

2018-04-09

The Integration of International Early Career Professors into the Canadian Teaching Culture: A Case Study of the Characteristics of Transformation in Teaching

El Khoury, Eliana

Elkhoury, E. (2018). The Integration of International Early Career Professors into the Canadian Teaching Culture: A Case Study of the Characteristics of Transformation in Teaching (Doctoral thesis, University of Calgary, Calgary, Canada). Retrieved from <https://prism.ucalgary.ca>. doi:10.11575/PRISM/31779
<http://hdl.handle.net/1880/106491>

Downloaded from PRISM Repository, University of Calgary

UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY

The Integration of International Early Career Professors into the Canadian Teaching Culture: A
Case Study of the Characteristics of Transformation in Teaching

by

Eliana El Khoury

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

GRADUATE PROGRAM IN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

CALGARY, ALBERTA

APRIL, 2018

© Eliana El Khoury 2018

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore how international early career professors integrate into the teaching culture at a western Canadian university. The research used a qualitative case study design. Data were collected using seven methods: an online survey, one common interview, classroom observations followed by debrief interviews, document analysis, an inventory, an interview with the associate dean of teaching and learning of the respective faculty, and an interview with educational developers at the western Canadian university. The findings captured the characteristics of transformative learning of teaching demonstrated and reported by international early career professors. Further, the outcome of the research contributed to the creation of three frameworks that pertain to the format of the support needed for international early career professors, the content of the support and the steps needed at the multiple levels of a higher education institution.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I have many people to thank for their support and encouragement throughout writing my thesis. I thank my supervisor Dr. Jennifer Lock for her guidance and mentorship. I wouldn't have wished for a better supervisor. I will forever be grateful to Dr. Lock. Through her thousands of “so what” questions, she guided me to become a scholar.

I would like to thank my parents for their support and their belief in me when I decided to move to another continent to pursue my PhD. My mother Hiam Sharbin and my dad, Bassam El Khoury, you taught me to be strong, perseverant, and resilient. Most importantly, you taught me that “there is no mountain high enough” and that if “I shoot to the moon, I will land between the stars”. Thanks to you both, I reached my star. Special thanks to my brother who always cared about my success.

I also thank my husband who has been the leaning wall throughout my journey, who believed in me and listened to me nag over and over and over again. Thank you Pouria Behnam Manesh for being there every step of the way.

I thank my committee members, Dr. Margaret (Peggy) Patterson and Dr. Michelle Jacobsen for their knowledge and feedback. I also thank Dr. Carol Berenson for her constructive feedback.

I am thankful to my participants who welcomed me to their classrooms and were willing to share information with me. Your contribution is highly appreciated.

Finally, my grateful thanks to my friends. All the friendships that I brought with me from Lebanon that filled my heart with warmth, the friendships that are scattered in different parts of the world now, and the friendships created in Canada. You have been my support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|--|------------|
| ABSTRACT | II |
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS | II |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS | III |
| LIST OF TABLES..... | VI |
| LIST OF FIGURES..... | IX |
| CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION..... | 1 |
| STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM..... | 2 |
| PURPOSE OF THE STUDY | 2 |
| CONTEXT OF THE STUDY | 3 |
| RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY..... | 5 |
| SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY | 6 |
| DEFINITIONS..... | 6 |
| ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION | 8 |
| CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW..... | 9 |
| PART I: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK | 9 |
| Transformative learning..... | 9 |
| A critical reflection framework..... | 10 |
| PART II: THE CHANGING FACE OF HIGHER EDUCATION | 14 |
| PART III: A DESCRIPTION OF THE PRESENCE OF INTERNATIONAL PROFESSORS IN CANADA..... | 20 |
| Definition of international professors | 20 |
| Definition of early career professors..... | 21 |
| Challenges of international early career professors in Canadian universities | 22 |
| PART IV: A SUPPORTIVE CULTURE OF TEACHING | 26 |
| Definition of culture..... | 27 |
| A web of cultures..... | 27 |
| Academic identity | 29 |
| Multiple levels of leadership in higher education | 30 |
| PART V: TRANSFORMATION IN TEACHING..... | 31 |
| Characteristics of transformation in teaching..... | 31 |
| PART VI: POSITIONING THE STUDY | 49 |
| CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN | 50 |
| CASE STUDY METHODOLOGY..... | 50 |
| Definition and characteristics of a qualitative case study | 50 |
| STRENGTHS OF CASE STUDY | 55 |
| Critiques of case study..... | 55 |
| Boundaries of the case | 58 |
| RESEARCH QUESTIONS | 59 |
| POPULATION AND SAMPLING..... | 60 |
| Recruitment of the participants..... | 60 |
| METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION..... | 61 |
| Online survey..... | 61 |
| Classroom observation..... | 63 |
| Documents..... | 64 |
| METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS | 67 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| Online survey..... | 67 |
| Observations, debriefs, interviews, and documents data..... | 67 |
| Teaching inventory..... | 70 |
| INTEGRITY OF THE STUDY..... | 71 |
| Reliability..... | 71 |
| LIMITATIONS..... | 73 |
| DELIMITATIONS..... | 74 |
| ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS..... | 74 |
| PERSONAL INTEREST IN THE RESEARCH..... | 75 |
| SUMMARY..... | 76 |
| CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS..... | 77 |
| STUDY PARTICIPANTS..... | 77 |
| DESCRIPTION OF THE PARTICIPANTS..... | 79 |
| ANALYSIS OF THE DATA..... | 82 |
| ILLUSTRATIVE STORIES OF THREE PROFESSORS' EXPERIENCES..... | 110 |
| SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER..... | 113 |
| CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS..... | 114 |
| CHANGE IN THOUGHT ABOUT TEACHING..... | 114 |
| Change in the definition of teaching..... | 114 |
| Elements of the change in thoughts about teaching..... | 118 |
| CHANGE IN PRACTICE..... | 128 |
| FACTORS AFFECTING THE TEACHING JOURNEYS..... | 132 |
| Web of cultures..... | 138 |
| Support..... | 138 |
| EXPERIENCE OF THE TEACHING JOURNEYS OF EARLY CAREER INTERNATIONAL PROFESSORS..... | 140 |
| Role of the professors..... | 143 |
| Role of the students..... | 144 |
| Role of the assessment..... | 144 |
| Role of the content..... | 144 |
| CONCLUSION..... | 145 |
| CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS..... | 146 |
| SUMMARY OF THE STUDY..... | 146 |
| SUCCESS AND CHALLENGES OF THE STUDY..... | 147 |
| IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE..... | 149 |
| Implications for the institution..... | 149 |
| Implications for the faculty..... | 149 |
| Implications for the department..... | 150 |
| Implications for the Teaching and Learning Center..... | 150 |
| RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH..... | 151 |
| CONCLUSION..... | 153 |
| REFERENCES..... | 154 |
| APPENDIX A: ONLINE SURVEY..... | 179 |
| APPENDIX B: QUESTIONS FOR THE FIRST INTERVIEW..... | 180 |
| APPENDIX C 1: OBSERVATION PROTOCOL..... | 183 |
| APPENDIX C 2: DEBRIEF DRAFT..... | 184 |
| APPENDIX D: APPROACHES TO TEACHING INVENTORY..... | 185 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| APPENDIX E: A PRIORI CODES EXAMPLE..... | 187 |
| APPENDIX F: ASSOCIATE DEAN OF TEACHING AND LEARNING INTERVIEW..... | 188 |
| APPENDIX G: FACILITATOR INTERVIEW | 189 |

LIST OF TABLES

| | |
|--|----|
| Table 1. Class Observation | 63 |
| Table 2: Data Collection Methods | 65 |
| Table 3. The Multiple Sources of Information that Contributes to the Theme Support and its Subthemes | 70 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| | |
|---|-----|
| Figure 1. Data Sources | 66 |
| Figure 2. Example of how the Theme the Act of Teaching Unfolded..... | 70 |
| Figure 3. Format of Support of International Early Career Professors..... | 142 |
| Figure 4: Elements of Transformation of Teaching Framework | 143 |
| Figure 5. Multi-level Teaching Support Framework | 151 |

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

International professors employed in Canadian post-secondary institutions are expected by leaders in their institutions, and consequently by the faculties, departments, and students, to be prepared to teach in the Canadian university context. The study examined how international early career professors (within their first three years teaching in a Canadian university), develop their knowledge and skills to enable them to successfully teach in the Canadian context. A key element of the research was to study the transformative learning that took place in their teaching journeys. Within this study, a teaching journey refers to professors' educational development over the course of their teaching careers. The research investigated the common characteristics of this transformative learning, as well as the factors that affected the early career professors' transformative learning.

The research on the transformative learning of teaching has been approached from multiple foci (e.g. Åkerlind, 2003; Mckenzie, 2003; Kugel, 1993; Kember, 1997; Pratt, 1998; Ramsden, 2003; Samuelowics & Bain, 2001; Sherman et al., 1987; Trigwell, Prosser, & Taylor, 1994; Wood, 2000). Studies have documented the nature of the transformative learning in the development of professors' skills, abilities, and strategies of teaching through the professors' conceptions, perspectives, patterns, orientation, components, stages, approaches, beliefs, and dimensions. Drawing on the literature, the foundational characteristics of transformative learning of teaching that are common to all studies reviewed can be grouped in those pertaining to the professor, the students, the content, and the evaluation. While these characteristics provided valuable insights into the transformative learning of teaching, they did not provide a full description from the professors' point of view. Further, they did not provide a description of the

factors that initiated and/or influenced the transformative learning in the professors' own teaching journeys. The study identified the characteristics of the transformative learning of teaching, through the act of *being a teacher* and the act of *engaging in teaching*, as well as the factors affecting such learning.

Statement of the Problem

Although the number of international professors who have been hired in Canadian post-secondary institutions have been increasing (Universities Canada, 2015), there is little research on the transformative learning about their teaching. For newly-recruited early career international professors, what is required to meet the teaching standards expected in Canadian universities? What skills, knowledge, and competencies do international professors need to develop to be able to meet the expectations of the Canadian higher education context?

Purpose of the Study

The research set out to examine the teaching journeys of five international early career professors who were in their first three years of teaching in a Canadian university. The research had participants self-identify as early career international professors. The purpose of this case study research was to identify the characteristics of their transformative learning in teaching, in relation to their thinking and actions. Through the study, factors that influence the transformation of these professors' own learning to teach in this new Canadian context were identified.

A major outcome of the case study was to develop a framework informed by literature and the research findings that identified and described characteristics of the nature of the transformative learning of the teaching journeys of these early career international professors.

The primary research question was: How do international early career professors experience their teaching journeys in a Canadian university?

As part of this exploration, three sub-questions also guided the inquiry:

1. How did change occur in their conceptualizations of teaching?
2. How did change occur in their teaching practice?
3. What are the factors that affected their teaching journeys?

Context of the Study

Contemporary higher education teaching is complex. There is an expectation that professors use multiple teaching approaches, as well as a variety of delivery systems, to support student learning. As part of the current post-secondary context, many Canadian universities are engaged in quality assurance processes that directly impact student learning experiences.

International early career professors who are entering the Canadian contemporary higher education context are being asked to engage in collaborative work (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1998; 2007), to re-design curricula, to upgrade pedagogical methods, and to use student-centered assessment approaches (Boud & Falchikov, 2007; Henry, Marshall, & Ramburuth, 2013; Sambell, McDowell, & Montgomery, 2012). Professors are also expected to integrate digital technology to support their teaching and students' learning (Bates & Sangrà, 2011; Hénard & Roseveare, 2012; Jones, Madden, & Clarke, 2002).

International professors who are teaching in Canadian universities may also experience an unfamiliar technologically enhanced learning environment. For example, they may need to use a learning management system (LMS) to support both blended and online learning or they may need to use social media in teaching (Selwyn, 2012). The expectations of Canadian higher

education institutions have risen in terms of the requirement for using learning management systems (Hawkins & Rudy, 2006; Zemsky & Massy, 2004), technological infrastructure (Allen & Seaman, 2008; McCarthy & Samors, 2009), and ‘big data’ in education (Siemens & Long, 2011). International early career professors may be required to learn about such items and implement them into their practice.

In addition to quality assurance measures related to teaching, and the requirement to teach in technology-enhanced environments, international early career professors also need to be prepared to teach a more diverse student population. Diversity is reflected in students’ backgrounds, expectations, learning needs, and motivations (Keller, 2001; Syverson, 1996). International professors in a Canadian context might be teaching non-traditional Canadian undergraduate students who have delayed enrollment (i.e. at least one-year postponement of university entry); have part-time student status; full-time employment; financial independence; and/or family responsibilities (e.g. are married or have dependents).

In Canada, there is also a change in the demographics of professors teaching in higher education institutions. The percentage of internationally trained university professors grew from 33 percent in 2006 (Statistics Canada, 2014) to 40 percent in 2010-2011 (Universities Canada, 2015). The increase of international professors is mostly due to internationalization. First, the internationalization strategies adopted by Canadian universities (Qiang, 2003) emphasize the importance of hiring international professors. Since the 1990s, globalization trends have been encouraging transnational academic mobility (Kim, 2009). Due to the global knowledge economy (Brown, Lauder, & Ashton, 2008), universities in many countries such as UK, USA, Australia, Canada, Germany, and France have been in favour of hiring international academics

(Kuptsch & Pang 2006). More recently, countries such as Hong Kong, Singapore, Switzerland, China, and Russia are actively seeking to increase the number of international professors in their universities (Yudkevich, Altbach, & Rumbley, 2016). For example, in 2005, 50 percent of Oxford University's academic staff were international. International professors are often considered an asset to universities by global rankings.

Rationale for the Study

An increasing number of international early career professors are teaching in the Canadian higher education context. It is important to understand their preparedness to teach in the Canadian context. In order to do so, it is essential to understand how international early career professors prepare themselves to teach in this new educational context, the resources available to them, whether they use these resources or not, and the factors that affect their use of these resources.

Given the rise in hiring international early career professors and the use of quality assurance measures, it is important to consider what is required for these professors to be successful in their teaching. What is needed to increase their preparedness, what factors influence their journeys, and what support and services are available to help professors develop their capacities, as well as whether they take advantage of the resources that may already be offered.

Understanding the preparedness of international early career professors contributes to the future success of internationalization of the university at the institutional level, to the success of the faculty member at the individual level, and to a successful learning experience at the student level.

Significance of the Study

The significance of the study is threefold. First, based on the findings from the study it is evident there is a need for future study of the integration into the teaching culture of international early career professors. Second, conclusions from this research could be used to provide insight into the nature and type of educational development needed to support international early career professors, as they further develop their knowledge and skills to teach within a Canadian higher education context. Third, the outcomes of this research inform the policies and strategies to support international early career professors in Canadian universities.

Definitions

The following are key terms used in this study.

Critical reflection. A cognitive, emotional or experiential process of examining assumptions behind actions. The examining process is linked to different origins that can be personal, emotional, social, cultural, historical or political. This process is followed by re-evaluating and reworking concepts and practices (Finlay & Gough, 2008).

Early career international professors. For the purpose of this study, early career professors are defined as professors who are born outside Canada, who received their undergraduate education in a country other than Canada (regardless of where they received their

graduate degree), and who are in the first three years of their employment prior to getting tenure (regardless of whether they have experience in another field or on another campus).

Educational development. “All the work that is done systemically to help faculty members to do their best to foster student learning” (Knight & Wilcox, 1998, p. 98).

Internationalization. “The process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions, or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight, 2003, pp. 2-3).

Non-traditional students. Undergraduate students who have delayed enrollment (i.e. at least one-year postponement of university entry); and/or also have part-time student status; full-time employment; financial independence; and/or family responsibilities (e.g. are married or have dependents).

Teaching. Any form of interaction taking place between professors and students related to the students’ academic experience.

Teaching approaches. A set of assumptions dealing with the nature of teaching. It is an integrated set of theoretical and practical beliefs.

Teaching beliefs. A type of knowledge that is “subjective, experience-based, often implicit” (Pehkonen & Pietilä, 2003).

Teaching conceptions. Conceptions are specific meanings attached to phenomena triggering a certain response.

Teaching perspectives. The beliefs, actions, motivations, and intentions in relation to the manner in which one conceives the context of learning (Pratt, 1998).

Transformative learning. The process by which learners come to transform a habit of the mind through the redefinition of their assumptions (Mezirow, 2000).

Quality teaching. The process of using pedagogical techniques to achieve learning outcomes for students. Quality teaching includes the effective design of curricula and course content, a variety of learning contexts, solicitation and use of feedback, and effective assessment of learning outcomes (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012).

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is composed of six chapters. Chapter Two provides the review of relevant literature that describes the theoretical framework—it contains the context of Canadian higher education and the trend of hiring international professors. Furthermore, transformative learning of teaching is examined in relation to the work of professors. This chapter concludes with the position of the proposed study. Chapter Three includes the description of the research design. It presents an overview of the qualitative case study research methodology and a description of the population to be studied, the sampling process, along with the data collection methods and analysis. This chapter also contains a description of the ethical considerations, limitations and delimitations, as well as the role of the researcher in the study. Chapter Four portrays the findings from the data analysis. Those findings are represented in themes and subthemes. Chapter Five consists of a discussion of the findings in relation to the literature review and the research questions. Chapter Six presents the implications for practice, recommendations for future research, and a conclusion. The appendices include the tools used for this research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review is used to contextualize and position this study. I presented the review of the literature using five parts: (a) theoretical framework, (b) the changing face of higher education, (c) a description of the presence of international professors in Canada, (d) a supportive culture of teaching, and (e) the transformation in teaching. I examined past and current research on the integration into the teaching culture of international early career professors to achieve a deeper understanding of their journey. From this review, I found there was little research on this particular topic area. Therefore, I reviewed all the literature that pertained to the topic including the personal, the formal and informal, and the institutional. The literature review concluded by positioning my study.

Part I: Theoretical Framework

Transformative learning. Transformative learning is the term used to describe the process by which learners come to transform a habit of the mind through the redefinition of their assumptions (Mezirow, 2000). Transformative learning usually starts with a “disorienting dilemma” (Mezirow, 2000, p. 22). The disorienting dilemma causes the learner to evaluate the assumptions that lead to this dilemma. At this time, the learner might decide that the disorienting dilemma can be ignored and will find ways to prevent the dilemma from happening again. If the learner decides to find new ways to approach the dilemma, this is a sign that transformative learning is taking place. The learner will create a process of exploring new ways to approach the dilemma, test the different approaches, and learn from the experience. The result of this process is a change in perspective that allows the learner to have a more open-frame of reference. The

new approaches—at this point, experienced and validated—are integrated back into the learner's life.

In Mezirow's (2000) approach to transformative learning, perspectives are made up of frames of references, or "the structure of assumptions and expectations through which we filter sense impressions" (p. 16). A frame of reference is made up of two parts: habit of mind and point of view. Habit of mind is based on the assumptions we hold regarding social, ethical, philosophical, psychological, and aesthetic values (Mezirow, 2000). Point of view is how we express those assumptions. The two parts are connected as how we act upon those habits of mind becomes our point of view. Points of view are made up of a group of meaning schemes, or how we feel, believe, judge, or react to events or objects in the real world.

Habits of mind about teaching. Transformative learning about teaching occurs when professors feel the need to examine their teaching in a critical way, and as a result, acquire new ways of understanding the way they teach. Mezirow (1991) outlined three ways in which the learners interpret experience through reflection. First, the learners experience content reflection, which is the examination of the content or description of a problem. Second, the learners experience process reflection, checking on the problem-solving strategies they are using. Third, the learners experience critical reflection or premise reflection, which is the questioning of the problem itself. Critical reflection is more concerned with the how of the action, rather than with the why, the reasons for, and consequences of, what we do.

A critical reflection framework. Critical reflection is the cognitive, emotional or experiential process of examining the assumptions behind actions. The examining process is linked to the international early career professors' different origins that can be personal,

emotional, social, cultural, historical or political. It is followed by re-evaluation and reworking of concepts and practices (Finlay & Gough, 2008).

Critical reflection is rooted in the concept of reflective thinking as first used by Dewey (1933). Dewey (1933) defined reflective thinking as the type of thinking that implies re-examining a subject in the mind and giving it serious and continuous thinking. Schön (1983) introduced the concept of reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. Reflection-in-action refers to professionals reframing a concept by constantly revisiting their interpretations, and solutions by combining reflection and action. Reflection-on-action refers to the reflection done after the action has been completed. The action, in this case, is revisited and evaluated. Barnett (1997), Brookfield (1983), and Mezirow (1981, 1992, 1990) introduced a new perspective of critical thinking. This perspective is concerned with professors critically reflecting on their own values, beliefs, and assumptions instead of critically reflecting on their practices.

Barnett (1977), Brookfield (1983), and Mezirow (1981, 1992, 1990) each stressed different aspects of critical reflection. The definition adopted in this research is a combination of all of these definitions. Barnett (1977) identified three domains where reflection takes place: knowledge, self, and world. Barnett (1977) then situated critical reflection within the domain of the self. According to Barnett (1977), critical reflection resonates with emancipation, transformation, and liberation. It is a journey where higher education professors change the way they see themselves through self-learning. Brookfield (1983) defined critical reflection as the analysis of one's own assumptions with a focus on one's own perceptions of their experience.

Mezirow (1990) defined critical reflection as the critique of the assumptions underlying our beliefs. According to Mezirow (1990), assumptions can be epistemic (related to the nature

and the use of knowledge), socio-cultural (related to power and social relations), or psychic (related to the person's own individual psychological process). Critical reflection is identified as the process during which adults locate and acknowledge the assumptions behind their actions, identify the historical and cultural roots of these assumptions, question their meaning, and accordingly establish new actions (Cranton, 1996). Brookfield (1995) added the social aspect to this definition by pointing out that critical reflection also includes the challenge of the widespread social political, cultural, or professional ways of thinking.

Brookfield (1995) defined four lenses through which critical reflection happens in teaching. These lenses are: the teacher's autobiography, the students' eyes, the colleagues' feedback, and the theoretical literature. Professors, viewing what they do through these lenses, are able to identify what needs to be investigated and are alerted to the distorted assumptions that they have. In this section, studies are examined related to how international early career professors' experienced transformative learning of teaching through these four lenses.

The first lens of critical reflection is professors' autobiographies, both as learners and as teachers. Through this lens, international early career professors explore their autobiography as teachers as well as graduate students and postdoctoral fellows (Austin & McDaniels, 2006; Golde, 1998; Nyquist et al., 1999; Weidman, Twale, & Stein, 2001). Research shows that new faculty members have already developed an understanding of their career during their graduate studies (Brookfield, 1995). Finlay (2002) and Mezirow (1994) referred to this understanding as personal reflection, Colbourne and Sque (2004) referred to it as self-inspection, Giddens (1976) referred to it as self-awareness, Wolf (2003) referred to it as the ability to represent oneself to

oneself, and Larivee (2000) referred to it as self-reflectivity where past experiences, feelings and moods act as filters and influence responses to situations.

The second lens is the students' eyes. This lens enables international early career professors to see themselves the way their students see them. Looking at their role from their students' eyes allows international early career professors to check whether their students are interpreting their teachings accurately. Professors put themselves in the place of their students and are able to look at their own practice through their students' eyes (Brookfield, 1995; Cohen & Hill, 2008; Hamin et al., 2000; Luce & Murray, 1998; Solem & Foote, 2004).

The third lens is the colleagues' feedback, which consists of inviting colleagues to sit in on the professor's lecture and provide feedback on their teaching. This allows the professor to gain multiple points of view about how his/her teaching is occurring. Conversing with colleagues about practice is one way of seeing teaching in a different light. Professors are able to evaluate their teaching from the lens of their colleagues and detect areas that they are missing or areas that need improvement (Brookfield, 1995; Cawyer, Simonds, & Davis, 2002; Cohen & Hill, 2001; Rice, Sorcinelli, & Austin, 2000; Trotman & Brown, 2005)

The fourth lens is the exploration of theoretical literature. This lens provides multiple interpretations to familiar situations (Brookfield, 1995). Professors are able to explore other approaches provided by the literature (e.g., new teaching strategies, new educational technologies). These approaches help retrieve solutions or simple information about a certain situation.

In this research, critical reflection was used for two purposes. First, critical reflection was used by the researcher to support participants to critically reflect on their teaching during the

interviews. Second, the researcher explored how critical reflection played a role before, during, and after the teaching act to understand its impact on the transformative learning of teaching of international early career professors.

Part II: The Changing Face of Higher Education

Various factors affecting higher education have important implications for international early career professors (Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013; Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2007). In the following section, five such factors are explained in light of their implications for the teaching of early career international professors.

The first factor is internationalization, which is “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight, 2003, pp. 2-3). Internationalization affects the purpose, function, and delivery of teaching. Qiang (2003) explained how internationalization has four main approaches: the activity approach, the competency approach, the ethos approach, and the process approach. The activity approach includes all the activities that promote internationalization, such as the enrolment of international students, international curricula, and the mobility of professors (Qiang, 2003). The competency approach focuses on developing the skills, knowledge, attitudes, and values that allow universities and staff to reach a higher level of recognition in the international market (Qiang, 2003). The ethos approach is concerned with creating the appropriate culture and values (Qiang, 2003). Finally, the process approach emphasizes the implementation of an international and intercultural dimension within teaching, research, and service (Qiang, 2003). As a result of the approaches mentioned above, internationalization

affects the expectation of activity and competency of professors as well as the culture, values, and teaching in a Canadian university.

An examination of the international student body of one Canadian university showed that almost half were from the People's Republic of China, followed by Iran, India, Japan, South Korea, Turkey, Mexico, Germany, Peru, Bangladesh, and Malaysia. The examination also showed that the students came from 30 different countries (Guo & Chase, 2011). Most Canadian universities have included internationalization in their strategic plan, which aligns with competency, ethos, and process approaches (Guo & Chase, 2011). Of the percentage of universities that have created positions to encourage internationalization, 38 percent have created the position of vice-president, international or equivalent, and 58 percent have created the position of director of international affairs (AUCC, 2007).

The second factor is that education is moving towards teaching and learning where more initiatives are concentrating on measuring student learning outcomes to determine teaching success. Since 2002, higher education started witnessing a shift from teaching to learning (Austin, 2002). Research on education in post-secondary institutions is moving from teaching to teaching and learning, with an emphasis on learning outcomes and learning processes. As a result, "commitment to student learning affects course design, assessment, teaching, staff development, and the modus operandi of departments and universities" (Brown, Bull, & Pendlebury, 2013, p. 27). International early career professors might be moving from various environments that are similar to or different from the Canadian learning environment. It is

essential to examine the effect of teaching in an environment oriented toward learning on the transformative learning of early career international professors.

The third factor is the opportunities and challenges of technology. Technology in education is allowing higher education to analyze teaching and learning through the use of innovative technologies as well as big data. Big data are large-sized datasets that surpass the ability of typical database software tools to manage them (Manyika et al., 2011). Big data are used for learning analytics and academic analytics (Siemens & Long, 2011) and allows the analysis of the course, department, institution, region, and nation. Big data have allowed record keeping of what happens in the classroom and how students interact with it. Big data allows the identification of at-risk students, the tracing of classroom techniques, and provides professors and learners with insights into successful teaching techniques (Baepler & Murdoch, 2010).

Technology in higher education has two impacts on teaching. First, higher education has witnessed a widespread adoption of learning management systems (Hawkins & Rudy, 2006, p. 52; Zemsky & Massy, 2004), and the ubiquitous expansion of a technological infrastructure (Allen & Seaman, 2008; McCarthy & Samors, 2009). Technological infrastructure (e.g., learning management systems, social media) has allowed different methods of teaching that facilitate multiple forms of learning, like experiential learning, inquiry-based learning, project-based learning, and flipped classrooms. Finally, social media has given professors the ability to mediate and enhance their instruction, as well as promote active learning for students (Andersen, 2007; Eijkman, 2008; McLoughlin & Lee, 2010; Selwyn, 2010).

Second, technology in higher education allowed the tracing of learner-produced trails (Siemens & Long, 2011) which allows the professor to keep all the information submitted by the

students as well as all their course records like grades, improvement, and attendance. The amount of data retrieved from learning management systems allowed the creation of big data in education.

The fourth factor is the diversity of students. Higher education reflects the increasing diversity of students' backgrounds, expectations, needs, and motivations (Keller, 2001; Syverson, 1996). With the increasing importance of lifelong learning combined with a changing economy, higher education professors must take into consideration the needs of the non-traditional student population (Hay, Tan, & Whaites, 2010). Non-traditional students have many contextual definitions, such as age and working status, among other criteria (Cantwell, Archer, & Bourke, 2001; Gilardi & Guglielmetti, 2011; Laing & Robinson, 2003; Munro, 2011). The U.S. Department of Education (2002) provided the most inclusive definition, identifying non-traditional students as undergraduate students who have delayed enrollment (i.e. at least one-year postponement of university entry); and/or also have part-time student status; full-time employment; financial independence; and/or family responsibilities (e.g., are married or have dependents).

There is also a growing presence of mature students in higher education (Kerr, 2011). In Canada, mature students accounted for 23.3 percent of all undergraduate post-secondary students in March 2013 (Statistics Canada, 2013). As Hay, Tan, and Whaites (2010) questioned, “Is higher education ready to receive these non-traditional students?” (p. 578). This question prompts further inquiry: How ready are professors to receive these non-traditional students and how can they modify their teaching to accommodate the needs of this growing population? More

precisely, how do international early career professors react to and/or plan for this new demographic and does this information and planning affect their teaching?

International students are defined as students who are enrolled in educational institutions outside their country of origin (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2013). The number of international students worldwide grew from 2.1 million in 2002 to 3.4 million in 2009. Canada witnessed the largest growth: 67 percent between the years 2002 and 2009 (UNESCO UIS, 2009). Studies show that the main sources of students in Canadian universities were China and India (Choudaha & Chang, 2012), while the secondary sources were from Saudi Arabia, Vietnam, Mexico, and Brazil. For example, the percentage of international graduate students' enrolment at one western Canadian university was 28.5 percent in 2014 (Fact Books, 2014). International early career professors might be exposed to a large percentage of students coming from different backgrounds and who might have different expectations.

With Canada being one of the biggest university hubs for international students (Liu & Rhoads, 2011), Canadian professors are exposed to some of the most diverse classrooms, with students coming from a variety of different countries and diverse sociocultural and educational systems. More importantly, high student diversity in Canadian institutions is particular to Canada because of its relaxed immigration laws. As a consequence, international early career professors are exposed to a more diverse class, whether they come from a diverse society or not.

The fifth factor that affects higher education is the demand for interdisciplinarity (Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013). In light of the worldwide major issues such as environmental concerns, food security, public health, and poverty (Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013), the total number of interdisciplinary majors grew by nearly 250 percent between 1975 and 2000 (Brint et al., 2009).

Many universities are creating interdisciplinary courses where professors are asked to collaborate across disciplines, work at the boundary of their fields, and use teamwork and collaboration skills. Deep knowledge in one's field is not the sole requirement for successful teaching when asked to work in an interdisciplinary context. Professors might be required to collaborate with other faculties where the teaching traditions are different (Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013).

The demand for interdisciplinarity does not always align with professors' perceptions of their jobs. Historically, academic staff identified themselves as a community of scholars within their discipline and felt more belonging to their subject than to their institution (Harris, 2005). With the knowledge economy, institutions revised their foci (Briggs, 2007) and are advocating for interdisciplinarity to create more corporate efficiency (Winter, 2009, p. 121).

International early career professors, who were hired because they were subject matter experts, might be required to work on interdisciplinary projects across faculties. As such, what impact does this experience have on the international early career professors' transformative learning of teaching?

Summary. The conclusion derived from the changes stated above is that higher education in 2016, when data was collected for this study, was a changing landscape. Internationalization has been affecting the demographics of the hiring of professors, as well as the expectations with regard to teaching. Quality assurance is striving to ensure quality learning experiences for students which impacts how teachers achieve learning outcomes, how they work within technology-enabled environments, as well as work within interdisciplinarity context in meeting the learning needs of a diverse demographic of students.

