching, to*

(*PHASE* 2) *a learner-centred model in which the teacher responds to the individual learning demands of the students, to* (*PHASE* 3) *an expertise model in which the complementary structures of understanding between the clinical and non-clinical contexts are used as a basis to develop a coherent view of the discipline that sees teachers and students as co-constructors of understanding. The arrows joining* CONTENT → STUDENT LEARNING → EXPERTISE *are greyed and dotted to indicate that this chain of progression* (*from phase* 1 *to phase* 3) *is only theoretical. In practice, teachers find such a direct linear progression difficult to achieve without a fundamental reconceptualization of clinical education.* (*from Kinchin, Baysan and Cabot,* 2008).

Learning styles and student knowledge

There are various ways of categorizing individual student learning differences, the 'learning styles model' and the 'approaches to learning model' probably being the most familiar. Both models are concerned with student learning, and it is not necessary to examine in detail here the differences between the two (usefully summarized by Cuthbert, 2005). Our point is that the second phase of the evolution of university teaching (Figure 1) is focused on the student rather than the content of the subject.

Numerous dimensions have been used to describe student learning styles, and at least as many tools have been developed to measure their characteristics (Cassidy, 2004). The apparent diversity of learning styles and instruments has been used as an argument for not engaging with the learning styles literature, whilst Ritter (2007) has demonstrated how the uncritical use of learning styles inventories can subvert the discourses of student diversity and justify the tendency to promote commonality in student learning behaviours. The lack of clear evidence for a unifying theoretical underpinning for learning styles inventories has also been given as an argument for ignoring this literature to inform teaching in clinical education (Walsh, 2007). Whilst a proportion of the literature on the practical uses of learning styles fails to have sound evidence regarding validity and reliability of the research (Coffield *et al.*, 2004a; 2004b), this does not invalidate the observation from practice that different students prefer to interact with learning materials in different ways and, therefore, a consideration of students' learning styles is sensible when developing materials to support learning (Rayner, 2007). However, if learning styles exist, they constitute only a part of students' attitudes towards their study, and so only account for part of the story of student learning (Bloomer and Hodkinson, 2000).

The terms 'deep/holistic/meaningful' and 'surface/atomistic/rote' are used in combination within the literature. Deep/meaningful learning styles includes a range of behaviours that help the student to understand and maintain the structure of a task by relating previous knowledge to the new, building up a bridge between theoretical ideas to everyday practice and by organising the content into a coherent whole. Adoption of learning styles tending towards the atomistic, involve the unreflective memorization of information and focus on unrelated parts of the task. However, it should also be noted

that 'deep' and 'surface' (which ever combination of terminology is adopted) is not a simple binary (eg. Beattie, Collins and McInnes, 1997).

Integration of science with clinical practice is a key objective of any health-care curriculum, including the development of expertise in new and emerging treatment modalities (Wilson, 2007). However, students often perceive that the mantra of survival is to pass the exams by rote learning and to discover the relevance of this material later in practice (Fang, 2002). This is reflected in the learning styles employed by dental students that tend to be 'concrete' in their focus on correct answers, and 'sequential' in their linear acquisition of knowledge (Berlocher and Hendricson, 1985). This may be linked to the dominant teaching style and presentation of materials in lectures (Kinchin and Cabot, 2007) and to the requirements of work in the clinical environment (Kinchin, Cabot and Hay, 2008). Whilst it may be helpful to develop teacher sensitivity to students' individual learning differences, this can have a disempowering effect upon university teachers who feel they cannot mobilize their greater appreciation of students' learning needs with the practical constraints that are placed upon their teaching by the institution. Indeed, the focus on simplistic binaries in higher education (such as student vs. teacher centredness) may have become a distraction from the main business of teaching and learning (Cousin, 2008).

A focus on expert practice

Patel, Arocha and Kaufman (1999: 89) have explained that '*an effective clinical teacher needs to be able to articulate knowledge that would normally be tacit for a practitioner not engaged in instruction*'. It is precisely the articulation of this tacit knowledge that needs to be placed in the public arena to highlight the chains of practice that are manifest in the clinical teacher's actions and the underlying network of understanding that is usually held privately (Kinchin, Cabot and Hay, 2008). The clinical student needs to gain experience in converting between complementary chains and networks. At its most simple, this can be signified to students in lectures by using carefully constructed supplementary materials (such as handouts) that emphasize the integrated nature of knowledge and the origins of the linear structures projected within the lecture. Such structural transformations can be modeled for the student, once the teacher has recognized them. Engagement in concept mapping activities allows the teacher to recognize the existence of the structures

and allows him to make them public to the students within the course of teaching. The use of concept mapping also slows down the process (that is usually automated) to facilitate its examination. So, for example, the typical structure of a clinical procedure would be a chain of practice that would be communicated to the student. The student's competence would be assessed through his ability to reproduce that chain under varying conditions and with various patients. The student's expertise, however, must be assessed through his ability to relate the chain of practice to the underlying network of understanding, and explaining how the elements are linked, and how and why the chain of practice should be modified in response to changes of context.

Conclusion

The clinical student has to juggle information between the clinical and the non-clinical teaching environments. Within a clinical pedagogy that focuses on the connections between theory and practice, the linking of these two components of the curriculum is made explicit. This will help to avoid the situation, suggested by Fang (2002), where students feel (in the words of one of our 4th year students) that:

'..*we have to learn everything twice. Once for the exam, and then again to understand what it was we were examined on. But we never have time for the understanding bit ... maybe once we've qualified*?'

The approach is not prescriptive of teaching style, classroom management or delivery mode (ie. face-to-face teaching or e-learning), and does not exclude any classroom strategy considered productive in a particular environment. It simply requires the teaching to demonstrate the connection between chains of practice and underlying networks of understanding. In other words, making explicit the connections that are used intuitively by the expert.

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3 Effective Teaching

Relationships in Higher Education

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Towards Better Univrersity Teaching

Abstract

This paper is about the issue of relationships in higher education. I use a variety of learning theories to explore issues of relationship towards people: students, teachers, researchers etc., and also to the academic setting: the university, the lecture theatre, study work, examination etc. I develop a view of the academic person as "a subject in development" (Kristeva, 1998), and show the ways that understanding that is synonymous with the person whom learns (Jarvis, 2006).

Introduction

The issue of quality relationships in higher education is much neglected theme. While there is a well developed literature on student's espoused motivations (e.g. Marton & Pang, 2006; Scouller, et. al., 2008), their study approaches (Säljö, 1979; Marton & Säljö, 1976; 1984) and accounts of their learning experiences (e.g. Marton & Saljo, 1974), we have tended to talk about our student's learning as being only "theirs" (Haggis, 2009) failing to sufficiently acknowledge that learning is a dialogic process (Alexander, 2004; Wegerif, 2007; 2008) that includes the teacher and the student both together (see Wegerif, 2010). Related to this, most research of university student learning has a second order perspective (Hay, Wells & Kinchin, 2008) and excepting perhaps the early work of Gordon Pask, there are relatively few published studies that document students' changing text production in a teaching context. But the research of Bizzell (1986), Flower (1994) and Sternglass (1997), all of whom document students' writing, sometimes over many years, tend foreground the moral, ethical and social development of students (see also Perry, 1970 and more recently, Mertz, 2007). This is important data, drawing specific attention to the ways that relationship is probably the learning precondition (Alexander 2004; Wegerif, 2010). Nevertheless there is increasing acknowledgement that higher education teaching should be grounded in a theory of student learning (see Hay, Kinchin & Lygo-Baker, 2008) and what is important is to identify the educational theories that depict learning relationship in different ways. Several of those theories are reviewed below.

Cybernetic models

David Kolb's model of the experiential learning cycle (e.g. Kolb 1984) is probably amongst the most common education models used and reference in higher education scholarship. This is shown in Figure 1.
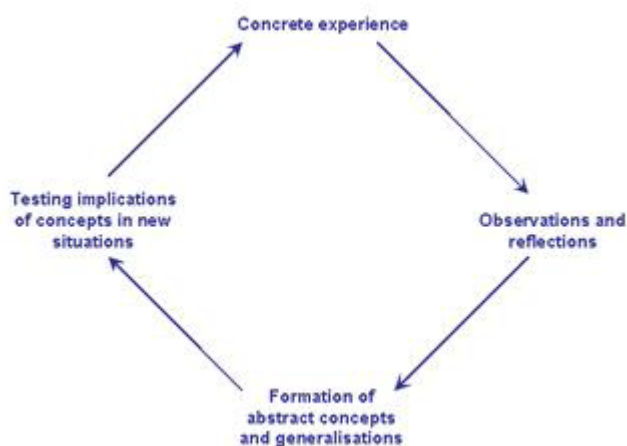

Figure 1. Kolb's learning cycle (Kolb 1984)

This model *implies* relationship, but it does not make the issue of relationships explicit. For example, compare this model (Figure 1) with Gibbs' model of reflection (Gibbs, 1988) shown in Figure 2, where issues of feelings and senses are fore-grounded explicitly.

Figure 2. Gibbs' Model of reflection (Gibbs, 1988)

But as Jarvis explains, most of these approaches fail to place the learner centre-stage. Jarvis model (Figure 3), however, starts and ends with people and the ways they change in context to relationship.
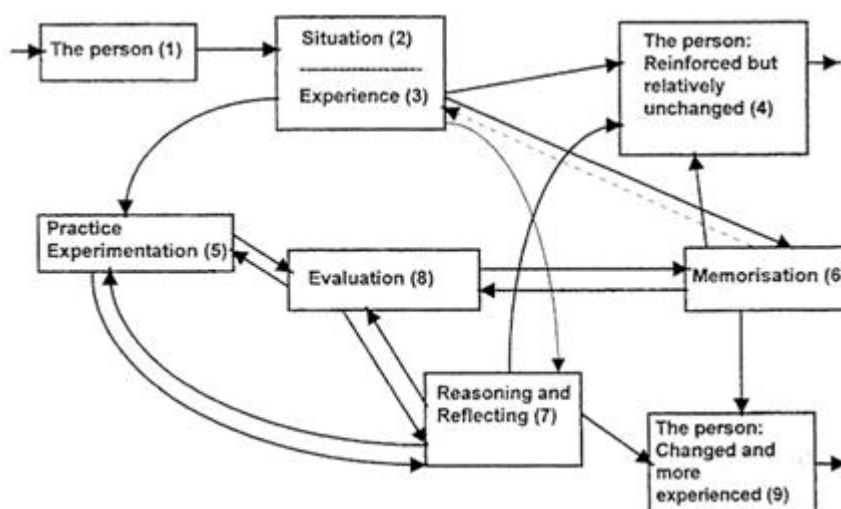

Figure 3. Jarvis' Model of the person who learns (Jarvis, 1992)

Nevertheless all these models (Jarvis' included) are essentially depictions of a cybernetic *system*, squaring away social relationship into models of their operation (Bruner, 1988). Now we need to turn towards learning theories that focus on the function of language and culture since here we start to get closer to the ways that individuals take part in their figured worlds (Holland, *et al,* 1998).

Language and culture

Perhaps the work of Lev Vygotsky (e.g. Vygotsky, 1978; 1986) has been more influential in higher education than any other body of analysis and development of theory (see Werstch, 1998). Most importantly, Vygotsky explains how learners can acquire experience and understanding without prior-knowledge because of an extension in what he calls the "zone of proximal development" (which is the difference between what a learner can do on their own and what they do with the help of a more advanced other. Here for example the mother (or teacher) uses a child's spontaneous sign

use (such a pointing with the finger) ahead of the child's conscious understanding in order to draw them into more culturally mediated use of sign (*ibid.*).

But also Wegerif points out that Vygotsky tends to hide the issue of relationship in the ways he shows this process. Thus in the example of the finger point above, it is actually the mothers relationship towards the child and likewise the child's relationship to mother that make any of this possible from the beginning (see Wegerif, 2007; 2008). For the child to learn the proto-declarative function of the pointing sign (as means of directing attention) they must previously follow the mothers gaze (and vice versa) as potentially being more than "I want that" and indeed, Barron-Cohen (1994) shows that autistic children readily master the proto-imperative request ("please give me that"), but rarely acquire the more communicative declarative sign. Using the work of Michael Bakhtin (e.g. Bakhtin, 1981, 1986), Alexander (2004) explains, that is trust, interest, commitment etc., that are always the learning pre-condition and while this might be clear in analysis of childhood learning it is also relevant at all educational levels (Wegerif, 2010).

Dialogue

Jerome Bruner reaches similar conclusions (Bruner, 1986; 1997) explaining that the problem with Vygotsky's theory is that it hinges on "monopoly of foresight" whereby if the "teacher" does not have genuine commitment to the learners' development and wellbeing, then intentionally or not, they will tend to neglect the very process that create the "zone" (Bruner, 1986).

But Bakhtin's dialogic theory offers a view point where the self is always inseparable from others or form otherness in general. Here learning quality is exactly synonymous with the quality of relationship that it includes. The ability to forgo ones' limited understanding in order to "see with the eyes of another" is development of understanding others and it arises of its own volition as consequence of relationships developed already and then extended in the process. This is an image of the social imagination and it provides a very powerful framework for understanding the ways that students learn to be party of the academic subject. Hay (2010) explores this in the specific context of students learning neuroscience.

Student case studies

Most researchers tend to teach in formal ways. First the university science curriculum tends to be comprised of formal content. Second, formal science has an authority (and even perhaps a perceived respectability) that is "safer". While the informal conversations that take place at conferences and in other social settings might be vital in shaping how research is practiced, they are seldom modelled in the lecture theatre (or even the tutorial). Nevertheless, a single module is often taught by many different "experts" and the *difference* between them (as the different speakers of respective academic subjects) is sometimes sufficient for students to win-out the *subject*. The data that I use to show this process is already published (see Hay, 2010) and there is a website that provides examples of this student's work as well as their commentary on learning (see: dialogueonthepage.com). But briefly in a paraphrase of one student's (Lisa's) words: "*When I listen to a lecture or when I read a scientific paper, it is not important to me how I might understand these texts. I am only a student and my grasp of the subject is limited - so that I will only introduce my own mistakes. Instead I listen (or read) as if I were one of the other researchers who teach me. So when I listen to Dr. Williams give a lecture, I write my notes as if I were Dr. Wingate: imagining how he would respond and re-pattern Dr. Williams' explanation. Afterwards I throw my notes away and I repeat the process from another perspective (in another lecture or while reading another paper). But eventually, doing this, the subject just appears for me - as mine - as a consequence of bringing all of these (people) together.*"

Taking the perspectives of another

Lisa (a third year university student) shared her study work with me during a yearlong study of her understanding of Neuroscience. We met every second week and Lisa would show me the sketches (notes, drawings and concept maps) that she made as well as talking about them (and her experiences of learning). At every stage Lisa's learning work was imaginative as she went about re-patterning one researcher's text as if she were standing in the shoes of another researcher. Thus for example, the dialogueonthepage.com website shows a re-enactment of how Lisa reads a paper; first to grasp the gist; second to re-write it as she imagines one or more of her lecturers might have read it; and third to gather the new labels (insights that arise in this process). Lisa did this every time she reads (and she read a lot in the year of our work together) and she used the same process in here lectures, treating these as "readings" too. Often she would talk about the relationship that she was developing with her teachers and other scientists by doing this and in the end she described

how her own relationship developed within the academic field - so that she was also part of it. Figure 1 below is one of twenty "maps" that Lisa made two weeks before her final examinations. It was drawn without prompts. I (not Lisa) drew the neuron image in the map. This is explained below.
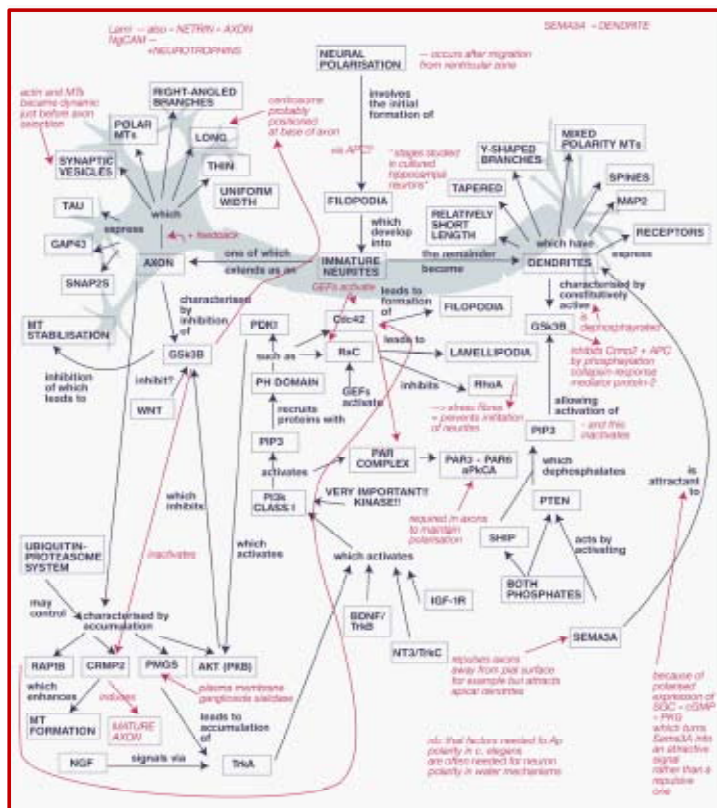

Figure 1. Lisa's drawing (concept map) of "dendrogenesis".

When Lisa spoke to me about her map she burst into spontaneous laughter as she traced the outline of "the neuron" (shown) with her figure: *"Of course you can see what I've done – I have drawn the neuron structure as I imagine it. That's amazing! I didn't know that I was doing that but of course I feel the neuron - as a pattern - and then all the things I know about the neuron are a consequence of this"*. In order to verify what Lisa had done, I asked Richard (as Lisa's researcher/teacher) to inspect her map. All the distinctive features of the expert "gaze" are there. Her image is a moving one: it is predictive and suggesting potential inquiry as well showing what is known. Also it comprises questions, effectively projecting how a neuron might develop and chasing issues of neuron structure back towards the de-

velopment processes that are (and might be) drivers of its form and function.

When we looked at all her other maps, this same imagination was evident and also the issue of relationship became increasingly conspicuous. These were relationships extended towards the neuron subject that Lisa studied (shaped), but also towards the people that taught her. For example, Lisa's image of "dendrogenesis" was a tree-like shape, organising and predicting the process of " dendrite development" as "roots" and "leaves" and "branches" and including Lisa's affective disposition towards these "images" as well as towards the people that were part of them (see Hay, 2010 and the website: dialogueonthepage.com).

Figure 2 shows a model of the social process that Lisa used to constitute her understanding from *within* the subject field. It is a general model of imagination, explaining how the academic subject (that includes its speaker) can arise spontaneously in dialogue. The point is that through the dialogic process, Lisa has become a researcher, not because she learned the formal texts of science, but because she finds the neuron subject shaped *between* the texts of those that also shape the practice image of the neuron as identity.
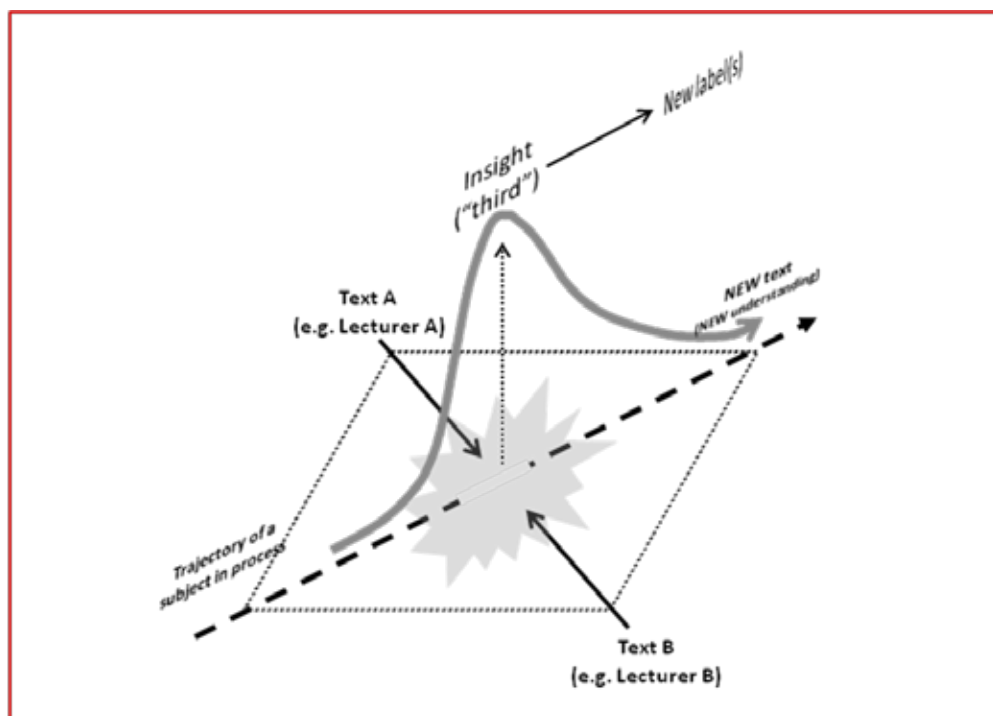
Figure 2. A schematic model of Lisa's learning

The inter-animation of two "speakers" texts

When two (or more) texts are brought together there are three potential outcomes: a) synthesis; b) one writing-out the other; or the inter-animation of the two. The first two of these outcomes are (Hegellian) dialectic products: the third is dialogic (*cf* Bakhtin; 1981; 1992) and essentially imaginative. In this model (Figure 2 above) I project the inter-animation two different (but related) texts. These are shown as the texts of two lecturers (Lecturers A and B: or in Lisa's case, the texts of Darren Williams and of Richard Wingate). Now the student (Lisa) may simply try to learn each text separately (as two different given "things"): but she does not do this, instead she brings them together because of trying to imagine how one would "read/re-write" the other. Now since Richard's and Darren's texts are actually constituent of different subjects (different people, different view points etc.), they never fit together exactly and only a new insight produces a way of seeing both their texts together (inclusively, including their difference). This insight is imaginative (and creative) occurring in the "space" of tension in between the *difference* of the two, and as this insights start to be labelled it becomes new text (a new image of the academic subject).