Part III: A Description of the Presence of International Professors in Canada

The following section provides a context for international early career professors in Canadian universities. It contains a definition of international professors, a definition of early career professors, and an overview of the challenges they encounter. This section is vital to understanding the uniqueness of the situation of international early career professors and to advocate the need for the research.

Definition of international professors. Researchers defined *international* using either the criteria of birthplace or the criteria of nationality (Kim, Wolf-Wendel, & Twombly, 2011). Definitions based on nationality (Mamiseishvili & Rosser, 2009) qualified international professors as those not carrying the nationality of the place where they are teaching. This definition ignores the fact that a high percentage of professors become citizens or permanent residents of the place where they teach (Kim et al., 2011). Studies relying on birthplace as a definition (Mamiseishvili, 2011) did not attribute enough distinction to the place where undergraduate education was received (Kim et al., 2011). Professors who received their undergraduate education in the same place where they were teaching have a different path than those who received it elsewhere (Kim et al., 2011).

In my research, international professors are defined as professors who were not born in the country where they are teaching, and who did not receive their undergraduate degree in the country where they are teaching. International professors might have received their graduate degrees in the place where they are teaching. International professors who received their undergraduate degree from the place where they are teaching are excluded from this study because they would have been exposed to undergraduate teaching, and this is a different

experience than international professors who have not experienced undergraduate education in the place they are teaching.

Definition of early career professors. Academic careers include early, mid-career, and senior academic stages. Austin (2002) included graduate school in the early career stage because it is considered a period where doctoral students acquired skills that prepare them for faculty positions and where they get introduced to the nature of professors' lives. Foote (2010) elaborately defined the early career stage as the final one-to-three years of graduate study through the probationary period, and until the professors are offered permanent, long-term, or continuing employment contracts. Early career is important because it is a long transitional period. Boyden (2000) defined early career professors as professors who recently received their doctorate, newly appointed professors, regardless of their previous experience, and professors transitioning careers. There are multiple definitions of early career professors in Canada and throughout the world. In my literature review, I found that, in Canada, the Social Science and Humanity Research Council of Canada (SSHRC) defined emerging scholars as professors who have held tenure or tenure-track positions for less than six years while the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research council of Canada defined an early career researcher as an individual who has held an academic position for less than three years. Gravestock and Greenleaf (2008) found that the time to tenure in Canadian universities ranges from three to seven years. In Europe, the European research commission defined early career professors as professors in their first four years of an academic employment.

In my research study, international early career professors are considered those foreign-born professors who received their undergraduate education in a country other than Canada,

regardless of where they received their graduate degree, and who are in the first three years of employment, regardless of whether they have experience in another field or another campus.

Challenges of international early career professors in Canadian universities

Challenges of early career professors. Academia is one of the hardest places for new academic staff (Foote, 2010) to succeed for two key reasons. The first reason is related to the mismatch between training in graduate school and job expectations (Golde & Dore, 2001; Lovitts, 2001; Boud & Lee, 2009; Walker, 2008). Coming out of graduate school, newly hired professors might not be fully aware of the tasks required of them, the competitiveness, the stress and the pace of work (Walker, 2008). The other reason is the inadequate career preparation that some graduate students receive (Solem & Foote, 2004). Early career professors often need more understanding of the conflicts and compromises inherent in a profession that is multifaceted, highly autonomous, and very competitive (Crawford & Olsen, 1998).

Early career is the best stage to instigate transformation in teaching. Although early career professors often feel unprepared (Bieber & Worley, 2006; Fink, 1988; Foote & Solem, 2009; LaRocco & Bruns, 2006; Rudd & Nerad, 2014), this represents the ideal stage to introduce change (Scott & Scott, 2015). For example, at the early career stage professors could be provided with the necessary support to adopt learner-centred teaching or to use technology more effectively. It is during this stage that professors most welcome help and cultivate change (Boice, 1992; Fink, 1984). Fink (1998) found that providing development on effective teaching, course design and student-teacher interaction attracted early career professors and influenced their teaching.

Challenges of international professors. Professors often enter academia with a predetermined way of thinking about teaching. International professors “bring with them preconceived beliefs about their role” (Bodycott & Walker, 2000, p. 81). Professors in international environments often took things for granted at the beginning of their career and might not have realized that people did things differently (Vial, 2006). Vial (2006) found that how effective a person was often related to how fast they could adapt to a new environment. Professors said they were unsure whether their teaching approaches were adapted to the learning of their students (Dunn & Wallace, 2006). In a study conducted by Hamza (2010) in six Arab countries in the Gulf region (Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and United Arab Emirates [UAE]), participants reported a change in personal and professional attitudes toward teaching. Moreover, Hamza (2010) reported a change in the way the professors’ understood and reacted to students' learning. In a study on international professors in the United Kingdom, Pherali (2012) found that although international professors already possessed the academic capital (the subject matter knowledge), they lacked a communication and teaching knowledge which made it hard to communicate and use the academic capital.

In the study by Bodycott and Walker (2000), they noted that professors teaching abroad felt the need to change their teaching. Professors expressed how living and teaching abroad has required them to reassess their deep-rooted beliefs about teaching and learning. In New Zealand, international professors expressed how they had to adapt the way they teach, and how at times the new environment made them question their ability to teach (Yourn & Kirkness, 2003). For example, one Russian professor expressed how her Russian classroom was formal and students did not usually question the teacher, while in her new context she had to adapt the way she was

teaching to adhere to the students' queries. Another professor indicated that, even though he had many years of teaching experience, he did not understand why students would not pay him the respect he was used to, and why they did not like his lectures. This professor concluded that using lectures was not the appropriate way to teach in the New Zealand context.

In a phenomenological case study done at the University of New Brunswick, Cranton and Carusetta (2002) interviewed and observed the teaching of eight new faculty professors over two semesters. The professors showed a change in their thinking over time and became more inclined toward integrative teaching, problem-based learning, and learner-centredness (Cranton & Carusetta, 2002). Vial (2006) stated that international professors found that diversity in teaching was challenging; professors often had to rethink their teaching methods and strategies. O'Mahony (2014) found that after teaching abroad, professors were able to identify aspects of their teaching knowledge that required improvement; they also took actions to improve their practice to enhance students' learning.

O'Mahony (2014) administered two open-ended questions to six British participants, who delivered courses outside the United Kingdom. These questions were designed to find out whether professors changed their teaching when they faced difficulties in meeting students' needs or with the new teaching environment. Their responses illustrated how the staff reflected on changes by identifying areas of their teaching that needed modification and making the adjustments accordingly. The variation in their teaching was directly related to the change of their teaching environment (O'Mahony, 2014).

The studies (Bodycott & Walker, 2000; Cranton & Carusetta, 2002; Hamza, 2010; O'Mahony, 2014; Vial, 2006; Youn & Kirkness, 2003) show that professors felt the need to

change their teaching when they are in a new social or cultural context. However, the literature shows limited research of how international early career professors transform their teaching.

Summary. Research examining international professors addressed the communication difficulties faced by teaching assistants (Bailey, 1984), while other research illustrated the strategies needed to prepare international teaching assistants to become professors (Nyquist, 1991; Sarkisian, 1997). Regarding the teaching of international professors, a large number of published papers were qualitative auto-ethnographic or narratives of international professors describing critical reflections on their challenges and the changes they experienced in their teaching (Chen, 2014; Hsu, 2014; Yep, 2014; Zhang, 2014). For example, Hsu (2014) expressed how students became more disrespectful during lectures and criticized the incomprehensible accent of the professor. However, during a group work session or student-led presentation, students did not complain about the accent. This led Hsu (2014) to change her teaching to be more oriented toward group work or student-led presentations.

According to Chen (2014), international professors were studied from a deficit model describing language barriers and teaching skill challenges. Other challenges were adopting new professional identities, students' questioning of expertise, and colleagues' questioning of teaching quality (Alberts, 2008; Wright & Dinkha, 2009). As a reaction to the deficit model used to study international professors and their "general invisibility in the pedagogical literature" (Yep, 2014), Yosso (2005, p. 69) proposed the notion of "cultural wealth" to understand the history, the lives, and the resources of international professors. "Cultural wealth" included "knowledge, skills, abilities and contact" (Yosso, 2005, p. 77) that international professors use to succeed in a new environment. Cultural wealth also included familial, aspirational, linguistic,

social, resistant, and navigational capital (Liou, Antrop-Gonzalez, & Cooper, 2009; Yosso, 2005). In a case study in Brazil that followed a U.S. professor teaching in a Brazilian university, Crabtree and Sapp (2004) illustrated how the professor had to use her linguistic, social, and navigational capital to understand and reorient her relationship with her students to include more personal information, more coffee breaks, and different levels of interactions. The professor explained how she used coffee breaks as a learning environment to understand the new interactions.

The summary of the research done on international professors showed that there is a need to study the transformation of the teaching of international professors. Studying the transformation of teaching provided insight into the appropriate support that would help the cultural wealth flourish and result in mobilizing the skills, knowledge, ability, and contact toward quality teaching which would lead to a more enhanced student learning.

Part IV: A Supportive Culture of Teaching

Whether teaching is dominant or subordinate at an institution, there is a need for a supportive culture of teaching. The supportive culture of teaching is a result of the interaction of many cultures within the institutional culture. Since professors work and teach in a web of cultures, the intersection of these cultures affects the way they teach and make decisions about teaching. This section was divided into four parts. First, I explored the definitions of the different teaching cultures that exist within an institution and the influence they have on teaching. Second, I defined microcultures and informal conversations about teaching and their role in teaching decisions. Third, I defined academic identity and discussed how it plays a role in taking teaching

decisions. Finally, I provided a description of the multiple levels of leadership in higher education.

Definition of culture. I defined culture in higher education as the collective, mutually shaping patterns of norms, values, practices, beliefs, and assumptions that guide the behavior of individuals and groups and provides a frame of reference within which to interpret the meaning of events and actions. (Kuh & Whitt, 1988, pp. 12–13). This definition converged with my theoretical framework since it implied that culture is socially constructed. Multiple interconnected subcultures might be operating within an institutional culture. A subculture is defined as “a normative value system held by some group or persons who are in persisting interaction, who transmit the norms and values to newcomers by some communicated process, and who exercise some sort of control to ensure conformity to the norms” (Bolton & Kammeyer, 1972, pp. 381–382). Institutional, disciplinary, and departmental cultures were considered subcultures of institutional culture. Professors interact based on shared purpose, values, or work roles and develop a mutual understanding (Van Maanan & Barley, 1982) that could be in some parts similar to the institutional culture and in some other part different or opposed to the institutional culture (Broom & Selznick, 1973; Kuh & Whitt, 1988). Culture plays a conserving role, since it conserves and guides practice (Roxå, Mårtensson & Alveteg, 2011).

A web of cultures. Every institution comprises of a web of cultures that interact to impact how professors teach and how new professors are socialized into the profession. This web of culture constitutes the institution culture, disciplinary, and departmental culture, the microcultures within an institution, and the informal learning that takes place through conversations with colleagues. The institutional culture comprises of the strategic plan,

institutional plan, vision, mission, academic program, governance structures, academic standards, reward structures, size, location, physical environment, and saga that contribute to how faculty teach and interact with students (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). Within every institution, there exists multiple disciplinary and departmental cultures. Disciplinary cultures “are embodied in collections of like-minded people, each with their own codes of conduct, sets of values and distinctive intellectual tastes” (Becher, 1981, p. 109). Departmental cultures are constituted of organizational units that serve as an intersection of campus and disciplinary cultures (Umbach, 2007). The department culture was mostly impacted by the department leadership (Austin, 1996) and the rewards offered within a department impacted the choice of teaching of professors (Henderson, Beach & Finkelstein, 2011).

Ruscio (1987) found that disciplinary culture is often stronger than institutional culture. Umbach (2007) explained the interrelationship between the multiple cultures at an institution and how these cultures play a role in the choice of teaching. There is evidence that institutional culture affected the behavior of students more than it affected teaching itself (Kuh et al., 2006; Umbach, 2007; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). Umbach (2007) found that students were more engaged when the institutional culture promoted a culture that valued teaching. The research suggested that the web of cultures created a distinct relation to teaching, and although institutional culture played a big role in the students’ engagement, it had a trivial impact on teaching practices (Cox, McIntosh, Reason & Terenzini, 2011) and the choice of teaching surpassed the institutional culture. Consequently, the disciplinary culture had the most effect on teaching choices (Umbach, 2007).

In addition to the formally structured cultures at an institution, the department leadership (Cox et al, 2011), the colleagues (Jawtiz, 2007, 2009), the multiple microcultures (Mårtensson, 2014; Roxå, 2014; Roxå & Mårtensson, 2011) and the informal conversations about teaching (Thomson, 2015) contributed to the learning about teaching and the choices of teaching even stronger than the institutional culture.

Academic identity. In my study, academic identity was discussed from a socio-cultural constructivist approach. The notion of academic identity was introduced because of the importance it played in the integration of the early-career international professors into the Canadian teaching culture. There are many definitions of identities; the one adopted in this research is the social theory of identity in which identities are individualistic and socially embedded at the same time. In this definition, individuals have a choice in the construction of their identities (Taylor, 1989) while being the bearers of a community's traditions (MacIntyre, 1981) or defined by a community (Mulhall & Swift, 1992; Taylor, 1989). Academic identity in this context is defined by how individuals describe themselves in terms of the profession and the organization (Ibarra, 1999; Raelin, 1986). Reid, Dahlgren, Petocz, and Dahlgren (2008) researched how academic identity took shape in undergraduate and graduate studies. Consequently, when early-career professors enter academia, they have already formed their academic identity. The higher education changing landscape requires a flexibility in the academic identity. This is parallel to the notion of academic identity as a 'reflexively organised project' by Giddens (1991) and fluidity of the identity as explained by Bauman (1996). In relation to this research, academic identity is related to the values, skills, and practices formed by an individual's autobiography and influenced by the socialization into the profession and the web

of cultures that influence the profession. The socialization into the profession could take multiple forms. It either causes a transformation in the academic identity or an ‘inclination to play safe—to minimize the risk of making professional enemies by not opposing or being critical of colleagues’ views—is also reflected in the preference, noted earlier, of many academics to steer clear of direct competition with others’ (Becher & Trowler, 2001, p. 127). This highlights how professors, sometimes, decide not to oppose to the culture.

Henkel (2000) found that the academic identity of professors was in a constant change. This was consistent with Briggs’ (2007) findings that professors negotiated their academic identity based on their “professional values” (Briggs, 2007, p. 471) and how they portrayed their role, the “professional location” (Briggs, 2007, p. 471) related to the institution and the department and their “professional role” (Briggs, 2007, p. 471) associated with their role within the institution. The negotiation was a result of the interaction between their self and the surrounding context.

Multiple levels of leadership in higher education. The consideration of the multiple levels of leadership in higher education is considered in this research because it is adjacent to the impact of the multiple cultures on the choice of teaching of early career international professors. A description of the relationship of leadership, cultures, and choice of teaching is portrayed in Gibbs’ (2013, p. 4) statement,

There has been an increasing recognition of the limits on the extent to which individual teachers can change or improve in effective ways if their colleagues and other courses do not, and on the difficulty of innovation and permanent change where the local culture and values are hostile to such change, or even hostile to taking teaching seriously. Studies of

why some departments are much more educationally effective than others have tended to identify the role of leadership of teaching, and the health and vigour of the community of teaching practice, rather than seeing the whole as being no more than the sum of the [individual teacher's] parts.

I chose the multilevel model of Hannah and Lester (2009) to discuss the organizational development of higher education institutions. The multilevel model highlighted the impact that leadership can have on the micro, meso, and macro levels in an institution. The micro level includes development for the individual, the meso level includes development that happens at the middle level like departments, and the macro level includes the development that happens at the institutional level. Hannah and Lester (2009) as well as Williams (2013) argued that, for successful development to take place, there is a need for interrelated activities at all levels of the institution.

Part V: Transformation in Teaching

Characteristics of transformation in teaching. A review of eleven articles and three books published between 1987 and 2007, from twelve different countries and across six disciplines (e.g., architecture, education, nursing, psychology, physiotherapy, and engineering) identified four characteristics relevant to transformative learning of teaching: the professor, the content, the students, and the evaluation.

The professor. The characteristics of the professor can be divided into four elements. The first element that emerged from the literature was the role of the professor. Research found that professors experienced transformative learning of teaching in changing from transmitters of information (Sherman et al., 1987) whose task is mainly telling (Ramsden, 1992) to facilitators

of learning. Professors changed their view of themselves from being the centre of the teaching activity (Kugel, 1993) to being able to discover what works for them (Åkelrind, 2007). In the first stages of their teaching, professors considered their main responsibility to represent the content accurately and precisely (Pratt, 1998).

In a study conducted by Samuelwics and Bain (2001), 39 professors from different faculties were interviewed to understand the professors' beliefs about teaching. The study showed the different definitions that professors might have of their role. The study also showed that some professors believed that the teacher should control the content, while others felt that it was a shared responsibility. The study also revealed that some professors believed that their role was to transmit information, while others considered that their role was to help students construct knowledge and meet their needs. Although relevant to knowing the different beliefs in teaching, the study of Samuelwics and Bain (2001) did not provide enough information on the transformative learning of teaching and how professors changed the way they viewed their role as a teacher.

The second element is the focus of the professor. Professors can change their focus. They may focus on their role (Sherman et al., 1987), on the agent of teaching (Kugel, 1993), on the role of the subject (Kugel, 1993), or the object of teaching (Wood, 2000). Professors also showed focus on the act of teaching (Wood, 2000), on changing their teaching (McKenzie, 2003), or designing engaging activities (Ramsden, 1992). On a different scale, professors showed focus on students' learning and students' acquisition of knowledge (McKenzie, 2003). McKenzie (2003) found that professors designed their courses based on how their students learned and acquired information.

The third element is that of responsibility for learning. During their transformative learning, professors considered their students as being able to take responsibility (Kugel, 1993) and consequently, professors worked with them cooperatively or transferred responsibility to them. In his informal observations, Kugel (1993) found that professors shifted in the view of themselves from experts to coaches, who facilitated the students' learning and who gave more responsibility to the students—first to grade each other and later to teach and assess themselves. Although Kugel (1993) gave a detailed account of the stages that professors went through during teaching, his research was based on informal observation, and data collection and data analysis methods were not identified. The research lacked a clear definition of what responsibility of learning is, why professors reached this stage, and the factors behind it.

The fourth element of the role of the professor is authority and power. Authority being the legitimate position that a professor has and power being the way this authority is used. In the context of education, authority refers to “a social relationship in which some people are granted the legitimacy to lead and others agree to follow” (Pace & Hemmings, 2007, p. 6). Wagner and Herbel-Eisenmann (2014) studied the four types of authority that occur in a classroom settings. Through their analysis of the discourse of classroom teachers, Wagner and Herbel-Eisenmann (2014) found that authority reflects as personal authority, discourse as authority, personal latitude, and discourse inevitability.

Personal authority was identified when teachers use first and second person pronouns. Discourse as authority include structures such as need to or have. Discursive inevitability refers to the use of language that suggest that the task will definitely happen such as using you are going to when addressing the students. Finally, personal latitude refers to the authority used

when the teachers include the students in their decisions. Wagner and Herbel-Eisenmann (2014) suggested that teachers need to have awareness of the authority they are portraying and have a repertoire that would allow them to choose a different type of authority.

In relation to power, French and Raven (1959) provided an extensive description of the different types of power in a teaching context which include reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert forms of power. Reward power refers to the power relation where any type of compensation is given to students in exchange as a reward for their accomplishments. Coercive power is when teachers use the power of threat to exercise power over their students. Legitimate power occurs when teachers draw on their right to have the power. Referent power refers to teachers identifying as an influence, whereas, expert power is related to teachers' knowledge.

Schrodt, Witt, and Turman (2007) studied power in the classroom and concluded that professors need to be aware of their own power and how they reflect that to their students. Schrodt et al. (2007) created a Teacher Power Use Scale (TPUS) to help teachers understand how their students perceive their power. This tool was later complemented by a reflection TPUS or r-TUPS developed by Reid and Kawash (2017) to allow teachers to reflect on their power use in the classroom.

Apart from Weimer (2002) and Blumberg (2007) who provided a description as to what professors should do, findings fail to give a full description of how professors describe students who are able to take responsibility or how working cooperatively is manifested, what professors focus on, and what happens in practice when professors transfer responsibility to students, and where that responsibility ends.

The content. The content could be divided into three elements. The first is the desired learning outcome which was only mentioned in one study and was described as the professors expecting the students to simply recall information to wanting them to change the way they think (Samuelwics & Bain, 2001). In their study, Samuelwics and Bain (2001) described how professor A's main goal was for the students to reproduce and use his own understanding of the subject, while professor B wanted the students to become professional architects by developing their own understandings and thinking.

The second element is the expected use of knowledge, which was also examined by Samuelwics and Bain (2001), and only included what the professors expected. The findings did not explore the different stages of change, the factors of change, and the manifestation of change. In a qualitative study, Samuelwics and Bain (2001) interviewed 39 professors and found that, when it came to learning outcomes, professors expected students to only recall information. Then the professors wanted students to reproduce the knowledge after understanding it and in a later development stage, professors expected students to change their ways of thinking. In regard to the expected use of knowledge, professors, at the start of their development, expected the students to use the content exclusively within the course at the time of the course. Later, they expected the students to use the content within their degree and some professors expected the students to use the content as an interpretation of reality. Even though Samuelwics and Bain's (2001) study provided much insight into the dimensions of transformative learning in teaching, they did not specify how many years the participants had been teaching and whether that was a factor in the transformation that the participants experienced. They also did not mention any other factors that affected the transformative learning of teaching.

The third element of the content is the role of the discipline. Similar to the role of the professor, research found on the role of the content described a change on what professors did, what professors thought, or what professors should do (Weimer, 2002; Blumberg, 2007). Kugel (1993) found that professors start by developing their course and adding information to it (Kugel, 1993). They are concerned with transmitting structured knowledge (Kember, 1997) at the beginning of their career, then they became more concerned with how they expect their students to use the content they are delivering (Samuelwics & Bain, 2001). Åkelrind (2007) stated that professors became more familiar with what they teach. Research did not specify at what point professors changed, how differently they treated the content, and the factors that affected this change.

To conclude, although the findings presented four characteristics of transformative learning in teaching, a detailed description of the change, the factors leading to it, the manifestation in the professors' thinking and practice, still need to be explored further. It may, therefore, be advantageous to also investigate the change that professors experience in thinking about teaching, in practicing teaching and the factors that affect teaching in order to get a holistic overview of the teaching journeys experience and to get a full description of the characteristics of transformation in teaching.

The students. Similar to the elements related to the professor, the characteristics pertaining to the students could be summarized in two components. First, the professor's perception of the role of the student changes. Kember (1997) found that professors went through the following changes in the way they perceived the role of the students. Professors viewed students as passive recipients, then recipients, then participants. At a later stage, professors saw

themselves as responsible for the students' learning, and finally, professors saw themselves as responsible for the students' development.

The second component is related to the students' pre-existing conceptions. Wood (2000) included a stage in which professors were able to recognize that students have previous conceptions of the discipline. Then professors sought to highlight the misconceptions of the students related to the knowledge in the course in order to correct them.

In my study, I examined two elements pertaining to the students. First, I examined how international early career professors experienced change in the way they perceive the role of the students. Second, I examined the changing place of the students' prior conceptions in the international early career professor teaching.

The evaluation. Studies done on the change in the role of the evaluation were completed by Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2008, 2011) and Uiboleht, Karm, and Postareff (2016). Uiboleht, Karm, and Postareff (2016) did a qualitative study on three teachers' approaches to teaching. In regards to assessment, they divided assessment practices into traditional and alternative. They also divided the assessment practices to the aim of assessment, assessment methods and tasks, formative assessment and assessment criteria. In their analysis of interviews with 71 university professors, Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2008, 2011) set out to understand the different aspects of teaching that professors perceived. For most cases they found that professors did not consider assessment to be a part of teaching. In addition, they found that professors used more traditional assessment methods because they did not know how to use other kinds of assessments or were more comfortable with the ones they were using.

Weimer (2002) and Blumberg (2007) described how professors should change in the way they viewed the purpose and the way they administered the process of assessment. Weimer (2002) and Blumberg (2007) described the change using seven components. First, professors changed from not using assessment within learning to integrating formative assessment. Second, professors started giving constructive feedback. Third, the professors employed peer and self-assessment. Fourth, professors provided students with opportunities to learn from their mistakes. Fifth, the professors encouraged students to justify their answers. Sixth, the professor provided a timeline for students to give feedback and always gave feedback to students. Lastly, the professors used authentic assessment. As a result of the different learning environment, evaluation may be an element of change in the teaching of international early career professors.

Additional findings on transformation in teaching. From the review of transformation in teaching, the research can be put into five categories: the change in being a teacher, the change in engaging in teaching, change and professional development, dissonance of teaching approaches, and factors that cause or impact the transformation in teaching.

Change in being a teacher. Change in being a teacher is how professors reach an understanding of their actions, intentions, and beliefs (Feldman, 2002). This change occurs at the level of conceptions, perspectives, approaches, and beliefs.

Conceptions are the sum of a person's ideas and beliefs concerning teaching (Merriam-Webster's online dictionary, 2016). Conceptions of teaching can be divided into two research findings. Kember (1997) and Samuelowicz and Bain (1992) found that professors experienced transformation in teaching that manifested itself in the way they described their job. On the other hand, Wood (2000) found that professors changed their conceptions by changing what they

focused on. For Kember (1997), the conceptions were: imparting information, transmitting structured knowledge, student-teacher apprenticeship, facilitating understanding, and conceptual change. According to Wood (2000), the different conceptions were: focus on the agent of teaching, focus on the act of teaching, and focus on the object of teaching. These two ways of describing the different ways professors changed their conceptions of teaching show that the researchers have not found a common framework to describe change in conceptions of teaching, thus, further research is needed.

Perspectives are a different way to examine how professors change in their teaching. The most relevant research on change in perspective was conducted by Pratt (1992, 1998) who provided a detailed account of five perspectives based on a phenomenographic approach to study 253 adults from a variety of cultural backgrounds. The five perspectives defined how professors changed from focusing on themselves to focusing on their students, and how that is manifested in their practice. The five perspectives were transmission, apprenticeship, development, nurture, and social reform.

Approaches to teaching are a third way of examining transformation in teaching. While Trigwell et al., (1994) defined approaches based on the intentions of the professors, Åkerlind (2007) based his approaches on the practice of the professors and what they did in the classroom. The approaches found by Trigwell et al., (1994) were as follows: Approach A: A teacher-focused strategy with the intention of transmitting information to students; Approach B: A teacher-focused strategy with the intention that students acquire the concepts of the discipline; Approach C: A teacher/student interaction strategy with the intention that students acquire the concepts of the discipline; Approach D: A student-focused strategy aimed at students developing their

conception; and Approach E: A student-focused strategy aimed at students changing their conceptions. The approaches found by Åkerlind (2007) were a teacher transmission focused experience, a teacher–student relations focused experience, a student engagement focused experience, and a student learning focused experience.

Beliefs about teaching examined the last component about change in *being a teacher*. Research by Samuelwics and Bain (2001) was one of the most important studies on change in beliefs of teaching. Samuelwics and Bain (2001) considered different aspects of the change: first, the beliefs about teaching (the aim of teaching; the teacher’s and students’ roles; the nature of good teaching; pleasant and unpleasant teaching experiences; perceived obstacles to good teaching), second, the beliefs about knowledge and the construction of courses; beliefs about student learning (the nature of learning; desired learning outcomes; and indicators of ‘good’ learning), and third, the beliefs about the links between teaching and learning (does one affect the other; how?).

Conceptions, perspectives, approaches, and beliefs of teaching were explored in the research mentioned above but not fully explored from international early career professors’ experience. Therefore, including these elements in this study gave a deeper understanding of the experience of international early career professors.

Change in engaging in teaching. Engaging in teaching is used to refer to the way that professors participate in teaching before, during, and after their class. Engaging in teaching also refers to teaching practice. Teaching practice can be observed through teaching methods (Rees,

Sheard, & McPherson, 2004), teaching process (Cakmak, 2008), teaching skills (Braxton, Bray, & Berger, 2000), and teaching strategies (Killen, 2006).

The research found that the literature contained definitions of the elements of teaching practice like teaching methods, process, skills, and strategies. The literature also presented a large amount of descriptions of how these elements manifested throughout different disciplines, as well as a comparison between the different components of each element, their impact, and their evaluation. From the review, the literature on the subject of transformation in teaching practice is limited, especially on how international early career professors change their teaching practice.

Change and professional development. Guskey (2000) argued that the change in teachers' beliefs about teaching is a consequence for a successful change in the classroom practice. He suggested a framework in which teachers receive professional development, implement their learnings in their classroom, and observe its impact on their students' learning. After the teachers gain confidence in the implementation, they would be comfortable in adopting it. According to Guskey (2000), evidence of success of implementation included cognitive results as well as students' behaviors such as attendance, involvement, classroom behavior, and motivation. Similar to Guskey, Postareff, Lindblom-Ylänne, and Nevgi's (2007) argued that transformation in teaching was not mainly caused by training. On a different note, Meirink, Meijer, and Verloop (2007) suggested that professors do not immediately apply what they learned in the same semester, if they are convinced, they take the information and apply it in the following course.

Dissonance of teaching approaches. Despite the distinct definitions of student-centred and teacher-centred, Postareff, Katajavuori, Lindblom-Ylänne, and Trigwell (2008) found that there existed a dissonance of teaching approaches and teaching practices. Postareff et al. (2008) found that the majority of teachers used a combination of multiple approaches. In their study, they interviewed and observed 97 professors and classified them into profiles. The profiles described their teaching approaches compared to their teaching practices. The findings outlined consonant, dissonant, and contextually varying profiles. Consonant profiles referred to the participants whose approaches and practices converged, dissonant profiles referred to the participants whose approaches and strategies diverged systematically, and contextually varying profiles referred to the participants whose profiles depended on the context. Out of the 97 participants in their research, 29 had dissonant profiles and 10 had contextually dissonant profiles. Moreover, Uiboleht, Karm, and Postareff (2016) and Stes and Van Petegem (2014) also identified dissonance occurring within one aspect of teaching.

Although the research in this area is scant, an explanation behind this dissonance could be related to three reasons. The first identified reason is the professors' own motivation and the lack of pedagogical awareness (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004; Postareff et al., 2008). The second reason is due to the dominance of a certain teaching approach in a department or discipline (Cox et al., 2011; Prosser & Trigwell, 1997). The third reason is the professors' preference to experience change in smaller steps (Guskey, 2000). In this case, the practice reflects only a small portion of the approach until the professors feel confident to try more practices. It is important to examine the dissonance and consonance in the early career international professors' profiles and the factors leading to the dissonance.

From the review of literature, situated apprenticeship and personal philosophies of teaching could be used to help with dissonance in teaching approaches. Prather and Brissenden (2008) suggested a situated apprenticeship to address the dissonance in teaching approaches. Situated apprenticeship refers to educational development being embedded in authentic setting. The situated apprenticeship starts with an “awareness building” question session and builds up to allow the teachers to understand their beliefs about teaching techniques and strategies. Through situated apprenticeship, professors can bring forward their understanding of a certain strategy. These understandings would then be examined during conversation in hopes of building a better understanding. Crawford (2007) and Crawford and Lunetta (2002) suggested that asking the teachers to write their personal philosophy of teaching would help bridge the dissonance. Personal philosophy are tools that could be used to help teachers reflect on how they think people learn and their own teaching practices. This could be used to bridge the gap between thoughts and practice.

Factors that cause or impact the transformation in teaching. From the review of the literature, five factors were identified that cause transformation in teaching: 1) experience in teaching, 2) the existence of communities of practice around teaching, 3) structuring discussions around teaching critical reflection on teaching, 4) critical reflection and 5) support programs.