This is new development of the subject *per se* and it includes Lisa's development as a new "subject/speaker".

This is the process by which new personal understandings arise, but it is also the process by which scientists constitute insights that are new to science. To acknowledge the function of imagination in science is to orientate students and researchers together in the same dialogic direction of scientific practice (communicative and therefore inter-personal), not to juxtapose these two as "novice" *versus* "expert". Relationship is the more inclusive term joining relations to other people through academic practice, and in this case, to relationships to neurons as experiences of otherness in general - like the neuron cell identity.

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Developing the expert student

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Towards Better Univrersity Teaching

Introduction

The presentation starts with the question, "What should our students be doing?". The answer to that question will depend upon what the teacher considers to be the purpose of the university curriculum: whether he considers it to be 'the transmission of information from the textbook to the student's examination script without causing any disturbance to the student's brain', or 'to develop the next generation of experts within a given discipline'. If we take the view that developing student expertise within a given subject is a valid goal, then the teaching within a discipline has to mirror the professional activities which characterise that discipline. If not, we run the risk of creating a 'centre of non-learning' (sensu Kinchin, Lygo-Baker and Hay, 2008). This work is, therefore, explicit in the aim of developing the expert student, defined as: one who recognises the existence and complementary purposes of different knowledge structures, and seeks to integrate them in the application of practice.

Background

Over the past six years, I have been working with colleagues at King's to investigate the nature of professional expertise and the way in which this relates to the university curriculum. In brief, the variation in knowledge structures that forms a part of the practice of subject experts and practitioners is often overlooked in the development of university curricula. University teaching is traditionally dominated by the transmission of linear sequences of information that bear little resemblance to the structure of the discipline being taught. The consequence of this mismatch is that students resort to rote learning, with the result that students simply acquire information but do not develop their understanding - described as 'non-learning' (Kinchin, Lygo-Baker and Hay, 2008).

The first hand observation of the practice of experts (from the perspective of the knowledge structures they employ) shows that they oscillate purposefully from the chains of practice that characterise their professional activity and the underlying networks of understanding that allow them to appreciate the steps in these chains and to be involved in the evolution of practice by justifying the

modification of chains of practice as circumstances change (Kinchin and Cabot, 2010). This activity needs to be mirrored in the teaching of undergraduates so that they learn to think like dentists / historians / engineers etc. and not just mimic their professional actions.

The result of this is that we can visualise a model of the expert student to appreciate the general principles of expertise that can later be modified to suit particular disciplinary contexts (Fig. 1):
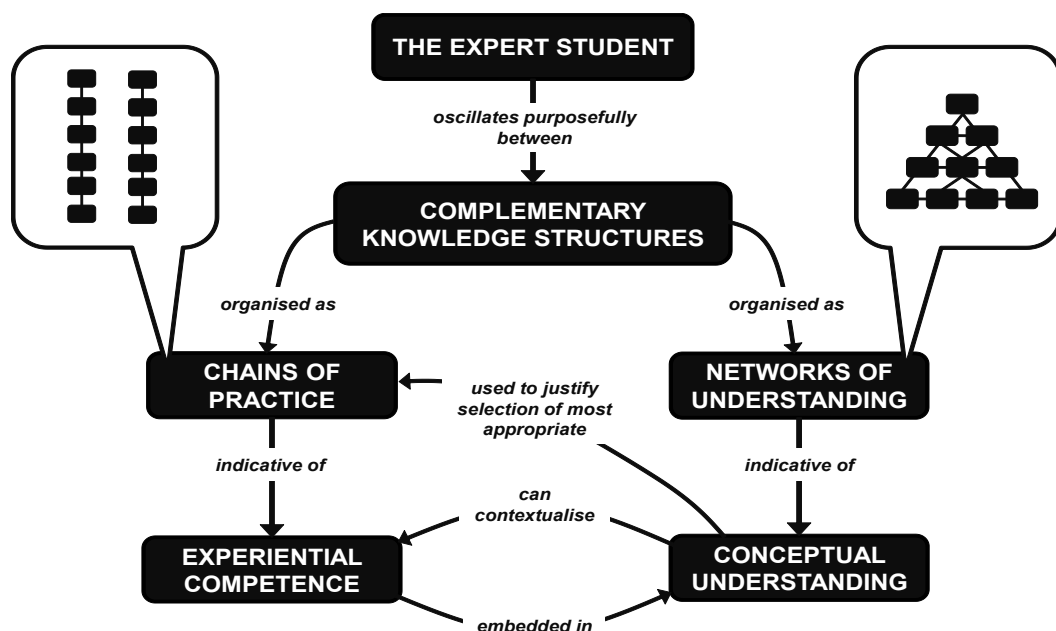

Figure 1

The expert student is one who recognises the existence and complementary purposes of different knowledge structures (typically seen as chains of practice and networks of understanding), and seeks to integrate them in the application of practice. (modified from Kinchin and Cabot, 2010).

Consequences for learning & teaching

The model in figure 1 shows that there are two sides to learning. These are:

1. *The experiential component.* This is the practical part of the subject that might include conducting laboratory protocols in the pure sciences; performing clinical procedures in dentistry; analysing text in history; teaching a class in education; designing a circuit in electrical engineering; measuring water flow in a river in geography etc etc. This part of the curriculum is often

learned as isolated linear sequences of activity that employ segmented learning so that ability in one segment is not necessarily required for demonstrate ability in another segment.

2. *The conceptual component.* This is the theoretical part of the subject that might include an appreciation of physiology in the pure sciences; understanding anatomy in dentistry; understanding the political context of a text in history; a consideration of pedagogy in education; understanding the physics of a component in electrical engineering; understanding hydrological processes in geography etc etc. This part of the curriculum is often learned in an integrated manner and employs cumulative learning so that learning a new concept often builds upon prior knowledge.

If we accept these two complementary components of learning, then we have to accept that there will be points where a student is concentrating on one aspect to the exclusion of the other. This means that students will spend some time acquiring information that will be integrated later. So in terms of developing understanding, there will be periods that could be referred to as 'conceptual stasis' (Kinchin, 2010). That means that whilst there is active acquisition of information, there may not be any development in understanding at that point. Such understanding will happen as bursts in what has been described as a punctuated model of learning (Mintzes and Quinn, 2007).

One obvious consequence of this is that we must ensure that formal assessment coincides with periods of conceptual change (i.e. after the conceptual thresholds have been crossed), and not with periods of conceptual stasis where, by definition, the measurement of learning would be a futile exercise and may cause students to revert to rote learning of materials such that examinations would only be measuring non-learning.

Threshold concepts

The literature on threshold concepts contends that there are key ideas within a discipline which will have the function of integrating understanding and transforming the student's perspective of a subject. These threshold concepts are described as acting as a portal, giving access to a previously inaccessible way of thinking about something (see: Land, Meyer and Smith, 2008; Meyer and Land, 2006; Meyer, Land and Baillie, 2010). The idea of threshold concepts appears compatible with the consideration of learning as a punctuated process and can be visualised through the model given

in figure 1. However, there is little consensus on the threshold concepts for each discipline, leaving departments with the following important questions to address:

a) What are the threshold concepts with my discipline?

b) How should these be arranged within the curriculum?

c) How can we prepare students to meet these threshold concepts by ensuring they have the pre-requisite knowledge in a form that is amenable to integration?

d) How can we assess that students have acquired the threshold concepts?

Loertscher (2011) contends that: "*Because of the importance of threshold concepts in mastery of a discipline, it is reasonable to expect that if more time were spent develop-ing threshold concepts early in the study of a discipline, the learning of additional core concepts would happen more quickly and student understanding of core concepts would be deeper.*" However, the knowledge structures perspective that has been described here suggests that the opposite might be the case: that core concepts need to be in place and amenable to subsequent integration by threshold concepts. It may actually be the case that different students will approach threshold concepts at different stages of the curricu-lum and from differing perspectives, depending upon their prior knowledge/experience and motivation. What is important is that teachers *and* students realise that there are different knowledge structures within the curriculum that require appropriate learning and teaching strategies so that whenever threshold concepts are approached, students have the neces-sary cognitive tools to make the transition from novice to expert, and do not retreat into the default position of non-learning.

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التعلم النشط

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– مهارات التفكير العليا كالتفكير الناقد والتفكير الإبداعي .

– مهارات ماوراء المعرفة .

– مهارات القراءه

– مهارات إعداد الجداول وتفسيرها .

– مهارات عمل الرسوم البيانية وقراءتها .

– المهارات العملية مثل التجارب والأنشطة .

– مهارات التواصل مع الآخرين .

– المهارات اللغوية .

جـ - التعلم النشط والقيم

القيم عبارة عن مجموعة من المبادئ والمعايير التي يكتسبها الفرد من خلال بيئته الاجتماعية ويحكم بها على سلوك الآخرين فيما إذا كان مقبولا اجتماعيا أو غير مقبول .

ومن وسائل التعلم النشط للقيم :

– المحاكاة و النمذجة :إذا كان المحاضر قدوة صالحة فان الطلاب يقتدون به عن طريق المحاكاة والنمذجة .

– التعلم بالأقران   يكسب الطلاب كثير من القيم كاحترام الأداء والتعاون والتنازل عن الرأي .