The first factor that causes or impacts the transformation in teaching is the experience of teaching itself. Transformation in teaching is associated with different development stages that professors go through as they gain more experience in teaching (Biggs, 2003; Fox, 1983; Kugel, 1993; Nyquist & Sprague, 1998; Sprague & Nyquist, 1991). This could be related to

collaborative settings (Meirink, Meijer, & Verloop, 2007) or reflection process (Brookfield, 1995). As they gain more experience, and depending on the situation, professors engage in different ways of reflection (Nyquist & Sprague, 1998) and reflect on different parts of their teaching (Entwistle & Walker, 2002). Different influences of teaching experience were reported. Entwistle et al. (2000) described that after professors gain experience in teaching, they develop more explicit conceptions. Jones and Vesilind (1996) proclaimed that after the experience, the professors became more student centred. Nevertheless, having experience does not always mean that professors changed their teaching to become student centred (Desforge, 1995). Experienced professors might have better practices only. It is essential to examine the impact of previous experience and current experience of the transformation in teaching in order to empower professors and to minimize the effects that might prevent desired change in teaching.

The second factor that supports transformation in teaching is having a community of practice that discusses teaching. Communities of practice “are formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavour” (Wenger, 2015, p. 1). Rogan (2007) suggested having communities of practice of professors who share the same goal to support each another in implementing new teaching. Rogan (2007) based his suggestion on research done by Borko, Elliott, and Uchiyama (2002) who pointed out that teachers who were struggling with innovation in teaching were more successful when they were part of a community of practice.

The third factor that causes or impacts the transformation in teaching is related to creating opportunities to have discussions around teaching and learning. Both Brookfield (1995) and Palmer (1993) discussed the importance of having conversations with colleagues about teaching

and learning. Brookfield (1995) indicated that these conversations would help professors become aware of their assumptions and understand that they are not alone in facing these problems.

Palmer (1993) suggested four topics to build discussions around and allow teachers to bring the human aspect into teaching and unfold their beliefs. Palmer (1993) suggested discussions about critical moments, human condition, metaphors and images, and autobiographical reflection. In order to cover multiple aspects of the teaching profession, critical moments allows discussions about moments where students opened up or closed down to learning, human condition allows conversations about the human aspects of students and teachers, metaphors allows professors to analyze metaphors to examine their teaching, and autobiographical reflections allows professors to go back to great teachers that inspired them in the past.

The first factor is critical reflection. From the literature, it is evident that professors experience critical reflection through four lenses as noted by Brookfield (1995). The first critical reflection lens is autobiography. Professors experience critical reflection through the autobiographies of their own graduate school and postdoctoral fellowships (Brookfield, 1995). Professors understand the requirement and the identity of their work during their graduate school. Graduate students have a clear understanding of their professional identity as a teaching professor, of the discipline, of the wide array of institutional types in which they might find themselves working, and of the purposes and history of higher education (Austin & McDaniels, 2006). Graduate students embody the new values of their professor's career after a few terms of graduate school (Nyquist et al., 1999). Graduate school introduces students to the professorate (Weidman, Twale, & Stein, 2001). During graduate school, future professors interact and observe professors, they learn what is valued, the type of interaction that takes place between

colleagues, and form an idea of what the role of a professor is. They acknowledge the important role of graduate school in introducing students to the professorate and make recommendations on how to transform graduate programs to student experiences, instead of lessons taught by professors to students (Austin, 2002b). Golde (1998) found that 90 percent of graduate students felt prepared to do research, 63 percent felt prepared to teach undergraduates, 33 percent felt prepared to teach graduate students, and 30 percent to felt prepared to advise undergraduates. Therefore, graduate school plays a crucial role in preparing future professors to teach.

The second critical reflection lens is the students' eyes. Cohen and Hill (2008) described how learning the conceptions and misunderstandings from the students' perspectives helped professors understand how assessment should happen, and how to anticipate and address the misunderstandings. Solem and Foote (2004) found that respondents who performed better as professors also claimed to know how to manage issues and problems related to teaching. Two of the main reasons professors in teaching are stressed is from not understanding the teaching load from the students' perspective (Hamin et al., 2000) and from the mistrust of the students' evaluation (Luce & Murray, 1998). Professors expressed misgivings about the students' ability to help the new professors in their teaching or in having anything useful to tell the professors (Luce & Murray, 1998).

The third critical reflection lens is the colleagues' experiences. Teaching change can be made easier if supported by colleagues (Cohen & Hill, 2008). Retention and recruitment of early career professors are influenced by the relationship with their colleagues (Trotman & Brown, 2005). Studies on the needs of early career professors report the necessity of having better

relationships with colleagues and senior faculty in order to improve the experience of early career professors (Rice, Sorcinelli, & Austin, 2000; Trower, 2005).

The fourth critical reflection lens is the literature. Critical reflection through this lens happens when professors engage in reading about their teaching. Professors then start looking into scholarly journals and examine what other professors in the same discipline are experiencing with their teaching.

The fifth factor that causes or impacts the transformation in teaching is support programs. Educational development programs include a variety of support provided to professors (Taylor & Bédard, 2010). Educational development takes the form of workshops, training, online sessions (Taylor & Bédard, 2010), mentorship, and professional learning communities (Snow-Gerono, 2008). The number of universities offering training to graduate students and early career professors in support of quality teaching is growing across the disciplines (Brownell & Tanner, 2012; Steinert et al., 2007). Universities have established centers to provide educational development for professors (Knapper, 2010). This training often takes the form of workshops, seminars, and brief courses that are not followed up (Rushin et al., 1997). Newer trends in educational development promote communities of practice to embed innovations and new practices (Wenger, 2015).

Support in the form of educational development is often voluntary and relies on the willingness of the professors to take part (Taylor & Bédard, 2010). It serves only a small population of academia (Brownell & Tanner, 2012). Teaching at the higher education level takes the shape of “apprenticeship of observation” (Borg, 2004) and “craft knowledge” (Arzarello & Bartolini Bussi, 1998; Van Driel et al., 1997). Another reason behind the potential lack of

teaching development is that professors are not knowledgeable about what constitutes good teaching, not familiar with new learning strategies (Hativa, 1995), or have not had training in them (Ebert-May et al., 2011). Brownell and Tanner (2012) argued that even if training, time, and incentive are available to professors, development would not occur unless there is a change in their motivation to change their teaching.

The transformation in teaching cannot be linked to the educational development provided. It can be related more to the teaching experience and sampling bias according to Coffey and Gibbs (2000). Norton, Richardson, Hartley, Newstead and Mayes (2005) found no relation between training and the professors' teaching beliefs or intentions. Norton et al. (2005) asked 696 participants if they had taken part in training provided by the teaching and learning centers. The results of the two groups showed no significant difference related to a change in the beliefs or intentions of the professors between the group who took the training and the group who did not. The professors who were impacted by the training were professors who experienced problems in their teaching or professors who wanted to improve their teaching (Åkerlind, 2005). Stes, Clement, and Van Petegem (2007) found that professors teaching training can have long term impact, but that entirely depends on the contextual circumstances of the professors. Similarly, Taylor (2010) indicated that it is important to provide the educational developers with an understanding of the departmental culture of the professor that they are working with in order to create a trusting relationship. It is therefore important to understand the impact of the contextual circumstances of international early career professors' decision to acquire educational development. Henderson et al. (2009) commented on the importance of timely feedback from educational developers while Clynes and Raftery (2008) indicated that timely feedback along

with awareness and understanding of the elements of feedback are essential for effective learning. Both of the people giving and receiving the feedback should be aware of the elements of feedback.

Part VI: Positioning the Study

Canadian universities are hiring more international professors. Statistics show that the number of international professors has grown seven percent since 2014 (Statistics Canada, 2014). International professors come from a different social and cultural environment. This might affect the way they teach. Studies (e.g., Åkerlind, 2003; Mckenzie, 2003; Kugel, 1993; Kember, 1997; Pratt, 1998; Ramsden, 2003; Samuelowics & Bain, 2001; Sherman et al., 1987; Trigwell et al., 1994; Wood, 2000) have focused on one or more aspects that affect the transformative learning of teaching of professors (e.g., stages, conceptions, perspectives). From the review of the literature, no research was found that examined the teaching journeys of international professors in a manner that included both the notion of being a teacher and engaging in teaching. In order to optimize the teaching of international professors, it is important to investigate their journeys and what factors impact their educational development in support of their teaching. The research examined the teaching journeys of international early career professors by observing the three areas of their journeys: 1) the notion of being a teacher; 2) engaging in teaching; and 3) factors that affect the transformative learning of teaching.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN

The value of a particularistic methodology is rooted in the rationale behind selecting it as the most appropriate for the specific research (Merriam, 1998). First, this chapter provides a detailed account of the rationale for using a qualitative case study methodology as well as the strengths, critiques, and misunderstandings of case study. Second, I provide a description of the population and the sampling methods, data collection, and data analysis methods used in the case study. Third, I describe the methods used to ensure the reliability and validity of the research. Further, details are shared in terms of the limitations, delimitations, and ethical considerations addressed in this research. I also detailed my background and role as a researcher and the steps taken to reduce the likelihood of any biases.

Case Study Methodology

Definition and characteristics of a qualitative case study. A qualitative case study was defined by Merriam (1998) as an “intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon such as a program, an institution, a person, a process or a social unit” (p. xiii). This research manifested the following characteristics of a qualitative case study.

Particularistic. A particularistic case study means that this study “focuses on a particular situation, event, program or phenomenon” (Merriam, 1998, p. 43). This research focused on investigating the teaching journeys of international early career professors. The teaching journeys included four areas of examination: 1) being a teacher, 2) engaging in teaching, 3) the factors that affect teaching, and 4) the characteristics of transformative learning of teaching. These four areas provided a better understanding of the teaching journeys of early career international professors.

Descriptive. A descriptive case study means the “end product of the research is a rich description of the study and contains as many variables as possible and portrays their relation over time” (Merriam, 1998, p. 43). This research yielded a thick description of the transformative learning of the teaching journeys of international early career professors. I sought to know how teaching develops through the journeys of international early career professors, the factors behind this development and the characteristics of this development. I also sought to understand the relationship between the different factors and the multiple characteristics over the period of a year.

Heuristic. This characteristic means that “case studies illuminate the reader’s understanding of the phenomenon under study. They can bring about the discovery of new meaning, extend the reader’s experience, or confirm what is known” (Merriam, 1998, p. 44). The research sought to inform the reader’s understanding of the teaching journeys of five international early career professors by investigating their experiences and factors that impact how they think and act in their teaching.

Holistic. The research sought to understand the development of the teaching capacity of early career professions with regard to the relationship between the social event (the teaching) and the context (one Canadian university). It is important to understand how moving to the Canadian context affects the teaching of international early career professors. Understanding this may allow those responsible to create a smoother integration and provide more appropriate support.

Three key scholars of case study are Merriam (1998), Stake (1995), and Yin (2003). Merriam, Stake, and Yin differed in the way they defined a case study, the characteristics they

assigned to the case study, the purpose of the case study, the theoretical framework, the data gathering tools, and the strategies of data analysis and data validation.

Yin (2003) defined case study as “a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, especially when the boundaries between a phenomenon and context are not clear and the researcher has little control over the phenomenon and context” (p. 13). Stake defined case study as “a specific, a complex, functioning thing,” more specifically “an integrated system” which “has a boundary and working parts” and purposive (in social sciences and human services) (p. 2). Merriam defined case study as “a thing, a single entity, a unit around which there are boundaries” (p. 27) and it can be a person, a program, a group, or a specific policy. Although all three definitions could be used in this research, I adopted the definition by Merriam (1998) because other elements of Merriam’s work converge with the work in this proposed study.

According to Yin (2003), quality case study is significant, complete, considers alternative perspectives, displays sufficient evidence, and includes an engaging report. Stake (1995) considered the case study to be holistic (considering the interrelationship between the phenomenon and its contexts); empirical (basing the study on their observations in the field); interpretive (resting upon their intuition and seeing research basically as a researcher-subject interaction); and emphatic (reflecting the vicarious experiences of the subjects in an emic perspective). Merriam (1998) described case study as particularistic (focusing on particular situation, event, program, or phenomenon); descriptive (yielding a rich, thick description of the phenomenon under study); and heuristic (illuminating the reader’s understanding of the phenomenon under study). Yin (2003) described the purpose of case study as being exploratory, descriptive, or explanatory, with the aim to explain or describe the causal relationships of

interest. In contrast, Stake considered the purpose of the case study to be exploratory understanding, and possibly descriptive, including an understanding of context. Given that the purpose of this study was to focus on an event, seeking to illuminate the reader's understanding by providing a thick description, it aligned with Merriam's (1998) description of a particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic case study. I also adopted the holistic element of Stake's (1995) definition because it also sought to understand the relationship between the phenomenon and the context.

The three scholars also developed multiple data collection methods. Yin (2003) recommended documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant observation and physical artifacts as forms of data collection for case study. Stake (1995) advised the use of observation, interview, and document review. Whereas, Merriam recommended interviews, observing, and analyzing documents for data collection. The three suggested using interviews, observations, and document analysis. I used the three methods that are common to the three scholars.

Yin, Merriam, and Stake developed strategies and techniques for data analysis. Yin (2003) advised the use of pattern matching, explanation building, time-series analysis, program logic models, and cross-case synthesis. Stake (1995) recommended categorical aggregation and direct interpretation. Merriam (1998) was an advocate of using ethnographic analysis, narrative analysis, phenomenological analysis, constant comparative method, content analysis, and analytic induction. I used thematic analysis in this proposed research and adopted the elaborate description provided by Merriam (1998).

According to Yin (2003), case study researchers need to guarantee construct validity (through the triangulation of multiple sources of evidence, chains of evidence, and member checking), internal validity (through the use of established analytic techniques such as pattern matching), external validity (through analytic generalization), and reliability (through case study protocols and databases). While for Stake (1995), issues of data validation are involved in the notion of triangulation. The four strategies for triangulation are data source triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation, and methodological triangulation. Merriam (1998) on the other hand, gave six strategies to enhance internal validity: triangulation, member checks, long-term observation, peer examination, participatory research, and disclosure of researcher bias. Merriam (1998) also provided three techniques to ensure reliability: explanation of investigator's position with regards to the study, triangulation, and use of an audit trail, and three techniques to enhance external validity: use of thick description, typicality or modal categories, and multi-site designs. Although Yin, Merriam, and Stake provided elaborate methods of ensuring data validation, Merriam (1998) was the most suitable for the proposed study given I used the six methods of data to guide the inquiry.

After scrutinizing the three different perspectives of Yin (2003), Stake (1995), and Merriam (1998), my approach to case study aligns with Merriam's for two reasons. First, Merriam followed a constructivist approach in the use of the case study which converges with the theoretical framework adopted in this research, while Yin used a more positivist/post-positivist approach. This allowed me to investigate the impact of the new Canadian university environment on the international early career professors' transformation of teaching. Second, Merriam provided more details in the data analysis and data validation techniques which helped

me provide greater rigor and guidance to her work. Details of how this occurred are explained later in this section.

Strengths of case study. Merriam (1998) presented three strengths of a case study methodology. First, a case study is used in this research because it offered a way of investigating complex social units in real life situations and provides a rich, holistic description of the phenomenon. In this case study, the transformative learning of teaching of early career professors is the phenomena being investigated. Second, a case study generates knowledge that can affect practice. Case study is beneficial to general knowledge. Since general lies in the particular, we can add knowledge to the general knowledge about international early career professors by studying this particular case. Therefore, knowing the particular is a first step to generating general knowledge. Third, a case study also allowed me to use multiple data sources (Creswell, 2012). This is a major strength for this research because it provided the possibility to combine, compare, contrast, and analyze multiple sources in order to obtain a holistic understanding. In this research, multiple sources of information were also used (interviews, class observation, course documents and inventory) in order to allow for a complete understanding of the case.

Critiques of case study. A number of scholars have critiqued case study. First, Sprinz (2004) identified that case study can be prone to both selection and confirmation bias. As a reply to this critique, the study invited participants to self-identify in order to participate in the research. Selection happened after participants had self-identified and it was guaranteed that the number of participants was manageable (Creswell, 2012). I used purposive sampling because it allowed me to sample specific participants of a particular category (Li et al., 2006; Prance, 2004;

Vargas & van Andel, 2005). In addition, purposive sampling was an appropriate approach for this case study (Dolisca et al., 2007; Parlee & Berkes, 2006) as it allowed me to have a maximum representation of the self-identified population. On the other hand, selection bias allowed me to look at certain cases and have a deeper and better understanding of these situations.

Second, Collier and Mahoney (1996) advised that researchers should be vigilant in reminding themselves and the readers that the study is unique to these cases and not generalized. The main reason to use case study is to have an understanding of particular cases. I used this study to increase my understanding of the particular case. I also looked for commonalities in order to have a better understanding of the case, with the complete knowledge that these findings cannot be generalized. Unlike generalizability that is context-free and time-free, the findings can be applicable through the transference criteria (Guba, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Lincoln & Guba, 1990). Through the thick and detailed description that I provided, decisions about transference can take place between contexts if both contexts have enough similarity in the elements, factors or circumstances that are found to be significant. Transference allows other readers to understand and apply knowledge from this research to other settings outside the location and time boundaries.

Third, according to Sprinz (2004), case study can also be subject to potential indeterminacy which leads to an inability to exclude all but one explanation. As a solution to this critique, I narrowed the number of possible explanations and explained how they complemented or competed the case.

Fourth, George and Bennett (2005) critiqued case study based on the argument that the cases are not selected randomly and are not representative of a population. As a reply to this critique, I stated that I was more interested in finding out the conditions under which the transformative learning of teaching of international early career professors occurred rather than the frequency of occurrence. As the researcher, I used a case study methodology to examine the scope of the conditions of the transformative learning of teaching of international early career professors rather than estimating the magnitude of the transformative learning of teaching of international early career professors (Sprinz, 2004). My intention is not to generalize to a larger population, rather it is to provide a rich and deep description of the transformative experiences of these individuals.

Merriam (1998) also presented some critiques that a researcher might face when they decide to use case study. An extensive case study requires resources and time. Case study often results in a lengthy and detailed product that is hard for “policymakers to read” (Merriam, 1998, p. 239). One of the major critiques of case study is that it relies on the researcher for integrity, sensitivity and ethics. As such, I accepted the five participants who volunteered for the study. The amount of time dedicated to the study was manageable between the different preferences of the participants and the two semesters’ time span. Lastly, as a researcher, I must also ensure that reliability, validity, and generalizability are taken into account. As outlined in the section on the integrity of this case study, I outlined how I addressed issues of validity and reliability.

Wolcott (2001) argued that case study is not an identifiable method by itself. He described case study as a format of reporting. He warned researchers about expecting case study to stand by itself and provide adequate details. He also advised researchers to provide adequate

explanation of the specific research techniques that they used. Case study is not used in this research as a form of reporting only. Rather, it is a methodology that allowed a deeper understanding of a phenomenon through the comparison, contrast, and analysis of the multiple methods followed by a critical analysis.

Flyvbjerg (2006) presented five misunderstandings of case study that he dismantled. First, context-dependent knowledge is more important than general knowledge because universals cannot be found in human studies. In the case of this study, knowledge pertaining to international early career professors in the Canadian higher education context was important because it provided specific unique contextualized information. Second, the force of a single case is underestimated. A single case can add to knowledge. Understanding the single case of the transformative learning of teaching of the early career professor added to the body of knowledge. Third, case study is useful to generate hypotheses, test them, and apply them to other research objectives. Fourth, case study presents the same bias concern as any other research methodology. Finally, the difficulty that the researcher faces in summarizing the research findings is related to the topic not to the methodology. Any other methodology studying the same topic would lead to the same amount of findings. Recognizing these misunderstandings raised my awareness as a researcher. I was guided by Flyvbjerg's (2006) recommendations in conducting the case study research to avoid the misunderstanding.

Boundaries of the case. Case study research relies on setting the boundaries to be studied (Merriam, 1998). The cases in this research were limited by the phenomenon (transformative learning of teaching), the participants (international early career professors), and the time (one academic year). The specific case for this study consisted of exploring the nature

and the degree of the transformative learning of teaching of international early career professors (from different faculties) who were teaching in one western Canadian university. The participants were international professors, who received their undergraduate education in a country other than Canada, regardless of where they received their graduate degree, and who were in the first three years of their employment prior to getting tenure, regardless of whether they had experience in another field or another campus.

Research Questions

The study sought to explore the teaching identity, practice, and factors that influenced the transformative learning in the teaching journeys of international early career professors in a Canadian university. The study aimed to answer the following research question: How do international early career professors experience their teaching journeys in one Canadian university? The following sub-questions also guided the inquiry:

1. How did change occur in their conceptualizations of teaching?
2. How did change occur in their teaching practice?
3. What are the factors that affected their teaching journeys?

The study included four phases. The participants had the options of participating in one or more of these phases. First, the participants were asked to take part in an initial interview (Refer to Appendix B). Second, the participants were asked to engage in one or more classroom observations (Refer to Appendix C 1) followed by a debrief interview (Refer to Appendix C 2). Third, the participants were asked to submit documents and course materials to be analyzed. Fourth, the participants were asked to complete an inventory (Refer to Appendix D) at the beginning and the end of the research. In order to triangulate the findings and get a complete

picture of what the professors thought was available and what the institution was providing, I also included an interview with the associate dean of teaching and learning in the respective faculties (Refer to Appendix F) and interviews with the educational developers and the director of the Teaching and Learning Centre at the university (Appendix G). The last two types of data collection methods served to detect any discrepancies between the professors and the institutions, as well as detect the reason behind the discrepancies in order to provide a more useful explanation in the findings.

Population and Sampling

This study was conducted in a western Canadian university that had an institutional strategic plan that highlights internationalization as one of its seven priorities. The goal of this university was to attract scholars from around the world. It also aimed at increasing the presence of international students. The participants targeted for this study were early career international professors. No additional criteria (e.g., country of origin, mother tongue, age, gender, previous experience, discipline) were considered necessary for this study.

Recruitment of the participants. Initial recruitment included two strategies. First, I provided an initial invitation letter to the office of internationalization and asked them to send an invitation email to international professors at the university. Second, with the same initial letter, I used snowball sampling to allow interested participants to contact me. The initial invitation letter outlined the purpose and processes of the research, and explained that participation was voluntary and findings remained confidential. The letter included a link to an online survey that asked participants to fill out their email address, their preferred method of contact, and time of contact (Appendix A). Five participants self-identified by completing the survey. I decided to

recruit all five participants because they were from different departments and different countries of origin. My focus in this research was on the sample adequacy (Bowen, 2008) rather than the sample size. The sample was adequate due to the fact that the participants in this research represented multiple departments and various teaching experience. Limiting the number of participants to five allowed me to manage the data that I collected from multiple data sources and multiple data collection methods. The aim of this study was not to specifically study the experience in one department or faculty. The aim was to get a deep understanding of each of the participant's experience first and second to examine common elements within those experiences. The diversity of the participants was reflected through a diverse teaching experience and portfolio in addition to the diversity of departments and countries of origin.

Methods of Data Collection

The following methods were used to collect data: online survey, semi-structured individual interview, classroom observation, approaches to teaching inventory, interviews with educational development programs facilitator, and document analysis.

Online survey. The initial online survey was used to collect contact information for the participants who expressed their willingness to take part in the research. It contained seven closed questions that gathered data about the participants, including their name, their faculty, their department, and the number of years they have been teaching in Canada, as well as their consent (Refer to Appendix A).

Individual interviews. The purpose of the interviews was to engage participants in in-depth conversations about their experience teaching in a Canadian university. One of the advantages of semi-structured interviews was that it allowed the participants to create the option

for responding. It also allowed them to voice their experiences without constraints set by the researcher (Creswell, 2012). Patton (2002) advised that the researcher builds an interview guide that would allow the research to build questions freely but still focused on a predetermined subject. An interview guide allowed the researcher to maximize the time of the interview (Patton, 2002) and the researcher was not expected to go into new areas. Other topics still emerged but they were particular to a certain interviewee and were not explored in other interviews. An interview was structured at the beginning to discuss the initial teaching of the professor, at the end of the study to discuss the findings and the transformation, and an interview was taken after every round of observation to discuss the changes that were detected during the observations.

The professor's interview consisted of two parts. The first part was a starting interview that consisted of 19 semi-structured questions that helped the researcher gain further understanding of the teaching journeys the professors went through, the factors that affected it, and how they viewed and practiced their teaching at the moment. The interview started with a general question on how a professor designed classes; the next question was about the "disorienting dilemma" that the professors felt in their teaching, if it existed. The following questions were related to the characteristics they aimed at exploring and how the professors experienced the change in these specific characteristics. At the end of each characteristic, there was a question to detect which lenses of reflection affected that characteristic and how. The second part of the interview aimed at uncovering the instructor's beliefs of the before and after coming to Canada (Appendix B). Professors were also able to choose to only take part in this interview or to continue further.

With the participant’s permission, each interview was digitally recorded and then transcribed. None of the participants expressed interest in reading their interview transcript. Nonetheless, after reviewing the data from the interview, I followed up with participants to seek clarification with regard to items in their data.

In addition to the professors, an interview (15 semi-structured questions) took place with the associate dean of teaching and learning in one faculty to explore what resources were available to the professors in that specific faculty (Appendix F). Members of the educational development unit at the institutional level were also invited to participate in an interview to provide information about the support available to the professors from the educational development unit. Questions were modified or added later depending on the type of educational development program available (Appendix G).

Classroom observation. As the researcher and depending on the participant’s willingness, I conducted one to two classroom observations over the academic semester (Appendix C 1). Depending on the participants, classroom observations were scheduled every five or six weeks with at least one classroom observation every semester.

Table 1

Class Observations

| Participant’ s pseudonym | Class observations conducted | Class observations cancelled |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Nancy | 3 | |
| Chloe | 2 | |
| Mary | 2 | 1 |
| Bob | 2 | 1 |
| Luis | 2 | |

A classroom observation grid was developed and used to track the changes in the professors' teaching. The observation tracked the lesson design, the time allocated to activities, the type of activities, and the role of the students.

A debriefing interview with a maximum of 10 questions was scheduled after the first or the second classroom observation to discuss the transformation detected in the classroom teaching (Refer to Appendix C 2). Nancy, Chloe, and Bob agreed to one debrief interview at the end of the observations, Mary and Luis agreed to two debrief interviews. The debrief interview started with some basic questions with more to be added depending on the observation that explored specifics of the lesson observed. Since the participants had different schedules, the debrief interviews took place face-to-face based on the participants availability.

Documents. I collected teaching philosophies from Nancy, Mary, Bob, and Luis. I also collected an assessment sample from Mary and students' feedback from Bob, Luis, and Mary. During the debrief interviews, I interviewed the professors about the findings and the reasons they created these documents, their significance, how they applied it, and how it affected them.

Teaching Inventory. The Approaches to Teaching Inventory (Refer to Appendix D) was designed and tested by Trigwell and Prossell (1994). The purpose of the inventory was to test the variation of professors' teaching approaches. Their work was based on research in Europe and Australia. In order to develop the inventory, Trigwell and Prossell (1994) started with a phenomenographic study to identify the approaches. The validity of the inventory was proven by Trigwell (2002) and Trigwell et al. (1994) with a reliability of 0.75 on a sample of 656. The inventory consisted of 24 scale questions in which the participants expressed how true each item

was to the subject. The approaches to teaching inventory took between 25 and 35 minutes to complete. The Approaches to Teaching Inventory was used with the permission of Professor Keith Trigwell at the University of Sydney. Participants were asked to fill the inventory twice, once at the start of the first semester of the study and again at the end of the second semester. Comparison of the two results helped identify any change in their teaching approaches.

Table 2 provides a summary of the data collection methods.

Table 2

Data Collection Methods

| Data collection method | Number of participants |
|---|------------------------|
| Online survey | 5 |
| Individual interview of professors | 5 |
| Individual interview of associate dean | 1 |
| Individual interviews of the Teaching and Learning Centre | 4 |
| Debrief interviews | 7 |
| Class observations | 11 |
| Teaching philosophies | 4 |
| Assessment sample | 1 |
| Students' feedback | 3 |
| Teaching inventory | 3 |

The data analysis was iterative and it started after the initial interviews. I coded the interviews and did a first coding cycle. I grouped the findings into preliminary themes. These codes and themes were revisited after each class observation and debrief interview. I also used the information that I analyzed from the initial interviews and the class observations in the debrief interviews. My aim behind that was to follow up with the professors and ask them about

their class practices and how that related to their views on teaching. In addition, I used the analyzed data to ask the staff members at the Teaching and Learning Centre as well as the associate dean of teaching and learning when I found that appropriate.

Figure 1 refers to the data source used in this research.

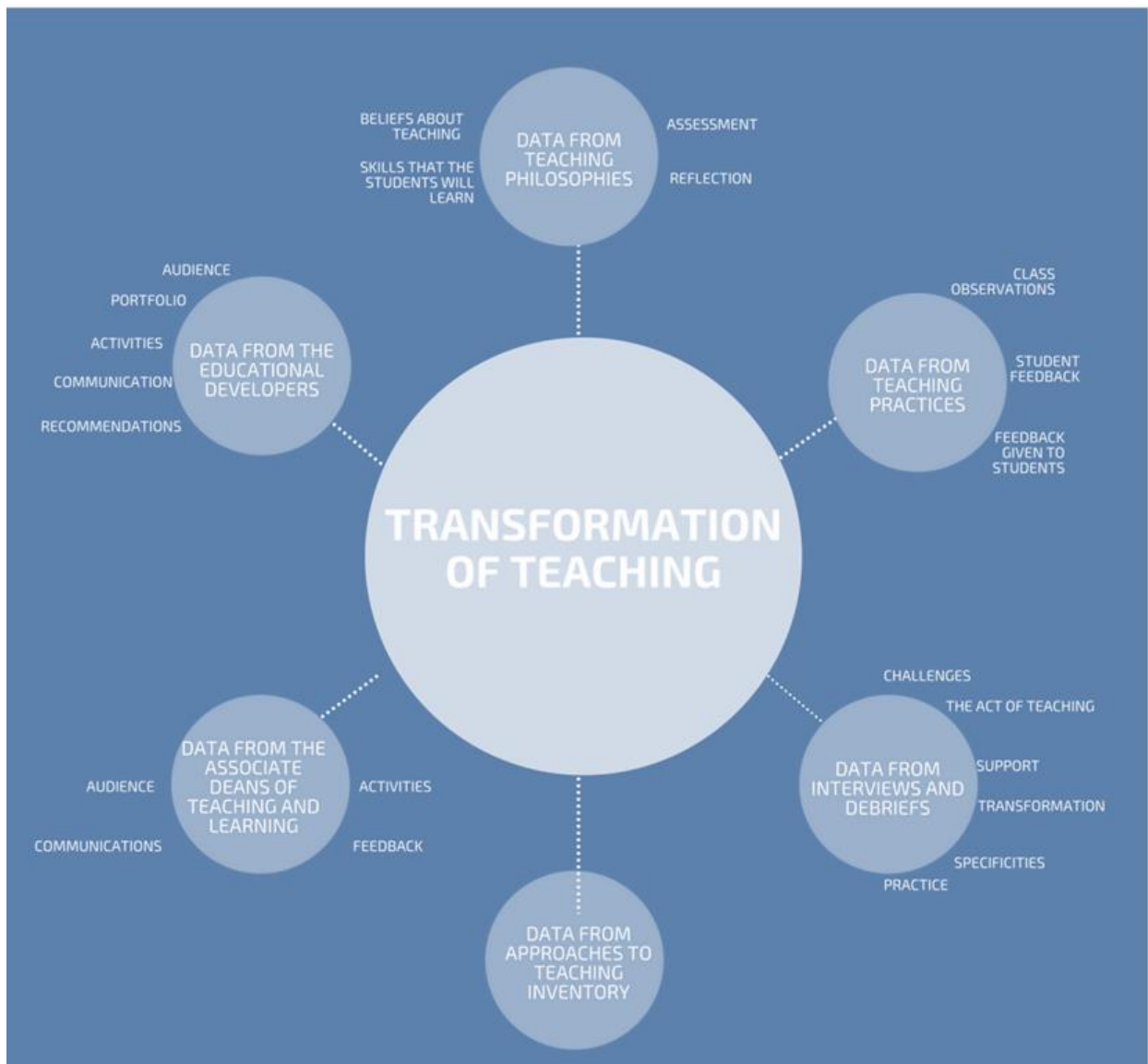


Figure 1. Data Sources

Methods of Data Analysis

Online survey. The data from the online survey was used to provide the most diversified sample of participants. This data from the online survey was sorted in categories of years of teaching in Canada, place of undergraduate degree, and faculty. The data collected from the survey helped me realize the diversity of the five participants and helped me make the decision to recruit the five of them.