– التعلم التعاوني القائم على تبادل الآراء واحترامها واكتساب القيم الاجتماعية كالتعاون والإيثار والتضحية.

– الطريقة الحوارية : حيث يتعلم الطلاب حسن الإصغاء وآداب الحوار واحترام الرأي الأخر وغيرها من القيم .

ويقوم التعلم التعاوني على التعاون الايجابي بين أعضاء المجموعة فيعلم بعضهم بعضا ويكسبون مهارات اجتماعيه تساعدهم على التكيف الاجتماعي عن طريق تبادل الأفكار والحوار والمناقشة وإقامة المشروعات , فيمارس الطالب مهارات التفكير , ويأخذ بوجهات نظر الآخرين,وتزداد دافعية نحو التعلم وتقوى علاقاته الاجتماعية مع زملائه فيكتسب مهارات التعاون وغيرها من المهارات التي تساعده على التكيف الاجتماعي الذي يساعد على تحقيق تعلم أفضل, ويتدرب على المسؤولية الفردية فكل طالب مسئول عن الدور الموكل به فيساهم في تعليم زملائه .

أدوار التعلم التعاوني :

القائد : يوجه أعضاء المجموعة ويرشدهم نحو تحقيق أهداف التعلم .

المفسر : يقوم بشرح الأفكار التي تحتاج إلى توضيح .

الكاتب :يقوم بكتابة الملحوظات المختلفة كما يسجل نتائج التعلم .

الملخص : يقوم بتلخيص ما ورد من أفكار أثناء المنافشة والحوار والعمل .

المشجع : يقوم بتحفيز وتشجيع أعضاء المجموعة لتحقيق التعلم والوصول إلى هدف المجموعة .

التعلم النشط ونواتج التعلم

أ – التعلم النشط واكتساب المعارف

يكتشف المتعلمون من خلال التعلم النشط المعارف والحقائق والمفاهيم بأنفسهم فتصبح ذات معنى بالنسبة لهم ويدوم تذكرها مدة أطول . كما يربط المتعلم المعارف التي يتعلمها بحياته ويوظفها في مواقفه اليومية وبذلك يحقق التعلم النشط الفرصة لتحقيق التكامل بين المواد الدراسية المختلفة , كمايكتسب المتعلمون المعرفة من خلال التعلم الذاتي والتعلم المستمر من خلال وسائل التقنية المختلفة .

ب – دور التعلم النشط في تنمية المهارات

يقوم التعلم النشط على ممارسة المهارات التالية :

– مهارات الملاحظة الدقيقة وتسجيلها .

إستراتيجية اتخاذ القرار

تعد إستراتيجية اتخاذ القرار من إستراتيجيات التعلم النشط لأنه عندها يشترك الطالب في اتخاذ القرارات في أنشطة التعلم فأنه يشعر بالارتياح الذي يزيد دافعيته نحو التعلم وهذا ما أكدته دراسة الهاجري ١٩٩٨ حيث أكدت نتائجها أن اتخاذ الطالب القرار في أنشطة التعلم تزيد من دافعيته للتحصيل والتعلم والنجاح أما دراسة رولين ١٩٩٨ فقد أشارت على ان هناك نظامين مختلفين في أسلوبهما التعليمي احدهما يتيح لكل من المحاضر والطفل اختيار القرار في أنشطة التعلم وطرق التدريس ووسائله ومكان التعلم وزمانه بينما المحاضر الآخر يعمل بالنظام المدرسي المعتاد حيث يفرض على الطفل طرق التعلم ومكانه وزمانه ،فأظهرت النتائج تفوق أطفال النظام الذي اعتمد إستراتيجية اتخاذ القرار على النظام المدرسي المعتاد دراسيا واجتماعيا، كما زادت دافعيتهم للتعلم والاستماع به أما المواقف التي يستطيع أن يشارك فيها الطالب في اتخاذ القرارات فهي

- تخطيط المقرر
- تنظيم الطلاب في مجموعات
- تنظيم المكان (القاعات الدراسية)
- تنظيم الوقت (تخطيط أسابيع الدراسة)
- اختيار الأنشطة الفردية والجماعية
- اختيار المجموعة التي سيعمل معها
- اختيار مصادر التعلم
- اختيار تقنيات التعلم ووسائله

إستراتيجية التعلم التعاوني

التعلم التعاوني إستراتيجة تعلم يتم فيه تقسيم الطلاب إلى مجموعات صغيره غير متجانسة (مختلفة المستويات) يتراوح عدد أفراد كل مجموعه من ٤إلى ٦ طلاب ويعلم الطلاب بعضهم بعضا ويسعون إلى تحقيق هدف مشترك في تحقيق هدف أو أهداف مشتركة .

التعلم الذاتي دعامة التعلم النشط

اهتم الباحثون التربويون بالتعلم الذاتي باعتباره أسلوبا فعالا في التعلم لأنه يساعد المتعلم على تعلم يتناسب مع قدراته واستعداداته ,وميوله,وسرعته في التعلم . كما أن دور المتعلم دورا ايجابيا نشطا في التعلم ,ويتعود من خلاله على تحمل المسؤولية فهو يتعلم بنفسه ووفق إمكانياته وخصائصه .ويمثل التعلم الذاتي بيئة محفزه للتعلم ومشجعه على الإبداع كما أن من خلال التعلم الذاتي يكتسب مهارات التعلم المستمر التي تدعم التعلم النشط كما يوفر التعلم الذاتي الدافعية للتعلم ويوفر التغذية الراجعة المستمرة للمتعلمين .

دور المحاضر في التعلم الذاتي :

أ- دوره في إدارة بيئة التعلم :

– البدء بأهداف التعلم الذاتي .

– المشاركة في تنظيم المهمات اللازمة للتعلم الذاتي .

– تنظيم الفصل للممارسة التعلم الذاتي .

– اقتراح أنشطة تعليمية للعمل الجماعي والفردي .

– استخدام استراتيجيات متعددة لتنمية التعلم الذاتي .

– تكوين مجموعات العمل بطرق مختلفة .

– ملاحظة أداء الطلاب

ب- دوره في التعامل مع المتعلمين :

– إرشاد المتعلمين إلى استخدام وقتهن استخداما نافعا وناسبا .

– تشجيعهم على التعاون .

– متابعة تنفيذ المتعلمين للخطط التي وضعوها لتعلمهم .

– مساعدتهم على ممارسة مهامهم .

– إرشادهم عند تقويم أعمالهم .

وفقا لنظرية الذكاء المتعدد Multiple Intelligent يختلف الطلاب في أسلوب التعلم وذلك يتطلب ممارسات تدريسية تراعي ذلك الاختلاف .

بيئة التعلم النشط

لا نستطيع تحقيق أهداف التعلم النشط ما لم تتوفر بيئة تعلم بناءة مشجعة على التعلم بكافة أبعادها والمتمثلة أولا في البيئة الفيزيقية ونعني بها القاعات الدراسية وتجهيزاتها وأثاثها وموادها التعليمية ووسائلها اللازمة لتنفيذ الأنشطة وثانيا في توفير المناخ العاطفي والاجتماعي الذي يسود التعاون والانتماء للجماعة مما يولد الدافعية نحو التعلم والانجاز وثالثا توفير الخبرات التعليمية المتنوعة ذات المعنى للمتعلم مع التخطيط الجيد لها ومتابعة أداء المتعلمين وتوجيههم ومراعاة الفروق الفردية بينهم ، ولن تؤدي بيئة التعلم النشط دورها إلا بإدارة متميزة للموقف التعليمي تساعد على التفاعل المثمر البناء وتقوم بملاحظة المتعلمين وتوجيههم وتقويمهم مع تقديم تقرير عن تقدم الطلاب في تعلمهم .

خطوات التعلم النشط

- اعمل على إثارة تفكير الطلاب .
- ابن التعلم الجديد على الخبرات السابقة
- أضف المرح إلى تعلم الطلاب .
- تذكر أن عقول الطلاب تعمل بفعالية مع الود والرفق
- نظم جلسة الطلاب وفقا لأهداف التعلم .
- عزز تعلم الطلاب في الوقت المناسب .
- نوع استراتيجيات التعلم .
- احترم الطلاب وقدرهم .
- تذكر أن الإصغاء الحسن نصف التعلم .
- نوع أساليب تقويم تعلم الطلاب .
- نوع مصادر التعلم .
- كن هادئا صبورا متفاعلا والشكل التالي يوضح خطوات التعلم النشط .

– التفاعل بين المحاضر والمتعلمين :

إن التفاعل بين المحاضر والمتعلمين في أنشطة التعلم المختلفة تحفيزهم على التعلم ،فتجعلهم يتعلمون بحماس ويحققون أهدافهم وخططهم المستقبلية .

– التعاون بين المتعلمين :

وجد أن التعلم يتعزز بصورة اكبر عندما يكون على شكل جماعي .فالتدريس الجيد كالعمل الجيد الذي يطلب التشارك والتعاون .

– التعلم بالنشاط

وجد أن المتعلمين لا يتعلمون إلا من خلال الإنصات وكتابة المذكرا ت ،وإنما من خلال المناقشة والبحث والتجريب والكتابة وربط ما تعلموه بخبراتهم السابقة ، بل وبتطبيقها في حياتهم اليومية

– تقديم التغذية الراجعة

حيث أن معرفة المتعلمين بما يعرفونه يساعدهم على فهم طبيعة معارفهم وتقييمها فالمتعلمون بحاجة الى أن يتأملوا فيما تعلموه (Meta-congniting) ومايجب ان يتعلموه والى تقييم ماتعلموه وتحديد مالايعرفونه وهذا بدوره يؤدي الى التركيز الشديد في موضوع التعلم .

– الممارسات التدريسية النشطة التي توفر وقتا كافيا للتعلم (زمن + جهد = تعلم) :

يحتاج التعلم إلى وقت كاف . لذا يحتاج المتعلمين إلى تعلم مهارات إدارة الوقت، كما أن التعلم النشط يدرب على كيفية استغلال الوقت .

– التعلم النشط هو الذي يضع توقعات عالية (توقع أكثر تجد تجاوبا أكثر)

وقد تبين أنه من المهم وضع توقعات عالية لأداء المتعلمين لأن ذلك يساعد المتعلمين على محاولة تحقيقها .

– التعلم النشط يبني على أساس الذكاءات المتعددة لذلك يستخدم طرقاً متعددة في التعلم :

مفهوم التعلم النشط

يرى سيلبرمن silberman (٢٠٠٦) أن الطلاب في التعلم النشط يمارسون مهاراتهم بفاعلية ويدرسون الأفكار جيدا ويعملون على حل المشكلات ويتعلمون في جو من الاستمتاع لأنهم يمارسون أنشطة تتناول قضايا حيوية متنوعة ذات صلة بما يجري حولهم من أحداث يومية تحفزهم على تحمل المسؤولية اختياراتهم الفكرية عند المناقشة والحوار أو القيام بالمسئوليات .

ويرى سعادة (٢٠٠٧) أن التعلم النشط طريقة تعلم وتعليم في آن واحد يشترك فيه الطلبة بأنشطة متنوعة تسمح لهم بالإصغاء الايجابي والتفكير الواعي والتحليل السليم لمادة الدراسة ،حيث يتشارك المتعلمون في الآراء في وجود المحاضر الميسر لعملية التعلم مما يدفعهم نحو تحقيق أهداف التعلم

يمكن تعريف التعلم النشط بأنه عملية يتم فيها التعلم عن طريق نشاط المتعلم تحت إِشراف المحاضر ابتداء من الإصغاء الايجابي والتفكير فالبحث والتجريب وإقامة المشروعات من خلال بيئة تعلم محفزة

الحاجة إلى التعلم النشط

تظهر الحاجة إلى التعلم النشط

- ضعف الاستفادة من حفظ المعلومات التي يم تقديمها للطالب
- عندما لا يتعلم الطلاب تعلم ذا معنى
- عندما لا يرتبط التعلم بحياة المتعلمين
- ضعف أثر التعلم على نمو المتعلمين وتطور مهاراتهم
- ضعف ممارسة مهارات التفكير

مبادي التعلم النشط

أوردت كريمان بدير (٢٠٠٨،٣٧) مبادئ التعلم النشط ويكمن تلخيصها على النحو التالي :

الهدف العام من الورقة

المساهمة في النمو المهني لعضو هي التدريس وتطويره من خلال نشر ثقافة التعلم النشط .

الهدف الخاص من الورقة

تعرف عضو هيئة التدريس على :

– منظومة التعلم .

– مفهوم التعلم النشط

– بيئة التعلم النشط

– مبادئ التعلم النشط

– استراتيجيات التعلم النشط

– التعلم النشط ونواتج التعلم

– واقع تعليمنا في ضوء التعلم النشط

منظومة التعلم

هي ذلك الكل المنظم من العناصر المتفاعلة والمكونة من المدخلات والعمليات والمخرجات المؤدية إلى إحداث عملية التعلم وبالتالي إلى تحقيق الأهداف التعليمية ،وتتمثل المدخلات في الأهداف التعليمية المراد تحقيقها والمتعلم واستعداداته وحاجاته واهتماماته وخصائص نموه والمحاضر وخصائصه الشخصية والاجتماعية والأكاديمية وبيئة التعلم بكافة مكوناتها المادية والمعنوية كالقاعة ا لدراسية وخصائصها الفيزيائية والعلاقات بين عضو هيئة التدريس والطلاب والعلاقات بين الطلاب أنفسهم ومحتوى التعلم وإستراتيجيات التعلم ومصادر التعلم ووسائله أما العمليات فتشمل جميع الممارسات والأنشطة التعلمية التعليمية المؤدية على تحقيق التعلم بما في ذلك إجراءات التقويم والتغذية الراجعة ووسائلهما وأخيرا لمخرجات التي تحققت أو اكتسبها الطلاب بعد مرورهم بعملية التعلم والشكل التالي يوضح منظومة التعلم

التعلم النشط

د. لطيفة بنت صالح السميري
أستاذ المناهج العامة بكلية التربية - جامعة الملك سعود

The Art
of Teaching

Gill Jones

PGCE, PCET, MA PCET, FHEA

Director of Enterprise, Cardiff School of Education

THE 1ST ANNUAL FORUM FOR UNIVERSITY TEACHING

Towards Better Univrersity Teaching

is painting.

Paintings are crafted by artists.

The work of the artists can be long-lasting.

The artist is often dead before his/her skill is truly appreciated.

This session aims to:

- Examine the concept of artistry and the role of the university lecturer;

- Discuss the role and responsibilities of the university lecturer in bringing about effective learning and contributing to the quality enhancement activity of KSU;

- Explore elements of underpinning education theory that guide the practice of a good university lecturer and promote excellence in practice;

- Investigate strategies that instil best practice in the planning and preparation for effective learning and teaching;

- Explore strategies that encourage students to engage in the learning and teaching process.

The session will be useful for those who:

- Have recently been appointed to an academic role;

- Are undertaking a course for the training of academic staff who will teach in the higher education sector;

- Are interested in working as an teacher/lecturer in the higher education sector;

- May be looking to refresh/affirm their approach to working with adult learners.

What do we mean by the term 'the art of teaching'?

> The mediocre teacher tells;
> The good teacher explains;
> The superior teacher explains;
> The great teacher inspires.
> *William Arthur Ward*

I will start here by asking questions...

- How many of us can remember an inspirational teacher from our travels through the education system?

- What was it that made him/her so memorable?

- Are good teachers born, or are they made?

'Every good course is run by a good teacher ... [however], like a lot of jobs, the people who are good at it make it look easy' (Corder, 2002, p. xv). These words are very true, particularly when we consider that teaching is the profession that teaches all the other professions (Anon).

What is the role and responsibility of the teacher/lecturer in higher education?

The first few years as an academic can be a challenge. In between writing new material, researching and responding to student queries, you are also trying to look at the best way to deliver your subject, hone your teaching skills, inspire your students and impress your colleagues! (Knight, 2002).

Armitage *et al.* (2007, p88) stipulate that the teacher has two major responsibilities: firstly, the planning of well structured, stimulating and effectively taught sessions that have coherent aims and objectives and clear assessment; and secondly, the management of the learning environment so that students can achieve their potential.

Clearly part of the role of the teacher (or lecturer) in higher education is to motivate/inspire students to learn. Often, academic staff are employed on the basis of their expertise in a given subject or their capabilities as a researcher and little thought is given to supporting them to develop skills to teach. Expertise in a subject does not necessarily mean expert teacher. Competence in the classroom or in the lecture theatre is something to work at.

That said, the key to being a great teacher (or lecturer) is based upon strong subject knowledge. I have found many instances where an approach to learning and teaching will work in one context and not in another. For example, when I began teaching, I used to teach students to knit (textiles) and was challenged as to how I could use role-play as a means of doing this. However, one of my

contemporaries was teaching Spanish and quite happily used role-play regularly to develop language acquisition. One approach does not fit all and it is the role of the subject specialist to recognise the most appropriate way of sharing information with students to ensure that learning is effective.

How do we aim to make learning and teaching effective?

Students have differing approaches to their learning and just as we say that academic staff have a responsibility to build a stimulating learning environment, there is also a responsibility for students to interact and participate in the environment built. This is referred to as 'student-centred learning' (Cannon & Newble, 2000). An approach that involves students' 'doing', rather than teachers 'doing'.

When comparing traditional teaching approaches and student-centred approaches to learning and teaching, the role of the academic, becomes more managerial with student-centred learning as s/he will direct and facilitate learning activities.

This needs to be factored in to planning for learning.

Differences between Student-centred Learning and Conventional Teaching

Student Centred Learning	Conventional Teaching
Teacher is a guide - a facilitator of learning	Teacher dispenses knowledge
Students have an active role	Students are passive
Emphasis on enquiry-type activities	Emphasis on receiving information
Students encouraged to make choices	Decisions are made by the teacher
Cooperative learning	Individual learning
Greater flexibility	Relatively inflexible
Long term perspective (lifelong learning)	Short term perspective (emphasis on passing exams

Extracted and adapted from Cannon & Newble (2002*, pp*17)

The Student Centred Approach

As far as the teacher (or lecturer) is concerned, this is based on the following key features:

The teacher does not merely give information. S/he is better regarded as the manager of the learning experience; a resource, guide and facilitator in the learning process

- Teachers must provide clear learning goals (educational objectives/intended learning outcomes) and targets to achieve so that learners know where they are going.

- The teacher must devise the most appropriate learning strategies to achieve her/his objectives. Full use must be made of the widest choice of resources and facilities.

- The content of the learning session must be carefully chosen so that objectives are reached.

- Through assessment and evaluation the tutor must determine whether learning has taken place and objectives achieved.

- The learning experience must be analysed and evaluated to see if any improvements ormodifications are needed.

This concept of <doing> and learning through experience, can be linked to the work of Kolb. His Experiential Learning Cycle suggests that there are four elements within the cycle of learning:

- Activity (*Concrete experience*) - Learning by doing

- Reflection (*Reflective observation*) - Reflecting on success/ways of improving

- Theory (*Abstract conceptualisation*) - Build understanding

- Practice (*Active experimentation*) - Plan of action

It would be unwise to assume that all learners have strong skills in each area of the cycle, so it is important to look at student preferences and strengths in order to establish the best way for him/her to learn, maximising the effectiveness of learning.

Additionally, when looking at the ways information is presented, it is important to incorporate visual, auditory and kinaesthetic stimuli. This ensures that the preferences of all learners are met.

Contributing to Quality Assurance/Enhancement

Whatever the generic skills and subject specific knowledge required of the lecturer in higher education, it is important to have some consideration to the ways in which personal practice reflects the Vision and Mission of your organisation. The Mission of King Saud University is to 'Provide students with a quality education' (KSU, 2010, p1). This is further reflected in the following KSU strategic objectives: 1) Establish excellence in all fields of scholarship and research; and 3) Provide graduate students with the best education and opportunities that will enhance their knowledge, skills and relevant experience.

From a Quality Assurance perspective, this links to the NCAAA Standard 4: Learning and Teaching whereby the institution must ensure that its programmes 'meet high standards of learning and teaching' and that teaching staff are 'appropriately qualified and experienced for their particular

teaching responsibilities'. The standards go on to confirm that academic staff should use suitable teaching strategies and 'participate in activities to improve their teaching effectiveness' (NCAAA, no date).

This approach correlates with measures implemented in the UK to standardise the professional role of academic staff in higher education. At UWIC, academic staff are contractually required to attain/work towards attaining Fellowship of the Higher Education Academy. The HEA have developed a Professional Standards Framework and all those working in the higher education sector are expected to align their practice to the activities, core knowledge and professional values when teaching and supporting learning in higher education.

How do we plan for effective Learning and Teaching?