Observations, debriefs, interviews, and documents data. The data were coded using Microsoft Excel. I chose to use the thematic analysis approach to analyze data from the interviews, observations, and documents. Thematic analysis is not tied to a particular theoretical outlook, so it can be applied when using a range of theories and epistemological approaches. The use of thematic analysis enabled a deeper interpretation of themes and a transparent audit trail; whereas content analysis does not. Thematic analysis allowed the researcher to move from measurement to understanding; from causation to meaning, and from statistical analysis to interpretation (Joffe, 2012; Smith, Harre & Van Langenhove, 1995). It is a method used to identify and analyze patterns of meaning in a dataset (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

I chose a hybrid approach for this research combining the data-driven inductive approach of Boyatzis (1998) and the deductive a priori template of codes approach outlined by Crabtree and Miller (1999). One of the examples of a data-driven inductive theme is the disorienting dilemma. This theme emerged from the data as the professors referred to their experiences. Teaching and support are examples of deductive a priori themes. A theme, in this context, refers to a specific pattern of meaning found in the data that could be implicit or explicit. Based on my

literature review, I was looking for these themes in my coding and I had subthemes already identified from the literature review.

The coding process involved recognizing and coding important information prior to interpretation. Coding the data allowed me to identify and develop themes. A theme is “a pattern in the information that at minimum describes and organizes the possible observations and at maximum interprets aspects of the phenomenon” (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 161). In addition to the inductive approach of Boyatzis (1998), in the analysis of the text in this study, I also used a template approach (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). I defined the template (or codebook) a priori, based on the research question and the theoretical framework, before commencing an in-depth analysis of the data.

The research analysis was iterative and reflexive (Tobin & Begley, 2004) and followed the six stages proposed by Boyatzis (1998) and Crabtree and Miller (1999). The analysis started by developing the code manual. Codes were identified by 1) the code label or name, 2) the definition of what the theme concerns, and 3) a description of how to know when the theme occurs. Following Boyatzis’ (1998) recommendations drawn upon the literature, ten characteristics were identified and were used as codes. Figure 2 provides an example how excerpts were grouped into codes, which in turn were grouped into subthemes that provided a definition of the theme the act of teaching.

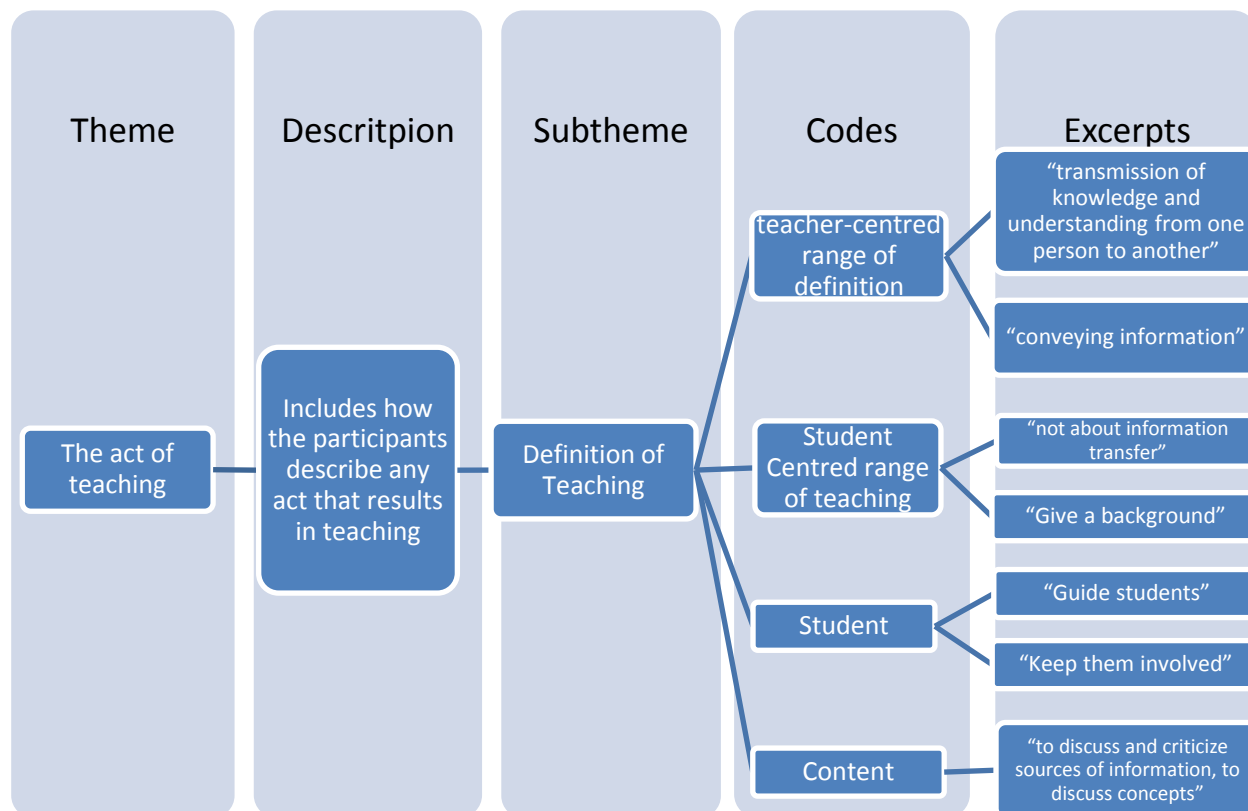


Figure 2. Example of how the theme the Act of Teaching unfolded

One week after completing the coding, I checked the internal consistency by coding a selection of the interview a second time. By doing so, I found the two coded selections to be consistent. Afterward, I summarized the data from the interviews, documents and observations, and identification of initial themes. Then I applied the template of codes and additional coding. Next, I connected the codes across all the data source and identified themes. At the end, I had a set of themes with their definitions, all their elements, and their relations to other themes.

Table 3 below shows the description of the theme support, how this theme has elements from three different sources, the subthemes associated with this theme, and how this theme is related to other themes.

Table 3

The Multiple Sources of Information that Contribute to the Theme Support and its Subthemes

| Theme | Description | Source | Subthemes | | Other themes |
|--|---|--|--|------------|---|
| Support | Describes the support that the participants felt they needed or they sought or they will seek | Types of support that the participants had sought | Research on teaching | Related to | Needs of the participants |
| | | | Family | | |
| | | | PhD./Postdoc supervisor | | |
| | | | Previous colleagues | | |
| | | Types of support that educational developers provide | Online course (Stanford) | | Recommendations of the educational developers |
| | | | Preference for support | | |
| | | | Educational Development | | |
| Types of support provided by the associate dean of teaching and learning | Types of support provided by the associate dean of teaching and learning | Activities inside the Teaching and Learning Center | Feedback from the associate dean | | |
| | | Activities outside the Teaching and Learning Center | | | |
| | | Teaching and learning activities | Based on the feedback received from the professors | | |
| | | | Specific meetings with an identified professor | | |

Teaching inventory. Data from the inventories completed by Chloe, Luis, and Mary were analyzed following the analysis provided by Trigwell and Prossell (1994). The inventory

was done at the start (pre) of the research and at the end (post) of the research which coincided with the end of the second semester. The Approaches to Teaching Inventory measures the extent to which teachers have teacher-focused and student-focused approaches to teaching.

Sample items include:

Teacher focus: In this subject I concentrated on covering the information that might be available from a good textbook.

Student focus: I encouraged students to restructure their existing knowledge in terms of the new ways of thinking about the subject that they developed.

Teacher focus and student focus are independent scales and not opposite ends of a single scale. Therefore, it is possible for a scholar to have a high score on both scales. The Approaches to Teaching Inventory has its own measurement tools and allows researchers to calculate the approaches without using any statistical software. For each participant, I calculated their approaches at the start and at the end of the research study. In order to get a deeper understanding of their approach, I identified items in the inventory where I noticed change, I compared this among the participants, and I addressed these items in the debrief interviews.

Integrity of the Study

Reliability. This research incorporated “the researcher’s position” as a first step to ensuring the reliability of the research (Merriam, 1998). I have included an identification and an explanation of all the theories, rationales, assumptions, descriptions, and procedures in order to provide all the necessary information for the reader to understand the research. An audit trail (Merriam, 1998) was another method to ensure reliability. I described in detail how data were

collected, from whom, how themes were derived, how decisions were made, and how it was analysed.

Validity. The two tests used to ensure validity were internal validity and external validity (Merriam, 1998). Internal validity was confirmed by triangulation (Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2009), member check, and peer examination (Merriam, 1998), consisting of the supervisory committee, and reflexivity (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Reflexivity included attending systematically to the knowledge construction process and revisiting how the researcher was affecting the research (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Reflexivity included developing a reflexive journal and reporting research perspectives (Lincoln & Guba, 2000).

Denzin (1978) identified four types of triangulation which are multiple methods of data collection, multiple sources of data, multiple investigators, and multiple theories to confirm emerging findings. I used multiple methods of data collection and multiple sources of data to ensure triangulation in this research. Data were collected and compared using numerous methods such as interviews, class observations, debrief interviews, and documents and inventory. Similarly, data were collected from multiple sources such as the participants, the associate dean of teaching and learning, and the educational developers.

The validity of the coding was established through an audit trail (Merriam, 1998) and check coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994). An audit trail involved documenting how data were collected, categories and the way they were identified, and the decision-making procedure (Merriam, 1998). Check coding consisted of more than two researchers coding the same data and discussing the differences (Miles & Huberman, 1994), in the case of this research, I discussed the coding with my supervisor.

Limitations

This study had six limitations. First, the study sought to explore the transformative learning of the teaching journeys of international early career professors. It was important to keep in mind that the early stages of a professor's career was a sensitive time as he or she may not have tenure and was getting acquainted with a new institutional environment. This could have led to professors being reluctant to participate in the study or to voice their concerns, needs, and thoughts.

Second, my bias was considered a limitation because I had to decide what was important to collect, analyze, and report (Flyvbjerg, 2011; Merriam, 1998). As the researcher, I had no personal or professional experience being a professor. Being born outside of Canada, I had commonalities with the participants regarding their international status. I ensured the validity and reliability of the study in order to avoid any biases.

Third, a limitation was related to the process of contacting people. By reaching out to participants via email, the study was dependent on the delivery and response rate of the email from the office of internationalization or through snowball sampling. The respond rate may also be impacted based on the unfamiliarity between the recipients and the researcher.

Fourth, the information gathered from interviews may have been filtered to convey only what the participants wanted to disclose (Creswell, 2012). Professors might have been cautious or deceptive on what they shared given they had no relation with the researcher. They might not have been completely open or frank throughout the interview.

Fifth, the research took place over two academic semesters of teaching (Fall 2016 and Winter 2017). Although conducting a research for any longer is not practical, transformation in

thinking and acting around teaching can take a while, and the researcher might have not seen huge shifts in this short period of time. However, data were collected from various sources and a rich description of experience was provided.

The sixth limitation of the research was the multitude of the data collection methods. Participants might have been reluctant to participate in all the interviews or the class observations. I provided enough description of the time needed to complete the inventories. I also provided a large time frame for the participants to complete the inventories at their own availability.

Delimitations

The study had two delimitations. First, the study was delimited to professors who were foreign-born, received their undergraduate education in a country outside of Canada, and who were in their first three years of employment before getting tenure, regardless of whether they had experience in another field or another campus. Second, this study was also delimited to one western Canadian university. Although other factors and roles played a role in the professors' academic journeys, this study only looked at the teaching journeys. Although the university had professors that had international experience, the study only focused on the definition of international students and professors. Others that did not fit the description were not interviewed.

Ethical Considerations

I received approval from the Conjoint Faculties Research Ethics Board (CFREB) prior to conducting this study. After obtaining the ethical approval, email and participation requests were sent stating the confidentiality of participating in the research. In the consent form the participants were informed of the purpose of the study, what they were asked to do, the types of

information being collected, and what would happen to the information being collected. They were also told that they could withdraw from the study at any time, but the data collected up to that point would still be used in the study.

Personal Interest in the Research

Two factors have contributed to my choice of research topic. First, I believed that preparation of professors is key to the success of a university experience for students. Therefore, knowing what the experience was like from the point of view of the professors is crucial. Second, as the researcher, I had observed friends who experienced confusion and fear upon teaching at the university. From my own experience, I knew engineering doctorates who accepted positions, and—being obliged to teach for the first time—admitted that they did not know if what they were doing was right. Further, these professors were international and they were not sure how to address students in Canadian universities. Within a couple of weeks, I saw these professors give up and imitate more experienced colleagues. For this reason, I believe that if these professors would have had the right guidance at the beginning of their journeys, it would have made a great difference in their career.

As a researcher, I brought my own bias and perspective caused by preconceptions to the study. As such, I implemented the following techniques to attend to this bias. I used triangulation to make sure I was not relying on one source of information. I also used member checking to get feedback from participants so as to help avoid personal opinions and I used peer feedback to avoid subjective conclusions. These techniques were suggested by Merriam (1998) to make sure that the data is valid, reliable and unbiased.

Summary

A case study methodology was used to study the transformative learning of international early career professors. Five data sources were used to gather data to gain an understanding of the teaching journeys of international early career professors. Audit trail, triangulation, and member check were used to provide reliability and validity to the research.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

In this chapter, I report on the analysis of all data sources in terms of findings. To answer the research questions, I collected and analyzed data from five early-career professors, one associate dean of teaching and learning, and three educational developers from the university's Teaching and Learning Centre. I collected data using a variety of instruments: interviews, classroom observations, classroom observation debrief interviews, inventories, document analysis of teaching philosophy, and student evaluations.

The chapter begins with a detailed description of the participants, including those who completed the first survey, and how the participants were chosen. After establishing the description of the participants, I explain the major themes that emerged from the data. The following section presents the stories of the participants. The chapter ends with a fitting conclusion stemming from the data and the analysis.

Study Participants

The study involved five participants (early-career professors) who had responded to the online survey. The online survey helped me determine the recruiting of the five participants because of their varied experiences. One of the participants was in their third year of teaching at the University of Calgary, while the other four were still in their first year. The four participants who were in their first year, each belonged to a different department, and came from a different country. They each brought their own teaching experience to the job in terms of college teaching, being a teaching assistant, or being the principal instructor. It was the uniqueness of the participants' records which encouraged me to recruit them.

In addition to the five early-career professor participants, the associate deans of their respective faculties were contacted for an interview. Only one of the associate deans agreed to participate in the study. Two of the educational developers at the institution, plus the director of the Teaching and Learning Center, were also contacted for an interview. The third educational developer was not contacted because of the conflict of interest in this specific research. Both educational developers and the director of the Teaching and Learning Centre agreed to take part in the research.

The demographic information collected from the interview data showed that the five professors had rather limited teaching experience. None of them were educators with extensive teaching experience, which is the targeted group for the study.

Two of the participants had between zero to one year of teaching experience before starting the current position, another participant had between three and four years, and two participants had more than seven years of teaching experience. Out of this teaching experience, four of the participants had zero to one year of experience teaching at a university level, while one participant had three years of experience.

Demographic data from the interviews with the professors showed they were between the ages of 30 and 39 years old. It also indicated that the participants come from five different countries of origin, having received their undergraduate degree in their countries of origin, with three of them having received their doctoral degree in a Canadian university and two in the United States of America.

The following section has a description of the participants. I replaced the names of the participants with pseudonyms. For each participant, I provide background information on their

education and past employment, and current information about their current position and teaching load. Also, I describe their views on teaching.

Description of the Participants

Mary. Mary is an assistant professor in the Faculty of Arts. She was born in Europe, where she received her undergraduate degree. She described her Bachelor of Arts as a very “classical thing”, with no use of technology or active learning. She moved to Quebec for her master’s degree and then her PhD. Mary taught five courses and, during one of them, she acted as a replacement for her professor. All the classes she taught before her current position were smaller groups of around 30 students. Mary had never taught a large class before. When she was looking for a job, Mary sought the help of a relative who introduced her to the concept of learning objectives.

At the time of this study, Mary was in the first year of her current position as an assistant professor. During this first year, Mary taught three courses. During her first semester, she taught her first large class. In her second semester, Mary oversaw a graduate class and an upper-year undergraduate class. Mary mostly referred to a relative for questions about teaching. Mary expressed the need to have a course on how to teach in an Anglophone Canadian classroom, as she found it fundamentally different to her own educational experience. Interestingly, Mary felt that talking to the researcher made her critically reflect on her teaching, which she had not done before.

Bob. At the time of this study, Bob was an assistant professor in the Faculty of Arts. He was born in North America. Bob was registered in an honours program for his bachelor’s degree, which meant that all his courses were seminars. He also received his master’s degree and PhD in

North America. Bob was a teaching assistant for five courses. As a PhD student, Bob taught three courses. Before coming to Canada, Bob worked as an instructor and taught six courses over two terms.

When this research started, Bob had just arrived in Canada and started a position as an assistant professor. Bob did not teach any courses in his first term. In his second term, he started teaching a graduate course and an undergraduate course. Bob considered his last institution as the place where he learned how to teach, because most of the faculty members thought themselves as activist scholars and they were engaged in teaching for an activist cause.

Luis. At the time of this study, Luis was an assistant professor in the Faculty of Arts. He was born in North America. He did his undergraduate degree in North America and his master's degree in an East Asian country, before returning to North America for his PhD. Luis taught for the first time in 2007, when he was teaching English abroad. After that, he taught a class in graduate school in Asia from 2008 to 2009. Since 2010, Luis worked as a teaching assistant and as a main instructor.

Luis moved to Canada shortly before the start of my dissertation research. In his first semester, Luis taught one course, and two courses more in his second semester. Luis was actively engaged in creating interactive lessons and group work in the classroom. During his classes, Luis would start with an entry poll to gather the students' prior conceptions and he would end the course with an exit poll to see the change in the students' conceptions after the discussion. Luis also uses real-life examples and talks about real companies and real-world problems in his courses. Luis felt that he was investing too much time in his teaching and that he should cut back in order to focus more on his research. Luis contacted his former advisor or

former colleagues whenever he wanted to talk about his teaching. Luis was interested in teaching development, but he was not sure that he was interested in going to the Teaching and Learning Centre to receive a workshop on the subject. Luis preferred to receive personalized emails that invite him to activities within his faculty or department.

Chloe. At the time of this study, Chloe was an assistant professor in the Faculty of Engineering. She was born in the Middle East, where she received her undergraduate and master's degree. Chloe moved to Canada to pursue her PhD. She was a teaching assistant for four courses during this time. She designed assignments for two courses where she was given all the material. Chloe worked as an instructor in a college for a year after her PhD.

Chloe started working as an assistant professor in 2016. She did not teach any courses in the first term of my data collection. In the second term, she taught one course to seven students. Chloe stated that she learned a great deal about teaching when she took an online course. Chloe was very passionate about introducing real-world problems to the classroom, and she was interested in another colleague's work who has replaced exercises with examples from real companies.

Nancy. At the time of this study, Nancy was an assistant professor in the Faculty of Arts. She was born in Europe, where she received her undergraduate degree. After finishing her undergraduate degree, Nancy moved to the United States for two years to pursue a master's degree. When Nancy came back to Europe to pursue another master's degree, she felt that lecture-based courses made no sense to her and she felt she was acculturated to the North American way of teaching for social change. Nancy then moved to Canada, where she received her PhD.

Nancy taught in a teaching-focused university that had a student-centred approach for a year. Then she moved to her current institution, where she has been teaching for three years. During this research study, Nancy was teaching two courses in the first semester and two courses in the second semester. Nancy felt that she was struggling with big classrooms, as most of her experience was in teaching smaller classes. Nancy felt the need to change her teaching when she started looking for jobs and when she realized that the evaluations are necessary for her to maintain that job.

Analysis of the Data

From the thematic analysis of the data described in chapter three, the following five main themes were identified: teaching, disorienting dilemma, shift in teaching, support, and challenges of teaching in a Canadian context. Each theme is discussed in detail in the following sections. The findings section concludes with three illustrative stories of the professors' experiences. The purpose of these three stories is to showcase the transformation that the professors went through and its impact on their teaching, as well as the support they are accessing in comparison to the support they felt they needed.

Teaching. The theme tells the story of the relationship between early-career professors and their teaching. This includes what they have hoped to portray about their teaching and what they promised their teaching would be in their teaching philosophies. It also includes how they defined teaching and the attributes of good teaching in theory and in practice compared to what I observed during my class observations.

While describing their teaching in their teaching philosophies, the five professors had an elaborate description of teaching. It included transmission of knowledge, facilitation, mentorship,

critical thinking, in addition to organization, evaluation, and skills development. The teaching philosophies also detailed the objectives of the teaching as success in the students' future career, development of critical sense, understanding and changing their world for the better, learning transferable skills, gaining knowledge, collaborating, and applying their skills and knowledge.

When asked about their teaching philosophies in the interviews, Mary stated she had exaggerated her teaching philosophy to fit the job description as she was advised to do by a family member who worked in a teaching and learning centre at another university. Luis, in turn, warned me "not to take the teaching philosophy too seriously" because it was simply a document used to get a job. The responses of these two professors showed that teaching philosophies might not always be an accurate representation of the professors' teaching.

During the interviews, the professors discussed what teaching meant to them and explained that they had multiple ways of defining teaching. While one of the professors limited her definition to the role of the professor, the other four participants extended their definition to include what the students are expected to do in the classroom and the use of the course content.

The definitions of teaching ranged from a teacher-centred definition of teaching to a more interactive, student-centred definition and they were discussed in relation to the knowledge delivered, the students being taught, and the content of the lesson. On the more teacher-centred range of definitions, Mary described teaching as "the method or the transmission of knowledge and understanding from one person to another"; Chloe and Luis defined teaching as a mixture of knowledge transmission and knowledge building; and Nancy and Bob defined teaching as

facilitation. Nancy elaborated on this definition by stating that “teaching would be facilitation, giving the minimum amount of information that will help them proceed.”

While Mary defined teaching in relation to what she did alone, Nancy, Bob, Luis and Chloe included the students in their definitions. They defined teaching as the way to provide students with tools, keeping them involved or providing them with opportunities to think differently. Similarly, Bob extended the definition of teaching to include the content and its goal in the course.

When asked about what good teaching means to them, the professors described multiple elements of good teaching, such as the personal characteristics of the instructors, the act of teaching, the activities that the students would engage in during or after the class, and the goal of teaching. Nancy described good teaching as when the professor “treats students with respect,” and Luis described good teaching as when “the instructor has complete information, keeps the students motivated to continue listening, makes the topic interesting, and understands what is going on. Does not give simple questions nor simple teaching.”

The professors referred to the act of teaching by the type of activities included in the class time such as “hands-on, active learning,” “showing knowledge and understanding some facts,” and “teaching that gives students the tools and frameworks for them to think and analyze problems that they face in their everyday life.” The professors also described good teaching by explaining what not to do. For example, Nancy explained that for good teaching to happen “I try not to do too much of a top-down.” Furthermore, she stated that good teaching is “not career preparation.” While the previous elements could describe components of good teaching, these

features do not describe the whole act of teaching. Professors did not have a full description of what good teaching includes.

The five professors described good teaching as having either an influence on the mental activity or having an impact on the practical activities of their students or having both. The professors referred to the mental activity as “thinking about a lot of things.” Good teaching “stimulates thinking,” and good thinking motivates students “to continue listening.” The practical activity was referred to as students using what they learned to start teaching others and “apply[ing] this idea, this thought to several different applications.” Also, participants considered good teaching to take place when students show the urge to discuss the material with their friends. Chloe noted that good learning happens when students “want to talk about the material with their friends.” Lastly, Bob stated that good teaching takes place when “students develop tools for investigating or understanding the world in new ways.”

Finally, two participants defined good teaching by the future goal carried out by the teaching. They identified future goal as “what they learn to start teaching others” and teaching “that gives students the tools and frameworks for them to think and analyze problems that they face in their everyday life.”

There seemed to be a form of disconnection between the teaching practice and their teaching philosophy. While all the teaching philosophies included elements of active learning and activities, the class observations showed that three professors’ classes were mainly focused on lectures. One professor showed a transformation in their teaching toward a more student-centred approach while another professor practiced more student-centred teaching approach.

While the participants expressed diverse descriptions of teaching and good teaching and exhibited a variety of teaching practices, the educational developers refrained from giving a definition for teaching or good teaching. The educational developers explained that their mandate is “not to impose” their point of view about teaching on instructors; instead, the educational developers agreed that they would not judge a teaching approach or try to change it.

There are three examples that showcased the diversity in teaching. In her teaching philosophy, Mary was very elaborate about including active learning in her teaching. While she defined teaching as “the method or the transmission of knowledge and understanding from one person to another,” she also described good teaching as “showing knowledge and understanding some facts.” In practice, Mary solely focused on lecturing. In the second semester, Mary started incorporating some active techniques in her lectures, such as Think-Pair-Share.

Nancy defined teaching as “facilitation, giving the minimum amount of information that will help them proceed.” Nancy also added that teaching is “to guide students through the investigation, I see my job as providing students the necessary tools so they can start the investigation.” Nancy said that good teaching occurs when the professor “treats students with respect.” In practice, Nancy held lectures throughout the three classroom observations. Her lectures included many elements of real-life examples and personal stories. There was an evident disconnect between the way she described good teaching and the way she practiced teaching. When asked about it, Nancy pointed out that a large classroom did not allow for any active learning.

Bob also had an elaborate description of active teaching in his teaching philosophy. Bob defined teaching as “keeping the students involved” and he explained that good teaching is when

“the instructor has complete information, keeps the students motivated to continue listening, makes the topic interesting and understands what is going on and does not give simple questions or simple teaching.” In practice, Bob adopted a discussion-based approach in his classes at the start of the semester. In the middle of the semester, Bob started shifting to a more lecture-based approach. In the debrief interviews, Bob expressed his frustration about how the course was going. He had to change his program because the students complained about the class and preferred to be lectured. Despite his student-centred teaching approach and active learning lesson design, the transformation of teaching that Bob was experiencing was directly influenced by his students. He was moving toward a more teacher-centred approach and a less active learning lesson design. Bob had moved away from discussions and incorporated more lectures.

An important point to address is the disconnection between the teaching philosophies and the teaching thoughts and practice. As two of the professors mentioned explicitly, the teaching philosophies were not authentic. Teaching philosophies were rather a tool to get a job.

In summary, the multiple folds of this theme showed that there can be a discrepancy between the ways the professors portrayed their teaching to others when applying for jobs, the way they thought about their teaching, and the way they actually practiced their teaching. The professors were constantly looking for a balance between their teaching culture and academic identity, the department teaching culture, and the institutional teaching culture. As a result, their academic identity was constantly evolving. In addition, professors were not formally educated about modern teaching and learning practices, therefore they were not able to articulate a holistic definition of teaching. Finally, transformation in teaching is a spectrum between student-centred approach and teacher-centred approach., Some professors transformed to become more teacher-

centred in practice while they still held student-centred approaches, while others became more student-centred in their approaches while they practiced teacher-centred methods.

Disorienting dilemma. The “disorienting dilemma” is an event that took place at a certain point and caused the professors to think about their teaching practice. This event could have led to a change in teaching practice or not. All the participants indicated that their first entry into academia was a disorienting dilemma for them. Entry into a new job caused them to wonder about how to do their job in the best way possible to get tenure. This dilemma was accompanied by the “usual” stress of starting a new job. The participants did not elaborate on this event or how it affected their teaching later during the year. Starting the new job was just mentioned as a stressful moment at the start of their year.

Each of the professors had a specific disorienting dilemma deserving of its own rich description. Nancy shared that she had four disorienting dilemmas in her teaching career. The first one occurred during her previous position at a teaching-focused university, while the last disorienting dilemma happened when she started to teach in her current position. Her first dilemma was when she moved from her doctorate and started teaching in small classes, where she was strongly encouraged to adopt active learning. Nancy reported that “attending a workshop on teaching in a Canadian context” was an eye-opener and helped her realize she needed to transform her teaching. As a result, Nancy adopted a student-centred teaching approach. Her second dilemma occurred when she moved to her current position. She started teaching larger classrooms in a department where student-centredness was not valued as it was at her previous institution, and where students had fewer expectations when it came to how teaching should take place. The second disorienting dilemma led Nancy to rethink how she could navigate the

department culture as well as how to apply her knowledge in a large classroom. The third dilemma that Nancy experienced was when she discovered “by accident” a peer-reviewed journal that published articles about teaching in her discipline. Nancy was amazed that this journal existed and was excited to read it. As much as Nancy expressed her enthusiasm about the journal, she also indicated that she had no one in her department to discuss the journal readings with, in addition to being busy and having no time or support from the department to try any new ideas in teaching. Finally, Nancy said that watching some of her colleagues teach made her realize that she needed to change her teaching to improve her practice. She observed a “research assistant for some time who was teaching her class last winter semester and she comes from a very different educational culture.” Nancy explained that the research assistant came to the classroom with an understanding of teaching, sat there and told her students:

You are not doing your readings, you need to do your reading, I am not happy with you not doing your readings, you need to do your assignments, if you don't do your readings I am going to give you a quiz.

Chloe's disorienting dilemma occurred when she took an online course offered by Stanford University in which the instructor was trying new techniques and approaches to teaching. Chloe indicated that she learned some techniques about flipped classroom that she will try to incorporate in her teaching. She also learned techniques such as recap video sessions using an application to present the prerequisites, asking the students to fill a quiz at the end of each video, having a follow-up, and actively engaging the students before and after the class time.

Mary experienced three moments that she thought could be classified as disorienting dilemmas. The first dilemma that caused Mary to reconsider her teaching was when she attended

classes of a renowned professor in her field, only to be disappointed by the “dull” delivery. She promised herself that this is something she would try to avoid in her own teaching. Mary described the class to be a monotonous one-way lecture. Mary felt the need to change her teaching when she received an email from a student suggesting that she use some active learning techniques such as Think-Pair-Share in her classes to increase interactivity. Mary was very receptive and appreciative of the suggestion, and tried it in her classes. Additionally, Mary was researching for more active techniques to apply in her teaching. The third disorienting dilemma that Mary expressed was talking to me as a researcher. She explained that she never had to think about her teaching or reflect on her practice before the interview with me. During the debrief interviews, Mary confided that the first interview triggered reflections in her mind and she did some serious thinking about how she will conduct her teaching. In practice, the transformation was obvious in Mary’s teaching and she was slowly inclining toward a more student-centred approach.

Luis experienced a disorienting dilemma during his time teaching in a northeast Asian country, where he was expected to be more teacher-centred. This expectation contradicted with his understanding of teaching, but he found himself changing his teaching to accommodate the expectations of the institution he was teaching at. He explained that “it is different, students don’t interact there, they listen to the instructor, they don’t contradict and that is a sign of respect.”

Bob and Luis both had a disorienting dilemma in their current institution that led them to consider becoming less student-centred. They both received their undergraduate and graduate degrees from a North American institution. They both started their careers at the current

institution with a student-centred approach to teaching. Both had no classes to teach in their first semester and both prepared active learning designs for their second semester courses. In practice, the class observations showed a very interactive class design for Luis and a discussion-based class for Bob. By the middle of the course, Bob experienced a pushback from his students and his colleagues. His class was not well-received by the students who were used to receiving passive lectures in all their courses. The students found it too demanding to accomplish all the tasks that Bob required from them. In addition, Bob found it challenging to convince his colleagues to adopt his style. Bob found this a disorienting dilemma that made him question whether he should just “go with the flow” and provide lecture-based courses. This was obvious in his class observations, where, at the end of the semester, I observed a class based only on lectures.

Luis showcased an interactive design in his class. By the middle of the term, Luis told me that he felt he was wasting his time with all the preparation for the classes and the time investment. He said that his department did not appreciate his putting as much time in teaching while he should be focusing on his research. Luis explained that the head of his department told him that “as long as his teaching is not that bad” he did not need to put in that much effort and that “it will not make a difference for his tenure.”

It is important to take notice of the differences between the disorienting dilemmas that led to two different reactions. The disorienting dilemmas that led to a more student-centred approach were mainly accidental and not organized by the university, while the ones that led to a more teacher-centred approach were linked to the department and the colleagues. In addition, the disorienting dilemmas were both unintentional and unplanned and led to different levels of

integration into the teaching culture. Consequently, if left to coincidence, participants might never realize the existence or the need for a different practice of teaching and learning. In addition, the disorienting dilemmas were a result of one or more of the four lenses of critical reflection.

Shift in teaching. There was a shift in teaching expressed during the interviews. This was supported in terms of the practice and the approaches as indicated in the teaching inventory data. All the professors affirmed that they had been forced to transform their teaching in one way or another. The transformation happened at different times and for various reasons.

For example, Nancy conveyed that the first time she had to look at changing her teaching was when she started working in a teaching-centred university in Canada. Nancy said that “she initially conceptualized teaching as the instructor being the authority that has all of the knowledge and the student has none of it [...], but I realized on the way that it doesn’t work this way.” Consequently, Nancy reported, then she “started doing teaching as a job” and “so needed good reviews.” She began thinking of ways to transform her teaching. Both Nancy and Luis asserted that their job searches included writing a teaching philosophy which led them to think differently about their teaching. Also, Nancy noted that “losing students because the traditional lecture style was not very engaging” was one of the reasons that encouraged her transformation. Furthermore, Bob debated that his transformation started during his PhD degree because “a lot of the faculty saw their role as a scholar-activist” which affected the way they taught him.

The shift in teaching took place in many forms. The shift manifested in the way the participants conceptualized their role as professors, the role of the content, the role of the student,

the assessment, the conceptualization of teaching, the learning, and the teaching tools and strategies. These roles are outlined below as subthemes.

Role of the professor. Nancy, Chloe, and Mary expressed that they experienced transformation in the way that they conceptualized being a professor and the way they behaved as a professor. First, they expressed a transformation in the authority that they held in front of the classroom and with the students. They found that, in a Canadian university, they had less authority, they were not the sage on the stage, and they were questioned by the students on what they taught and how they graded.

A good illustration of this transformation was with Nancy. Nancy said that she came to Canada with the conception of “being the authority” because during most of her experience, “the instructor had an automatic authority that comes with the title and the position and students are usually quite accepting of that.” Nancy talked about her experience with challenging the professor saying, “I find it interesting because I don’t recall ever in my undergraduate degree somebody openly confronting the professor and challenging them on things that they taught. The open confrontation was quite rare.” On the topic of emails, Nancy gave an example of receiving an “email from a student on a Sunday [...] I didn’t respond to it at first, so he sends me an email two hours later with an emergency flag.” Similarly, Nancy expressed that “this informal relationship between the *prof* (sic) and students takes time to get used to,” and that “sometimes, students send me emails and I would have never dared to submit an email like that to my professor. Like you would only contact them because it is absolutely necessary.”

In addition, the three found that they needed to transform their relationship with their students. They found it needed to be more of an “informal relationship”, where students would

call them by their first name, send emails at random times, and expect them to answer the emails promptly.

Similarly, the professors showed the same results in the approaches to teaching inventory.

The following are statements from the teaching inventory that reflects how in their practice they were becoming more student-centred:

- In this subject, students should focus their study on what I provide them.
- I see teaching as helping students develop new ways of thinking in this subject.
- I make available opportunities for students in this subject to discuss their changing understanding of the subject.
- My teaching in this subject focuses on delivering what I know to the students.
- Teaching in this subject should include helping students find their own learning resources.
- In this subject, my teaching focuses on the good presentation of information to students.
- I should know the answers to any questions that students may put to me during this subject.
- I think an important reason for running teaching sessions in this subject is to give students a good set of notes.
- In this subject, I concentrate on covering the information that might be available from key texts and readings.

When asked about the transformation in relation to the above elements, the three professors indicated that they now felt more comfortable as to their presence in the classroom and what image they needed to convey. They felt that it was okay not to know all the answers for the questions, and they also felt comfortable leaving open-ended questions to the students to allow them to look for other options and additional information. The professors indicated that the university's culture helped them move toward this type of thinking. Nancy explained that she learned to "accept that the student might not end up agreeing or thinking like me" and, consequently, she realized that "part of my work now is to figure out what they need to know in order to do what and teaching them that actively." While discussing with me, the participants

said that even if they believed students should find their own way, they still felt the pressure to fulfill some of the students' expectations based on their colleagues' beliefs or because of the ratings.

The role of content. Mary and Bob described the transformation of their relationship to the content of their courses. This translated into using more engaging course material and organizing the lesson by learning objectives. It also manifested when these two professors decided to make their notes available online to allow students to focus on the conversation during the class. This transformation was also visible when the participants decided to include authentic examples in their explanations and their homework. In the approaches to teaching inventory, all the professors indicated that they structured their teaching to help the students pass the formal assessment and they associated that with the expectations of the students and how this affected their ratings. One of the professors decided to include a service learning component to the course where students had to go to the community and critically learn from that engagement.

Mary and Chloe's experiences were good illustrations of how the transformation in the role of the content took place. Mary underlined how she became more concept-oriented after she contacted her sister and her previous supervisor. After receiving advice from the abovementioned contacts, Mary decided to direct her thinking toward "where do I want the students to arrive after a 50-minute class?" Consequently, after receiving the first evaluations from the students, Mary decided to make the course material available on D2L and emphasize less on note-taking. According to her, note-taking was an essential skill that she wanted the students to master. At the beginning of the year, Mary was convinced that students should take

notes and course material should not be available to them even though Mary was convinced this might not be the best strategy as noted below:

“I guess that’s my [foreign] training. Intensive note-taking. And the professor will not help you, and you can die. [laughter] But... I have awful memories. And the worst thing is that I’m doing that also.”

Chloe indicated how it became important to include real examples from the industry in the explanation and the homework. This transformation resulted from working in the industry for a while and knowing what the students will use the knowledge for once they start working and from discussing teaching strategies with a colleague who used real problems in their course. It is important to note that this teaching conversation happened unintentionally when Chloe was asking about course prerequisites and she indicated twice in the interview that the conversation was accidental and she did not intentionally ask her colleague about his teaching.

The class observation findings converged with what Mary and Chloe had expressed. Chloe included authentic examples in all the sessions that I observed. Mary had her notes on D2L and she told the students at the beginning of the course that they needed to focus on the discussion instead of focusing on taking notes.

The role of the assessment. The professors expressed that, throughout their teaching career, they have made their assessment more diverse, they changed their conception of role of the assessment, and the role of the feedback on the assessment. The changes to the role of the assessment were continuous throughout the research. Nancy confirmed using a survey at the beginning of the course to ask the students about what type of evaluations they were comfortable with and gave them a choice between in-class tests or take home essays. All professors now

agreed that they considered assessment as a tool to provide them with an insight on how the students were learning, as well as to give the students an idea about their learning. Beyond the assessment itself, the professors communicated that they had also transformed in the way they gave feedback to the students.

Nancy said, “I give them a topic to choose and write about, so I try to accommodate them, so this is the kind of flexibility I do offer [...] I give them the choice of what type of test they are more comfortable with.” She also indicated that “exams give me an idea of how students are mastering the discipline” and, at the same time, exams being a “part of the learning process to get feedback on your work and then use this feedback to improve.” Similarly, Mary stated that “exams are a partial evaluation. Particularly for them just to, very much like these in-class writing, stop and take 20 minutes of their time and they think about these things in depth.” Bob also agreed that assessment “shows what the student has learned, motivates the student, helps push the students to study and review and helps me see how the class is doing.” While Mary gave “individual feedback”, Bob and Chloe collected the common mistakes and solved the exercise in class to clarify misunderstandings as expressed in the following: “after the evaluation, I make a summary of what everybody did wrong, I re-explain what someone did wrong I repeat the concept.”

There was an alignment among the way Nancy, Bob, and Chloe thought about the assessment and their practice. During the class observations, Bob and Chloe made a summary of the mistakes from the previous test and solved the questions in class, while Mary shared with me her latest exam corrections and the individual feedback she provided the students.

The role of the students. Four of the five professors expressed that they became accustomed to the fact that students had a voice in their learning. In addition, these three professors shared the responsibility for learning with their students, took into consideration their students' prior conceptions, and finally, became more receptive to the idea that students learn differently and reach individualized learning milestones. In addition, the practice of three professors showed that they valued the feedback of the students on their teaching. This was portrayed in feedback forms that the professors asked the students to fill, the openness to any email containing feedback from the students, and in the way the professors interacted with the student ratings form. As reported in terms of approaches on the teaching inventory, the professors became less student-centred in relation to the following:

- In my interactions with students in this subject, I try to develop a conversation with them about the topics we are studying.
- I make available opportunities for students in this subject to discuss their changing understanding of the subject.
- It is better for students in this subject to generate their own notes rather than copy mine.
- In teaching this subject it is important for me to monitor the students' changed understanding of the subject matter.

When asked about these four changes, the professors provided two reasons. First, the large class size made it difficult for them to develop a conversation or monitor the students' changed understanding. Similarly, the professors indicated that students spent their time copying from the slides or focused on note-taking instead of engaging in the conversation, which led the professors to share their own notes with the students. The professors agreed that students cared most about having a good grade, which impacted all their decisions in the classroom. Having critical discussions was not as important as having the notes to study from for the grades. The

professors also indicated that the students' opinions might affect their ratings, which in turn would affect their tenure and as newly hired professors, they were trying to avoid that.

Nancy was a good example to illustrate the transformation in the role of the students. Nancy explained that, before teaching in a Canadian institution, "nobody objected to what I say, now I have to justify," and that, since starting at the Canadian institution, "I got feedback more frequently" and "I am more accountable to the students." She also indicated that she hadn't taken the students' prior conceptions into consideration before starting to teach at a Canadian university. Nancy noted that, in her country of origin, the professor "has all of the knowledge and the student has none of it and you just pass down the knowledge from the instructor to the student." She said that, whenever she had an assignment that she did not understand, she "sat down and figured out." As such, she thought they would do the same here in her classes. She said,

a couple of classes where I had to turn in a term paper and I had no idea how to do that, so I kind of winged it and my first term paper turned [out] to be a disaster because I didn't know how to cite, how to write a good paper out, but this does not work here, because here you need to guide them through every step of the process.

This reflected on Nancy's expectations when she started teaching. She said that she "originally thought that, if students were really interested in learning how to write an essay, they would figure it out, but that doesn't work this way here." Nancy expressed how, to succeed in teaching in a Canadian context,

you have to provide them with all the resources and you have to actively teach them how to write an essay and what not, and one thing that I changed is that now I provide them with the tools they need in order to be successful.

Nancy explained how important it became to recognize “that the students are in the process of their education and sometimes thought takes time to develop. I tend to be more patient when they are moving in that direction.” She learned to “accept that the student might not end up agreeing or thinking like me” and so, it became “part of my work now to figure out what they need to know to do what and teaching them that actively.” Nancy moved away from the need to be the sage on the stage; in addition, she transformed her views about the importance of the content and the relationship of the students to the content.

Bob’s interaction with students’ feedback on his teaching provided a good example of how student feedback informed his teaching practice. Bob created a student feedback form in which he asked the students about their own preparation, their own proactivity toward their learning, the students’ input on the pace of the class, the level of explanation, and the students’ suggestions for the rest of the course or future iterations of the course. Bob was invested in using the students’ feedback to connect with the students and to decide how to design his classes. Similarly, and although not a formal feedback form, Nancy also used the students’ feedback to change the design of her class. Luis was also interested in learning the students’ feedback but he indicated that the student evaluation forms were too long and that sometimes the students’ “don’t know how to give feedback.” Chloe and Mary did not share any information about the students’ feedback.

Shift in practice. The transformation in the act of teaching was noticeable in the way the professors conceptualized a shift in their practice and the change in the tools and strategies used for teaching. In the interviews, they highlighted the fact that they considered that teaching should be more collaborative between the instructor and the students, as well as more engaging and more interactive. The professors also communicated the fact that they now wanted the students to think and understand instead of simply absorbing information.

Another transformation in teaching was noted in the tools and strategies used in teaching. The professors conveyed that they felt the need to change the content of their MS PowerPoint presentation, to include one-minute writing assessments, use interactive tools like *Tophat* or *Kahoot*, add fun and conversation to the class, and use group debates in their class time. Bob explained,

If I put up a slideshow that says something on a slide they will not think about it but, instead, if I put up a map and ask the students it will get them thinking about how we represent data.

Nancy said that it became more important for “them to understand and not what they needed to learn.” According to her, “a change that I made ... in a lecture, is to have some back and forth,” while Luis said,

I don't do bullet points, I want students to express their ways; so, by putting bullet points I am asking to learn my way and exactly create their way. I am more colourful with my slides, and I do a lot less talking than back then. It goes back to the idea that I want students to think about how principles and ideas related to their own experiences and to the things they think are important instead of memorizing.

Mary added, “at the beginning, I wrote too many things in the PowerPoint that the students, instead of listening, they were just writing, and I hate that.” The need to have more interaction with the students was the main reason for the professors to change their presentations.

The professors experienced a transformation in the way they thought about their role as professors, the role of their students, the role of the content, and the role of assessment. In their thoughts, they all transformed toward a more student-centred approach. Even though this transformation was obvious in their thoughts, there was little evidence of that shift. In practice, the shift was mainly focused on very small tasks.

Support. This theme is related to the types of support professors sought formally and informally at their current institution. It also included the types of support that the professors wished they could have received. As well as, from the interviews with the associate dean of teaching and learning, the teaching and learning centre director, and two educational developers, the supports provided by the university at the macro, meso, and micro level.

Support sought. The support that the professors sought could be divided into being formal and informal. For the formal support, only one professor indicated that he had been to the educational development support, while the other four explained their lack of enthusiasm for educational development support due to the time, the interdisciplinarity, and the lack of communications. Only Nancy indicated that she knew about or followed the sessions provided by the Teaching and Learning Centre in her faculty. Similarly, Luis indicated that there was mentorship in his department. He emphasized that he had only seen the mentor once and that he did not feel that this mentorship was structured or useful to his teaching. Additionally, all five professors indicated that their department head was the only support they sought when they had

questions or needed advice. For the informal support, Nancy, Chloe, and Luis said that they often referred to their previous doctoral or post-doctoral supervisor for any questions they had or to ask for suggestions or solutions. Mary and Bob indicated that when they needed support they would ask a family member or a friend, either because the family member is a professional in teaching and learning, or because they felt safe speaking with this friend. An expressive example is Mary, who emailed a family member saying, “Help me. ... Please help me. Tell me what you think.”

Support received. In regards to the support they wished to receive, all the professors stated that they were interested in sitting in other academics’ classes to learn from them. Moreover, Luis, Mary, and Nancy suggested that they were interested in receiving mentorship in teaching. Nancy, Luis, and Mary indicated that they would like to participate in a presentation or session and learn about teaching in a Canadian context. Furthermore, Mary suggested that she would appreciate receiving feedback on her teaching.

All the professors agreed they prefer teaching development at the department level. The five professors indicated that they would not participate in an online activity and that they would rather have face-to-face activities. They also suggested some modifications to the available support, like having a sign-up sheet for the activities to determine which times are the most popular, as well as having personalized emails sent instead of general emails.

According to Mary, “We don’t have any feedback except for the student feedback. And I think that is an issue. Especially in the new cultural environment.” Luis also stated, “I would be happy to sit down and listen to some people talking about what teaching is, or how they envision teaching in the context of Anglophone Canada today, in the humanities. I guess it would be

interesting, with some figures and data about students who were asked what they were expecting.”

Supports offered. The director of the educational development unit, two educational developers, and the Associate Dean of teaching and learning, Dr. Terry, were interviewed. They were asked questions about what types of support and resources were available to early-career professors at the university and faculty levels, as well as to what audience was this work tailored to support. Further questions were asked about the existence of any programming tailored for this specific early-career international professor population.

From the interviews, it was evident there were many educational learning opportunities available through the educational unit. These opportunities were open to all professors at the institution and were not tailored to any specific group. It was found that there were no learning opportunities specific for early career or international professors. The educational development unit emphasized the fact that they avoid singling a certain group out and therefore they organize opportunities for everyone.

The learning opportunities offered at the faculty level through Dr. Terry’s office were general in nature and not customized to specific groups. The organization of these opportunities was based on feedback from faculty members in August before the start of the new academic year. Depending on the request and the feedback, teaching and learning opportunities were created and divided per month. Dr. Terry, indicated that there were many opportunities for development for early-career faculty members, but they were only focused on research development. Dr. Terry indicated in the interview that all faculty members received a survey email in August asking them about what activities they would recommend for the upcoming

year. Dr. Terry organized activities based on the feedback received from the survey. In addition, the faculty had early career development workshops that included topics such as improving your teaching and service, and scholarship of teaching and learning among other topics. The early career development also included grant writing, research practice, and supervising graduate students. The early-career development was offered by the office of the associate dean of Research and Graduate Studies, which also offered a mentorship program. At the same time, the head of departments organized “targeted work with their new members” in which “new faculty met with the head of department twice a semester and talked about things that are specific to new faculty members,” these meetings were mainly organized around the research agenda. Finally, the new faculty were invited to four faculty lunches. Two of these lunches were hosted by the associate dean of teaching and learning and the other two were hosted by the associate dean of research.

In terms of audience, the activities organized by the teaching and learning office were open to any faculty member who was interested in attending. None of the activities were mandatory except for instances where a particular faculty member was identified for having “issues” with their teaching and was “strongly advised” to contact the associate dean to discuss their teaching. The associate dean also indicated that a faculty member could approach their head of department with an idea and then the associate dean would meet with the professor to get feedback on this specific idea such as experiential learning, community or service learning. Finally, the associate dean indicated that they received some requests about faculty wanting to try new ideas such as “I want to try flipping my classroom” and “I want to try specifications grading.”

The associate dean indicated that the importance of teaching and learning has increased lately. First, the official workload document in her faculty indicated that the breakdown for academic workload is 40 percent for teaching, 40 percent for research, and 20 percent for service, and that “increasing” the percentage of teaching is taken into consideration. Moreover, many faculty members were asking for “letters of support that indicated their effort in teaching and learning for tenure promotion.” The associate dean also indicated that, due to the “awful job market” new faculty members were considering developing their teaching portfolio to distinguish themselves. Incidentally, the associate dean also added that some faculty members tend to “fly under the radar” when it came to teaching evaluations and as a result, maintained a “not too bad evaluation.”

As part of the interview, questions were asked about communication techniques used by both these units to reach faculty members. How were faculty members being informed about their existence and how were they updated about events? In response, the educational unit was normally introduced to the new faculty in the institution’s new faculty orientation. It was left to the faculty to sign up for the newsletter. If the faculty member did not sign up for the newsletter, they would not receive it. The office of teaching and learning in one faculty sent a monthly email to all the faculty members with a weekly reminder for all the events.

From the data, it appeared that there was a form of disconnection between what the educational units and the office of teaching and learning offered and the recommendations of the early career international professors. For example, the associate dean of teaching and learning, the educational developers, and all the professors identified a need for more departmental and cross departmental initiatives. The educational development unit members indicated that there

were some initiatives to develop capacities within the faculties or departments, but, for now, it was only happening in one faculty. In addition, both the educational developers and Dr. Terry, mentioned the existence of a mentorship program, but the professors indicated that they did not find it very useful because it was not structured around their needs and “the mentor was not providing useful information if we saw them at all.”

From the data, the disconnection could be related to the lack of time, the lack of resources, and the generality of the mandate. The educational developers and Dr. Terry explained that there were a limited number of people tending to the needs of many faculty members, the whole university in the case of the educational developers, and the whole faculty in the case of Dr. Terry. From the interviews, it seemed that the mandate of both the teaching and learning centre and the teaching and learning office was to have general educational learning opportunities and to avoid having specific opportunities for early-career or international professors. Educational developers said that the reason behind this stance is to be inclusive, but the professors all indicated the need to address this and tailor learning opportunities for them to help them integrate into the Canadian teaching culture.

There was also a disconnection between the mandate and what the educational developers and Dr. Terry personally noticed. They all indicated that early career and international professors were a unique population that needed different programming. One educational developer indicated that he realized there was a big number of academic staff who had little knowledge of teaching, yet were asked to teach without being prepared. The educational developer also argued that there was a need for teaching support that “should be done departmentally.”

Specifically pertaining to international professors, another educational developer indicated that many of the international professors they get to meet “are concerned about teaching with an accent.” The educational developer argued that they see language as “something that can probably be better supported. Especially if we want to retain our new faculty members.”

As a solution to the frustration of the professors, this educational developer recommended accent reduction support for interested international professors because the professors are more worried about their accent than their teaching.

With reference to the recommendations, the associate dean also identified the need to acknowledge that the faculty contained many departments that had multiple preferred methods of teaching and that trying to organize activities that catered to the diverse need would be “interesting.”

In summary, all the participants in this research agreed that international early career professors face unique challenges and should be provided with a specialized type of support. The professors felt more comfortable using informal types of support as their first resort. Formally, they turned to their head of department for advice on teaching. However, the participants did not access or were not aware of the formal types of support that were available to them. Participants indicated that they preferred to receive support at the department level and more collegial teaching support. They also indicated that they needed feedback on their teaching. All participants agreed that there was a need for a decentralized teaching support. Finally, the findings showed that there was a need to provide a safe space for international early-career professors to discuss their teaching.

A disconnection was visible in the communication between those three parties. Although there were many learning opportunities, mentorship opportunities, learning technology coaches, and open classroom week, the professors were not aware of these opportunities. A tension was identified between what the professors indicated that they needed and what they actually accessed, in addition to what the support staff felt was needed but was not provided because of time and availability restraints.

Challenges of Teaching in a Canadian Context. All five professors indicated that they felt that teaching in a Canadian context had its specificities that they needed to get acculturated to. The specific characteristics of the Canadian context were noted as maintaining an informal relationship with the students, having interactive classes, and socializing in the department. All the professors indicated that having no or little experience in teaching was their main challenge.

For the five professors in this new Canadian context, they were challenged to develop an appreciation for the informal relationship with the students that included students sharing their expectations, students openly challenging the professors, and expecting the professors to accommodate their needs. The informal relationship also included informal communications, as well as a different level and manifestation of respect. Teaching in a Canadian context also included keeping the students engaged in the classroom through discussions and accepting that students express openly their disagreement with the professor. In addition, the students expected some interactive components in the classes.

The challenges faced by the professors included having little training on how to teach. As Nancy noted, “we’re not properly trained. And I was never trained. Never, never, never” and “I’m trained as a researcher. I never was taught anything about teaching.”

Mary emphasized that a major challenge for her was language. She said,

The language is very important. The language barrier is very important for me. I felt... I feel less smart in English than ..., and sometimes I just don't know how to, not to push students. And I have a hard time finding resources to help me.

Correspondingly, Chloe, Nancy, Luis, and Mary indicated that socializing in the department was a challenge for them. Chloe mentioned that she did not agree with the department's direction to put all the PowerPoints online, while Bob stated they were not aware of which students were coming to the degree and how to address them. Similarly, Nancy noted that: "There is more of a priority to have a teaching excellence than in my degree-granting institution, which was just doing research. Do the research, then go to class and then cover the material that needs to be covered." Nancy indicated that the whole discipline had a different approach and goal in North America than it did in Europe. While in Europe, it was the goal to introduce students to theories and discuss abstract ideas; in North America, the discipline was more focused on social change and understanding lived experiences.

In summary, the findings from the interviews stressed the fact that International early career professors face unique challenges such as understanding their role in a Canadian context regarding the students, understanding student-centredness, active learning. International early career professors also face challenges related to language and to socializing into their department culture. Finally, international early-career professors need a specialized type of support.

Illustrative Stories of Three Professors' Experiences

In this section of the findings, three stories are shared to demonstrate the integration into the Canadian teaching culture by the professors. Each story is set up to begin with their personal

understanding of teaching upon their graduation, followed by the impact of their disorienting dilemma, and concluding with how their integration manifested in their way of thinking about teaching and their practice within a Canadian university context.

Nancy. Nancy was ready to adopt a student-centred approach to teaching, but she did not have enough knowledge and support to translate this into action. Although she has found some alternatives like service learning, she still struggled with the large size of her class and had little knowledge of how to apply active learning to that size. Nancy was exposed to three disorienting dilemmas that had an impact on her teaching. The first disorienting dilemma was caused by the way scholars conceptualized studies in her field. The second dilemma was student-centred teaching and learning, and the third dilemma was integrating student-centredness in large classrooms, navigating collegial expectations and learning of the existence of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning in her field. As a result of these dilemmas, Nancy became more student-centred in the way she thought about her teaching, but she struggled with how to make the large classroom more student-centred, and her classes were mainly lecture-based. The solution that Nancy found was to include service learning in her courses and she explained that, in this way, the students were more involved in the course. Nancy hoped she could receive more support to her teaching to be able to put her thoughts into practice.

Mary. Mary was experiencing a shift in the way she approached teaching. She was trying to find a balance between what she already knew, what she learned from the students, and how to balance that with the department teaching culture, the expectations, and her comfort zone. Mary experienced three moments that could be qualified as teaching dilemmas. First, Mary attended a class that she described as “very boring” and she decided to do whatever she could to avoid

being like that professor, even though the professor was very renowned. Second, Mary received an email from a student that suggested some active learning techniques. Third, Mary indicated that talking to me made her reflect about her teaching for the first time. Because of these dilemmas, Mary started to shift the way she thought about teaching and the way she practiced it. She included active learning techniques in her classes, was receptive of the students' feedback, and became more open to the informal relationship with the students. Mary was not always aware of the existence of the support available at her institution and, when she was aware of its existence, she did not feel comfortable accessing it because it was outside the department or it was cross-disciplinary. The main support that Mary referred to was her head of department or her sister. She did not feel comfortable talking to her colleagues because she felt that they do not share the same struggles or vision as her.

Bob. Bob experienced a pressure to change his practice to a more teacher-centred approach, even though he was student-centred in the way he thought about teaching. Bob was trying to find a balance between the institutional teaching culture, the department teaching culture, the students' expectations, and his research portfolio. The disorienting dilemma that Bob experienced was the difference of the teaching culture between his current institution and his previous one. He experienced the need to change his teaching to become more lecture-based, since he felt it was expected by his colleagues, his head of department and his students. Because of this disorienting dilemma, Bob was considering surrendering to the pressures around him and just turning his classes to lecture-based, and there were signs of this in his class, where he was having less discussion than during the first class observation. He also expressed that he was made to feel that his research agenda should take up more of his time than his teaching. As for

support, Bob referred to his previous supervisor for advice. Bob was not aware of the support available at his current institution. Bob did not feel motivated to go to a central location for educational development and suggested to have some learning opportunities in his department.

Summary of the Chapter

I have identified and discussed the three key themes that emerged from the study. These themes focused on how early career international professors viewed their teaching and how they integrated in the Canadian context for teaching. In Chapter Five, I discuss findings in response to answering the research questions.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is “to reconstruct a holistic understanding of” (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008, p. 133) the teaching journey of international early career professors and their integration into the teaching culture of a Canadian university. In this chapter, I discuss the findings in response to each of the four research questions. The questions are examined in relation to the findings presented in Chapter Four and to relevant literature related to teaching, transformative learning, critical reflection, the characteristics of transformation in teaching, academic identity, micro-cultures, and the multiple levels of leadership in relation to faculty teaching development.

The primary research question that I sought to answer was: How do international early career professors experience their teaching journeys in a Canadian university?

The following three sub-questions guided the inquiry:

- 1) How did change occur in their conceptualizations of teaching?
- 2) How did change happen in their teaching practice?
- 3) What are the factors that affected their teaching journeys?

Change in Thought about Teaching

The first research question focused on unpacking how international early career professors experienced change in the way they thought about teaching. The following three findings focused on the change in teaching: 1) change in the definition of teaching, 2) elements of the change, and 3) how the change took place.

Change in the definition of teaching. The findings suggest that over time, the five professors developed a more elaborate definition of teaching. At the beginning of their

employment, the five professors indicated they were not formally educated about contemporary teaching and learning practices. They were not able to articulate a holistic definition of teaching and were not knowledgeable about what is considered good teaching practices. Their knowledge about teaching took the form of observation. This is similar to what Borg (2004) called the “apprenticeship of observation,” which refers to teachers who have spent hours observing other people teach, and how it affects their preconceptions of teaching. The apprenticeship of observation often resulted in teachers teaching in the same way they were taught.

Although professors were able to identify the practical teaching part of their profession, they were unable to define or describe it. Van Driel et al. (1997) described this inability to coherently define teaching as “craft knowledge.” Craft knowledge refers to a set of tools (Arzarello & Bartolini Bussi, 1998) related to tacit teaching professional knowledge. Craft knowledge about teaching was not made explicit to teachers. In my research, all the five professors had a tacit knowledge about teaching that they formed through the years of being students, but conversely, they did not possess a theoretical knowledge about teaching.

Relying mainly on their practical knowledge of teaching and their past experiences as students, professors were not familiar with new trends of quality teaching, or good teaching descriptions. This aligned with Hativa’s (1995) finding that professors were not educated about what constituted good teaching. My findings also aligned with Ebert-May et al. (2011) who argued that professors were neither aware nor trained when it came to new learning strategies. Consequently, when asked to teach, professors referred to what they experienced as students. This led to frustration of the five professors in my research since the expectations of the students and/or the department were different from their own expectations of their role as teachers.

The five professors had mentioned that their knowledge about teaching and learning was a result of their own experience, their effort, or a mere coincidence. As Nancy stated, “I never learned how to teach.” By the end of my study, the five professors had a different definition of teaching. The new definitions were unique to each professor. Compared to definitions of quality teaching, the participants’ knowledge of teaching was incomplete and did not portray quality teaching. As a result, the participants struggled with what the portion of their work as teachers entailed.

The five professors in my research were not aware of the concept of interdisciplinarity, which refers to combining one or more academic disciplines, or the concept of pedagogies, which refers to the practice of teaching in an academic discipline. Therefore, they referred to these concepts by different names or different descriptions. For example, Chloe talked about the fact that her department had its own way of teaching that was different from other departments, while Luis was adamant about working only within his discipline and working with colleagues from his department.

Even without the proper names to describe it, the five professors in my research struggled with the concepts of interdisciplinarity and pedagogies. It became apparent that the participants were struggling with the expectations of interdisciplinarity and preferred to stay within their disciplines and their pedagogies.

The participants indicated that they were not comfortable attending educational development opportunities provided by a professor outside of their faculty or by a professor whose discipline did not directly link with their own. Luis, a social studies professor, did not feel comfortable attending educational development courses given by a chemistry professor, while

Chloe, an engineering professor, did not find it useful to attend educational development sessions provided by a chemistry or social studies professor. Their struggle with interdisciplinarity aligned with Harris' (2005) argument that historically, academic staff identified as a community of scholars within their discipline and felt more belonging to their subject than to their institution. While institutions pivot toward interdisciplinarity and academic identity to allow for "corporate efficiency" (Winter, 2009, p. 121), there is a clash between academic identity and the revised institutional foci (Briggs, 2007). This tension was visible in the findings by the participants' preference to draw borders between disciplines. For example, Luis indicated not being comfortable receiving support from people in other faculties. Luis did not specify whether he was uncomfortable receiving support from everyone outside of his faculty or just professors outside of his faculty. Similarly, the other professors mentioned that teaching in their department was different from other departments. Chloe stated, "I don't want to listen to professors from other faculties, in my faculty we do things differently."

To help foster more knowledge about teaching and interdisciplinarity, support providers must consider three steps. First, as argued by Ebert-May et al. (2011), there is a need to raise awareness about pedagogical practices and interdisciplinarity. Leadership teams at the multiple levels of higher education institutions need to be more mindful and purposeful in the way they design and provide support. Support needs to be intentional to affect the professors' understanding of teaching (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004; Postareff et al., 2007). Raising pedagogical awareness needs to be complemented by collaborative learning opportunities where professors learn from and with their colleagues (Meirink, Meijer, & Verloop, 2007). Further, support needs to be framed in a context that would interest international early career professors and make them

feel that this support is for them. Professors would be more interested in educational development that is advertised using common access terms such as “make learning fun” instead of “how to increase student engagement” or “check in on students” instead of “assessment.” Adopting a more casual name to educational development allows the international early career professors to feel less stressed by the expectations and therefore, more motivated to attend. Likewise, professors might not know what assessment or engagement mean, and divert from such opportunities assuming they are not the right fit.