Planning a session can be a time-consuming activity and there are tutors/trainers who <know> their specialist subject and may consider this to be sufficient, however, *<failing to plan is to planning to fail>*. Planning a session:

- Provides guidelines for preparation (e.g. booking resources, photocopying)
- Summarises the lesson content and delivery
- Provides a record of what has been taught (Quality Assurance)
- Can provide a basis for course/lesson evaluation
- Can be used to track students through a course
- Provides guidelines for a substitute trainer
- Aids the effectiveness of learning and teaching
- Ensures time is well spent

Planning for a session creates a 'cue sheet' (Minton, 1991). It enables you to structure a learning event/programme and can be referred to throughout a session to check where a lesson is going. At UWIC, all students undertaking the Post Graduate Certificate in Education are required to produce sessions plans. A lesson plan should include the objectives and indicate how these stated objectives will be achieved.

Pointers:

1. Lesson planning should focus on achieving the objectives stipulated.
2. Learning sessions should be logically structured
3. Variety, in terms of student activity and teaching methods used, is essential.

4. Students should be active, rather than passive.

5. Activities can often take longer than expected.

6. Include <extension material> - challenging activities for more able learners.

7. Lesson plans should contain a beginning, a middle and an end:

The Introduction (beginning):

Links to previous learning made
Learning objectives for the session highlighted (formally/informally)
Introductory talk/Q&A to focus learners

The Main Body (middle):

Student activity (developing abilities to achieve stated objectives)

Tutor/Trainer input/facilitation

Checks on the effectiveness of teaching methods utilised

The Conclusion (end):

A summary of learning achieved is outlined

Links to future learning made

What factors influence Session Planning ?

There are a number of factors that influence the planning of a session, for example:

- Tutor>s planning skills

- Time available for planning

- The syllabus/curriculum

- Subject area

- Time available for learning & teaching

- Timing of <topic> in the programme as a whole

- Room allocation/designated facilities

- Availability of resources

- Cost

- Health & Safety

- Student>s ability (knowledge/skills/attitudes)

- Student>s learning styles

- Tutor>s ability (subject specific and delivery)

- Tutor>s learning and teaching style

- Age/maturity

- Student>s specific learning need/s

Additionally, you will also need to factor in the student's concentration span. Petty (2004) suggests that for undergraduates, when <teacher talk> is used, the concentration span is approximately 15-20 minutes. After this period, students begin to <dream off> and may miss vital learning points so a <variety of student activity helps to maintain concentration>.
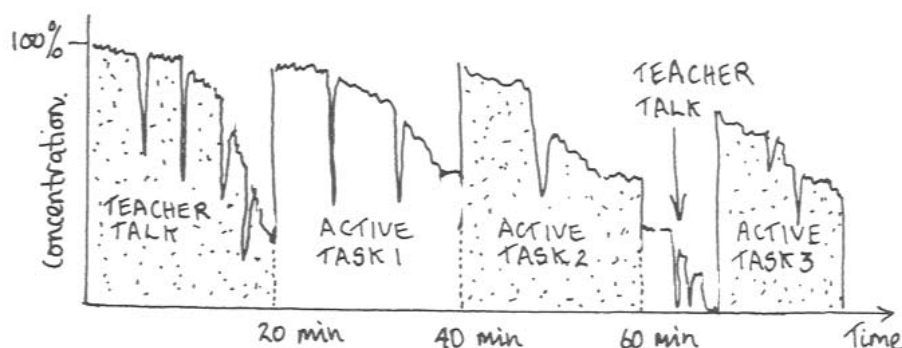
Extracted from Petty (2004, *p*426)

What teaching methods should I select and use to engage my learners?

The objectives set for a learning event/programme influence not only the content, but also the learning activities; as the activities, or teaching methods employed by the teacher/trainer, should allow for these objectives to be achieved.

There are a number of methods that can be used in the learning and teaching situation. For example: lecture, demonstration, question and answer, discussion, simulation, games, role play, chalk and talk, visits and case studies to name just a few. As a facilitator of learning and teaching, it is important to recognise that while this array of teaching methods can provide variety in delivery, there are a number of factors that need to be considered at the planning stage. These could include:

- Course team
- Objectives

- Teacher>s own experience/confidence
- Student>s needs
- Teaching room
- Appropriateness (age/maturity/topic)
- Cost

While it is a nice thought to consider having complete freedom to select the most appropriate teaching methods to bring about learning, as a tutor, delivering an accredited learning programme at UWIC, I have been part of a team, and often have had to adopt a common approach that has been strategically decided at validation. Minton (1991, page 112) suggests that the teaching methods range from total control by the tutor, through to total control by the individual of his/her own learning.

Teacher Control		Lecture
		Demonstration
		Discussion
	Less Control	Seminar/Tutorial
		Practical
		Simulation & Games
	Shared Control	Role Play
		Resources based learning
		Films/TV programmes
	Student Control	Visits
		Distance Learning/Flex Study
Least Control		Discovery Projects/Research
		Real-life Experience

Learning and Retention

This aspect of <control> can be linked to learning and retention. As we have previously acknowledged, students have differing styles of learning and in a large class, whatever approach you adopt, you may not meet the needs of all of the students all of the time. However, if a tutor/trainer incorporates variety in delivery s/he will be playing to their strengths at least some of the time.

When planning for learning and teaching, thought has to be given to how the subject will be conveyed. Biggs(2003) cites Glasser (1988) when discussing the ways in which students learn and the successful retention of information given. He rationalises that the more engaged learners are in the process, the more

likely they will be to recall what they have been taught.

Successful recall	Learning Activity
10%	Reading
20%	Listening
30%	Observing
50%	Observing and Listening
70%	Discussing learning points with others
80%	Application to what students do in real life
90%	Teaching someone else a learning point

Adapted from Biggs (2003, p80).

A <rap> that many tutors can fall into, is to become comfortable and familiar with one or two teaching methods and stick to them throughout their teaching career, regardless of the topic area or learning group. There is also the additional danger that the tutor may become <bored>; and by using different methods, different skills will be developed in the learner (Petty, 2004) and make the task of teaching/ training more stimulating and challenging.

Conclusion

When Leonardo Da Vinci painted the Mona Lisa in the 16th century, it was probably viewed as a good painting. Now, nearly 500 years later, and housed in the Louvre museum, it is revered as the most famous painting in the history of arts. If teachers are the artists of their craft, it is likely that our professional endeavours will be seen in the years to come when our learners become successful contributors to society.

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Effective Teaching

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THE 1ST ANNUAL FORUM FOR UNIVERSITY TEACHING

Towards Better Univrersity Teaching

Ellen J. Langer begins the final chapter of her book *The Power of Mindful Learning* by recounting the story of "The Four Artful Brothers" from the Brothers Grimm's Fairy Tales. In the tale a poor father sends his four sons off to find trades on their own, since he cannot support them. One becomes a thief, another, a stargazer, a third becomes a hunter and the fourth becomes a tailor. As it happens in these tales, the king's daughter is carried off by a dragon and the king offers to give her in marriage to the man who can rescue her. In the adventure that follows, the skills of each brother rather than the skill of any one alone prove necessary in rescuing the girl. Each having played an essential part in the rescue, each brother voices his claim to have the daughter's hand in marriage. Since all four can't marry the daughter, the king, instead, gives each brother an equal part of the kingdom. And they are happy with this resolution.

Of this tale, Langer observes: "The king wisely saw that each brother was right and wrong in his exclusive claim. Many of us, as students or teachers, are still in search of the one right answer. This belief in a single right answer rests on a view of intelligence that emphasizes outcomes and expert authority."

And with regard to effective teaching, we may also ask what are the outcomes we really seek and what constitutes the most profound manifestation of expert authority.

Efforts to define "effective teaching" have -- like the careers of the four brothers -- followed a variety of paths and arrived at a variety of answers. None of these efforts has managed to distill any method or technique or set of techniques that reliably produce effective teaching in every circumstance. This is not because effective teaching cannot be meaningfully described and discussed, but simply because the essence of effective teaching lies so far beyond the realm of method and technique. In a sense effective teaching parallels effective therapy. Research has shown that any of the standard modes of psychological therapy can be as effective as any other if a bond of be-

lief and trust exists between the client and the therapist. In teaching, cooperative learning works wonderfully well for certain teachers, with certain students in presenting some particular material. For others, lecture (though now much maligned) proves very effective. And the same may be said of problem-based learning, experiential learning, active learning, "just-in-time teaching" and a host of other pedagogical approaches.

If there is no "silver bullet," no magic, one-size-fits-all approach, how may we most productively take up the subject of effective teaching?

One approach has been description in the manner of *In Search of Excellence* the popular book on business by Thomas J. Peters and Robert H. Waterman from back in 1982. Ken Bain, director of the teaching and learning center at New York University has followed something like the *In Search of Excellence* approach in his book *What The Best College Teachers Do* (Harvard, 2004). Basically he surveyed teachers identified on their campuses as "the best" seeking the answers to these important questions.

What do they know about how we learn?

How do they prepare to teach?

What do they expect of their students?

How do they conduct class?

How do they treat their students?

How do they evaluate their students and themselves?

These are all important questions and we can always learn a great deal through careful observation. Moreover, the observation and description approach has the support of classical wisdom behind it. Aristotle, after all, said that if one wants to teach a child what it is to be good, to be a good man, take him and seat him before a man the community regards as "good" and tell him to be like that. But there are limits to what can be learned from observation. Patterns of imitation derived from observation can carry us just so far. Contexts and circumstances continually shift and effec-

tive action of any kind be it effective teaching or any other mode of principled action requires accommodation to actual realities. One must teach the students before him, not some imagined ideal of the student, and so on.

Effective teaching, then, emerges not as finding a universal "right" technique or in imitating the successful approaches of other good teachers. It begins in consciously forming a solid philosophy of teaching and a commitment to an on-going, reflective, indeed "mindful" awareness of the effectiveness of one's self and one's actions in teaching. Good teachers do not assume that what worked last year or last semester will necessarily work this year and this semester. They remain reflective about their practice, adaptable and creative in their approach. Good teachers accept the fact that while effective teaching at the lowest level may be the mere transmission of facts (the first Bloom taxonomy level), effective college teaching aims for a much higher level of intellectual development. At the college level, effective teaching is not about *transmission* of information, but about the *transformation* of students. Effective college teaching transforms students ability to think, leading them to develop intellectual skills with which they can synthesis information and ideas and thus creatively add to the store of knowledge and thought rather than merely receive the knowledge and thought of others.

Effective teaching requires that teachers teach by modeling, by being themselves exemplars of the thinking skills students will need in order to become life-long learners. Effective teachers must in some sense be transparent to their students, transparent as teachers willing to share and lead rather than merely tell or declare. Effective teachers live the life that finds its vitality in continual questioning and probing. The authority of effective teachers comes essentially from their *being* rather than merely from their *knowing*. It comes from who they are, their character and philosophy, more profoundly than from the facts and theories they are masters of. Of course effective teachers must know their subjects well, and of course they must be well-organized and communicate clearly, but the most important lesson an effective teacher has to share lies in the invitation his life poses to students to join great quest of asking, of inquiry, the seeking of knowledge and understanding.

Great teachers, truly effective professors, "profess" through the vitality, the eagerness, the excitement as well as the skill in their "asking." The spirit of excited, purposeful inquiry animates them. And so when they "tell" what they know as contrast with "asking" after knowledge, even there they convey a spirit of exhortation to students to join with them in the quest for knowledge and understanding. As they impart knowledge, they are always welcoming students to come with them in search of more.

To explore these notions of effective teaching, we will look at a variety of models to see what implications for an effective philosophy of teaching may be drawn from them.

People have been learning from the beginning of time without the aid of teachers as we know them today. What might we learn from these "auto-didacts," these "self-taught" learners? Especially what might we learn from them about motivation, that vital spark that begins the learning process?

In the history of great teachers and models of great teaching two names emerge - Socrates and Augustine. Socrates method turned entirely on questions and questioning. Augustine was more declarative, but Augustine made important distinctions about the types of students and the differing ways they needed to be approached and the voice the teacher needed to use to reach them. His understanding of fitting the instruction to the student stands equal in importance to Socrates understanding of the importance of uncertainty, of questioning and of the sheer power of cognition.

But in teaching cognition isn't everything. Though the ancients have much still to teach us about effective teaching, so does modern science. What implications does the latest neurobiological research into how the brain works, how we learn, have for the way effective teaching needs to be approached? We have learned that cognition is only part of the picture, that affect, the emotions, play a central, not a minor or secondary one. How, then, do effective teachers and effective teaching grapple with these important insights?

Finally, we will explore how these ideas begin to take shape in a systematic fashion when projected on a "fractal" model promoted by American educator and *National Teaching and Learning FORUM* columnist Professor Ed Nuhfer.

The fractal model derives from the literal pattern of synapse and nerve development in the brain as represented by the figure of a capital Y. The bottom segment of the model represents the foundation of a teaching philosophy that leads to effective teaching. It begins with self-introspection into one's beliefs, ethics, values and responsibilities. Above that leading upward and outward toward the students is, of course, the content knowledge a teacher must be master of, including the habits of thought and critical thinking appropriate to the academic discipline being taught. At this point the fractal model branches in two directions. Along the right fork, we may trace concerns focused on student learning; on the left, concerns focused on teaching. Among the aspects to be considered under student learning are the rubrics used to break down the content into segments for contemplation and assimilation as well as the need for student self-assessment of his own learning and approach to learning. On the left, we may map questions of pedagogy, the techniques a professor adopts (consistent with his philosophy) in order to best frame particular learning challenges for students. And finally, considerations of the levels of thinking (Bloom and Perry levels) the teacher seeks to have his students reach as a result of his teaching.

And, to return once again to the important insights of Ellen Langer, all of this - the formation of a teaching philosophy, the aligning of goals and methods with student needs and the shifting reality of present circumstances whatever those may be - must take place within a state of active mindfulness in order to break free from the patterns of automatic and habitual thinking about teaching that often keep it dull and ineffective where a hour's honest reflection would rouse and students from the doldrums of routine and thoughtlessness.

Individual teaching philosophies will differ despite some profound commonalities. Some differences derive from different disciplinary cultures and the habits of thinking and organization of information within them. Other differences will stem from differences in personality and individual background. But thinking through these various components of the teaching challenge and aligning these elements in a consistent and systemic fashion inevitably leads to more effective and adaptive teaching, the kind of effective teaching every university seeks to provide.

Planning and Delivering an Effective Lecture

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THE 1ST ANNUAL FORUM FOR UNIVERSITY TEACHING

Towards Better Univrersity Teaching

Phil Race (2001, p106) describes giving a lecture as the most public side of the work of a lecturer in higher education. Giving a lecture can be a most nerve wracking experience for an academic; however, many students expect to be lectured to, so it is important to do it well.

This session aims to:

- Explore the advantages and disadvantages of using a lecture as a teaching method to inform your approach to working with large groups;

- Examine ways of addressing the disadvantages of using a lecture to ensure that learning and teaching are effective;

- Discuss ways of planning for lectures to promote success in working with large groups;

- Explore strategies that encourage students to engage in the learning and teaching process.

The session will be useful for those who:

- Have recently been appointed to an academic role;

- Are experiencing increased numbers of students undertaking their course;

- May be looking to refresh/affirm their approach to working with large groups.

What is a lecture?

The lecture is a method of academic teaching; it is one method from a wide continuum of teaching methods.

In the UK, academic staff are called lecturers. The term is derived from the Latin *lectare* meaning 'to read aloud' (Exley & Dennick, 2004, p1). The lecture has a strong historical link extending back to a period when books were rare commodities, there were no lending libraries and certainly no access to the electronic resources we are able to make use of today. Precious texts, were hand written on calfskin or silk and often included lavish decoration as a means of providing a lasting record of religious events. Those with access to these precious texts, would read them aloud, enabling others to share and make note of their content. Whilst the 15th century saw the invention of the printing press, (and today we have the benefit of the 'information super highway'), the concept of the lecture remains and is included in our approaches to sharing information with our students.

The 'Hale Report on University Training Methods' in 1964 defined a lecture as ' A teaching period occupied wholly or mainly with continuous exposition by a lecturer'. This suggests that the approach is one sided with the lecturer doing all the talking - there is another angle, in that Peter Knight (2002) suggests that the lecture is a refuge for the faint-hearted; implying that students are able to hide from any requirement to engage or respond to the learning episode.

As a method of learning and teaching, lecturing usually embodies the process of one-way communication. It is sometimes referred to as 'teacher-talk (Petty, 2004). Less kindly definitions suggest that a lecturer is 'a person who talks in someone else's sleep'. And that the experience involves the 'transference of the notes of the lecturer to the notes of the student without passing through the brains of either' (anon, cited in Exley & Dennick, 2004, p4). However it is viewed, the lecture persists as a very common mode of instruction at all levels of education and training and it is important to consider its strengths and weaknesses as a form of learning.

What staff development is appropriate for academics to develop their skills to use lecture effectively?

Undoubtedly, speaking to 100plus students or delegates can be daunting but it is part of the job - part of the requirements for the profession. You wouldn't want a surgeon who can't suture a wound; just as you wouldn't visit a hairdresser who is incompetent at cutting hair.

In the UK, we have professional standards that have been devised and are regulated by the Higher Education Academy. The standards focus upon three areas: activity; core knowledge; and professional values. The parts of the standards that relate to the skills of the academic using lecture as a learning and teaching method are:

Activity: (*one of six standards*)	1. Design and planning of learning activities and/or programmes of study.
Core Knowledge: (*three of six standards*)	Knowledge and understanding of: 2. Appropriate methods used for teaching and learning in the subject area and at the level of the academic programme. 3. How students learn - generally and in the subject area. 4. Use of appropriate technologies
Professional Values: (*one of 5 standards*)	5. Commitment to encouraging participation in higher education, acknowledging diversity and promoting equality of opportunity.

At UWIC, contractually, all newly appointed academic staff must be or work towards becoming a Fellow of the Higher Education Academy. This suggests that personal practice is aligned to the UK Professional Standards Framework. Newly appointed staff, whatever their subject discipline, will undertake the Post Graduate Certificate in Higher Education which is accredited by the Higher Education Academy, with successful academic staff gaining the qualification and their Fellowship.

The programme includes staff development sessions that help academics hone their lecturing skills. Additionally, those undertaking the programme are assigned a mentor and mentor and mentee work together to ensure ongoing improvement in the ability to lecture effectively to large groups.

This is aligned to UWIC's approach to Quality Assurance and Quality Enhancement. It ensures that students have an optimum undergraduate/post-graduate experience. It also ensures that academic staff are confident in their role and enjoy the profession of lecturer.

In Saudi Arabia, the Quality Assurance alignment is reflected in the NCAAA Standards for Institutions and Standards for Programmes (Standard 4: Learning and Teaching), in that 'teaching staff must be appropriately qualified and experienced for their particular teaching responsibilities' and be able to 'use teaching strategies suitable for different kinds of learning outcomes'.

Why use a lecture?

When we are training, we often present information in the way that we are most successful at processing it, ourselves. So if we are good listeners, we will use lectures as a means of presenting our subject to our students - all of our students may not be good/efficient listeners.

With that said, Petty (2004) presents the learning pyramid and sub-divides learning into 'receiving information' and 'applying information'. He makes note of research undertaken by the National Training Laboratories (USA) and illustrates that students have only 30% recall when receiving information. This dramatically increases to 90% when applying the learning. So one might ask why the lecture is used as a learning and teaching method at all in universities and colleges. However, it is important for us to recognise All sessions include an element of 'teacher talk' (Petty, 2004) and whilst lecturing often receives a bad press for its effectiveness, one could question whether it is the method that is to fault or the lack of skills of the lecturer.

Lectures are used when:

- You want your students to observe and engage with a quality lecturing experience;
- You want to provide your students with material that will be discussed at a later date (seminar/tutorial);

- You want to provide impetus, motivation for a subject;

- You want to provide students with current information;

- It is the most appropriate means of meeting the intended learning outcomes for a particular element of a programme of study.

What are the Advantages and Disadvantages of using a lecture to share information relating to your subject?

Advantages:

1. It captures students' attention.

2. It ensures that all of the ground is covered and useful for getting the facts across.

3. It is very useful for introducing a subject and getting students to think.

4. It can be inspirational and transform student attitudes to a subject.

5. The lecture is valuable where knowledge is advancing rapidly and up-to-date textbooks are not available.

6. The lecture is economic of staff time, can cover more ground than a tutorial or seminar and can reach large numbers of students.

7. Criticisms should only apply to bad lecturers, not to the method as a whole.

Disadvantages:

1. Inspirational lecturers can be a rare commodity in higher education.

2. Student attention span is low;

3. Covering the subject and getting the facts across can be problematic if there is no way of measuring student learning;

4. Student interaction can be low during lectures

5. Lectures promote fewer study skills.

So if I am going to use a lecture to present information, what is the best way to go about it?

Firstly we need to examine the nature of lectures as a teaching method. The four key elements including: the structure of the lecture; planning to ensure that the lecture is delivered in an engaging and effective way; delivering the material; and the resources and materials devised and used in the lecture itself.