Elements of the change in thoughts about teaching. My findings demonstrated that, even though the transformation in teaching was a personal journey and each professor experienced it differently, there were four main common characteristics of this change. These characteristics of transformation were: the role of the professor, the role of the content, the role of the assessment, and the role of the students.

Role of the professor. Throughout their teaching career, it became clear that the participants changed the way they viewed their authority as professors and the power they exercised. This change was ongoing throughout the research duration. Three of the five participants indicated that they experienced a shift in the way they viewed the role of the professor. They underwent a change in the way they saw their authority such as, who holds the knowledge, and how and when to address a professor. The finding was consistent with Kugel (1993) and Nyquist and Sprague (1998) who also found that professors experienced change in their relationship to authority. In their studies about how new university teachers develop their teaching, Kugel (1993) and Nyquist and Sprague (1998) found that professors expressed a decrease in their need to have authority over students’ actions during the course. This was similar

to my research, in which Chloe explained that authority is one of the biggest differences that she perceives because for most of her experience, “the instructor has an automatic authority that comes with the title and the position and students are usually quite accepting of that.” In addition, during the interview, Mary stated, that she initially conceptualized herself as the authority and that she had to change because she realized that “it doesn’t work this way in Canada”.

The different expectations of authority created a struggle for the five professors in my research. To start with, professors were not aware of the different expectations of authority. Consequently, when faced with the situation, they were not equipped to handle it. Therefore, professors were struggling with authority instead of focusing on teaching. This caused discomfort and impacted their relationship with their students. For example, Nancy said that before “nobody objected to what I said, now I have to justify [what I say], so I spend time thinking about what students might answer.”

It seemed that the five professors in my research were not prepared to handle the change in how they thought about authority and power in teaching. To help professors understand this notion of authority and power three steps need to be taken. First, there is a need to raise awareness about the different types of authority in a teaching context, such as personal authority, discourse authority, discursive inevitability, and personal latitude (Wagner & Herbel-Eisenmann, 2014). Attention must also be drawn in regards to different types of power, such as reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert forms of power (French & Raven, 1959). Second, professors need the opportunity to reflect on their understanding and use of authority and power in their teaching. This could be accomplished by using r-tups, a reflection tool developed by

Reid and Kawash (2017) which allows reflection on behaviours and communication strategies. There is also a need to provide opportunities to allow professors to reflect on how their students view their power. This concept was studied by Schrodt et al. (2007) who developed the Teacher Power Use Scale (TPUS) to measure how teacher power is communicated in the classroom. Using TPUS would allow professors to reflect on how their students perceive their communication and compare it to how they think they are communicating. Finally, similar to Wagner and Herbel-Eisenmann's (2014) findings, professors need various ways to handle authority, such as having a lexical repertory of what language to use and examples of how to divide tasks inside and outside the classroom. This implies the need to be purposeful in designing opportunities that address authority and power in a Canadian classroom.

In addition to modifying their perceptions of authority and power, professors also continuously changed the way they viewed their teaching role—from transmitters of knowledge to facilitators of learning. Similar findings were highlighted by Kugel (1993) who found that professors go through two phases during their development as teachers. Kugel (1993) explained that during the first phase professors placed an emphasis on teaching. From there, they slowly transitioned to the second phase where the focus was on learning. Kugel (1993) indicated that this transition usually happened once professors decided they had mastered both their role as a teacher and the content of their teachings. They decided they no longer needed to think about it. At this point, professors began thinking about their students' learning. This is important to note when supporting professors. Educational development opportunities should be designed around which phase professors are in, and help them reflect and move through the phases. The following

quote by Mary illustrated her shift in focus. She indicated that it became “part of my work to figure out what it is they need to know in order to do what and teach them that actively.”

The shift from focusing on teaching to learning led professors to concentrate more on what worked for their students. For example, they may focus on activities that were more engaging. This shift was detected by Åkelrind (2007) who conveyed that professors reached this phase when they started thinking about improving the students’ learning and development. According to Åkelrind (2007), professors must be comfortable with their teaching, content knowledge, and repertoire of teaching strategies, before they reach the phase where they begin to think about the students’ learning.

Consistent with McKenzie (2003) and Ramsden (1992), during that shift, professors were trying to change their teaching strategies and were looking for more engaging activities. It is important to take this into account when providing educational development opportunities for early career international professors. It is important to include engaging activities and showcase why they would be beneficial for students’ learning.

The shift to become a facilitator of learning was slow due to the lack of knowledge on how to facilitate learning and what this new role would include. This resulted in the participants being disoriented and unprepared. For example, Nancy, when asked about changing her teaching, noted that “sometimes I just don’t know how.”

As highlighted by Gibbs and Coffey (2004) and Postareff et al. (2007), there is a need to create pedagogical development. Pedagogical development includes the development of one’s own teaching and the development of pedagogical awareness which constitutes the reflection of one’s own teaching. This creates an awareness of the teaching process. Gibbs and Coffey (2004)

found that teachers who have high pedagogical development were learner-centred in their approach to teaching, while teachers with a low pedagogical development focused on content, expertise, and experience rather than students' learning.

Professors felt they were not able to discuss this shift with university colleagues. When asked about who they sought advice from, Luis said he talked to family; Nancy mentioned talking to her sister; while Bob said he asked his supervisor from another institution. Similarly, Chloe emphasized that she did not ask any specific professors about their teaching, it only came up during another conversation. Chloe's insisting that the teaching conversation was not intentional was an indicator that she was not comfortable talking to colleagues about her teaching.

The change in the role of the professor took the form of a modification in their perception of the authority and the power associated with their role, and how that was communicated to the students. In addition, the adjustment altered the way the five professors viewed their role as facilitators of learning, and the teaching strategies and techniques associated with it. Therefore, it is important to take these changes and the factors into account when supporting new international faculty members, especially when having conversations. This would allow support staff, whether educational developers or the department leadership team, to build a trusting relationship.

In order to address the aforementioned needs, universities must create a safe space to discuss the shift that professors are experiencing. It is important to provide opportunities for pedagogical development, to equip professors with a repertoire of techniques and strategies to use as facilitators of learning, and provide on-going support as they navigate their relationship with authority and power.

Role of the content. Over the period of one year while data collection took place, it was found that professors changed the way they viewed the overall use of content in their courses. Professors indicated that it was more important to create critical thinkers than have students who memorized content. They wanted students to use the content beyond the classroom. Therefore, they viewed the content as a tool to help the students become critical thinkers and apply their knowledge in the real world. In my study, professors wanted to ask their students to memorize less content, but were not confident of the result of such a risk. Consistent with Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne's (2008) study, I found that the five professors in my research were more inclined to focus on critical thinking, but reported that they lacked the pedagogical knowledge and the confidence to do so. My findings were similar to Ramsden's (1992) analysis, that although professors paid more attention to creating accessible and engaging courses, they were ill-equipped to accomplish the task. Coming mostly from lecture-based classes, Chloe, Nancy, and Mary felt that they needed to create more engaging courses. While Mary knew some active learning techniques, she mentioned she did not know any that would apply to large classrooms. Nancy relied on feedback from students to learn one active learning technique and started experimenting with that. She indicated,

I try to engage them a little bit, trying to have a laugh in the classroom, so everybody feels a little better. I guess it changes also because I was more content-oriented at the beginning, and now I am more concept-oriented.... I felt I needed to change because students were not understanding what was important, they were obsessed with the details, I think it was reassuring for them, and they don't pay attention to what is important, so I started to focus on less content to insist on what is really important.

This shift resulted in the five professors' desire to redesign their course to include and follow learning objectives, create more engaging materials, align their content with the formal assessment, and incorporate active learning. Unfortunately, this plan was hindered by the participants' lack of knowledge and direction. When the five professors expressed this need, they did not have a support system in place, nor did they have the tools necessary for success.

As content or discipline experts, the five professors placed content at the centre of their attention. Throughout the study, they negotiated the role of the content, similar to Kugel's (1993) description of stage two of how professors developed as teachers. Kugel (1993) described how professors learned their subject and presented the information to their students. During this stage, professors were more concerned about having enough time to deliver all their content, than engaging with their students. Kugel (1993) explained that in order to transition out of that stage, professors must realize the importance of engaging with their students. This happens when professors start asking themselves why the content is not clear to the students and what they can do better. Learning from Kugel's (1993) findings, there is a necessity to help professors start their reflective process—beginning with their relationship with the content. It is important to spark these conversations with departments at the meso-level, to address the relationship with the content and how to support the early career international professors. In addition to the department, there is value in providing an additional safe and impartial space where professors may ask questions, share ideas, and try to redesign their courses. These opportunities should start with raising awareness about the multiple roles of the content. It should include opportunities for using different teaching techniques to create content. These opportunities should allow the international early career professors to look for examples in the real world. Finally, the

opportunities should include mentoring the early career international professors to align their materials with lesson objectives.

Role of the assessment. All the five participants declared that they experienced a shift in the way they viewed the role of the assessment. Their views changed in three ways regarding the assessment: the aim of assessment, assessment methods, and tasks, feedback and assessment criteria. As part of the evolution of the participants' teaching journeys, their assessments became more diverse. For example, Mary gave her students the choice to decide what type of assessment they preferred—class presentations, final paper, or exam. She understood that each student learned at his or her own pace and wanted her students to feel comfortable in her class. By providing her students with options, Mary illustrated her understanding of students' needs and students' learning.

The five professors developed a greater insight into how assessment provided them with a way to understand the learning of their students. For example, Bob and Nancy considered the evaluation as a means that allowed them to know if their teaching was on track. This showed that the five professors were becoming more reflective on their teaching. It also demonstrated their share of the responsibility of learning with their students and how they would use the assessment to check whether their teaching was improving their students' learning.

Finally, three of the professors reported that they were negotiating the way they provided feedback on the assessment to include more input and personalized feedback. This revision in how they thought about the role of assessment aligns with what Uiboleht, Karm, and Postareff (2016) found about the change in the approaches to assessment. Interestingly, Uiboleht et al. (2012, 2016) indicated that although teachers did not usually view evaluation as a part of

teaching, the changes in the way they approached it was proof that they were starting to consider assessment as one of the teaching duties.

It is important to note that, apart from Mary, the other four professors were negotiating the possibility of changing the assessment in their courses, but they did not change it in practice. Mary had the chance to try new assessments in her previous institution while the other four professors did not. Therefore, opportunities to test different assessment methods encourages professors to incorporate those methods in their courses and consequently consider assessment as part of teaching.

We could learn from the recommendations by Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2008) and Postareff et al. (2012) who argued that further awareness about assessment must be raised in order to gain buy-in from professors. The process should take place in a safe environment while paying attention to the prevailing teaching culture at the department. Once the early career international professors cross the awareness threshold and indicate their interest in trying new assessment methods, Gusky (2000) recommends creating opportunities for professors to test and apply different evaluation methods to their own discipline. Professors need to explore the new assessment methods and see its impact before committing to it. Immediate support and feedback is necessary to help early career international professors decide what works best for them. Most importantly, professors need assistance handling feedback from students and colleagues when they are trying something new.

Role of the students. The findings from my research indicated that four of the professors experienced a change in the way they viewed the role of the students in their teaching. The four professors felt the need to share some of the responsibility for the students' learning. This

correlates with Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2008) explanation that teachers designed their teaching based on how they viewed the role of the students. When teachers viewed the role of their students as passive, they designed their teaching accordingly and they mainly used lectures where students were not expected to interact. On the other hand, when teachers viewed the role of their students as active, they designed learner-centred teaching activities.

Three of the professors interviewed in my research also started to take the students' previous knowledge and preconceptions into account when designing their lessons. Similar to Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2008) and Kember's (1997) research, the three professors expected the students to participate more, and they acknowledged that students learned differently and at various paces. Finally, the three professors were more open to receiving feedback from their students on their teaching.

The following quote by Mary reflects the difference in experience and changes when viewing students as contributors to the teaching and learning experience:

Back home, students are expected to answer questions with facts, here the general feel is that they need to include their personal opinion and they disagree with you.... I have to take into consideration that students know things and they bring this knowledge to class and they will accept or reject what I say based on that previous knowledge.

Although the three professors wanted the students to participate more in the classroom, they had little knowledge and experience of how to design and facilitate active learning or engagement techniques. The three professors realized that their students learned differently.

Even though the three professors did not use a specific or consistent language, they hoped to make their teaching more accessible. They wanted their teaching to accommodate individual

learning differences. What the three professors expressed about their ambitions for their teaching converged with both the definition and application of the Universal Design for Learning (UDL).

In addition, professors took into account their students' previous knowledge. However, they did not know how to surface that information or how to help students handle the preconceptions. This demonstrated the need for support to professors to include a repertoire of active learning techniques, engagement techniques, UDL, and ways to work with students' previous conceptions.

In summary, there were four elements in which the five professors in my research transformed the way they thought about their teaching: the role of the professor, the role of the content, the role of the assessment, and the role of the student. Throughout my study, it became clear that a need to raise awareness about the aforementioned four elements is essential. This study also showed the importance of creating a safe space for professors to discuss their experiences and opportunities to develop the pedagogical repertoire pertaining to each of the elements. We also need to provide support for professors to try new techniques and receive constructive feedback. Lastly, we should provide the early career international professors with methods on how to reflect and handle change.

Change in Practice

Through the second research question, I sought to understand how participants changed the way they practiced their teaching. My findings showed that there was a discrepancy between how the participants thought about teaching and the way they practiced teaching. The five

professors in my research changed the way they thought about teaching more than the ways in which they practiced teaching.

Although the five professors expressed a student-centred approach to teaching in their interviews, in practice, they were mainly observed to be delivering lectures. A transformation in approaches to teaching did not automatically translate to practice, which is contrary to what Ho, Watkins, and Kelly (2001) argued. It is important to understand that providing training to support the change of thinking about teaching will not instinctively result in a change in the teaching practice. Even when change in beliefs take place, this does not instantly translate to an alternate teaching practice. Educational development opportunities should go beyond modifying the beliefs and should contain an element that directly supports the change in practice. Even when Mary attended educational development opportunities that she thought were useful, she did not amend her teaching practice directly after. Similarly, Postareff, Lindblom-Ylänne, and Nevgi (2007) argued that training was not the main reason for transformation of teaching practice.

Guskey (2000) argued that a variation in teaching strategies was not a prerequisite to a shift in beliefs. In my research, transformation in practice was manifesting in small attempts compared to the change that was happening in the way professors thought about their teaching. It was clear that the five professors needed proof of the success of a certain practice before they proceeded to adopt the practice. This was obvious in the class observations where professors tried one new technique. During the debrief interviews, Nancy mentioned that, “I will try the active exercise for now and see what happens.” This is similar to Guskey’s (2002) suggestion that trust in a practice influenced thoughts about teaching and professors needed to build that trust by trying new techniques in small steps.

Prather and Brissenden (2008) identified the dissonance between thought and practice in teaching. They proposed a situated apprenticeship model that allowed professors to question their understanding of the theoretical and practical components of a certain approach and work with professional staff to develop it. In addition, Rogan (2007) suggested having communities of practice for professors who shared the same goal to support each another in implanting new teaching. Timely feedback from educational developers (Henderson et al., 2009) is essential, since it contributes to improving the early career international professors' confidence, self-esteem, motivation, and increases their reflection (Clynes & Raftery, 2008).

The five professors' decision to use teacher-centred approaches was not linked to their beliefs about teaching. For example, Bob and Luis opted to use teacher-centred teaching in their practice despite starting the year with a student-centred approach. Bob and Luis' teaching choice was a result of trying to fit in with their department. My findings showed that professors did not always make decisions on their teaching based on their beliefs. In the case of my study, three of the five professors often based their teaching on the pressure they felt from colleagues and students, or what they believed would help them fit in.

The discrepancy between thoughts about teaching and practice could be described as a dissonance. On the one hand, Nancy, Mary, and Chloe indicated how important it was to have active learning, yet their class design was mostly based on lectures. On the other hand, Luis and Bob were minimizing the active learning in their class to conform to the expectations of their colleagues and students. As for the reason of this dissonance, Bob was reflective on the contradictions between his approach to teaching and what the students wanted.

This dissonance is similar to the findings of Samuelowicz and Bain (2001) who claimed that each teacher has an ideal and working conception of teaching. In addition, Samuelowicz and Bain (2001) indicated that this conflict usually occurred in the early career years of teaching. This stresses the importance of supporting the early career international professors during this time of dissonance.

Crawford (2007) found that there is a need for teachers to create their own personal philosophy of teaching which they may connect to their understanding of how people learn and their teaching practice. Having professors create and reflect on their personal philosophies of teaching provides a space to bridge between thoughts about teaching and teaching practices.

Understanding the reasons behind the dissonance is important to support early career international professors in that journey. Luis and Bob, for example, were reflective about perceived contradictions between the expectations of their department, their colleagues, and their approaches. In practice, Luis and Bob's teaching reflected their departmental culture and they were inclined to "play it safe." This speaks to the strength of influence of the department's culture. There is a need to have more attention given to influence from the department when supporting a professor in their teaching. Similarly, Cox et al. (2011) found that in order to encourage a culture of teaching, any effort should start from the department level. The department level being the place where colleagues work together, professors are evaluated, and tenure and promotions are assessed. This is important because, in the case of my research, the department caused a dissonance in teaching for Bob and Luis. Both professors chose a teacher-centred approach to teaching that they did not believe was beneficial to the students' learning.

Findings from my research also indicated that informal, academic conversations about teaching played a key role in the choice of teaching practices. Roxå and Mårtensson (2016) and Thompson (2013) spoke to the importance of informal conversations, while Thomson (2013) argued that informal conversations helped professors develop their teaching. Thompson (2013) also indicated the important role that informal conversations played in reinforcing formal teaching development. These findings brought to light the need to create spaces for professors to have informal conversations about their teaching and where they could receive the needed support. Likewise, there should be a trusting relationship with a mentor to help navigate these conversations.

An important factor to consider is the context within which educational development is provided. As advised by Roxå and Mårtensson (2016), educational developers need to take different teaching cultures into account when designing learning opportunities. These different teaching cultures include the collegial, the department, the disciplinary, and the institutional. Furthermore, Taylor (2010) emphasized the role departmental culture plays in bridging professors and developers and creating a trusting relationship.

Factors Affecting the Teaching Journeys

There are two factors behind the shift in thoughts about teaching. First, the renegotiation of academic identity in relation to teaching affects the change in thoughts about teaching. This discussion was constant with the five professors in the study. Professors examined the way they perceived teaching in their academic identity with how the institutional teaching culture, disciplinary, and departmental teaching culture defined their roles. This finding is related to how the five professors' academic identities were formed, how it continuously evolved, and the

tensions between the multiple identities that ultimately influenced the five professors' choice of teaching method.

The findings showed that professors came into their positions with a particular understanding and expectation of their teaching role. They often formed this identity through their graduate school experience and by watching other professors teach. Brookfield (1995) explained that teachers came to the profession with an understanding of their identity. This perception is based on their personal experience as learners and teachers. As such, three professors were conducting lectures because it was similar to the education settings that they received.

The five professors were in a constant debate of their understanding of their academic identity. This discussion took place in comparison to the institutional teaching culture and the departmental teaching culture. Their academic identity was influenced by how colleagues, students, and the head of department portrayed teaching. The academic identity of the five professors was always changing which is consistent with Henkel's (2000) description of identity to be non-static and not bound to time. The five professors were negotiating their identity based on what Briggs (2007) identified as:

- their "professional values" and how they portrayed their role (p. 471);
- their "professional location" related to the institution and the department (p. 471); and
- their "professional role" associated with their role within the institution (p. 471).

Their academic identity was developing due to the interaction between their self and the context, which is aligned with how Briggs (2007) described the development of the professional identity.

Cox et al. (2011) found that the professors' feelings toward teaching were not affected by the institutional culture. This partially aligned with my findings that none of the professors in my research were aware of the institutional culture that emphasized student learning and student-centredness. However, what did align with this research was Cox et al.'s (2011) notion that institutional teaching culture affected the relationship of the professors and their students. Institutional culture affected the relationship they had with their students, but not the teaching itself. Institutions should think beyond institutional culture in order to make a lasting impact on quality teaching.

In my research, I discovered that disciplinary and departmental culture outweighed the institutional culture. For example, Bob and Luis decided to follow their department culture of teaching even though student-centred approaches to teaching were being awarded at the institutional level. Similar to Austin (1996) who found that each department had a unique culture that was mainly affected by the department's leadership team, my research found that the leadership department influenced professors the most and as a result, their department culture and disciplinary culture outweighed the institutional teaching culture. This was portrayed in Luis and Bob, who were shifting toward a more teacher-centred approach because of their department culture, despite their own belief in student-centred teaching. If professors were receiving conflicting messages, they chose to follow the department's leadership team. For example, Luis chose to listen to his department head when told that teaching was not important and that he needs to fly under the radar, even though he understood that teaching was valued and awarded at the institution.

In summary, the five professors were continually negotiating their academic identity and their choice of teaching based on their values, their departments' culture, their discipline's culture, and the institution's culture. The department's leadership team was the most dominant in diffusing culture. As a result, professors chose to align their teaching with the expectations of the department regardless of their own approach. If the dominating culture of teacher-centredness was prevalent, it was then transmitted to the new faculty.

As explained by Mårtensson, (2014), Roxå (2014), and Roxå and Mårtensson (2011), there is a need to empower the meso-levels (department level) of leadership to portray the institutional teaching culture. In order to begin, we must revisit the core beliefs and policies at the departments' level, then build the teaching support capacity of the department heads. In addition, we must create a space where professors can discuss the different messages they are receiving. This could be translated in a community of practice of new professors at the faculty level or the university level. Communities of practice “are formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavor” (Wegner, 2011, p. 1). Having this community of practice would allow the early career international professors to experience the teaching culture at the institutional level and take a step away from their own department. It would, as a result, empower the early career international professors to explore other options beyond their departments.

The second factor behind change in thought about teaching is what is known as the disorienting dilemma. All the professors in my research experienced a disorienting dilemma that resulted in them rethinking their teaching. Examples of the disorienting dilemmas of the five professors are presented below.

Bob and Luis' disorienting dilemma led them to adopt a teacher-centred approach, which resulted in more lecturing. For Bob and Luis, this disorienting dilemma was caused by their students and colleagues. As a result, Bob and Luis decided to change their teaching. In Bob's case, the disorienting dilemma caused by his colleagues ensued in him allocating more time to lecture and less discussion during his classes.

Nancy, Mary, and Chloe also experienced disorienting dilemmas caused by their students and colleagues. Contrary to Bob and Luis, Nancy, Mary, and Chloe became more student-centred. In Nancy's case, critical reflection caused by her students emerged in her adopting more active learning in the classroom.

The five professors' experiences with disorienting dilemmas as the initiator for transformative learning about teaching is consistent with Mezirow's (2000) findings. The disorienting dilemma was caused by four different factors: 1) the professors' backgrounds, 2) students, 3) colleagues, and 4) literature. In my research, these four factors are similar to the four lenses of critical reflection described by Brookfield (1995). All five of the professors experienced a disorienting dilemma related to their background both as learners and teachers, two of the professors experienced a disorienting dilemma caused by their students, three of the professors experienced a disorienting dilemma related to their colleagues, and two of the professors had challenges associated to the literature on their discipline. Additional research done by Austin and McDaniels (2006), Cohen and Hill (2008) Trotman and Brown (2005), also suggested how each critical reflection happened through each of the four lenses and how this caused transformation in teaching.

Although the disorienting dilemmas were unique to each of the five professors, they were all accidental. The result of the disorienting dilemmas could not be predicted. The choice of teaching should not be left to accidental learning. If left to incidental learning, we might risk teaching that is not consistent with quality teaching and does not focus on student learning. Thus, it is indicative that more support be placed during the disorienting dilemmas to promote quality teaching and student learning.

There is a need to provide intentional support to the early career international professors that would assist them through their disorienting dilemma, raise awareness of the issues, and equip them with tools necessary to make a decision. In addition, there is a need for a safe space where professors can discuss these disorienting dilemmas. These spaces could take the form of communities of practice as suggested by Rogan (2007) where professors seek to understand the situation at hand, discuss it, and find solutions that promote student learning.

Similarly, Brookfield (1995) discussed the importance of conversations with colleagues to help professors think about their teaching differently and become more aware about their assumptions. Brookfield (1995) explained that in sharing their experiences and knowing they were not alone, professors sought relief with their teaching struggles.

We can apply Palmer's (1993) four topics of critical moments, human condition, metaphors and images, and autobiographical reflection to structure further discussions about teaching. These topics would help create conversations about teaching and learning as they allow professors to compare themselves to others. It also allows the early career international professors to add the human element to better understand their students and themselves as teachers by unfolding their beliefs and their past experiences.

Web of cultures. The findings from my research revealed that the feedback from colleagues outweighed the participants' approach to teaching when the participants were presented with a contradiction between the two. Micro-culture—"individual academic teachers and groups of teachers, in the different social collegial contexts that they work in" (Mårtensson, 2014, p. 11)—and departmental culture dominated personal approaches to teaching and institutional culture. Cox et al. (2011), Mårtensson (2014), Roxå (2014), and Roxå and Mårtensson (2011) found that micro-cultures influenced professors' choices in teaching.

According to Roxå and Mårtensson (2016), when designing educational development, it is important to consider cultural differences. This also applies when creating safe spaces outside of the department where professors may gather for discussions. The department leadership also plays a big role in these decisions. There is a need to empower department leadership to provide support to professors when faced with contradictions. Henderson (2008) also identified that rewards from within the department play a major role in influencing professors when considering a change in their teaching.

Support. Despite efforts on the institutional level to encourage teaching practices that promote student learning, the existence of a teaching and learning centre and the presence of an office for teaching and learning within their faculty, educational development support was not one of the factors that affected the teaching journey of the five professors. For example, Chloe indicated she did not think that the Teaching and Learning Centre provided good workshops because they spent too much time on theory while she just needed "to apply it and see what people have done." Chloe mentioned that in her faculty, they presented the theory in five

minutes, then they “open the floor to see what other people have done and we learn from each other.”

The participants indicated that educational development did not serve their population. They also stated that they would not be motivated to access educational development opportunities. In this case, professors need to be encouraged by their department head to attend these sessions. Additionally, there is a need for more context-oriented educational development opportunities.

There is a disconnection between the available educational development opportunities and the need of the five professors. When educational development was sought, it did not have a direct impact on teaching. This is consistent with Coffey and Gibbs (2000) and Norton et al. (2005) who found that educational development support did not have a direct impact on teaching. Similarly, Knapper (2010) found that the existence of teaching and learning centers did not have an impact on the teaching choices of professors; rather, it was the choice of the professors that made the difference. As noted by Brownell and Tanner (2012), professors found that educational development programs were not designed for them and they did not feel motivated to access the opportunities that were offered because they mainly saw themselves as researchers and not teachers. Thus, professors were not motivated to participate in educational development sessions that targeted teachers.

Three professors stated that they did not access educational development programs because they were not aware they existed. Two professors said that they were not motivated to access macro-level educational development support and preferred discipline-specific opportunities which portrayed the clash between the institutional focus on interdisciplinarity and

the departmental and academic identity. This also highlights the lack of awareness that professors have about interdisciplinarity. This lack of familiarity is related to the understanding that the five professors have formed about their role and the feedback they received from their department. This is similar to Briggs' (2007) findings that in order for professors to gain awareness, there needs to be buy-in from the department leadership to support and disseminate this awareness.

Hannah and Lester (2009) and Williams et al. (2013) both recognized this issue and suggested that it is important to have educational development support at the meso-level to bridge the gap between the institution and the professors. In her study, Briggs (2007) identified the central role that departments played in curricula and academic improvement, specifically interdisciplinary curriculum collaboration and curriculum review and modifications. Redesigned support tailored to the need of this specific population and accounting for the different teaching cultures, and based on the signature pedagogy of the specific department may be a strong tool to improve educational development and consequently improve student learning.

Experience of the Teaching Journeys of Early Career International Professors

The five international early career professors in my research are a unique population that require differentiated support. Formal and informal teaching support should be introduced and emphasized during the early career stage of professors (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004). Following the findings of Meirink et al. (2007) that professors do not immediately apply what they have learned in the same semester, it would be beneficial to introduce professors to quality teaching during their first semester. This would allow them to integrate their learnings into their lesson plan from the start. Therefore, it is of great importance to build trusting relationships with

educational developers, the head of department, the associate dean of teaching and learning, and the community of practice at the beginning of the appointment. These relationships will help introduce professors to quality teaching, create a safe space to try and receive feedback and have support to handle the conflict of multiple teaching cultures that exist at an institution.

In light of the feedback received about the formal educational development support provided and the informal departmental dynamics, teaching support should take multiple forms of active and purposeful partnerships among all agents in the institution. Integration took different forms and not necessarily toward quality teaching. This is problematic because the institution is recruiting and rewarding professors who focus on student-centred approaches to teaching. When these professors choose to adopt teacher-centred approaches to align with their department, the institution is losing the value that these professors bring. Consequently, this would reflect on student learning.

There are four key modifications that need to occur in order to support early career international professors. First, there is a need to change the format of the support provided to early career international professors. This support should be emphasized by the department's leadership team and supported by the Teaching and Learning Center. In addition, this support needs to be planned collaboratively between departments and the Teaching and Learning Centre to accommodate the context. Second, there is a need to provide capacity building for department leadership teams to allow them to support early career international professors, provide needs assessment, and direct professors to the needed resources.

The different formats of the support of international early career professors are grouped in a framework in Figure 3.

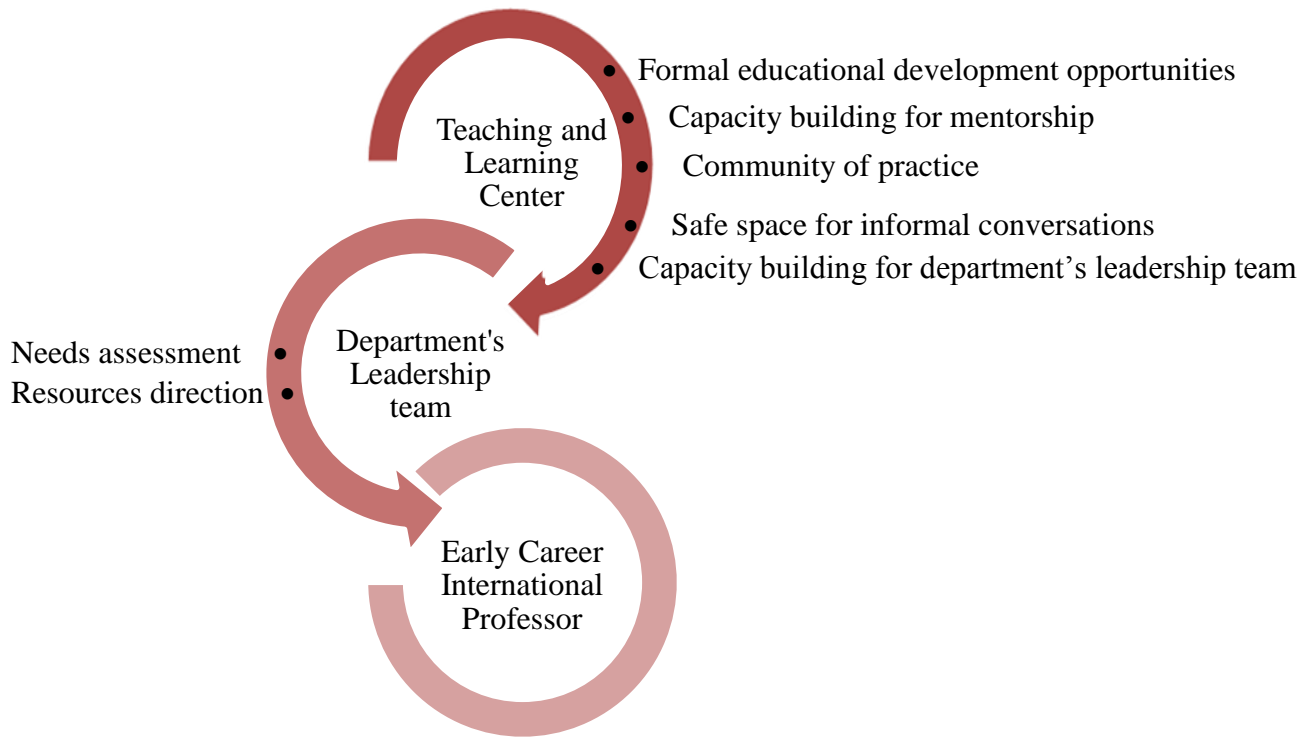


Figure 3. Format of support of international early career professors

Third, the language used to promote learning opportunities should be straight-forward and appeal to the needs of the early career international professors. It is necessary to empower the department leadership to mentor and support professors. Finally, a better communication system between the different partners is required to keep professors updated on what is happening and what is suitable or interesting for them to engage in. This communication needs to be strengthened by the department leadership to direct the early career international professors and give them the legitimacy they are looking for.

Given they might come from a different teaching culture with different pedagogical practices and have minimal teaching experience, the early career international professors require differentiated support that covers the following four elements: 1) role of the professor, 2) role of the content, 3) role of the assessment, and 4) role of the student. These four elements should be based on the prevailing teaching pedagogies of their department.

These four elements are grouped in a framework as depicted in Figure 4.

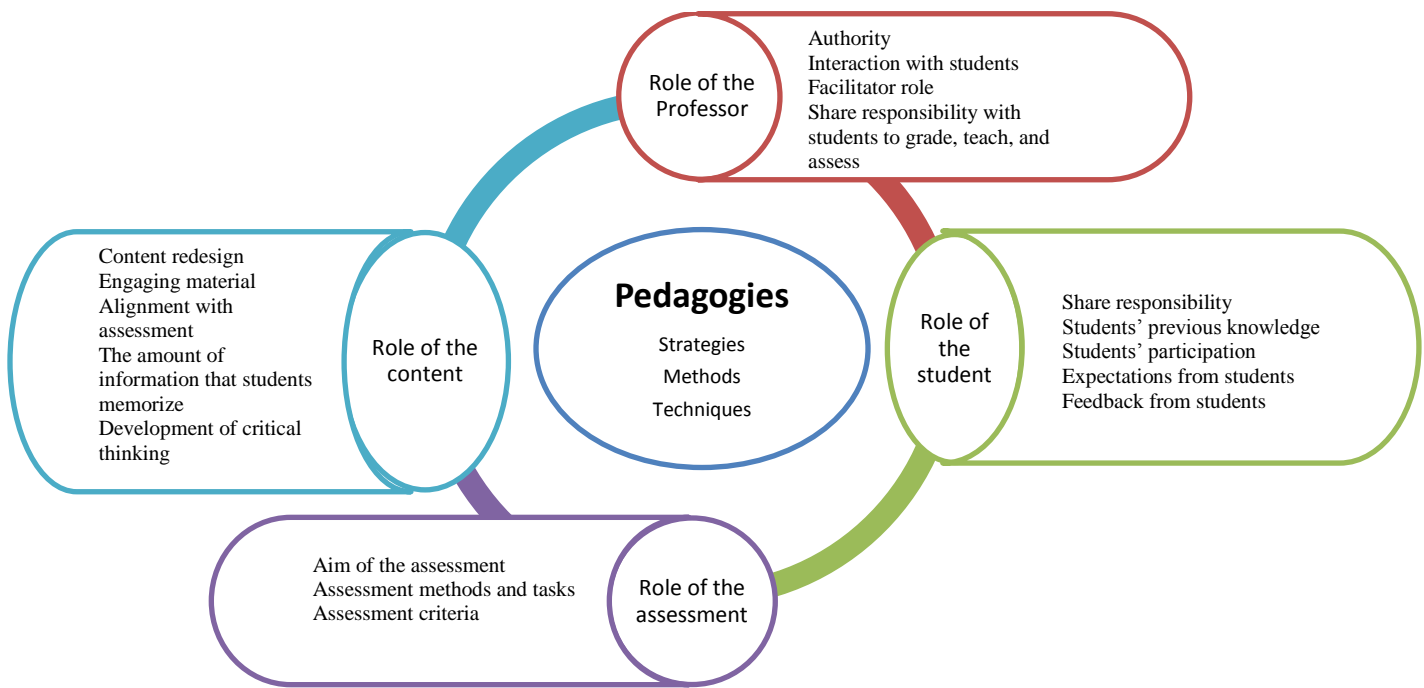


Figure 4. Elements of transformation of teaching framework

Role of the professors. To support international early career professors in their teaching, support and educational opportunities are needed to explain the transformation in the role of the professor. This includes opportunities for the professor to understand the multiple perceptions of authority and power and how that impacts the interaction with students. It also allows professors

to reaffirm their role as facilitators and to share the responsibility of the learning with their students. Finally, support is needed to allow early career international professors to seek and learn from the feedback of the students.

Role of the students. Quality teaching requires an understanding of the role of the students and their role as professors. This framework provides opportunities for professors to expand their understanding of the role of the students and how to share responsibility with them. It also provides early career international professors with the right tools to work with the students' previous knowledge. In addition, this framework prompts early career international professors to seek students' participation, expectations, and feedback.

Role of the assessment. Similar to the role of the professors and the role of the professor and the students, opportunities should be available to allow early career international professors to understand the aim of the assessment. Professors also need to be equipped with a pool of assessment tools and methods to choose from and criteria to assign. These opportunities should be accompanied by proper support of the professor through the learning process.

Role of the content. Adequate support and opportunities need to be available to help professors redesign their content to provide more engaging materials. Those materials need to align with the assessment. Professors need support to determine the amount of information that need to be memorized by students in order to develop critical thinking.

In conclusion, the characteristics of transformation of teaching framework allows early career international professors to make the choice of teaching approach based on their department's signature pedagogies with a full understanding of the four characteristics of the transformation of teaching.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed the findings from my study related to the current and relevant literature. International early career professors bring a cultural wealth (Yosso, 2005) to the Canadian universities that includes “knowledge, skills, abilities and contact” (Yosso, 2005, p. 77) and it helps them succeed in a new environment. The challenge is two-fold. First, it is fundamental to understand the teaching journeys of international early career professors. Second, it is essential to create support and opportunities for international early career professors to engage in quality teaching that would foster better students’ outcomes. Support of international early career professors requires involvement at the different levels of an institution and integration of the characteristics of their teaching journey. Additionally, being responsive and connected is required at the different levels to support the development of their teaching capacity.

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the implications for practice, recommendations for future research, and a conclusion for my research. This chapter includes four sections. The first section is a summary of the study, including an outline of the research design and findings. The second section discusses the implications for practice at the different levels of an institution to support quality teaching of international early career professors. The third section consists of the recommendations for future research. The chapter ends with a conclusion.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this research was to examine the teaching journeys of early career international professors in their first three years of employment at a Canadian university. I used an exploratory case study to explore how five international early career professors experienced a change in the way they thought about teaching, the way they practiced teaching, and the factors that affected that change. Nine people participated in the study. The study set out to address the question: How do international early career professors experience their teaching journeys in one Canadian university?

Findings from the study are grouped into four primary findings related to change in thoughts about teaching, two main findings related to change in practice, and two findings related to the factors that affect the teaching journey.

First, my research showed that despite their expertise in their fields, the professors in my research were not formally educated about modern teaching and learning practices. As a result of teaching in a Canadian university, each professor experienced a personal journey. This personal journey had four characteristics in common: the role of the professor, role of the students, role of

the content, and role of the assessment. The second form of change in identity showed that transformation in thoughts about teaching was the result of a constant negotiation between academic identity, institutional teaching culture, disciplinary, and departmental teaching culture. My research indicated that the shift in thinking about teaching was a result of disorienting dilemmas. Each disorienting dilemma was the result of one or more of the four lenses of critical reflection.

Second, there is a discrepancy between how the participants thought about teaching and the way they practiced their teaching. Results also showed that there was a dissonance between how the participants' thought about teaching and how they practiced teaching.

Third, transformation in teaching was the result of a disorienting dilemma that led the professors in my research to critically reflect on their teaching from the four lenses of reflection.

Fourth, the five international early career professors in my research represented a unique population that requires differentiated and intentional support. Furthermore, even though there was support available at different levels of the institution, there was an alleged disconnection between the needs of the participants and the available support. Also, there was a perceived communication breakdown at different levels that obstructed the sharing of the information to the participants.

Success and Challenges of the Study

One of the things that worked well in this research was having five participants. This allowed me to form a relationship with the participants and get a deeper understanding of their experiences. Another key factor that impacted the success of the study is the quantity of data gathered given the multiple data sources used in the case study.

One of the major challenges that I faced was being able to only interview one associate dean of teaching and learning, as opposed to the associate dean for each faculty represented in the study which would have been two. I did not interview department heads or deans in these faculties. Thus, the information that I could have collected from these individuals about the support available at the faculty level would have better informed my study. Currently, the data only reflects one faculty member's perspective. Having leaders in the faculty and at the institutional level who are involved in educational development support for early career international professors is something to further consider.

There were many limitations to my study as described in chapter three. The first limitation spoke to the sensitivity of the early career period. This impacted the number of individuals who agreed to participate in my research—I was limited to five participants. The second limitation was related to my bias. In order to limit my bias, I used Merriam's (1998) recommendations to ensure the validity and the reliability of my findings. The third limitation was related to the process of contacting people. If it was not for this limitation, I may have had more participants to choose from. The fourth limitation that impacted my study was related to the filtered information that the participants were conveying. I tried to address this limitation by building a relationship with the participants. This was made easier because of the duration of the research over two semesters and the opportunity to meet with the professors on multiple occasions. The fifth limitation was related to the short duration of the study which may not allow the full observation of the transformation in teaching. In order to address this limitation, I collected data from a multitude of resources. Finally, the sixth limitation was related to the large number of data collection and how this may lead participants to be reluctant to participate. I

addressed this limitation by offering to the participants the possibility of choosing the data collection that wanted to take part in.

The delimitations of my study to the early career international professors and the one western Canadian university helped me narrow down my study. At the same time, being delimited to one Canadian university restricted me to one institutional culture and I was not able to compare my findings with professors in a different institutional culture who have access to other resources.

Implications for Practice

Based on the research findings, implications for practice need to be addressed at four levels: institution, faculty, department, and Teaching and Learning Center.

Implications for the institution. It is essential to have a clear vision that reflects the core values and beliefs of a quality teaching culture at the institution level. This clear vision of quality teaching needs to be communicated across faculties and most importantly across departments. In addition, institutions should take proper initiatives to develop the capacity of department leadership teams. This is particularly important because department leadership teams are the connection between faculty members and the institution as a whole and it is crucial to align their messages to the faculty members with the institutional values. Finally, additional means of communication should be to direct faculty members to teaching and learning opportunities. One way of accomplishing this is by getting the department leadership teams equipped with the necessary information and the ability to do a needs assessment.

Implications for the faculty. There is a need to provide a connection for the new faculty. There might be one new professor in a department among senior professors, and this might

create a sense of loneliness. Through the office of the associate dean of teaching and learning, there is a need for a safe space where new professors can talk and raise questions and concerns. This space for conversation and inquiry could potentially remove isolation, allow members to bond with each other, create a network of support and brainstorm ideas, and exchange solutions.

Implications for the department. There is a need for responsive support to address the needs of early career professors and especially for early career international professors in this research. Leaders in the department need to foster connections with other agencies within the institution to be aware of and to suggest support for colleagues in relation to teaching and learning. There is also a need to further support the creation of collegial mentoring of senior professors with new professors. Mentorship opportunities should be well organized. Opportunities for professors to get constructive feedback on their teaching must to be made available. Finally, there is a need for customized teaching support that responds to the signature pedagogies and allows professors to connect to the types of exercise, classrooms, homework, and expectations of teaching.

Implications for the Teaching and Learning Center. There is a need to revisit the mandate and also to provide differentiated educational development opportunities to respond to the multiple needs of the diversified community of the institution and the growing international presence related to the internationalization strategy. On the one hand, there is a need to provide more support staff that are dedicated and specialized in providing support to the diversified community of professors. On the other hand, there is a need to create strategic alliances between the Teaching and Learning Centre staff and the faculties and departments to allow capacity building in departments and faculties.

Figure 5 summarizes the steps that need to be taken at the multiple levels of the institution.

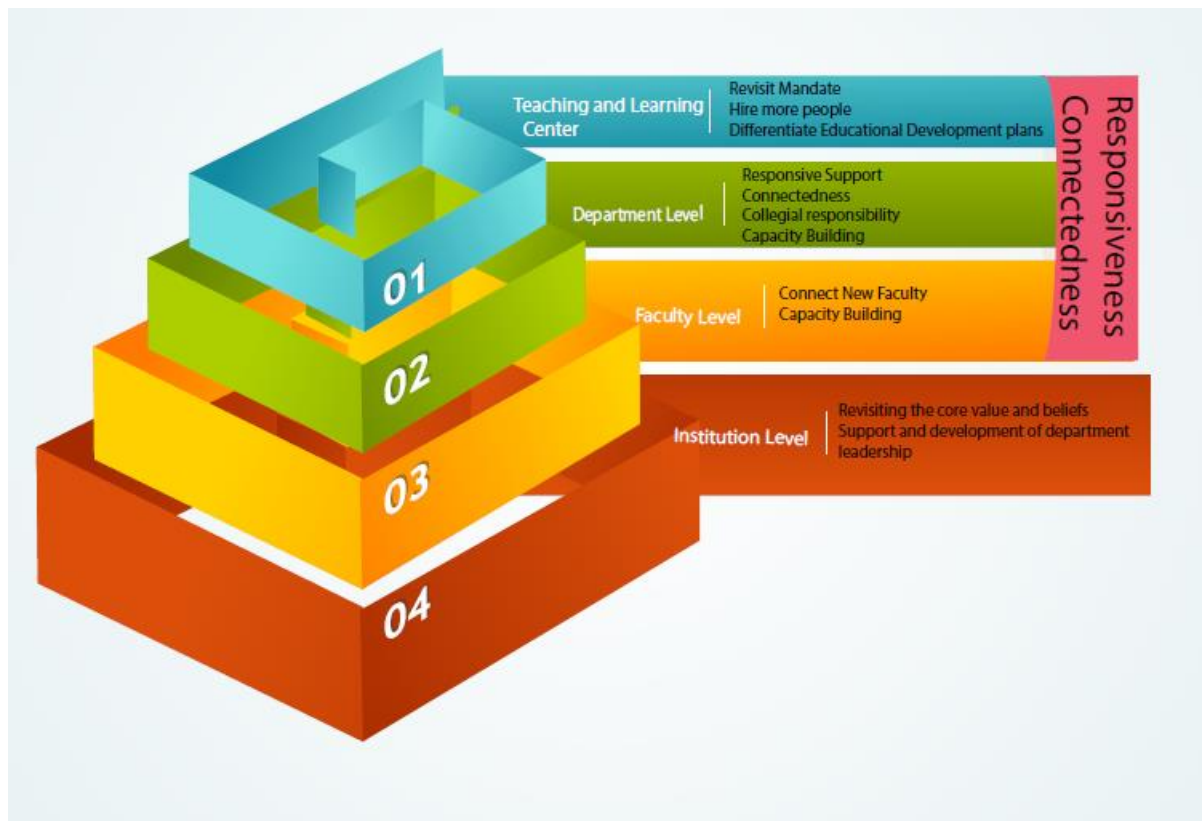


Figure 5. Multi-level teaching support framework

Recommendations for Future Research

My research focused on the experience of five international early career professors. One of the delimitations of my study was the limited number of professors interviewed. This limits the generalization of the findings since the findings reflect the specifics of this study. To allow for the potential of generalizability, I recommend a more extensive study that includes more professors and for the study to be extended over a longer period of time. Within such a

study, it would be important to explore the specificities of each faculty and the different support that international early career professors access or need at different periods of their career. To further enhance the research I would include the perspectives of students who take a class with international early career professors. A potential research question I would consider is: What factors influence early career international professors teaching capacity? To inform this question, a mixed methods study is recommended, and data collection would include interviews, observations, surveys, and document analysis.

The second area for future research is a comparative study of the teaching experiences of domestic and international early career professors. The research question would be: How do domestic and international early career professors integrate into an institutional academic teaching culture? A multiple case study approach would be used to learn the different experiences of both populations. Data collection would include interviews, observations, surveys, and document analysis.

The third possible area to explore is the impact of the multiple teaching cultures within an institution on the teaching choices of professors. Research questions could include: What is the nature of the teaching cultures within an institution? If the teaching culture has changed over the past five years, what factors influenced the change? How has such a change impacted student learning experiences? A mixed methods study could be designed to explore these questions. Participants would be from different levels including institution, faculties, departments, and students. Data collection would consist of surveys, document analysis, and interviews.

Conclusion

The purpose of my research was to examine the teaching journeys of early career international professors in their first three years of employment at a Canadian university. Many factors are encouraging the increased hiring of international professors in Canadian universities among which are internationalization strategies, lack of domestic academics, interest in mobility, and retiring of baby boomers.

Many universities are engaged in creating and supporting meaningful student learning and quality teaching experiences. For the five international early career professors in my research, the challenge is how to integrate themselves into the Canadian teaching culture within a university where the student population, language, and technological expectations might be different from what they had previously experienced. Higher education institutions need to carefully consider the nature and type of support needed for early career international professors. With proper support at all levels in the institution, early career international professors can thrive and positively impact students' learning through their teaching.

REFERENCES

- Åkerlind, G. S. (2003). Growing and developing as a university teacher—variation in meaning. *Studies in Higher Education*, 28(4), 375-390.
- Åkerlind, G. S. (2005). Academic growth and development-How do university academics experience it? *Higher Education*, 50(1), 1-32.
- Åkerlind, G. S. (2007). Constraints on academics' potential for developing as a teacher. *Studies in Higher Education*, 32(1), 21-37.
- Alberts, H. C. (2008). The challenges and opportunities of foreign-born instructors in the classroom. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 32(2), 189-203.
- Allen, I. E., & Seaman, J. (2008). *Staying the course: Online education in the United States*. Newburyport, MA: Sloan Foundation.
- Andersen, P. (2007). What is Web 2.0? Ideas, technologies and implications for education. *JISC*, 1(1). Bristol, UK.
- Arzarello, F., & Bartolini Bussi, M.G. (1998). Italian trends in research in Mathematics Education: A national case study in the international perspective. In J. Kilpatrick & A. Sierpiska (Eds.), *Mathematics Education as a Research Domain: A Search for Identity*, Kluwer Academic Publishers, vol.2, 243-262.
- Austin, A. E. (1996). Institutional and departmental cultures: The relationship between teaching and research. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 1996(90), 57-66.
- Austin, A. E. (2002). Preparing the next generation of faculty: Graduate school as socialization to the academic career. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 73(1), 94-122.
- Austin, A. E., & McDaniels, M. (2006). Preparing the professoriate of the future: Graduate student socialization for faculty roles. In *HIGHER EDUCATION* (pp. 397-456). Netherlands: Springer.

- Austin, A. E., & Sorcinelli, M. D. (2013). The future of faculty development: Where are we going? *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, 2013(133), 85-97.
- Austin, A. E., Sorcinelli, M. D., & McDaniels, M. (2007). Understanding new faculty background, aspirations, challenges, and growth. In R. P. Perry & J. C. Smart (Eds.), *The scholarship of teaching and learning in higher education: An evidence-based perspective* (pp. 39-89). Netherlands: Springer.
- Baepler, P., & Murdoch, C. J. (2010). Academic analytics and data mining in higher education. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 4(2), 17.
- Bailey, K. M. (1984). The "foreign TA problem." In K. Bailey, F. Pialorsi, & J. Zukowski (Eds.), *Foreign Teaching Assistants in U.S. Universities* (pp. 3-15). Washington, DC: National Association for Foreign Student Affairs.
- Barnett, R. (1997). *Higher education: A critical business*. London, UK: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Bates, A. T., & Sangra, A. (2011). *Managing technology in higher education: Strategies for transforming teaching and learning*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Bauman, Z. (1996). *From pilgrim to tourist—or a short history of identity*. SAGE Publications. Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Becher, T. (1981). Towards a definition of disciplinary cultures. *Studies in Higher Education*, 6(2), 109-122.
- Becher, T., & Trowler, P. (2001). *Academic tribes and territories: Intellectual enquiry and the culture of disciplines*. McGraw-Hill Education, UK.
- Bieber, J. P., & Worley, L. K. (2006). Conceptualizing the academic life: Graduate students' perspectives. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 77(6), 1009-1035.
- Biggs, J. (2003). *Aligning teaching for constructing learning*. Higher Education Academy. York, UK.

- Blumberg, P. (2009). *Developing learner-centered teaching*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bodycott, P., & Walker, A. (2000). Teaching abroad: Lessons learned about inter-cultural understanding for teachers in higher education. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 5(1), 79-94.
- Boice, R. (1992). *The new faculty member: Supporting and fostering professional development*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bolton, C. D., & Kammeyer, K. C. (1972). Campus cultures, role orientations, and social types. *College and student: Selected readings in the social psychology of higher education*, 377-391.
- Borg, E. (2004). *Minimal semantics*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Borko, H., Elliott, R., & Uchiyama, K. (2002). Professional development: A key to Kentucky's educational reform effort. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 18(8), 969-987.
- Boud, D. J., & Lee, A. (2009). *Changing practices of doctoral education*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Boud, D., & Falchikov, N. (2007). *Rethinking assessment in higher education: Learning for the longer term*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Boyden, K. (2000). Development of new faculty in higher education. *Journal of Professional Nursing*, 16(2), 104-111.
- Boyer, N., Maher, P., & Kirkman, S. (2006). Transformative learning in online settings. *Journal of Transformative Education*, 4(4), 335-361.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in psychology*, 3(2), 77-101.

- Braxton, J. M., Bray, N. J., & Berger, J. B. (2000). Faculty teaching skills and their influence on the college student departure process. *Journal of college student development*, 41(2), 215.
- Briggs, C. L. (2007). Curriculum collaboration: A key to continuous program renewal. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 78(6), 676-711.
- Brint, S. G., Turk-Bicakci, L., Proctor, K., & Murphy, S. P. (2009). Expanding the social frame of knowledge: Interdisciplinary, degree-granting fields in American colleges and universities, 1975-2000. *The Review of Higher Education*, 32(2), 155–183.
- Brint, S., Proctor, K., Murphy, S. P., Turk-Bicakci, L., & Hanneman, R. A. (2009). General education models: Continuity and change in the US undergraduate curriculum, 1975–2000. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 80(6), 605-642.
- Brookfield, S. (1995). *Becoming a critically reflective teacher*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass
- Broom, L., & Selznick, P. (1973). *Sociology*. Harper & Row. New York, NY.
- Brown, G. A., Bull, J., & Pendlebury, M. (2013). *Assessing student learning in higher education*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Brown, P., Lauder, H., & Ashton, D. (2008). Towards a high-skills economy: Higher education and the new realities of global capitalism. In D. Epstein et al. (Eds.), *Geographies of knowledge, geometries of power: framing the future of higher education*. *World Yearbook of Education 2008* (pp. 190–210). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Brownell, S. E., & Tanner, K. D. (2012). Barriers to faculty pedagogical change: Lack of training, time, incentives, and... tensions with professional identity? *CBE-Life Sciences Education*, 11(4), 339-346.
- Cakmak, M. (2008). Concerns about teaching process: Student teachers' perspective. *Educational Research Quarterly*, 31(3), 57-61.
- Cantwell, R., Archer, J., & Bourke, S. (2001). A comparison of the academic experiences and

- achievement of university students entering by traditional and non-traditional means. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 26(3), 221-234.
- Cawyer, C. S., Simonds, C., & Davis, S. (2002). Mentoring to facilitate socialization: The case of the new faculty member. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 15(2), 225-242.
- Chen, Y. W. (2014). "Are you an immigrant?": Identity-based critical reflections of teaching intercultural communication. *New directions for teaching and learning*, 2014(138), 5-16.
- Chin, S. S. (2006). I am a human and I belong in the world. *Journal of Transformative Education*, 4(1), 27-42.
- Choudaha, R., & Chang, L. (2012). Trends in international student mobility. *World Education News & Reviews*, 25(2).
- Choy, S. (2009). Transformative learning in the workplace. *Journal of Transformative Education*, 7(1), 65-84.
- Clare, R. (2006). Putting faith into action: A model for the North American middle-class. *Religious Education*, 101(3), 368-388.
- Clarke, D., & Hollingsworth, H. (2002). Elaborating a model of teacher professional growth. *Teaching and teacher education*, 18(8), 947-967.
- Clynes, M. P., & Raftery, S. E. (2008). Feedback: An essential element of student learning in clinical practice. *Nurse Education in practice*, 8(6), 405-411.
- Coffey, M., & Gibbs, G. (2000). Can academics benefit from training? Some preliminary evidence. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 5(3), 385-389.
- Cohen, D. K., & Hill, H. C. (2008). *Learning policy: When state education reform works*. Yale University Press.

- Collier, D., & Mahoney, J. (1996). Insights and pitfalls: Selection bias in qualitative research. *World Politics*, 49(01), 56-91.
- Cooley, L. (2007). Transformative learning and third wave feminism as potential outcomes of participation in women's enclaves. *Journal of Transformative Education*, 5(4), 304-316.
- Cox, B. E., McIntosh, K. L., Reason, R. D., & Terenzini, P. T. (2011). A culture of teaching: Policy, perception, and practice in higher education. *Research in Higher Education*, 52(8), 808-829.
- Crabtree, B. F., & Miller, W. L. (Eds.). (1999). *Doing qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Crabtree, R. D., & Sapp, D. A. (2004). Your culture, my classroom, whose pedagogy? Negotiating effective teaching and learning in Brazil. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 8(1), 105-132.
- Cranton, P. (1996). *Professional development as transformative learning. New perspectives for teachers of adults. The Jossey-Bass Higher and Adult Education Series*. Jossey-Bass Publishers, Inc.
- Cranton, P., & Carusetta, E. (2002). Reflecting on teaching: The influence of context. *The International Journal for Academic Development*, 7(2), 167-176.
- Crawford, B. A., & Lunetta, V. (2002). Promoting the development of a personal philosophy of teaching in prospective secondary science teachers. *Pennsylvania Teacher Educator*, 1(1), 68-74.
- Crawford, L. A., & Olsen, D. (1998). A five-year study of junior faculty expectations about their work. *The Review of Higher Education*, 22(1), 39-54.

- Crawford, V. M. (2007, May). Adaptive expertise as knowledge building in science teachers' problem solving. In *Second European Cognitive Science Conference, Delphi, Greece*.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. New York, NY: SAGE Publications.
- Denzin, N. K. (1978). *Sociological methods: A sourcebook*. McGraw-Hill Companies.
- Desforges, C. (1995). How does experience affect theoretical knowledge for teaching? *Learning and Instruction*, 5(4), 385-400.
- Dewey, J. (1933). *A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process*. DC Heath.
- Dolisca, F., McDaniel, J. M., & Teeter, L. D. (2007). Farmers' perceptions towards forests: A case study from Haiti. *Forest Policy and Economics*, 9, 704-712.
- Dunn, L., & Wallace, M. (2006). Australian academics and transnational teaching: An exploratory study of their preparedness and experiences. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 25(4), 357-369.
- Ebert-May, D., Derting, T. L., Hodder, J., Momsen, J. L., Long, T. M., & Jardeleza, S. E. (2011). What we say is not what we do: Effective evaluation of faculty professional development programs. *BioScience*, 61(7), 550-558.
- Eijkman, H. (2008). Web 2.0 as a non-foundational network-centric learning space. *Campus-Wide Information Systems*, 25(2), 93-104.
- Entwistle, N., & Walker, P. (2002). Strategic alertness and expanded awareness within sophisticated conceptions of teaching. In *Teacher thinking, beliefs and knowledge in higher education* (pp. 15-39). Netherlands: Springer.
- Feldman, A. (2002). Multiple perspectives for the study of teaching: Knowledge, reason, understanding, and being. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 39(10), 1032-1055.

- Fink, D. (1988). Travails of teaching geography: The trauma of the first year. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 12(2), 213-216.
- Fink, L. D. (1984). The first year of college teaching. *New directions for teaching and learning*, 17(1), 11-119.
- Finlay, I. (2008). Learning through boundary-crossing: Further education lecturers learning in both the university and workplace. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 31(1), 73-87.
- Finlay, L., & Gough, B. (Eds.). (2008). *Reflexivity: A practical guide for researchers in health and social sciences*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Flyvbjerg, B. (2006). Five misunderstandings about case-study research. *Qualitative inquiry*, 12(2), 219-245.
- Foot, D., & Stoffman, D. (2000) *Boom bust & echo*. Toronto, ON: Stoddart.
- Foote, D. K., & Stoffman, D. (2004). Boom, bust and echo: Profiting from the demographic shift in the 21st century. *Toronto: Footwork Consulting*, 24-28.
- Foote, K. (2010). Creating a community of support for graduate students and early career academics. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 34(1), 7-19.
- Fox, D. (1983). Personal theories of teaching. *Studies in Higher Education*, 8(2), 151-163.
- French, J. R. P., & Raven, B. (1959). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright (Ed.), *Studies in Social Power* (pp. 150-167). Ann Arbor, MI.
- Friis-Hansen, E., & Taylor, E. W. (2011). Farmer field school in rural Kenya: A transformative learning experience. *Journal of Development Studies*, 1-16.
- Gappa, J. M., Austin, A. E., & Trice, A. G. (2007). *Rethinking faculty work: Higher education's strategic imperative*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- George, A. L., & Bennett, A. (2005). *Case studies and theory development in the social sciences*. Boston, MA: MIT Press.
- Gibbs, G. (2013). Reflections on the changing nature of educational development. *International Journal for Academic Development*, 18(1), 4-14.
- Gibbs, G., & Coffey, M. (2004). The impact of training of university teachers on their teaching skills, their approach to teaching and the approach to learning of their students. *Active learning in higher education*, 5(1), 87-100.
- Giddens, A. (1976). Classical social theory and the origins of modern sociology. *American Journal of Sociology*, 81(4), 703-729.
- Giddens, A. (1991). *Modernity and self-identity: Self and society in the late modern age*. Stanford University Press.
- Gilardi, S., & Guglielmetti, C. (2011). University life of non-traditional students: Engagement styles and impact on attrition. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 82(1), 33-53.
- Golde, C. M. (1998). Beginning graduate school: Explaining first-year doctoral attrition. *New directions for higher education*, 1998(101), 55-64.
- Golde, C. M., & Dore, T. M. (2001). *At cross purposes: What the experiences of today's doctoral students reveal about doctoral education*. Philadelphia: Pew Charitable Trusts.
- Goulah, J. (2007b). Village voices, global visions: Digital video as a transformative foreign language learning tool. *Foreign Language Annals*, 40(1), 62-78.
- Gravestock, P., & Greenleaf, E. G. (2008). *Overview of tenure and promotion policies across Canada*. University of Toronto, Toronto.
- Guba, E. G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries. *ECTJ*, 29(2), 75-91.

- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). Epistemological and methodological bases of naturalistic inquiry. In *Evaluation models* (pp. 363-381). Netherlands: Springer.
- Guo, S., & Chase, M. (2011). Internationalization of higher education: Integrating international students into Canadian academic environment. *Teaching in Higher Education, 16*(3), 305-318.
- Guskey, T. R. (2000). *Evaluating professional development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Guskey, T. R. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. *Teachers and Teaching, 8*(3), 381-391.
- Hamin, E. M., Marcucci, D. J., & Wenning, M. V. (2000). The experience of new planning faculty. *Journal of Planning Education and Research, 20*(1), 88-99.
- Hamza, A. (2010). International experience: An opportunity for professional development in higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 14*(1), 50-69.
- Hanlin-Rowney, A., Kuntzelman, K., Lara, M., Roffman, K., Nichols, T., & Welsh, L. (2006). Collaborative inquiry as a framework for exploring transformative learning online. *Journal of Transformative Education, 4*(4), 320–334.
- Hannah, S. T., & Lester, P. B. (2009). A multilevel approach to building and leading learning organizations. *The Leadership Quarterly, 20*(1), 34-48.
- Harris, S. (2005). Rethinking academic identities in neo-liberal times. *Teaching in Higher Education, 10*(4), 421-433.
- Hativa, N. (1995). The department-wide approach to improving faculty instruction in higher education: A qualitative evaluation. *Research in Higher Education, 36*(4), 377-413.
- Hawkins, B. L., & Rudy, J. A. (2007). EDUCAUSE Core Data Service: Fiscal Year 2006 Summary Report. *EDUCAUSE*.
- Hay, D. B., Tan, P. L., & Whaites, E. (2010). Non-traditional learners in higher education:

- Comparison of a traditional MCQ examination with concept mapping to assess learning in a dental radiological science course. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 35(5), 577-595.
- Hénard, F., & Roseveare, D. (2012). Fostering quality teaching in higher education: Policies and Practices. *An IMHE Guide for Higher Education Institutions*.
- Henderson, C., Beach, A., & Finkelstein, N. (2011). Facilitating change in undergraduate STEM instructional practices: An analytic review of the literature. *Journal of research in science teaching*, 48(8), 952-984.
- Henkel, M. (2000). *Academic identities and policy change in higher education*. London, UK: Jessica Kingsley.
- Henry, R., Marshall, S., & Ramburuth, P. (2013). *Improving Assessment in Higher Education: A Whole of Institution Approach*. New South Wales, AU: UNSW Press.
- Hsu, C. F. S. (2014). Open and positive attitudes toward teaching. *New directions for teaching and learning*, 2014(138), 41-49.
- Hutchison, A., & Rea, T. (2011). Transformative learning and identity formation on the smiling coast of West Africa. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 27, 552-559.
- Isopahkala-Bouret, U. (2008). Transformative learning in managerial role transitions. *Studies in Continuing Education*, 30(1), 69-84.
- Jawitz, J. (2007). New academics negotiating communities of practice: Learning to swim with the big fish. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 12(2), 185-197.
- Jawitz, J. (2009). Academic identities and communities of practice in a professional discipline. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 14(3), 241-251.
- Joffe, H. (2012). Thematic analysis. *Qualitative research methods in mental health and psychotherapy: A guide for students and practitioners*, 1, 210-223.

- Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Smith, K. (2007). The state of cooperative learning in postsecondary and professional settings. *Educational Psychology Review, 19*(1), 15-29.
- Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Smith, K. A. (1998). *Active learning: Cooperation in the college classroom*. Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company.
- John-Steiner, V., & Mahn, H. (1996). Sociocultural approaches to learning and development: A Vygotskian framework. *Educational psychologist, 31*(3-4), 191-206.
- Jokikokko, K. (2009). The role of significant others in the intercultural learning of teachers. *Journal of Research in International Education, 8*(2), 142-163.
- Jones, M. G., & Vesilind, E. M. (1996). Putting practice into theory: Changes in the organization of preservice teachers' pedagogical knowledge. *American Educational Research Journal, 33*(1), 91-117.
- Jones, S., Madden, M. A. (2002). *The Internet goes to college: How students are living in the future with today's technology*. Washington, DC: Pew Internet and American Life Project.
- Keller, R. T. (2001). Cross-functional project groups in research and new product development: Diversity, communications, job stress, and outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal, 44*(3), 547-555.
- Kember, D. (1997). A reconceptualization of the research into university academics' conceptions of teaching. *Learning and instruction, 7*(3), 255-275.
- Kerr, A. (2011). *Adult learners in Ontario postsecondary institutions*. Toronto: Higher Education Quality Council of Ontario.
- Killen, R. (2006). *Effective teaching strategies: Lessons from research and practice*. Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.

- Kim, T. (2009). Transnational academic mobility, internationalization and interculturality in higher education. *Intercultural education*, 20(5), 395-405.
- Kim, D., Wolf-Wendel, L., & Twombly, S. (2011). International faculty: Experiences of academic life and productivity in U.S. universities. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 82(6), 720-747.
- King, K. (2009b). Workplace performance—PLUS: Empowerment and voice through professional development and democratic processes in health care training. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 21(4), 55-74.
- Knapper, C. (2010). Changing teaching practice: Barriers and strategies. In J. C. Hughes & E. Mighty (Eds.), *Taking Stock*. Kingston, ON: McGill-Queen's University Press.
- Knapper, C. (2010). Plus ça change... educational development past and future. *New directions for teaching and learning*, 2010(122), 1-5.
- Knight, J. (2003). Updated internationalization definition. *International Higher Education*, 33(2003), 2-3.
- Knight, P. T., & Wilcox, S. (1998). Effectiveness and ethics in educational development: Changing contexts, changing notions. *The International Journal for Academic Development*, 3, 97-106.
- Kugel, P. (1993). How professors develop as professors. *Studies in higher education*, 18(3), 315-328.
- Kuh, G. D., & Whitt, E. J. (1988). The invisible tapestry. Culture in American colleges and universities. *Association for the Study of Higher Education*, Washington, DC.
- Kuh, G. D., Kinzie, J. L., Buckley, J. A., Bridges, B. K., & Hayek, J. C. (2006). What matters to student success: A review of the literature. *National Postsecondary Education Cooperative*,

Washington, DC.

Kuptsch, C., & Pang, E. F. (Eds.). (2006). *Competing for global talent*. Geneva: International Institute for Labour Studies, ILO.

Laing, C., & Robinson, A. (2003). The withdrawal of non-traditional students: Developing an explanatory model. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 27(2), 175-185.

LaRocco, D. J., & Bruns, D. A. (2006). *Practitioner to professor: Second career academics' perceptions of entry into the academy*. Paper presented at the 2006 Council for Exceptional Children Annual Convention and Expo, Salt Lake City, UT.

Larrivee, B. (2000). Transforming teaching practice: Becoming the critically reflective teacher. *Reflective Practice*, 1(3), 293-307.

Li, S., Long, C., Liu, F., Lee, S., Guo, Q., Li, R., & Liu, Y. (2006). Herbs for medicinal baths among the traditional Yao communities of China. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 108,59-67.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1990). Judging the quality of case study reports. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 3(1), 53-59.

Liou, D. D., Antrop-Gonzalez, R., & Cooper, R. (2009). Unveiling the promise of community cultural wealth to sustaining Latina/o students' college-going information networks. *Educational Studies*, 45(6), 534-555.

Liu, A., & Rhoads, R. A. (2011). Globalization and internationalization in higher education: Theoretical, strategic and management perspectives. *Educational Review*, 63(4), 513-514.

Lovitts, B. E. (2001). *Leaving the ivory tower: The causes and consequences of departure from*

- doctoral study*. Lanham, MA: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Luce, J. A., & Murray, J. P. (1998). New professor's perceptions of the academic work life. *Journal of Staff, Program & Organization Development*, 15(3), 103-10.
- Mamiseishvili, K. (2011). Teaching workload and satisfaction of foreign-born and U.S.-born professors at four-year postsecondary institutions in the United States. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, 4(3), 163-174.
- Mamiseishvili, K., & Rosser, V. (2009). International and citizen professors in the United States: An examination of their productivity at research universities. *Research in Higher Education*, 51(1), 88-107.
- Manyika, J., Chui, M., Brown, B., Bughin, J., Dobbs, R., Roxburgh, C., & Byers, A. H. (2011). *Big data: The next frontier for innovation, competition, and productivity*. New York, NY: McKinsey Global Institute.
- Mårtensson, K. (2014). *Influencing teaching and learning microcultures. Academic development in a research-intensive university*. Lund, Sweden: Lund University Publications.
- Mårtensson, K., & Roxå, T. (2016). Working with networks, microcultures and communities. *Advancing practice in academic development*, 174-187.
- Mårtensson, K., Roxå, T., & Stensaker, B. (2014). From quality assurance to quality practices: An investigation of strong microcultures in teaching and learning. *Studies in Higher Education*, 39(4), 534-545.
- McCarthy, S. A., & Samors, R. J. (2009). *Online learning as a strategic asset: A resource for campus leaders*. Association of Public and Land-grant Universities.
- McKenzie, J. (2003). Variation and change in university teachers' ways of experiencing teaching (Doctoral thesis). University of Technology, Sydney.
- McLoughlin, C., & Lee, M. J. (2010). Personalised and self-regulated learning in the Web 2.0

- era: International exemplars of innovative pedagogy using social software. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 26(1), 28-43.
- Meirink, J. A., Meijer, P. C., & Verloop, N. (2007). A closer look at teachers' individual learning in collaborative settings. *Teachers and teaching: Theory and practice*, 13(2), 145-164.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education. Revised and expanded from "Case study research in education."* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam, S. B., & Ntseane, G. (2008). Transformational learning in Botswana: How culture shapes the process. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 58(3), 183-197.
- Mezirow, J. (1991). *Transformative dimensions of adult learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Mezirow, J. (1994). Understanding transformation theory. *Adult education quarterly*, 44(4), 222-44.
- Mezirow, J. (2000). Learning as transformation: Critical perspectives on a theory in progress. *The Jossey-Bass Higher and Adult Education Series*. Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Beverley Hills, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Munro, L. (2011). 'Go boldly, dream large!': The challenges confronting non-traditional students at university. *Australian Journal of Education*, 55(2), 115-131.
- Mwebi, B. M., & Brigham, S. M. (2009). Preparing North American preservice teachers for global perspectives: An international teaching practicum experience in Africa. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 55(3), 414-427.
- Norton, L., Richardson, T. E., Hartley, J., Newstead, S., & Mayes, J. (2005). Teachers' beliefs and intentions concerning teaching in higher education. *Higher Education*, 50(4), 537-571.
- Nyquist, J. D. (1991). *Preparing the professoriate of tomorrow to teach. Selected readings in TA*

- training*. Washington, DC: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Company.
- Nyquist, J. D., & Sprague, J. (1998). Thinking developmentally about TAs. *The professional development of graduate teaching assistants*, 61-88.
- Nyquist, J. D., Manning, L., Wulff, D. H., Austin, A. E., Sprague, J., Fraser, P. K., & Woodford, B. (1999). On the road to becoming a professor: The graduate student experience. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 31(3), 18-27.
- O'Mahony, J. (2014). *Enhancing student learning and teacher development in transnational education*. Retrieved from http://cebe.cardiff.ac.uk/sites/default/files/resources/enhancingtne_final_080414.pdf
- Pace, J. L., & Hemmings, A. (2007). Understanding authority in classrooms: A review of theory, ideology, and research. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 4-27.
- Palmer, P. J. (1993). Good talk about good teaching: Improving teaching through conversation and community. *Change: The magazine of higher learning*, 25(6), 8-13.
- Parlee, B. & F. Berkes. 2006. Indigenous knowledge of ecological variability and commons management: a case study on berry harvesting from Northern Canada. *Human Ecology*, 34, 515-528.
- Patrick, J., & Smart, R. M. (1998). An empirical evaluation of teacher effectiveness: The emergence of three critical factors. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 23(2), 165-178.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). Two decades of developments in qualitative inquiry a personal, experiential perspective. *Qualitative social work*, 1(3), 261-283.

- Pehkonen, E., & Pietilä, A. (2003). On relationships between beliefs and knowledge in mathematics education. Paper presented at the CERME 3: Third conference of the European society for research in mathematics education, Bellaria, Italy.
- Pherali, T. J. (2012). Academic mobility, language, and cultural capital the experience of transnational academics in British higher education institutions. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 16*(4), 313-333.
- Postareff, L., & Lindblom-Ylänne, S. (2008). Variation in teachers' descriptions of teaching: Broadening the understanding of teaching in higher education. *Learning and Instruction, 18*(2), 109-120.
- Postareff, L., & Lindblom-Ylänne, S. (2011). Emotions and confidence within teaching in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education, 36*(7), 799-813.
- Postareff, L., Katajavuori, N., Lindblom-Ylänne, S., & Trigwell, K. (2008). Consonance and dissonance in descriptions of teaching of university teachers. *Studies in Higher Education, 33*(1), 49-61.
- Postareff, L., Lindblom-Ylänne, S., & Nevgi, A. (2007). The effect of pedagogical training on teaching in higher education. *Teaching and teacher education, 23*(5), 557-571.
- Prance, G.T. 2004. The uses of *Atuna racemosa* Raf. (Chrysobalanaceae) in Samoa. *Economic Botany, 58*, 470- 475.
- Prather, E. E., & Brissenden, G. (2008). Development and application of a situated apprenticeship approach to professional development of astronomy instructors. *Astronomy Education Review, 7*(2).
- Pratt, D. D. (1998). *Five perspectives on teaching in adult and higher education*. Melbourne, FL: Krieger Publishing.

- Qiang, Z. (2003). Internationalization of higher education: Towards a conceptual framework. *Policy Futures in Education, 1*(2), 248-270.
- Ramsden, P. (2003). *Learning to teach in higher education*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Rees, C., Sheard, C., & McPherson, A. (2004). Medical students' views and experiences of methods of teaching and learning communication skills. *Patient education and counseling, 54*(1), 119-121.
- Reid, A., Dahlgren, L. O., Petocz, P., & Dahlgren, M. A. (2008). Identity and engagement for professional formation. *Studies in Higher Education, 33*(6), 729-742.
- Reid, L. F., & Kawash, J. (2017). Let's talk about power: How teacher use of power shapes relationships and learning. *Papers on postsecondary learning and teaching, 2*(1), 34-41.
- Rice, R. E., Sorcinelli, M. D., & Austin, A. E. (2000). Heeding new voices: Academic careers for a new generation. Paper presented at the Forum on Professors Roles & Rewards, American Association for Higher Education.
- Rogan, J. M. (2007). How much curriculum change is appropriate? Defining a zone of feasible innovation. *Science Education, 91*(3), 439-460.
- Roxå, T., & Mårtensson, K. (2015). Microcultures and informal learning: A heuristic guiding analysis of conditions for informal learning in local higher education workplaces. *International Journal for Academic Development, 20*(2), 193-205.
- Roxå, T., Mårtensson, K., & Alveteg, M. (2011). Understanding and influencing teaching and learning cultures at university: A network approach. *Higher Education, 62*(1), 99-111.
- Rudd, E., & Nerad, M. (2014). Career preparation in PhD programs: results of a national survey of early career geographers. *GeoJournal, 80*(2), 181-186.
- Ruscio, K. P. (1987). The distinctive scholarship of the selective liberal arts college. *The Journal of Higher Education, 58*(2), 205-222.

- Rushin, J. W., De Saix, J., Lumsden, A., Streubel, D. P., Summers, G., & Bernson, C. (1997). Graduate teaching assistant training: A basis for improvement of college biology teaching & professors development? *The American biology teacher*, 86-90.
- Samuelowicz, K., & Bain, J. D. (2001). Revisiting academics' beliefs about teaching and learning. *Higher Education*, 41(3), 299-325.
- Sands, D., & Tennant, M. (2010). Transformative learning in the context of suicide bereavement. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 60-(2), 99-121.
- Sarkisian, E. (1997). *Teaching American students. A guide for international faculty and teaching assistants in colleges and universities*. Cambridge, MA: Derek Bok Center for Teaching and Learning.
- Schön, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Schrodt, P., Witt, P. L., & Turman, P. D. (2007). Reconsidering the measurement of teacher power use in the college classroom. *Communication Education*, 56(3), 308-332.
- Scott, D. E., & Scott, S. (2015). Leadership for quality university teaching: How bottom-up academic insights can inform top-down leadership. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1741143214549970>
- Selwyn, N. (2010). Looking beyond learning: Notes towards the critical study of educational technology. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 26(1), 65-73.
- Selwyn, N. (2012). Social media in higher education. In A. Gladman, (Ed.), *The Europa world of learning* (pp 1-9). London, UK: Routledge.
- Siemens, G., & Long, P. (2011). Penetrating the fog: Analytics in learning and education. *EDUCAUSE Review*, 46(5), 30-35.

- Sims, L., & Sinclair, A. J. (2008). Learning through participatory resource management programs: Case studies from Costa Rica. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 58(1), 151-168.
- Smith, J. A., Harré, R., & Van Langenhove, L. (Eds.). (1995). *Rethinking methods in psychology*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Snow-Gerono, J. L. (2008). Professional development in a culture of inquiry: PDS professors identify the benefits of professional learning communities. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21(3), 241-256.
- Solem, M. N., & Foote, K. E. (2004). Concerns, attitudes, and abilities of early-career geography professors. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 94(4), 889-912.
- Sprague, J., & Nyquist, J. D. (1991). A developmental perspective on the TA role. *Preparing the professoriate of tomorrow to teach: Selected readings in TA training*, 295-312.
- Sprinz, D. F. (2004). *Models, numbers, and cases: methods for studying international relations*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. London, UK: SAGE Publications.
- Statistics Canada. (n.d.). *Births and total fertility rate, by province and territory* [Table]. Retrieved from CANSIM database. Last updated February 10, 2016. <http://www.statcan.gc.ca/tables-tableaux/sum-som/101/cst01/hlth85b-eng.htm> (accessed June 13, 2016).
- Steinert, Y., Cruess, R. L., Cruess, S. R., Boudreau, J. D., & Fuks, A. (2007). Professor's development as an instrument of change: A case study on teaching professionalism. *Academic Medicine*, 82(11), 1057-1064.
- Stes, A., Clement, M., & Van Petegem, P. (2007). The effectiveness of a faculty training programme: Long-term and institutional impact. *International Journal for Academic*

Development, 12(2), 99-109.

Syverson, P. D. (1996). Assessing demand for graduate and professional programs. *New Directions for Institutional Research, 1996(92), 17-29.*

Taylor, K. L. (2010). Understanding the disciplines within the context of educational development. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 2010(122), 59-67.*

Taylor, K. L., & Bédard, D. (2010). Faculty development in Canadian universities. *Building teaching capacities in higher education. A comprehensive international model, 23-42.*

Thomson, K. (2015). Informal conversations about teaching and their relationship to a formal development program: learning opportunities for novice and mid-career academics. *International Journal for Academic Development, 20(2), 137-149.*

Tobin, G. A., & Begley, C. M. (2004). Methodological rigor within a qualitative framework. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 48(4), 388-396.*

Trigwell, K., Prosser, M., & Taylor, P. (1994). Qualitative differences in approaches to teaching first year university science. *Higher Education, 27(1), 75-84.*

Trotman, C. A., & Brown, B. E. (2005). Faculty recruitment and retention: Concerns of early and mid-career faculty. *TIAA-CREF Institute Research Dialogue, 86, 1-11.*

Trower, C. (2005). How do junior faculty feel about your campus as a work place? *Harvard Institutes for Higher Education: Alumni Bulletin.*

Uiboleht, K., Karm, M., & Postareff, L. (2016). How do university teachers combine different approaches to teaching in a specific course? A qualitative multi-case study. *Teaching in Higher Education, 21(7), 854-869.*

Umbach, P. D. (2007). How effective are they? Exploring the impact of contingent faculty on undergraduate education. *The Review of Higher Education, 30(2), 91-123.*

Umbach, P. D., & Wawrzynski, M. R. (2005). Faculty do matter: The role of college faculty in

- student learning and engagement. *Research in Higher Education*, 46(2), 153-184.
- Universities Canada. (2015, December 1). Universities/Facts and stats. Retrieved from <http://www.univcan.ca/universities/facts-and-stats/>
- Van Driel, J. H., Verloop, N., Van Werven, H. I., & Dekkers, H. (1997). Teachers' craft knowledge and curriculum innovation in higher engineering education. *Higher Education*, 34(1), 105-122.
- Van Maanen, J., & Barley, S. R. (1982). *Occupational communities: Culture and control in organizations*. Alfred P Sloan School of Management. Cambridge, MA.
- Vargas, M. P. B., & van Andel, T. (2005). The use of hemiepiphytes as craft fibres by indigenous communities in the Colombian Amazon. *Ethnobotany Research and Applications*, 3, 243-260.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher mental process*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1981). The genesis of higher mental functions. In J.V. Wertsch (Ed.), *The concept of activity in Soviet psychology* (pp. 144-188). Armonk, NY: Sharpe.
- Wagner, D., & Herbel-Eisenmann, B. (2014). Identifying authority structures in mathematics classroom discourse: A case of a teacher's early experience in a new context. *ZDM*, 46(6), 871-882.
- Walker, J. (2008). Social/corporate accountability: A university's 'Trek' towards excellence. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 38(2), 44-71.
- Weidman, J. C., Twale, D. J., & Stein, E. L. (2001). *Socialization of graduate and professional students in higher education: A perilous passage?* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Weimer, M. (2002). *Learner-centered teaching*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Wenger, E. (2015, April 15). *Communities of practice: A brief introduction*. Retrieved from

<http://wenger-trayner.com/introduction-to-communities-of-practice/>

- Wilhelmson, L. (2006a). Dialogue meetings as nonformal adult education in a municipal context. *Journal of Transformative Education*, 4(3), 243-256.
- Williams, D. A. (2013). *Strategic diversity leadership: Activating change and transformation in higher education*. Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.
- Winter, R. (2009). Academic manager or managed academic? Academic identity schisms in higher education. *Journal of higher education policy and management*, 31(2), 121-131.
- Wittman, P., Velde, B. P., Carawan, L., Pokorny, M., & Knight, S. (2008). A writer's retreat as a facilitator for transformative learning. *Journal of Transformative Learning*, 6(3), 201-211.
- Wolcott, H. F. (2001). *Transforming qualitative data: Description, analysis, and interpretation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Wolf, A. T. (2003). *Conflict and cooperation: Survey of the past and reflection for the future*. Paper prepared for the UNESCO/Green Cross International Program: "From Potential Conflict to Cooperation Potential: Water for Peace." Retrieved from http://webworld.unesco.org/water/wwap/pccp/cd/pdf/history_future_shared_water_resources/survey_water_conflicts_cooperation.pdf
- Wood, K. (2000). The experience of learning to teach: changing student professors' ways of understanding teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 32(1), 75-93.
- Wright, S., & Dinkha, J. (2009). Gendered reality, professional identity, and women of color in higher education. *When minorities are strongly encouraged to apply*, 103-118.
- Yep, G. A. (2014). Talking back: Shifting the discourse of deficit to a pedagogy of cultural wealth of international instructors in US classrooms. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, 2014(138), 83-91.
- Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. Beverley Hill, CA: SAGE

Publications.

- Yosso, T. J. (2005). Whose culture has capital? A critical race theory discussion of community cultural wealth. *Race Ethnicity and education*, 8(1), 69-91.
- Yourn, B. R., & Kirkness, A. (2003, July). Adapting to a new culture of education: Not just an issue for students. *Learning for an unknown future: proceedings of the 2003 Annual International Conference of the Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia (HERDSA)* (pp. 623-629). Christchurch, NZ.
- Yudkevich, M., Altbach, P. G., & Rumbley, L. E. (Eds.). (2016). *International faculty in higher education: Comparative perspectives on recruitment, integration, and impact*. Taylor & Francis.
- Zemsky, R., & Massy, W. F. (2004). *Thwarted innovation. What happened to e-learning and why*. A final report for the Weather station Project of the Learning Alliance at the University of Pennsylvania in cooperation with the Thomson Corporation, Pennsylvania. Retrieved from http://www.immagic.com/elibrary/archives/general/upenn_us/p040600z.pdf
- Zhang, M. (2014). Rapport and knowledge: Enhancing foreign instructor credibility in the classroom. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, 2014(138), 29-39.

APPENDIX A: ONLINE SURVEY

Your name:

Your faculty:

Where did you receive your undergraduate degree?

How many years have you been teaching in your current university?

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONS FOR THE FIRST INTERVIEW

Protocol for the First Interviews

Thank you for participating in the interview today.

The purpose of this study is to examine the teaching journeys of international early career professors. I want to begin the process by developing an accurate picture of your teaching journey.

There are a few housekeeping details to take care of before we begin the session. First of all, this interview is completely voluntary. You do not have to participate in this study. You may take a break in the middle of the interview if you wish. Please let me know if you'd like to take a stretch and we'll pause the interview for a few minutes. The session will be audio recorded. I will be transcribing the audio tapes into text format after the interviews.

You will not be identified by name in the audiotapes. Numbers will be used to protect your identity. The audiotapes will be stored for five years after the study, and then destroyed.

I truly appreciate your participation today.

Do you have any questions about the study before we begin?

Participant # _____, Common Interview #1

In the first part of the interview, I'm curious to know about any changes that you noticed during your teaching.

1. How do you define teaching? What do you consider good teaching?
2. Can you describe an hour of teaching? What comes before class? What happens in the classroom? What do you do after leaving the classroom?
3. Can you describe your teaching experience: how many years? Where? How many courses?
4. Did you feel a difference between teaching in Canada and teaching elsewhere?
5. Did you feel the need to change your teaching?
6. What was the disorienting event that made you feel you needed to transform your teaching?
7. Can you describe your role as a professor? What is your job? What do you do in the classroom? What is the most important thing you do as a professor? Who is responsible for the learning of the students?
8. Can you describe the role of the content? Where do you expect the students to use the content? Who decided on what to teach?
9. Can you describe the role of the evaluation? How many times? Do you give feedback? Do the students have the chance to prove their point of view? Peer assessment? Students' self-assessment?
10. Can you describe the role of the students? How do you expect them to be in the classroom? Do you take their feedback? What are your expectations about the engagement of the students? Do you think students have prior conceptions about the subject you are teaching? How do you deal with that?
11. Did the students' feedback have an impact on the way you were teaching?
12. Did the colleagues have an impact on the way you were teaching?
13. How did your previous experience (teaching and being a graduate student) affect the way you teach?
14. Do you research about teaching?
15. Did you receive any support for educational development?
16. Tell me about how you work with other professors, do you have much interaction with other teachers in the university? (Work with other teachers on curriculum planning, talk with other professors about teaching strategies, spend time together preparing lessons, talk or converse online with professors in other schools)
17. Compared to then, how much do you: (less than then, same as before, more now, never did)
 - Have students teach or help other students?
 - Have students explore a topic on their own, without direction?

- Have students review and revise their own work?
- Have students make predictions and investigate them?
- Have students work on long projects?

18. Given your experience to this time, what types of support would you liked to have had?

19. As you move forward, what kind of support and resources would you need?

APPENDIX C 1: OBSERVATION PROTOCOL

Setting:

Observer:

Role of the observer:

Date: Time:

Length of observation

| Description of the object | Reflective notes |
|------------------------------|------------------|
| Time allocated to lecture | |
| Group work | |
| Students engagement | |
| Student teacher interactions | |
| Types of activities | |

APPENDIX C 2: DEBRIEF DRAFT

The following questions will be used as a guide, however specific questions will emerge as a result of the class observations.

1. What do you feel worked well?
2. What were the instructional challenges that you faced in the lesson?
3. Did you find that you were making connections to the students given the Canadian context?
4. What would you change or modify for the next lesson?
5. Do you have anything else to add?

APPENDIX D: APPROACHES TO TEACHING INVENTORY

Approaches to Teaching Inventory

This inventory is designed to explore a dimension of the way that academics go about teaching in a specific context or subject or course. This may mean that your responses to these items in one context may be different to the responses you might make on your teaching in other contexts or subjects. For this reason we ask you to describe your context.

Please name the subject/course of your response:

For each item please circle one of the numbers (1-5). The numbers stand for the following responses:

- 1 - This item was only rarely or never true for me in this subject.
- 2 - This item was sometimes true for me in this subject.
- 3 - This item was true for me about half the time in this subject.
- 4 - This item was frequently true for me in this subject.
- 5 - This item was almost always or always true for me in this subject.

Please answer each item. Do not spend a long time on each; your first reaction is probably the best one.

1. In this subject, students should focus their study on what I provide them. 1 2 3 4 5
2. It is important that this subject should be completely described in terms of specific objectives that relate to formal assessment items. 1 2 3 4 5
3. In my interactions with students in this subject I try to develop a conversation with them about the topics we are studying. 1 2 3 4 5
4. It is important to present a lot of facts to students so that they know what they have to learn for this subject. 1 2 3 4 5
5. I set aside some teaching time so that the students can discuss, among themselves, key concepts and ideas in this subject. 1 2 3 4 5
6. In this subject, I concentrate on covering the information that might be available from key texts and readings. 1 2 3 4 5
7. I encourage students to restructure their existing knowledge in terms of the new way of thinking about the subject that they will develop. 1 2 3 4 5
8. In teaching sessions for this subject, I deliberately provoke debate and discussion. 1 2 3 4 5
9. I structure my teaching in this subject to help students to pass the formal assessment items. 1 2 3 4 5
10. I think an important reason for running teaching sessions in this subject is to give students a good set of notes. 1 2 3 4 5
11. In this subject, I provide the students with the information they will need to pass the formal assessments. 1 2 3 4 5
12. I should know the answers to any questions that students may ask me during this subject. 1 2 3 4 5

13. I make available opportunities for students in this subject to discuss their changing understanding of the subject. 1 2 3 4 5
14. It is better for students in this subject to generate their own notes rather than copy mine. 1 2 3 4 5
15. A lot of teaching time in this subject should be used to question students' ideas. 1 2 3 4 5
16. In this subject, my teaching focuses on the good presentation of information to students. 1 2 3 4 5
17. I see teaching as helping students develop new ways of thinking in this subject. 1 2 3 4 5
18. In teaching this subject it is important for me to monitor students' changed understanding of the subject matter. 1 2 3 4 5
19. My teaching in this subject focuses on delivering what I know to the students. 1 2 3 4 5
20. Teaching in this subject should help students question their own understanding of the subject matter. 1 2 3 4 5
21. Teaching in this subject should include helping students find their own learning resources. 1 2 3 4 5
22. I present material to enable students to build up an information base in this subject. 1 2 3 4 5

Scoring the inventory

From you scoring on the questionnaire please enter in the table each individual score.

Question Score

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Total: Given the information that you have, which of the five approaches best describes your teaching?

- Does this surprise you?
- Given the context and subject you are teaching, is this the best approach?
- If you wished to change your approach, how may you do it? (think here about the enabling factors and also what barriers there may be and how you may overcome them)
- How may your approaches to teaching fit with some of the emerging University teaching and learning strategies, such as enquiry based learning?
- If you teach another context or subject try doing the ATI again for that subject, are the results the same or different? What may this be telling you?
- These questions are intended to start the reflective process, you may think of others.

This Approaches to Teaching Inventory is used with the kind permission of Professor Keith Trigwell, University of Sydney.

APPENDIX E: A PRIORI CODES EXAMPLE

| | |
|--------------------|--|
| Code 1 | |
| Label | Role of the professor |
| Definition | What is expected of the professor before, during, and after the classroom session |
| Description | Transmitter of information, facilitator, social reform, help student construct their knowledge |
| Code 2 | |
| Label | Focus of the professor |
| Definition | What professors defines as the most important element in their teaching career, where they should put the most effort. |
| Description | The professor can focus on the agent of teaching, the role of the subject, the object of teaching, the act of teaching, or on changing their teaching. |

**APPENDIX F: ASSOCIATE DEAN OF TEACHING AND LEARNING (OR
EQUIVALENT) INTERVIEW**

- 1) What are the support programs available to newly hired professors?
- 2) What are the reasons behind having or not having programs that are designed for newly hired professors?
- 3) What are the expected results of the support?
- 4) Is it voluntary?
- 5) Are there any specific support programs for international professors?
- 6) Do the professors follow support programs in their first years of employment? Or is it more common for more established professors to follow these programs?
- 7) What are the support programs that are available to all professors?

APPENDIX G: FACILITATOR INTERVIEW

1. Description of the program.
2. Who is the target audience for the program?
3. What is the objective of the program?
4. How many professors attend the program?
5. In which stage of their career do they attend the program?
6. Do international professors attend the program?
7. What are the expected results of the program?
8. Is the program aimed at changing the practice of the professors?
9. Are the professors able to seek help after the end of the program?
10. Are there preparations before coming to the course?