Structure:

Structure should be determined by the purpose of the lecture, i.e. its specific objectives. Lecture techniques are often used, for example a problem. A typical lecture structure will outline:

A.   Statement of purpose and objective of lecture

B.   Statement of the problem to be examined

C.   Explanation of the problem

D.   Possible solutions

E.   Restatement of the problem and recapitulation of suggested solutions

F.   Assessment of validity of solutions

G.   Conclusion

H.

Planning:

In planning a lecture consideration must be given to three major matters:

1.   the students

2.   the subject matter

3.   resources and constraints

The problem of pitching a lecture at an appropriate level is often difficult to resolve because the student group may be large and there is the potential for different levels of learning/understanding. So here, you would need to build an element of flexibility into your approach (the lecture plan) to allow for time to define terms, to give examples, to illustrate and to recapitulate themes/topics. Constraints include the time scheduled for the lecture; the nature of the lecture room - the layout and size of the theatre; the availability of resources and technological aids. It is also important to consider the amount of material to be presented and the order in which it is to be presented. The structure and format of the lecture plan should reflect the need to arouse interest and keep attention, which may require the use of visual material and questioning so as to break the monotony of speech.

Delivery:

A lecture is dependent for its success on the personality and communication skill of the lecturer. His or her style of delivery can result in acceptance and assimilation or rejection of the lecture content. The following general points should be considered:

1.   It is vital that the lecturer should convey genuine enthusiasm and interest for the subject.

2.   The style of delivery should not be too casual or too formal; neither should it be boring.

3.   The emphasis of key points may require variations in the pattern and intensity of speech - this sustains student concentration levels.

4.   Avoid mannerisms; students tend to count the number of times a particular word or noise is used or made and this detracts from the content of the lecture itself.

Resources - Lecture notes and handouts:

We need to consider what record of the lecture students ought to possess. Possibilities include:

1.   A complete printed version of the lecture given out afterwards.

2.   Students making their own notes.

3.   Notes given out in advance of the lecture.

Each of these approaches has its own strengths and weaknesses.

How can I improve my effectiveness when lecturing?

However frequently we lecture, it is possible to introduce more interaction into the method and increase its effectiveness.

At the start:

- Arrive early and begin on time
- Explain your learning objectives and why they are important
- Link the content to previous sessions
- Explain the lesson format - set out the ground for them
- Tell your audience what you expect of them (e.g. to listen, ask questions, contribute etc)
- Tell them about note taking and handouts.

During the lecture:

- Do something different after each 1520- minutes (e.g. ask a question, change the pace)
- Use audio-visual aids to reinforce points, give examples, illustrate etc.
- Ask questions frequently (start with 'open' and move to 'closed' questions)
- Direct questions to different parts of the room
- Reflect student questions and answers back to the class
- Use short breaks to 'buzz' questions and get responses
- Move around (though avoid pacing)
- Change the pace of delivery
- Role play different points of view in a debate
- 'Flag' the important points
- Use gapped handouts
- Use examples and illustrations to underline important points
- Use anecdotes
- Use humour carefully

At the end:

- Review the content
- Ask for any questions
- Test their learning

- Summarise the main points
- Build in some discussion time
- Distribute handout

- Indicate further reading or information sources

- Indicate the connection with the next lecture or future work

- Thank them for their attention

- Finish on time

Conclusion

A well received lecture is one of the most rewarding aspects of the academic role. There is nothing more exciting than sharing your passion with others who have an interest in your subject. It is worth investing time and effort in getting it right. If you have been teaching for years and are wondering if it is worth making changes...

YES! If it is more interesting for you to deliver the lecture, you will be more interesting to listen to.

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نحو تدريس جامعي أفضل

حرصت عمادة تطوير المهارات منذ تأسيسها على تبني أفضل مفاهيم وممارسات التطوير المهني لأعضاء هيئة التدريس بجامعة الملك سعود، تماشياً مع الخطة الإستراتيجية للجامعة ورؤيتها في التطوير المستمر لمهارات أعضاء هيئة التدريس، والعمل على تحسين جودة مخرجات الجامعة، والإسهام في تهيئة بيئة جامعية مناسبة تمكن من تحقيق التطوير الأكاديمي وتضمن أعلى مستويات التميز والإبداع.

ويأتي هذا الملتقى الأول للتدريس الجامعي، وهو الأول من نوعه في تاريخ الجامعة ويقام برعاية معالي مديرها الأستاذ الدكتور عبد الله بن عبد الرحمن العثمان خلال الفترة من ١٣-١٤/ ١٠/ ١٤٣٢هـ، مواكباً لأحدث الاتجاهات العالمية في مجال التطوير الأكاديمي والتنمية المهنية وتطوير الممارسات التدريسية، وتعزيز بعض المبادرات المهمة التي تعتزم عمادة تطوير المهارات إطلاقها خلال هذا العام الأكاديمي ١٤٣٢/ ١٤٣٣هـ، والتي من شأنها تحسين الأداء التدريسي بالجامعة والرفع من مستوى العملية التعليمية بها لتحقيق رسالة الجامعة وأهدافها التي تسعى إلى تحقيقها.

ويتضمن الملتقى العديد من الجلسات الصباحية والمسائية الموازية التي يقدمها نخبة من الخبراء الدوليين والمحليين لعرض خبراتهم وتجاربهم الرائدة. و تتطرق الجلسة الصباحية الرئيسة في اليوم الأول لاستشارة النظراء في التدريس الجامعي ودورها في تطوير الأداء التدريسي للأستاذ الجامعي ويقدمها البروفسور جيمس لويس المحرر والناشر للملتقى الوطني الأمريكي للتدريس والتعلم، والدكتور أيان كنشن المحاضر بكلية كنجز بجامعة لندن في معهد التدريس و التعلم الذي سيتحدث عن تجربة كلية كنجز في استشارة النظراء، قبل أن يختتمها الدكتور محمد بن أحمد السديري عميد تطوير المهارات بجامعة الملك سعود بالحديث عن المبادرة التي أطلقتها جامعة الملك سعود ممثلة بعمادة تطوير المهارات لتقديم خدمة استشارة النظراء بالجامعة. أما الجلسة الصباحية الرئيسة في اليوم الثاني فتتطرق لمنح بحوث التدريس وتقدمها البروفسور فيرونيكا بامبر من جامعة كوين مارقريت، والدكتور محمد السديري الذي يتحدث عن التجارب العالمية في منح بحوث التدريس ومبادرة عمادة تطوير المهارات في هذا الجانب.

كما يتضمن العديد من ورش العمل المصاحبة التي تعقد يومي الثلاثاء والأربعاء وتتضمن العديد من الموضوعات الهامة المتعلقة بتطوير التدريس والتعلم.

ولا يسعنا في عمادة تطوير المهارات إلا أن نتقدم بجزيل الشكر لمعالي مدير الجامعة الذي لولا الله ثم دعمه المستمر لكافة أنشطة العمادة لم يكن هذا الملتقى ليرى النور.

كما نتقدم بالشكر لكافة الخبراء المتحدثين في الملتقى ولكافة أعضاء هيئة التدريس الحاضرين والمشاركين الذين منحونا ثقتهم ووقتهم الثمين لإنجاح الملتقى نسأل الله العلي العظيم التوفيق والسداد للجميع لما فيه الخير لوطننا الغالي.

عضو هيئة التدريس
ودوره في تحقيق رؤية الجامعة

إن ما تشهده المملكة من طفرة واهتمام بالغين بالتعليم والتدريب بوجه عام والتعليم الجامعي بوجه خاص يتطلب أن تتبنى جامعة الملك سعود الريادة من خلال استراتيجية مستقبلية تستطيع خلالها تحقيق رؤيتها ورسالتها المتميزة، لذا حرصت الجامعة على أن يكون الهدف الثاني في خطتها الاستراتيجية بعنوان: أعضاء هيئة تدريس متميزون , حيث إن عضو هيئة التدريس هو أهم مدخلات المنظومة التعليمية وعليه تتوقف جودة الإنجازات وقوة النتائج وكفاءة المخرجات.

وتسعى الجامعة إلى تحقيق هذا الهدف الإستراتيجي الهام والذي يعزز تحسين مخرجاتها بما يتماشى مع رؤية القيادة الرشيدة و يغطي احتياجات سوق العمل من الكوادر الوطنية المتميزة , و بناء عليه حرصت الجامعة على دعم هيئات التدريس في تحسين طرق التدريس و استمرارية البناء على ما تحقق في بيئة البحث العلمي من إنجازات عالمية متميزة والنجاح في إيجاد بيئة فعالة داعمة للعمل الأكاديمي.

وقد ظهر جلياً اهتمام عمادة تطوير المهارات بالتنمية المهنية المستدامة لأعضاء هيئة التدريس بما يتناسب مع المعايير العالمية و مواكبة للتطور الشامل الذي تعيشه الجامعات العالمية. وقد ظهر ذلك عملياً في جهود العمادة الحثيثة لتطوير مهارات اعضاء هيئة التدريس وإثراء تجاربهم و قدراتهم التدريسية كي يبدعوا ويبتكروا ويسهموا في تحقيق رؤية الجامعة ورسالتها بكفاءة عالية من خلال برامج مدروسة متميزة ومتوافقة مع تطلعات الجامعة، ومنها برامج استشارة النظراء الذي يقدمه خبراء متخصصون متميزون من داخل الجامعة لتقييم أداء زملائهم.

إن المبادرات التي تطرحها عمادة تطوير المهارات تساعد على خلق مجتمع التعلم والمعرفة داخل كليات وأقسام الجامعة وتزيد من فرص ثقل الخبرات والمعارف بين أساتذتها ونقل التدريس الجامعي من مجرد ممارسة تقليدية إلى ممارسة واعية وعمل احترافي يكون الطالب فيها مركز التعلم. وبالتوازي مع هذا الأمر تسعى العمادة إلى دفع جهود التميز في التدريس وتشجيعها نحو إجراء بحوث التدريس والتعليم داخل التخصصات لإثراء الانتاج البحثي في مجال التدريس والتعلم و تحسين مخرجات التعليم الجامعي. ومن هذا المنطلق أبارك لعمادة تطوير المهارات تنظيمها الملتقى السنوي الأول للتدريس الجامعي الذي يشمل برامج مميزة تسهم في الارتقاء بمستوى أعضاء هيئة التدريس، يقدمها كوكبة من المتحدثين والخبراء العالميين ، ويمثل هذا الملتقى خطوة نحو الريادة العالمية للجامعة و تحقيق التميز في بناء مجتمع المعرفة و مواكبة أحدث الاتجاهات العالمية في مجال التطوير الأكاديمي.

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم