TEACHING PRACTICES AND QUALITY IN GRADUATE EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF THE

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

BY

CHRISTINE ALLISON

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS

FOR THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Dr. JOAN DEJAEGHERE

JUNE 2020

Acknowledgments

As with all dissertations, this study was only possible due to the support of a large number of mentors, family, and friends who supported me in the process. Dr. David Chapman served as my adviser for several years and was instrumental in my decision to pursue a doctoral degree at the University of Minnesota. Since my first interaction with him in a virtual focus group in 2005, I have always valued (and often tried to emulate) his thoughtful and constructive approach to any problem presented to him. David has been an outstanding mentor and colleague from Minneapolis to Uganda and Vietnam, and words cannot adequately express my thanks for his support and encouragement.

Dr. Joan DeJaeghere served as my adviser for the final stages of the dissertation, and I very much appreciated her careful critique that served to strengthen the clarity and precision of the study. I also wish to thank Dr. Chris Johnstone, Dr. Robert Poch, and Dr. Carol Carrier for their willingness to serve on my preliminary and final committees and for the thoughtful feedback they provided at early, mid- and end-stages of the project.

In addition, Dr. Peter French provided invaluable assistance in reviewing drafts, providing encouragement, and acting as a sounding board through the long writing process. His humor and good counsel, from India to Kenya to Maine and New Jersey have been much appreciated.

I am truly indebted to Concepcion Pijano, the former Executive Director of the Philippine Accrediting Association of Schools, Colleges, and Universities, for her support throughout the process. This study would not have been possible

but for her support at all stages. Her expert review at multiple stages was indispensable for ensuring that my findings were grounded in the political and sociocultural context.

I am also exceedingly grateful for the hospitality, candor, and partnership offered by Angeles University Foundation and Saint Louis University in this project. Allowing such a study to be conducted requires strong leadership and a willingness to be open to critique, which is rarely offered as graciously as it was to me. I would especially like to thank Dr. Carmela Dizon, Dean of the Graduate School, Dr. Archimedes David, Vice President of Academic Affairs, and Dr. Joseph Emmanuel Angeles, President of Angeles University Foundation and Dr. Gaston Kibiten, Assistant Vice President for Research and Development, Dr. Jose Maria Pangilinan, Vice President for Academic Affairs, and Father Gilbert Sales, President of Saint Louis University for their unreserved support and kindness. I would also like to express my thanks to and admiration of all the faculty members who participated in this study. They are dedicated teachers with all the best hopes and intentions for their students, and their fortitude in persevering through months of uncertainty followed by significant changes to their work is commendable.

My family is very glad to be at the end of this long road, and I am most grateful to my husband, Paul Bunge, my daughter, Genevieve Bunge, and my parents, Carol and James Allison for supporting and tolerating my absences to conduct the field work and carve out time for writing. I also very much

appreciated the support provided by my team at JBS International, particularly Cynthia Currin, Kimberly Kingen, Rebekah Levi, and Lynn Losert for facilitating my absences for field work. I would also like to thank Caroline Fawcett and Ken Tolo for their mentorship and guidance and setting me on a winding path examining higher education from Indonesia to the Philippines. Finally, I would like to thank Amina Jaafar for being the best cohort-mate one could have hoped for and an amazing support through this journey. Thank you all for your support!

Abstract

While the Philippines' higher education sector has a long history distinguished by early adoption of quality assurance practices, the Philippines Development Plan 2017-2022 concluded that Philippine higher education institutions are ill-positioned to compete in the global higher education arena. The Government of the Philippines therefore mandated a shift to outcomes-based education (OBE) in all higher education programs starting in 2018, to improve the quality of education and the skills and knowledge of graduates and to improve alignment of Philippine higher education with ASEAN regional standards. This shift to OBE created an opportunity for critical scholarly inquiry into teaching practices, particularly in graduate education, given its role in producing researchers, innovators, and the next generation of scholars. Using a socioecological conceptual framework and a mixed methods approach, this study examines teaching practices in graduate education at two Philippine universities. It specifically focuses on how conceptions of quality, individual-level factors, discipline-specific practices, and institutional climate, as well as the national higher education environment, affect teaching practice in graduate education.

The study concludes that conceptions of quality are currently driven by external validation (accreditation, licensure rates, etc.) rather than internal benchmarks of quality enhancement. Respondents in the study associated 'evidence-based' approaches to teaching with high quality, but were not at all critical of the cultural assumptions that may have underpinned the evidence to which they referred. The findings support the arguments in the literature on

social practice theory that teaching is a socially situated practice, but not just within disciplinary networks as reflected in social network theory or specific work groups as reflected in community of practice theory, but also within specific institutional and cultural normative practices that are very effective in influencing teaching behaviors. Teaching practice is also situated within national political and policy frameworks that may influence teaching directly, for example, through professional development schemes, and indirectly through regulation of the higher education sector. While current reform efforts target a number of the key shortfalls identified in Philippines Development Plan 2017-2022, critical gaps remain that may undermine the intended impacts of the adoption of OBE.

Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Abbreviations

AQRF	ASEAN Qualifications Reference Framework
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
AUF	Angeles University Foundation
AUN	ASEAN University Network
CHED	Commission on Higher Education
MRA	Mutual Recognition Agreement
OBE	Outcomes-based Education
SLU	Saint Louis University

Chapter 1: Introduction

Higher education institutions have traditionally been split into two main tracks: the academic and theoretical track, and the vocational and applied track (Harpur, 2010). Over the past three decades, higher- and middle-income countries have experienced a significant expansion or massification of higher education, which requires segmentation of the sector by purpose (technical education to research) (Altbach P. , 2004). Another facet of the expansion of higher education in many countries has been the rapid expansion of private higher education institutions. New universities, colleges, and technical schools are being established to absorb the increase in demand beyond what the established institutions can meet (Jamshidi, Arasteh, Ebrahim, Zeinabadi, & Rasmussen, 2012). How these institutions are governed and regulated varies, but in many countries, private sector institutions are not accredited and are perceived to be of lower quality than the public institutions (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2014; Welch, 2011).

Massification, or the rapid expansion of higher education, has also required that institutions provide “quality” education to a much larger and increasingly diverse body of students, but in doing so, institutions are serving students who in the past would not have been able to attend, and in some cases, with weaker academic capabilities. The combination of stretching resources at existing institutions to serve more students, establishing new providers with offerings of varying quality, and the inclusion of students who may be less

academically prepared often reduces the overall quality of education (Altbach P. , 2004).

Concurrent with the massification of higher education, higher education became significantly more globalized, notably the expansion or refocusing of curricular content, staff and student flows, collaborative research, and credit transfer systems (Umemiya, 2008). Higher education institutions must compete for status not only nationally, but regionally and globally as barriers to trade and movement of labor decrease. Globalization of higher education is frequently presented as a positive development that creates more opportunities for staff and students and introduces competition that improves the quality of education (Brown R. , 2011). Many scholars, however, critique the discourse of globalization and the process it represents with regard to higher education (Marginson, 2006; Marginson & Sawir, 2005; Naidoo, 2008; Naidoo, 2010; Rizvi, 2007). These scholars conclude that globalization is not a natural course of events, rather ideology, finance, and media all play key roles in generating global discourse and global flows in higher education. Further, they assert that specific institutions (primarily in the U.S.) have significantly more power than other higher education institutions elsewhere in the world (Marginson and Sawir, 2005), which reinforces their position as the dominant actors in the global higher education arena to the detriment of those in the periphery who cannot compete with the incentives and resources they provide to scholars for teaching and research.

The global discourse on ’quality’ in higher education is dominated by

systems of ranking and the quality assurance approach as governments and multilateral institutions, such as the World Bank, advocate for and require certain types of evidence of effectiveness and efficiency. At that national level, these include effective governance and regulation of the higher education sector (including a mandate to support economic and social development), adequate support and transparency in public finance in the higher education sector, a system for independent accreditation of higher education institutions, and effective use of a national or regional tertiary education management information system (World Bank, 2016). While the principles of quality assurance are moving toward isomorphism across regions, quality assurance practices are developing in distinctly different patterns regionally, and regional quality assurance organizations are adopting different recommendations for member countries (Wells, 2014). ASEAN University Network's (AUN) Quality Assurance body has been active in laying out recommendations to harmonize quality assurance across member states to ensure that higher education guarantees a minimum quality standard that is consistent across the region (AUN, 2004; AUN, 2006; AUN, 2011). These standards include student-centered teaching competencies and student learning outcomes, which result in the active construction of meaning by the student. The adoption of outcomes-based education (OBE) as of 2018 is intended to begin to address these standards in Philippines.

The achievement of excellence in teaching practice in tertiary education in the Philippines requires the integration of indigenous cultural norms into the

conduct of academic programs to achieve international goals recognizing quality in its higher education system. The shift to OBE, along with concurrent education reforms at the secondary level offer an opportunity for this study to undertake a critical scholarly inquiry to examine how global 'best practices' in student-centered teaching can effectively apply within Philippine higher education.

Policy Context and Changes in Philippine Higher Education

The Philippines is a middle-income country of more than 100 million people in Southeast Asia, with a tertiary education sector comprising approximately 2,300 institutions serving 3.6 million students (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2020). In 2013, it undertook a wide-ranging initiative improve the quality of education at all levels – the K to 12 Transition Plan. Until 2016, Philippine secondary education ended at Grade 10, which required universities to offer general education courses to ensure that all students were adequately prepared for undergraduate courses in their major fields. As of the 2016-2017 school year, the secondary education system continues through Grade 12, providing Philippine universities a significant opportunity to strengthen both undergraduate and graduate programs. However, the realignment of secondary and tertiary education creates stresses within the university system, and particularly in graduate education, as the demand for better, more effective instruction in new and more advanced programs in teaching and research cannot be met without additional resources.

The Commission on Higher Education's (CHED) 2011-2016 Strategic Plan set the initial priorities for the higher education sector to improve the relevance of higher education and to improve the quality towards international standards (Commission on Higher Education, 2011). Philippines has a history of focusing on quality assurance in higher education longer than any other country in Southeast Asia with the Philippines Accrediting Association of Schools, Colleges and Universities (PAASCU) being established in 1957 (modeled on U.S. accreditation systems). In addition, three Philippine institutions are active members of the Council on Higher Education Accreditation International Quality Group (out of six from Southeast Asia – the others representing Hong Kong, Thailand, and Malaysia).

In spite of the focus on quality, however, changes in Philippine higher education have been uneven over the past two decades. On the positive side, scientific and technical publications from the Philippines have increased dramatically in recent years – almost tripling from 2000 to 2014 (World Bank, 2016), and since 2010, enrollment in both Masters level programs and doctoral level programs has more than doubled between 2010 and 2017 (from 99,823 to 236,351 in Masters programs and from 11,078 to 23,827 in doctoral programs) (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2020), likely driven in part by the K to 12 Transition Program.

Despite those achievements, the Philippines lags behind its neighbors in Southeast Asia in terms of enrollment in graduate programs, publications in

Scopus-indexed journals, and engagement in regional or international disciplinary networks. These indicators do not necessarily address the quality of teaching, the focus of this study, and metrics frequently used as proxies for quality and effective student learning in primary and secondary education, such as survival rates, on time completion, or results of comparative international assessments of learning (such as the Program for International Student Assessment, Progress in International Reading Literacy Study, Trends in Mathematics and Science Study, learning-adjusted years of schooling) are not readily available for tertiary education. Recent qualitative assessments by the Philippines National Economic Development Agency concluded, however, that Philippine higher education institutions are ill-positioned to compete in the global higher education arena (National Economic Development Agency, 2017, p. 145). The most recent Philippines Development Plan 2017-2022 (National Economic Development Agency, 2017) states that, “The higher education system is beset by stubborn issues which, in light of 21st century challenges, require urgent, tactical, and transformative solutions” (p. 143). The Plan then goes on to detail weaknesses in the production of researchers and innovators, lack of advanced degrees among teaching personnel, teacher-centered approaches, “underdeveloped 21st century competencies” (p. 144), and the misapplication of quality standards to and within universities, specifically reliance on publications in peer-reviewed journals as a proxy for quality (p. 144).

In response to the weaknesses identified in the higher education system,

the Government of the Philippines has undertaken a range of initiatives to address them. The K to 12 Transition, implemented in 2016, effectively eliminated incoming freshmen classes for two years (academic years 2016 and 2017), and presumably created an opportunity to allow faculty to pursue advanced degrees, research opportunities, or other professional development activities. The Philippines' Commission on Higher Education (CHED) provided additional competitive funding for Institutional Development and Innovation Grants (CMO no. 33, series of 2016), Scholarships for Graduate Studies (CMO No. 03, series of 2016), Instruction, Research and Sectoral Engagement Grants (CMO No. 14, series of 2016), and Foreign Scholarships for Graduate Studies (CMO No. 22, series of 2016). Combined, these funding sources were intended to ensure that most if not all university teaching staff had graduate degrees. Furthermore, they aimed to improve internal quality assurance systems, organizational structuring, research and extension, academic offerings, industry linkages, and internationalization initiatives, all of which could contribute significantly to quality improvement of higher education institutions. It is not clear, however, that these investments will be sufficient to ensure that the deficiencies in tertiary education cited above can be overcome.

A shift to outcomes-based education.

Concurrent with the K to 12 Transition Program, CHED also mandated a shift to OBE starting in 2018, to further improve the quality of education and the skills and knowledge of graduates. The purpose of the shift to OBE is to ensure

that graduates of higher education have demonstrated the application of the knowledge they gained through their courses of study through specific behaviors and outputs appropriate to each discipline, thereby assuring potential employers that they will be able to apply their learning in the future as well. OBE assists in aligning Philippine higher education with the ASEAN Qualifications Reference Framework (AQRF) and the Mutual Recognition Agreements (MRAs) among ASEAN nations pertaining to education. As of the time that the data for this study were collected, little guidance had been developed as yet for most disciplines, but the anticipated shift had activated planning processes within universities to bring their courses and programs into alignment with new requirements. The forthcoming change had, however, created an opportunity and a need for university teaching staff to reflect on their teaching practices and consider how those might change with a new framework of skills and outputs expected of their students. This study took advantage of that opportunity for reflection to engage with university administrators, deans, graduate program coordinators, and professors regarding the exploration of their teaching practices, the influences that inform those practices, and their perceptions of quality in teaching.

Teaching practice (defined for this study as the approaches used to expand content mastery, technical skills for the discipline, research methods, and critical thinking and inquiry skills within disciplinary frameworks) at the graduate level is critical to improving the production of researchers and innovators, to

expanding the pool of advanced degree holders, and training teaching personnel to use a range of student-centered approaches in Philippine higher education institutions.

Although the literature makes clear that institutional processes and practices are critical regardless of the ultimate aims of higher education (Belloc, 2003; Chapman, Austin, Farah, Wilson, & Ridge, 2014; Postiglione, 2010; Rice & Austin, 1988; Varghese, 2004), how these interact with individual characteristics and behaviors and disciplinary norms is not as well understood. It is clear that recent efforts in the Philippines to improve teaching quality varies across institutions and disciplines, and many talented scholars and students have taken advantage of the myriad programs available to them, but the impacts on Philippine institutions are not well understood. Finally, it is not clear how local social or gender norms may influence teaching epistemology and modes of classroom interaction. OBE requires student-centered teaching approaches, but some scholars have noted they are in conflict with local behavioral norms (Guthrie, 1990).

Research Questions

The focus of this study is specifically on graduate education, as its role in preparing professors and instructors for all other areas of tertiary education is central to overcoming the deficiencies in higher education institutions cited above. Given the limitations of current scholarship in examining how and in what ways individual, disciplinary, and institutional factors on teaching practice in

higher education in non-Western settings, this study describes the influences on teaching practices in graduate education in selected Philippine higher education institutions and how these factors are reshaped in Philippine institutional and sociocultural contexts. To do that, five main research questions are answered in this study:

1. How do teaching staff understand ‘quality’ in graduate education and in their teaching practice?
2. How do individual characteristics, such as teaching philosophy and expectations about relationships between professors and students, contribute to differences in teaching practice?
3. How do disciplinary norms and practices inform teaching practice?
4. How do institutional climate and culture affect teaching practice?
5. How relevant are key factors at the individual, disciplinary, and institutional levels identified in the dominant Western literature as critical to effective teaching within the institutional and sociocultural realities of Filipino teaching staff in graduate programs?

Conceptual Framework for the Study

Education at the graduate level can potentially be a driver for improving quality of education within an institution. While numerous frameworks exist for explaining various dimensions of quality in higher education (for example, Landfried, 2004; Fox, 2002; Green, 2003; Hallinger, 2010; Hofer, 2002; Cook & Kaplan, 2011; Brown, 1993; Becher, 1991), most of them were developed in

Western settings with a tacit underlying Western value structure that may or may not be valid in other cultural contexts. The Philippines' higher education system is closely aligned with Western systems, but its culture is distinct, and it serves as a good case to examine the relevance of Western frameworks in non-Western settings.

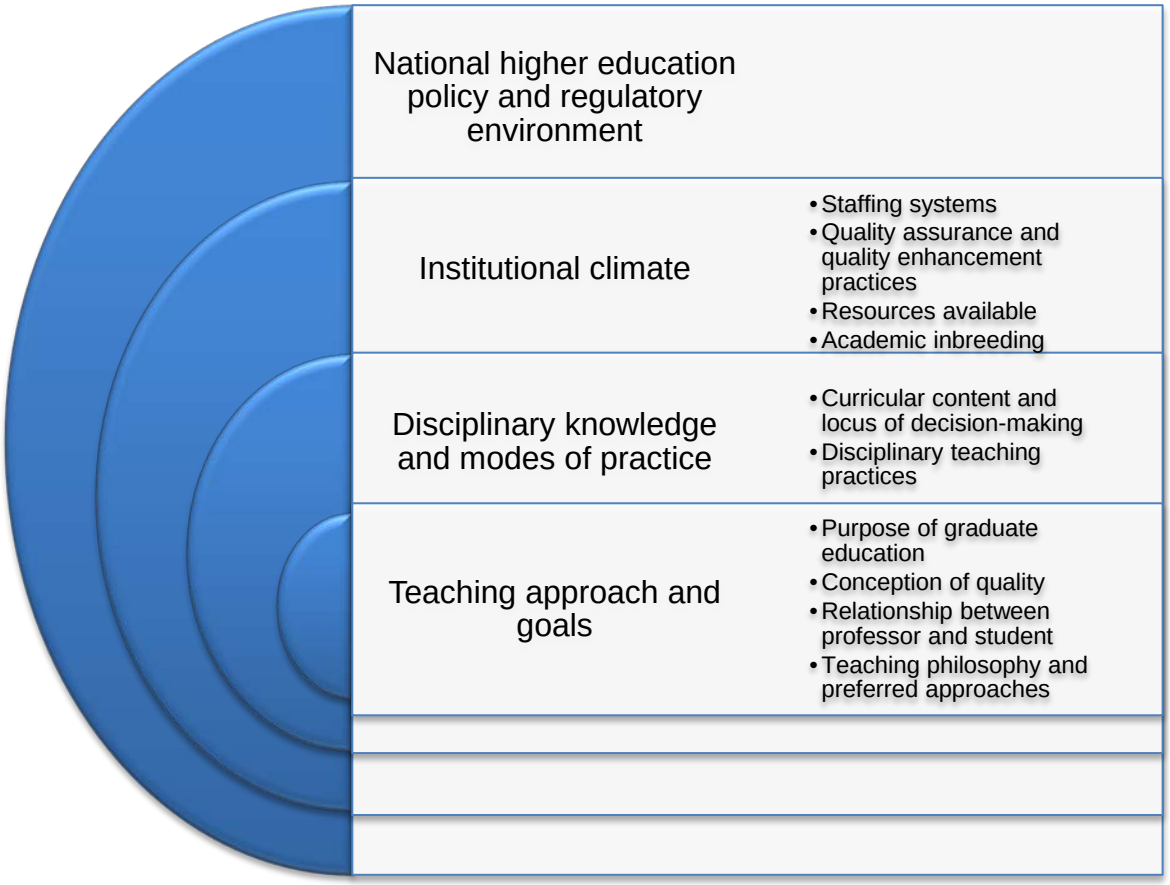
To examine this issue more thoroughly, this study uses a conceptual framework based on a socioecological model, which is a framework based on ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) commonly used in behavioral health and some education studies (Roxa & Martensson, 2013) to understand the sources of influence on behaviors of interest (in this case, teaching practices) and mitigating or aggravating factors. In working through each of the model's layers - the individual, disciplinary, and institutional factors, as well as the larger political and sociocultural context in which graduate education occurs – it enables researchers to correctly identify the source of particular issues and to develop programmatic or policy responses to them. This provides a basis to understand how each of those levels affects the practices of teaching staff and offers insight as to whether or not the types of investments being made are sufficient to achieve the goals outlined in the Philippines Development Plan.

Figure 1 below provides an integrated view of how specific beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors form the core of individual teaching practices. Central to the framework is an individual's teaching approach and philosophy (Schweisfurth, 2013; Weinstein, 2002; Brown, 1993), which is rarely addressed in

government and donor discussions of improving quality. Additionally, an individual's personal and professional goals are another important factor at this level because they will influence how an individual engages with others through the institution – students, peers, leadership, and external partners. The second layer of influence is the disciplinary knowledge and modes of practice that accompany it. As different fields are subject to different (and varied) ontological and epistemological assumptions (Becher, 1991), approaches to teaching are informed by those assumptions. The third layer is the climate and culture of the institution itself in which teaching staff are working. The unique circumstances created by the leadership, governance, mission, management, and practices of the institution can produce very different results in educational outcomes (Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013). Notably, critical factors influencing outcomes at this level include the resources available, the degree of academic inbreeding, and the scope of incentives offered that align with individuals' goals to affect how teaching occurs in the classroom. Misalignments or disconnects between these three layers result in suboptimal teaching practice.

Figure 1

Conceptual framework for understanding perceptions of teaching quality in Philippine graduate education



Further, the whole model is embedded in the national and international higher education contexts. The national context heavily influences institutional climate within public institutions as budgets, staffing systems, and quality assurance requirements are based on government allocations and requirements. Disciplinary knowledge and modes of practice are also heavily influenced by both national and international contexts in Philippines. Dominant Western universities and scholars are often most influential in establishing and reimagining approaches to teaching and disciplinary boundaries (Marginson and Sawir, 2005; Rizvi, 2007; Takayama, 2011). However, as part of the adoption of OBE, CHED has developed new curriculum standards and requirements for each discipline at

accredited universities based on the Philippines National Qualifications Framework, which going forward will constitute an important element of how disciplinary knowledge is advanced in Philippine universities. The National Qualifications Framework, however, is aligned with those of all other ASEAN nations and heavily influenced by international perspectives. Finally, national and local sociocultural contexts influence each of these layers in different ways; for example, dictating social norms for interpersonal interaction influences relationships between students, professors, and administrators.

This layered model provides a framework for understanding how each layer affects teaching practice in higher education and the tensions that emerge from conflicting values and incentives at the different levels. Three bodies of literature, reviewed and synthesized in Chapter 2, are useful in preparing for this task: (1) scholarship on conceptions of quality and teaching practices in higher education; (2) research on the inculcation of disciplinary knowledge and modes of practices; and (3) scholarship on the institutional climate and culture and how it affects faculty performance.

Positionality of the Researcher

I was well qualified to carry out this study as I had been fortunate to work on higher education programs in the Southeast Asian region since 2011. Through these projects, I had had the opportunity to become familiar with the overarching structure, governance, financing, and quality assurance practices within the Philippine higher education system. I had conducted interviews and

focus groups with the senior and mid-level leadership in a range of the higher education institutions in the region, through which I had had the opportunity to learn what challenges they believe they face in ensuring high quality teaching and learning (for a list of relevant studies and evaluations, please see Appendix 2). My direct contact with Philippine higher education institutions had been limited to three, but two of those are Angeles University Foundation and Saint Louis University, the sites selected for this study. As English is the language of higher education in Philippine universities, the study was conducted in English.

Significance of the Study

This dissertation begins to fill the gap in the current scholarship by focusing on how graduate level teaching staff in selected disciplines in Philippine universities conceptualize high-quality teaching and what they view as the most important sources of influence on those perceptions. This study further examines how teaching staff operationalize their concept of high-quality teaching, the influence of each layer of the model on their teaching practice, and specific constraints teaching staff face as they try to adapt their teaching practice to achieve outcomes aligned with their perceptions of 'world class' quality within their discipline. Finally, this study identifies the gaps that remain in the operationalization of high-quality teaching at selected Philippine universities.

To understand the factors that influence high quality teaching in Philippine higher education institutions, it is useful to situate this study in the history of

higher education in Philippines, the impact of globalization on higher education in Philippines, and the limitations of the current research.

History of Higher Education in Philippines

Little information on education systems is documented in Philippine history prior to the Spanish colonization of the archipelago in the late 1500s, but there is extensive evidence of trade with Chinese, Japanese, Malay, and Mongol traders, which signals potential influences from these countries. As in Spain at the time, education was provided for the elite, and separate grammar schools were created for boys and girls by various Catholic orders starting in the 1590s (Ricklefs, Lockhart, Lau, Reyes, & Aung-Thwin, 2010). Some of those initial grammar schools developed into higher education institutions that are among the top ranked in the country (Ateneo de Manila University and the University of Santo Tomas). Patterns of schooling continued to develop across the country over the Spanish colonial period, with the Educational Decree of 1863 forming a new legal basis for compulsory, fee-based primary education in all towns. As an insufficient number of schools were built and many families could not afford the fees, education was far from universal. Shortly thereafter, in 1865, the first normal school to train teachers was opened (Ricklefs, Lockhart, Lau, Reyes, & Aung-Thwin, 2010). This, along with the other centers of higher education at the time (Ateneo and Santo Tomas) established Manila as the center of higher education in the country. Furthermore, the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 facilitated regular steamboat traffic between Philippines and Spain, expanding

opportunities for exchange and study in Spanish universities to wealthy Filipino students and creating networks through which theories and ideas were shared, advanced, and reformed.

After the U.S. annexation of the Philippines in 1898, the Philippine Commission established free, compulsory primary education in the country in 1901, and, in order to fill the gap in the trained teacher cadre, recruited 600 American teachers to work in the Philippines (Republic of the Philippines Department of Education, 2019), and English was imposed as the language of instruction. Under American rule, in 1902, the Philippine Commission established additional tertiary education institutions to expand education in arts and trade, nursing, agriculture, commerce, and marine sciences, and in 1903 began providing funding for hundreds of scholarships to U.S. higher education institutions to study medicine, law, and education. In 1908, the University of the Philippines was established on the American model of higher education, and use of English language facilitated academic, scientific, and cultural exchange with the United States (Ricklefs, Lockhart, Lau, Reyes, & Aung-Thwin, 2010).

As World War II began, the Philippines was an early target for Japan, and it succeeding in invading Manila in 1942, and under Military Order No. 2, it provided for a re-envisioned education system that used Tagalog and Japanese instead of English, eliminated American cultural values from its curriculum and materials, and promoted vocational education over general tertiary education. Student enrollment dropped precipitously in this time and teaching practices did

not conform to Japanese expectations (Ricklefs, Lockhart, Lau, Reyes, & Aung-Thwin, 2010). After the U.S. defeated the Japanese in the Philippines in 1944, previous structures and policies were reinstated, and the country prepared for full independence on July 4, 1946, as scheduled in the 1934 Tydings-McDuffie Act. Even as the colonial period ended, the new government remained linked to the United States through free trade and economic cooperation under the Bell Act and through continued military cooperation under the Military Assistance Pact and Mutual Defense Treaty. The benefits of these linkages, however, were concentrated among the elite, and failed to bring broad-based benefits to Philippine society (Ricklefs, Lockhart, Lau, Reyes, & Aung-Thwin, 2010).

After independence, the Department of Education was established in 1947 (Republic of the Philippines Department of Education, 2019). Among its earliest work was the Filipinization of educational outlook, objectives, and teaching materials, which was undertaken to reduce foreign influences and encourage nationalism in the education of Filipinos (Ricklefs, Lockhart, Lau, Reyes, & Aung-Thwin, 2010). After a series of reorganizations and name changes, supervision of education was reorganized into a trifocal system in 1994, which established CHED and the Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA) as the agencies with oversight authority for academic and vocational tertiary education, respectively, while the Department of Education, Culture and Sports retains oversight over primary and secondary education (Republic of the Philippines Department of Education, 2019).

Despite the investments made in tertiary education over the past 30 years (ranging from a high of 3.13 percent of all government spending in 1996 to a low of 1.45 percent in 2007, recovering slightly to 1.58 percent in 2009, the last year for which data are available (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2020)), quality stagnated over time, partnerships between Philippine and foreign universities remained limited, and only a handful of small projects to advance or support higher education have been funded by the World Bank, Asian Development Bank, or other donors (compared to numerous large-scale projects to support primary and secondary education). Those investments have been very limited in reach and in impact given the size of the higher education sector (increasing from 1.5 million students to 3.6 million students between 1990 and 2017 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2020)) and the expectations of it.

Philippine universities have also not been strongly connected with foreign universities; university partnerships have not been leveraged in the Philippines as they have in other countries to improve the quality of higher education. In a 2011 review of 374 funded university partnerships in Asia over the past four decades, only 11 involved universities in the Philippines, which was much smaller than for the other countries with large populations such as China, India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Indonesia, Vietnam, and even much smaller countries such as Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, and Uzbekistan (Tolo, Method, French, Rhodes, & Allison, 2011).

Conclusion

The Philippines' recent adoption of OBE to align with the Philippines National Qualifications Framework and ASEAN University Network standards combined with the two-year gap in incoming classes as a result of the K to 12 Transition created a unique opportunity to examine how quality teaching is understood in graduate education and the factors that influence it at individual, disciplinary, and institutional levels. This chapter provided a brief overview of the current situation of higher education in the Philippines as context. The next chapter will review the literature that is available to frame how conceptions of quality, teaching philosophies, disciplinary knowledge and modes of practice, and institutional climate affect teaching practice in higher education.

Chapter 2: The Basis for Quality Teaching Practice in Higher Education

This chapter examines three bodies of scholarship that inform different elements of the conceptual framework. First, the study examines competing conceptions of quality in higher education and the processes used to "achieve" quality. Then it reviews the literature on different approaches to teaching practice within higher education and what teaching practice represents within disciplines and within institutions. Finally, it discusses the evidence of how institutional supports or constraints affect teaching practice. The central argument developed through this review is that in order to begin to address problems of quality, teaching must be recognized as a socially situated practice that is influenced (consciously and unconsciously, intentionally and unintentionally) by many factors, represented by the conceptual framework introduced in Chapter One.

Competing Conceptions of Quality and Teaching Practice within Higher Education

Conceptions of quality of education vary, and measures of quality are often determined based on assumptions about the purpose of education. One purpose would be to ensure students gain knowledge based on a set of established criteria, while another would be to advance knowledge and practice within and across disciplines. Two distinct approaches to quality—quality assurance and quality enhancement—represent competing ideas of external and internal accountability, typically supported by government and the academy respectively (Land & Gordon, 2013). External quality assurance seeks to ensure

that higher education institutions meet minimum standards in key areas of performance, typically both academic and managerial, and is demonstrated through accreditation by regional, national, or international bodies. This form of quality is frequently of greater concern to policymakers. Internal quality assurance generally focuses on efficiency and effectiveness; does it do what it purports to do at a reasonable cost? It also establishes feedback loops for personnel and support systems to address performance that falls below established minimum standards. Quality assurance systems therefore may yield improvements among the weakest areas of performance (including teaching) but by themselves do not encourage innovation in practice or support the advancement of knowledge in a discipline or field. Quality enhancement focuses on improvements to the knowledge paradigm and the epistemic paradigm of a discipline or field, and some scholars argue, provides the means by which benchmarks are set for quality assurance (Campbell & Carayannis, 2013). Quality enhancement is a subjective, discipline- or field-specific approach to improving quality in higher education and, as it relates to teaching, focuses on maximizing student learning through a process of context-specific assessment and adjustments to curriculum and teaching practice. In a graduate program setting, for example, this could result in the addition of emergent research methods courses, independent studies, or doctoral seminars focused on varied epistemologies within a field.

Drawing on economics and viewing education as a good to be consumed, scholars, using positivist research approaches, suggest that quality of education can be rated by customer satisfaction metrics using quality assurance feedback loops. In this approach, the student (and his or her family) becomes a customer, while teaching staff become service providers who must be responsive to their customer base. Thus, this is defended as a student-centered approach to higher education. Providing 'consumers' with more information and creating choice in the higher education arena could, it is assumed, "break through the thick crust of faculty inertia and bring about some real progress in university teaching and learning" (Bok, 2003, p. 102), better serving the needs of students.

Responsiveness to the customer is frequently achieved through the institution of student course evaluations, which some claim are instrumental in providing feedback that improves teaching (Hallinger, 2010). Bartlett (2011) posits that when introduced appropriately, the use of course evaluations can "intensify the level of engagement that both the teacher and student have in the pedagogical relationship" (p. 47) because it is assumed that students will be motivated to learn (as they have chosen to purchase a service) and teachers will respond to the needs of students in order to ensure repeat business or referrals, which should improve teaching and learning.

Scholars from a critical perspective, however, view the reliance on customer satisfaction as a metric for teaching quality and performance as a poor choice because much of what teachers ask of students is hard work, and

students are frequently not in a position to judge what they need to know (Fox, 2002; Hayes, 2002). As Fox notes, “pandering to the lowest common denominator in the name of listening to students has dire consequences for what a higher education really amounts to these days” (2002, p. 133). Hayes (2002) agrees that as students do not have the knowledge to critique the content of a course, any critique is then limited to delivery and its entertainment value. Some also critique Hallinger’s (2010) claim that student-centered approaches, such as using student evaluations of courses, improve the quality of education. They state that the overemphasis on students as consumers has resulted in “easier assessment methods and the inflation in the number and class of degrees issued to ensure that customers’ expectations are satisfied” (Fox, 2002, p. 130), but it has failed to improve the quality of the education students receive. Another problematic aspect of the reliance on satisfaction surveys or course evaluations is the immediate versus the long-term utility of what a student learns. The utility of “some learning is not immediately obvious for students but may become apparent in the very long term” (Maringe, 2011, p. 150).

Many critical scholars would agree with Becher’s (1991) assertion that “In both teaching and research, it can be held that quality is a proper subject for qualitative judgment rather than for quantitative measurement” (p. 152). Advocates of quality enhancement believe peer review is a more effective means of assessing performance. Although peer reviewers may have differing degrees of specialization around a particular topic (thereby making some judgments less

informed than others) or may use different standards to judge academic rigor, they are more likely to be familiar with the content and practice than external parties, such as students or policy makers. They are also able to use peer review to advance both the knowledge and the practice of the field through critical reflection on teaching practices.

While there may be extensive debate about how quality may be defined or assessed, much of the current literature about quality and quality teaching in higher education has been developed in the United States and Europe, with limited study of how these concepts and approaches to assessing quality translate into non-Western settings. Most universities in Philippines have introduced student course evaluations over the past two decades, as accrediting agencies have included assessment of those as one metric for quality assurance. They have also introduced observation of teaching by deans or graduate program coordinators as another metric. It is not clear, however, the extent to which the course evaluations or the observation reports are effective in capturing useful data, nor the extent to which they are used by teaching staff to improve their own teaching practice, much less whether or not they are used within departments or programs to advance teaching practice within the discipline. It will therefore be useful to collect qualitative data on professors' perceptions of what constitutes high quality graduate education and to understand the extent to which professors find those course evaluations useful, as well as quantitative data to

understand how widespread use of those course evaluations is and what other methods professors use to assess their teaching practice.

Teaching Philosophies

Despite general agreement on the cognitive processes involved in knowledge construction, scholars extensively debate which teaching practices are most appropriate in the higher education environment, transmission-focused approaches or student-centered approaches. Scholars who defend transmission-focused approaches, particularly in developing countries, note what Guthrie (1990) described as key issues around cultural norms (particularly hierarchy and respect for elders) and lack of systemic support to shift to (time, supplies and equipment, alignment of standardized tests, and limited support from Ministries of Education) in addition to the fact that these methods have been effectively used for a long time in many settings. Advocates of student-centered approaches cite their strength in delivering what Schweisfurth (2013) characterizes as cognition (greater individual control but guided process of learning), emancipation (freedom from oppressive forms of control that limits knowledge), and preparation (recognition of the changing nature of knowledge in contemporary life). Each views the role of teacher and student somewhat differently, and both may be potential sources of influence for teaching staff in higher education institutions in Philippines.

Transmission-focused approaches.

A range of different teaching ideologies can be categorized as transmission-focused teaching, including behaviorism (drawing on Pavlov, Watson, and Guthrie), radical behaviorism (drawing on B.F. Skinner), cognitivism (drawing on Neisser and Gardner), and essentialism. In each of these approaches, the student is more or less passive and receives information from the instructor. Behaviorism focuses on observable, public behavior and is fundamentally concerned with "achieving an understanding of behavior in terms of the purported internal processes that are responsible for it" (Moore, 1995, p. 62), in this case, exhaustively defined intervening variables. In higher education, this would include, for example, program structure, physical classroom settings and resources, teaching methods, and standards for assessment (among others), all of which would be structured to elicit the desired behaviors from students – demonstration of knowledge learned in pre-determined sequence and hierarchy. Skinner's radical behaviorism considers both public (observable) and private behavioral processes, including verbal processes (what is said as well as what is done). Cognitivism differs in that it takes into account both observable behaviors and mental states and mental phenomena of the individual (Moore, 1995), allowing that learning is an internal process and a transformation of existing knowledge as opposed to a response to specific stimuli. Essentialism assumes a body of knowledge based on truth that should be transmitted to learners.

Some forms of transmission-focused education also have moral or religious aspects. In addition to being master of the knowledge to be imparted and the model for how that content should be imparted, the teacher is a moral leader and role model beyond the classroom and discipline (Jaafar, et al., 2012). In these cases, the teacher is in the role of unquestioned authority, and learning is highly teacher-centered, which "reflect[s] markedly hierarchical relations between the learned and the learner" (Ma, 2014, p. 66) and has significant consequences for what is expected of individuals as they embody the role of teacher. Students are supposed to be "mentally engaged" (Ma, 2014, p. 66), but rarely have any opportunity for group discussion or hands-on learning projects. Interactions are largely teacher to student with little to no peer to peer learning and limited student to teacher interaction. Given that many universities in the Philippines are religiously affiliated (and in some cases, administered directly by religious institutions), it will be useful to understand whether or not faculty members view themselves as moral role models (in addition to being intellectual role models), and whether they perceive any tension with the introduction of OBE and required student-centered learning approaches.

Student-centered approaches.

Recent student-centered approaches to teaching are based in ideals of progressivism and social constructivism. Progressivism (drawing on Dewey and Cremin) describes learning as the consequence of series upon series of experimental activities through which the learner accumulates knowledge

(Mosier, 1952). Social constructivist teaching approaches are predicated on the importance of the teacher and student co-constructing knowledge (Weinstein, 2002), based on Vygotsky's (1978) theory that learning is a social process in which learners interact with their environment and more knowledgeable others to gradually internalize concepts and skills. While both progressivism and social constructivism place the teacher in the role of facilitator or mentor, social constructivism focuses on learning in social groups as opposed to learning as an individual enterprise. Social constructivist teaching approaches are student-centered and labor-intensive because teaching staff must interact with groups of students in a meaningful way. These approaches are relevant across disciplinary fields and epistemological stances because they allow the teacher to interact in ways that they think most appropriate with students. The teacher models the behavior expected of the students, which contributes to the inculcation of disciplinary modes of practice (Roxa & Martensson, 2013). It is also incumbent on the teacher to have a more holistic understanding of their fields. As Trigwell (2011) concluded:

> Teachers who were unable to explain their understanding of their subject matter as a cohesive whole were more likely to experience their teaching as a process of transferring and delivering discrete parts and topics with a dominant focus on themselves as teachers rather than on their students as learners (p. 2).

One of the reasons student-centered approaches have become so popular in Western higher education is their perceived success in ensuring better student outcomes. Student-centered approaches focus on longer-term meaning, understanding and application (Trigwell, Prosser, & Waterhouse, Relations between teachers' approaches to teaching and students'approaches to learning, 1999), as opposed to short-term reproduction or recitation of transmitted information. Particularly among students who may be less academically prepared than their peers, social constructivism helps students learn how to learn effectively (Weinstein, 2002) and encourages teaching staff to adopt methods that meet the needs of different learning styles. Two of those methods that merit specific mention are mentoring, which supports the student with personalized attention and advice, and authentic assignments, which allow the student to identify real-life situations or to select constructs of specific interest to them to be analyzed in their course work. These approaches enable teaching staff to address a range of motivational issues. While many students may hope to perform well in a class, for example, few may truly wish to master the material. The ways in which assignments are constructed and graded (criterion-referenced, for example) can improve the alignment of mastery and performance goals tacitly and potentially improve students' learning (Hofer, 2002). As the goal of OBE is to strengthen not only what students learn, but to demonstrate that they have competence in utilizing and applying that knowledge in various settings, depending on their course of studies, the approaches faculty use to

engage students, to construct assignments, and to assess learning will be critical to help students achieve the application and utilization of the knowledge gained.

One significant drawback to student-centered approaches, however, is the large amount of time required to prepare lesson plans and interact effectively with students. While many teaching staff in U.S. universities teach two to three courses per semester, with an expectation that they will begin preparing for them no fewer than three months in advance (McKeachie, 2002), teaching staff in universities in many developing countries teach six or more courses per semester and have higher student-teacher ratios than in western universities (Asian Development Bank, 2011). Under these circumstances, it is difficult to imagine that teaching staff would have sufficient time to give each course and student the attention required by any of the student-centered approaches (Vavrus, Bartlett, & Salema, 2013).

As Vygotsky (1978) emphasized the sociocultural nature of learning, social constructivist approaches contain inherent assumptions about interpersonal relations and cultural hierarchical norms. Student-centered approaches have been used in Western settings to decrease the power differentials between teachers and students in higher education setting (Ropers-Huilman, 1998), but their use elsewhere may be problematic as many countries have differing ideological traditions and teaching practices will have different outcomes where institutional climate and culture differ (Thanh, 2012).

Student-centered activities may also be used to some extent in conjunction with transmission-focused approaches. For example, scholars from an essentialist tradition suggest that collaborative learning is a useful tool, but they define it as collaboration among students, after the teacher has imparted new knowledge (usually through lecture) (Haris, Kassim, Yusof, & Kassim, 2011). This approach makes the role of the teacher one of authority – one not easily questioned or challenged without consequences given the difference in hierarchical or moral standing – and not a co-constructor of knowledge. Therefore, it is important to understand the difference between using student-centered activities and using student-centered approaches in teaching.

Significant research has also been conducted on the individual factors and variables that contribute to or constrain effective use of student-centered approaches. Some scholars have examined demographic and experiential indicators, such as sex, nationality (in a multicounty study, a proxy for cultural norms), status and teaching experience, educational training, and main teaching method in the course and discipline, but found them to not be significant in influencing teaching practice in Western countries (Stes, Gijbels, & Van Petegem, 2007). Given the dearth of information about how those factors might be relevant in non-Western settings, it will be useful to use quantitative and qualitative data to examine the extent to which these factors seem to influence teaching practice in graduate education.

Although there is little literature specifically on teaching approaches among staff at Philippine universities, most higher education teaching staff in Philippines likely rely predominantly on transmission-centered approaches, both as a result of their academic training and the resources available to them within their institutions given the number of courses and students they teach (see discussion below). Since the Philippines Development Plan 2017-2022 (National Economic Development Agency, 2017) clearly identified transmission-centered teaching approaches as one of the systemic weaknesses that must be addressed, professors were likely aware that they were expected to shift into more student-centered approaches, and rhetoric may not match reality. Thus, it will be important to draw on in-depth qualitative information from respondents on what student-centered means to them in their context and how they operationalize that in the classroom in order to distinguish between use of student-centered activities and student-centered approaches.

Changing modes of delivery.

A final consideration for transmission-focused versus student-focused teaching approaches is that course delivery has changed significantly over the past 30 years as well. Influenced by vocational and on-the job training models, teaching staff have felt pressure to reduce in-depth disciplinary knowledge to pithy, formulaic maxims and teaching to technique so that course content can be “modularized and delivered just in time” or on demand (Ward, 2012, p. 127). Digitization has contributed to this pressure and changed the pedagogical

process in other ways. Early forays into online learning included both for-profit and no-cost models, but the latter have given way to for-profit models of online learning (Harpur, 2010). These models, frequently adopted by well-regarded institutions, are market-driven with the intent to generate revenue from non-degree seeking students and to improve image and market share in a global education market (Bok, 2003). These initiatives achieve the goal of delivering quality higher education if the metrics are responsiveness to consumers and increased efficiency (and perhaps increased brand name recognition); however, it is not clear in many cases that teaching has actually improved or that the ultimate goal, learning, has either. As of 2018, online instruction in accredited programs is only offered by four public Philippine universities, and cost of and limitations in internet access was a significant barrier for online learning (Marcial, Caballero, Rendal, & Patrimonio, 2015). As connectivity improves, however, pressure will likely mount to make more courses available online over time. Therefore, qualitative data on the extent to which new modes of delivery have been utilized by the departments, and the extent to which the process and results met professors' and administrators' expectations will be helpful.

In sum, the dominant theme of much of the recent literature on teaching and learning concludes that student-centered approaches that promote conceptual change through discovery, authentic assignments (application to real life or constructs of interest), and mentoring by professors is more effective in achieving learning outcomes than transmission-focused approaches. While

transmission-focused approaches focus on short-term reproduction of knowledge, student-centered approaches focus on longer-term meaning, understanding and application (Trigwell, Prosser, & Waterhouse, 1999). The arguments for student-centered approaches have convinced policy makers in Philippines (and many other countries) to advocate for or mandate the utilization of student-centered teaching approaches at all levels of education, but the factors that contribute to the adoption of student-centered teaching approaches in the local context are not well documented.

Many of these scholars also note that teaching practice is dynamic and mutable over time. As other studies have identified successful development programs to support teachers in adopting student-centered approaches (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004), it will also be useful to identify professional development opportunities offered within departments and universities that focus on student-centered teaching approaches and the extent to which those, if they exist, have been effective in shifting teaching practices from transmission-focused to student-centered.

Disciplinary Knowledge and Modes of Practice

Educators' basic teaching philosophy and practice are also substantially informed by their academic discipline (Hounsell & Anderson, 2009; Roxa & Martensson, 2013). As individuals progress from undergraduate studies to graduate studies to postgraduate and teaching roles, they internalize the ways in which the discipline is practiced. Becher (1991) describes two spectrums along

which knowledge is sometimes defined: hard to soft and pure to applied. Hard-pure fields are frequently characterized by universal laws, well-defined boundaries, value-free approaches, and quantitative methods. Soft-pure fields, in contrast, are qualitative, have loosely defined and permeable boundaries and are value-laden. Hard-applied focus on practical ends and make use of experimentation, but not exclusively. Soft-applied fields aim to improve the human condition, drawing on soft-pure approaches, but may be more fluid than hard-applied fields. This categorization of fields has been critiqued by several scholars (Tight, 2015) because some disciplines straddle these categories, and no discipline is static over time – they all evolve. Others note the poor fit of this model from the perspective of the student (Bamber, 2012). Despite these very legitimate critiques, the grouping of disciplines based on the structure of knowledge and practice within them is useful when examining teaching practices, as there are similarities between fields (Tight, 2015). The specific differences in the nature of the fields are important because as scholars are socialized into them, the ontological and epistemic differences across fields (or sub-fields) influence their approaches to teaching and learning. For example, Becher's (1991) study found that "academics in 'hard' subjects…tend to make fewer concessions to the learning needs of their students…than teachers in 'soft' subjects…" (p. 155). It is not clear, however, how the sociocultural context and individual factors might yield differing results. Examining quantitative data from non-U.S. setting using this framework to identify differences in teaching practices

by disciplinary typology (hard-pure, soft-pure, hard-applied, and soft-applied) would enable one to explore that question.

In addition, Knight and Trowler (2000) posit that the working culture of an academic department can have a significant effect on teaching and learning as well. Therefore, it will also be useful to examine qualitative data on the experiences of faculty members on the workings of their departments to consider differences in disciplinary traditions and departmental culture (separate from the larger institutional culture) in addition to disciplinary typology.

Disciplines as socially situated practices.

Drawing on the social constructivist principle that learning is a social process, recent scholarly work has rejected individualist and functionalist interpretations of teaching practices and developed multiple theories of how teaching is a socially situated practice meaning that it is influenced at multiple levels by a wide array of institutional, disciplinary, and cultural factors. Three related theories that are particularly relevant for considering the quality of graduate education teaching practice are community of practice theory, social network theory, and social practice theory. Community of practice theory (Wenger, 1998) asserts that small working units of individuals develop a shared practice over time, which itself creates a shared experience of learning as practice is refined. Wenger identified the underpinning conceptual tools of community of practice theory as joint enterprise (a shared body of work with a clearly defined goal), shared repertoire (common activities working toward the

identified goal), and mutual engagement (active dissemination of information and learning behaviors among the members of the community).' One of the inherit weaknesses in this theory, however, is that small groups can become isolated, which may prevent the introduction of new ideas. Wenger identified three strategies for preventing isolation and becoming intractably ingrained in one form of practice – boundary objects (texts) that flow from one group to another, brokers who straddle multiple clusters and share information, or social spaces in which members of different small groups can share information (conferences, projects, etc.) (Wenger, 1998; Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002). Critics argue, however, that community of practice theory fails to balance the socially situated aspects of learning with structural elements of knowledge and individual agency (Contu & Wilmott, 2003; Archer 2000), leading to "functionalist accounts of social practice in which issues of difference and conflict are elided, as well as the constraining effects of structure" (Roxa, Martensson, & Alveteg, 2011).

Social network theory provides a more expansive base, taking into account that individuals in academic networks are not co-equals, but subject to power hierarchies and different levels of access to the network. A relatively small number of people typically occupy the central nodes of the network, with most others remaining in the periphery (Newman, Barabasi, & Watts, 2006), which aligns with the observations of critical scholars and world systems theory scholars on how knowledge is produced and disciplinary standards are set in the global education sector (for example, Marginson, 2006; Marginson and Sawir,

2005; Naidoo, 2008; Naidoo, 2010; Rizvi, 2007). Social network theory posits that within large disciplinary networks are small, dense sub-networks with that are critical for the development of ideas and the exchange of knowledge (Barabasi, 2003; Tight, 2008), but these disciplinary networks and sub-networks do not typically focus on teaching (Roxa, Martensson, & Alveteg, 2011). Social network theory also fails to account sufficiently for the influence of local factors, culture, politics, and institutional climate that affect teaching specifically.

Social practice theory provides a more holistic and integrated approach to thinking about disciplinary teaching practice situated in local context, including culture, politics, and institutional climate (Mathieson, 2012). Social practice theory focuses on how learning takes place in specific and changing contexts. As Mathieson (2012) wrote, “It is thus relevant for considering TLA cultures as local practices negotiated through engaging in everyday tasks, that are constantly adapting to change” (p. 551). It recognizes the strong and weak links to disciplinary networks that are central to social network theory, but it provides a framework for looking at teaching behaviors similar to community of practice theory. Social practice theory provides a lens for considering not only the networks themselves, but also the contextual elements that influence teaching in graduate education. It will be useful, therefore, to use qualitative data to understand how connected professors are to disciplinary networks and how those networks shape their teaching practice.

International influence on disciplinary knowledge and practice.

In many disciplines and fields, the important debates and developments tend to be driven by scholars and universities in the West (Takayama, 2011), echoing Wallerstein's world systems theory within the global education space (Wallerstein, 1974). Critical scholars argue that the disparity in power in the global higher education sphere becomes a vicious cycle, resulting in a Western dominance of epistemologies and disciplinary advancement (Marginson, 2006; Rizvi, 2007; Naidoo, 2010). For instance, Naidoo (2010) cites the fact that multilateral and bilateral donors discouraged national investment in higher education in developing countries until the 1990s, at which point, they reversed direction and began to advocate for higher education as a driver of national development. The decades of relative neglect and de-prioritization represent cumulative lost opportunities to contribute to disciplinary and epistemological debates and to establish alternative epistemologies and disciplinary boundaries, thus maintaining the Western locus of control for judgment of quality in teaching and learning. "Postcolonial theorists argue that international education continues to be part of an elaborate intellectual machinery to justify and support the neoliberal, neocolonial, and imperializing expressions of globalization" (Sidhu, 2006, p. 298). Naidoo (2008) furthers the argument, pointing out the inherent contradiction between national policies among the most highly developed countries that focus on higher education as an engine for innovation and economic growth and multilateral institutions' and bilateral donors'

recommendations (dominated by the same highly developed countries) that developing countries' lack of strong higher education sectors can be addressed by a global higher education market. Naidoo asserts that it has essentially become a lucrative service for universities where national markets are saturated – and is a form of dumping excess national supply on the global market. While there is strong evidence that disciplinary knowledge and modes of practice are dominated by elite, Western institutions and for Naidoo's (2008) criticism of Western countries dumping excessive production of higher education on other countries has some merit, its weakness is in faulting the market, e.g., the exchange of higher education as a consumer good, when government policies in many Western countries explicitly support the overproduction of higher education through credentialism (inflation of minimum education requirements for employment) and subsidies to higher education (in various forms). This argument does, however, provide some context of the wider environment in which Philippine (and other) universities operate. It will be helpful to utilize qualitative data to understand to what extent Filipino scholars view the West dominating their fields and how, if at all, they adapt and 'translate' those dominant practices into ones more appropriate for their contexts.

Institutional Climate

Institutional climate, comprising both structure and culture, is the last element of the conceptual framework introduced in Chapter One. One of the main scholars whose work is useful in examining institutional climate is John

Dewey. Dewey's pragmatism rested on his assertion that an individual's experiences are predicated on a complex system of material and symbolic resources that shape how people interact with their environment (Goldman, 2012). In his later work, he reconstituted experiences within an institution as culture, which Goldman (2012), defended as appropriate because it incorporated the "non-cognitive, practical, material and somatic elements that resist discursive articulation" (p. 2). In their study of the dissonance between skills learned in professional development training and faculty members' uptake of those behaviors in their teaching practice and research, Roxa and Martensson (2013) used a similar description, noting that the "changes in how teaching and learning are understood as indicated during interaction among teachers while they try to make sense of the teaching and learning context in which they are active" (p. 215). Institutional culture and individual experience, then, is subjective, and has to be approached in ways that do not mask differences in individuals' perceptions of an experience or culture.

Leadership and management of higher education institutions is also critical in establishing a supportive institutional culture, according to some scholars who found that "lack of support from academic managers and peers were identified as significant limiting factors in pursuing scholarly activities in teaching and learning" (Ginns, Kitay, & Prosser, 2010, p. 245). In particular, strong leadership in relatively flat hierarchies, which facilitate faculty involvement in decision-making and long-range planning, is most conducive to maintaining

high levels of engagement (Rice & Austin, 1988). A range of scholarly work has focused on the institutional conditions that support and promote excellent performance by faculty members in teaching, research, and student support (Gappa, Austin, and Trice, 2007; Rice and Austin, 1988; Austin and Sorcinelli, 2013; Austin, A., 2002; Chapman and Austin, 2002, Chapman et al., 2015). Therefore, it is useful to draw on qualitative data on faculty members' experiences and perceptions and quantitative data on their utilization of institutional resources or supports to understand how institutional or broader contextual constraints affect the quality of teaching in general. The discussion that follows focuses on key areas of institutional climate (both structure and culture) that scholars have identified as critical to supporting effective teaching by faculty, including employment structure and faculty engagement, resources and supports, and academic inbreeding.

Staffing systems and faculty engagement.

Staffing systems are key institutional structures that facilitate the creation of a supportive work culture, and Gappa, Austin, and Trice's (2007) study of institutional policies and practices that effectively support faculty work (teaching, research, and service to the university) revealed that the staffing system should provide: (1) equity across faculty appointment types; (2) flexibility in appointments and careers; and (3) professional growth opportunities. One major concern that affects teaching is about lack of fairness in appointments, promotions, and awards of different kinds (Becher, 1991), which may influence

the priority given to teaching duties. Ensuring both equity and flexibility in appointments may pose some challenges, but structuring academic jobs to allow faculty members to meet their personal and professional goals creates opportunities for more faculty members to succeed in balancing excellence in teaching and research with their personal lives.

Effective and equitable staffing systems utilize incentives to influence behavior: recognition, remuneration, access to scarce resources, etc. Some of the incentives that have been instituted to strengthen the quality of higher education in Philippines, and the quality of teaching in particular, include requirements and bonuses for publishing and specific programs to enable teaching staff and doctoral students to gain access to resources they might not regularly have in Philippines. While the theory behind incentivizing better teaching is sound (people do generally behave in their perceived self-interest), if the values on which individual behavior are based are not well understood, incentives may be poorly targeted. For example, Chapman (2015) and Chapman et al. (2014) found in their studies of the use of incentives for faculty members in Malaysian and Emirati universities that factors beyond the universities' control, such as the ability to be close to family, were more important than monetary incentives.

While incentives can be used to address issues of motivation in faculty members' teaching practice, professional development may also be required to overcome skill or knowledge gaps, particularly in dynamic environments as

expectations of teaching staff may change rapidly (Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013). In addition to the support offered to professors, some scholars have also noted the importance of the graduate school experience itself as professional development for future academic careers (Austin A. , 2002). Many universities in the Philippines, however, have limited resources for faculty development programming and lack the structures commonly found at Western universities that ensure the graduate school experience provides training for future academic careers (for example, teaching assistantships and graduate research assistantships).

While the literature on institutional climate places significant emphasis on the importance of equity and flattening hierarchies to foster excellence in faculty work, it is not clear that minimizing social distance and engaging faculty in management is the only way to support excellence in research and teaching. In the Philippine cultural context, norms around deference to elders and conflict aversion (as embodied by the traits of *pakikisama*, getting along with or making concessions to others, or *kapwa*, or recognition of shared identity with others) may not allow for flatter hierarchies and faculty engagement on sensitive issues (Church & Katigbak, 2000). Putranta and Kingshott's (2011) findings that, particularly in institutions in which financial resources are quite limited, a benevolent institutional climate, meaning that while there may be little direct faculty engagement in decision-making processes, leadership is fully engaged with the faculty members and advance their interests in balance with other

considerations, was related to staff commitment and engagement with the institution, in both the short- and long-term, may be more relevant for universities in Philippines than Rice and Austin's or Gappa, Austin, and Trice's approaches to supporting effective faculty work. It will therefore be useful to triangulate administrators' and faculty members' experiences on efforts to address staffing, work environment, and professional development in support of faculty members' teaching practice.

Resources and support.

Access to resources and effective support for faculty members is a common element across many of the frameworks scholars have developed to understand how institutional climate affects the quality of higher education (Chapman & Austin, 2002; Rice & Austin, 1988; Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2007). Rice and Austin's (1988) study of 10 liberal arts colleges that scored highly on a national survey of faculty morale highlighted four conditions specifically related to faculty support: (1) support of faculty work with students; (2) collaborative environment; (3) encouragement of risk taking; and (4) willingness to test new ideas. They found these to be critical in creating a sense of community. Gappa, Austin, and Trice (2007) came to a similar conclusion, describing supportive environments as collegial academic communities and also found to be critical in supporting excellence in faculty teaching and research. For example, Cook and Kaplan (2011), have examined how a teaching center that provides training to new teaching staff and establishes feedback mechanisms for student

assessments of teaching can improve teaching practices across an institution. However, Gappa, Austin, and Trice (2007) also found that support for academic freedom is an important element of a supportive environment for teaching and research. Institutional cultures that facilitate faculty to pursue their interests and focus on teaching (as opposed to experiencing pressure to publish research) also generated higher faculty engagement.

One important note about these four conditions is that they were identified in relatively resource-rich environments. World Bank (2014a) and Asian Development Bank (2014, 2011) reports identify some of the very significant financial constraints that Philippine higher education institutions face. The literature specifically on faculty members' experiences and perceptions in Philippines is limited, but experience from other countries in the region suggests that teaching staff in Philippines may be strongly affected by limited resources, which results in heavy teaching loads, strong competition for scarce research funds, and limited access to laboratories, journals, and other resources considered standard in many Western institutions (Allison, et al., 2012). Therefore, capturing reflections from teaching staff across a variety of faculties as to what supports have been most useful, how institutional constraints limit their teaching practice in significant ways, and what supports they believe would be most helpful in improving their teaching practice is useful in understanding the effectiveness of the resources and supports offered, as well as potentially prioritizing investments in new supports for teaching staff.

Academic inbreeding.

Academic inbreeding is the practice of recruiting and hiring graduates to teach in the universities from which they have graduated. Academic inbreeding is fairly common in many countries, including Japan, China, and in Southeast Asia generally. Proponents note that it provides evidence that education systems can retain their best talent (Altbach, Yudkevich, & Rumbley, 2015), and further creates a sense of continuity and identity within institutions (Horta, Sato, & Yonezawa, Academic inbreeding: exploring its characteristics and rationale, 2011). However, critics note that academic inbreeding limits academic productivity (Altbach, Yudkevich, & Rumbley, 2015; Horta, 2013; Inanc & Tuncer, 2011), and it may actually diminish teaching quality. In higher education institutions that experience significant academic inbreeding, hierarchical relationships established in the student-teacher relationship may be slow to evolve into a peer-to-peer relationship, which can hinder both new research and new teaching approaches (Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2007). The tendency of many Filipinos to defer to elders and avoid conflict in interpersonal relations (Church & Katigbak, 2000) may slow that evolution further.

There is little information on the extent of academic inbreeding in Philippine universities, but anecdotal information would indicate that it is a common occurrence (Asian Development Bank, 2014). Therefore, it will be useful to capture from as wide a range of teaching staff as possible where they earned their degrees and whether or not they have any experience studying or

working in other universities to determine the extent to which the drawbacks noted above, including perceived barriers to teaching, research, and collaboration in Philippine universities.

Summary of the literature.

This body of literature identifies specific domains for examining the layers of influences on teaching practice in higher education. Each section discusses literature that reflects current practices and trends in Philippines (to the extent that it is documented in the literature), but significant gaps remain in understanding how individual factors, disciplinary practices, and institutional climate affect teaching practices in that context. Further, the lack of scholarship on how quality is understood and operationalized in Philippine higher education requires that the starting point of any new studies incorporate that key question. The next chapter outlines the methodology, data collection methods, and data analysis plan for addressing these gaps.

Chapter 3: Methodology and Methods

To answer the key research questions in this study, a mixed methods approach was applied to the two phases of data collection from the field, each a week-long visit during a two-month period. Use of both quantitative and qualitative data served to develop an understanding of how institutional climate, disciplinary conventions, and individual teaching philosophy each influenced teaching behaviors in the selected universities and how perceptions of effective teaching in graduate education aligned with dominant concepts discussed in the literature in Chapter Two.

This field work was conducted at two universities in the Philippines: Saint Louis University (Baguio, Luzon) and Angeles University Foundation (Angeles, Luzon), which agreed to allow their sites and institutions' names to be used in the study. Both universities are private institutions that have received autonomous status from CHED (indicating top accreditation rankings). With this status, they have full authority over student enrollments, student fees, budget allocations, curriculum, and hiring and dismissal of staff. Only 68 private higher education institutions in Philippines have received that status, out of 1,568 registered with CHED.

Saint Louis University (SLU) is a private Roman Catholic research university founded in 1911. Nestled in the center of a mountainous town with a population of approximately 365,000 people that is six to eight hours away from Manila depending on traffic, SLU serves more than 30,000 tertiary students in northern Luzon. The campus is fairly compact and gated, so although it is in the

center of town, it feels very much like a traditional university campus. SLU offers seven doctoral programs and 38 masters programs. As the largest research university in northern Luzon, its leadership would like to accelerate its research agenda and improve its competitiveness. It hosts three CHED-designated centers of excellence and eight centers of development.

Angeles University Foundation (AUF) is a private Roman Catholic university founded in 1962 in Angeles, in central Luzon and serves approximately 6,500 students. The campus is urban, with its various buildings straddling a major thoroughfare, and the Graduate School is in a separate building from university administration and most undergraduate classes. It offers seven doctoral programs and 15 masters programs. AUF's leadership has made significant investments in information technology, its library, and other critical areas to support graduate education. It hosts three CHED-designated centers of excellence and two centers of development. Selection of these universities was based on the high accreditation status of the institutions (a marker for strong programs that would allow for exploration of good teaching practices) and the practical reason that the leadership of each institution was willing to allow the study to be conducted.

All faculties with graduate programs excluding law and medicine at each institution participated in the study (seven of nine at AUF and six of eight at SLU), thus the range of hard and soft, pure and applied fields are represented in the data collected. Phase one included initial interviews and a survey of all teaching

staff in the participating faculties and study programs. Phase two included focus groups with teaching staff and individual interviews with a sample of teaching staff.

The remainder of this chapter focuses on the research methods and data analysis procedures used to answer the research questions. As with all studies, various challenges arose in the data collection and analysis process, and the discussion below therefore addresses those challenges and efforts to mitigate any negative impacts they would have.

Instrumentation Design

Design of the instrumentation and dimensions of the various protocols were informed by the model. The protocols focused on five specific factors: philosophy of graduate education, teaching practice, discipline-specific practices and debates, institutional supports for and constraints to teaching, and demographics. Philosophy, teaching practice, and demographics questions were central for the analysis of individual factors (the first level of the model). Discipline-specific practices and debates, teaching practices, and demographics (particularly discipline and department) informed the second layer of the model. Finally, institutional supports for and constraints to teaching, teaching practices, and demographics informed the third layer of the model, institutional climate.

Data Collection Methods

This study made use of three primary data collection methods and one secondary data collection method. Primary data was collected through

interviews, a survey, and focus groups. Secondary data from external accreditation reviews was received after the field work was completed and was used to confirm several of the findings of the primary data analysis. The fieldwork for this study was conducted at Saint Louis University from April 17 to April 24, 2017 and at Angeles University Foundation from May 8 to May 15, 2017. The details related to the implementation of each data collection method follows below.

Key informant interviews.

The purpose of the initial key informant interviews was to ensure buy-in among the senior and mid-level leadership within the participating institutions (see Appendix 1 for Initial Interview Guide for Deans and University Leadership and Initial Interview Guide for Professors/Lecturers). In addition, these interviews provided data on institutional climate and cultures within the disciplines. This group was purposively sampled and included the vice presidents for academic affairs who have oversight of quality control and other academic matters (2), the heads of the offices of research and development (2), the heads of the offices of quality assurance (2), the head of the external affairs office (1), and the deans (13) from each participating faculty. In addition, interviews were conducted with graduate program coordinators and/or assistant deans (8) and additional professors of graduate courses (8) when available. The total number of key informants from both universities was 36. These individuals were selected for their ability to provide valuable information about the overall institutional climate

and the specific cultures within faculties and study programs that influence teaching.

These semi-structured interviews were conducted in person and focused on their perceptions of the strengths of their teaching staff and challenges or constraints instructors face and their views of the institutional supports available to them and institutional constraints around which they must work. These interviews were particularly helpful in understanding the influence of CHED policies on minimum course load requirements, current and planned support structures for teaching and professional development, and the underlying strategy determining what investments are made in order to improve the overall quality of education across the institution. The interviews with the deans and graduate program coordinators went into more depth on the specific conditions within their faculties. Interviews were conducted in the interviewees' offices at the university at a time convenient to the interviewee and were recorded. The interviews ranged from 35 to 86 minutes, depending on the respondent's availability and his or her level of interest in the discussion. All interviews were transcribed and coded in nVivo. (For more information on qualitative data analysis, please see below.)

Validity of interview data.

The major validity concern with the interviews is that the senior leaders, as the ones who set policies, may feel they have a vested interest in seeing a positive outcome for the study. In general, interviewees at both universities were

very open in their responses and eager to learn about what might be done more effectively - either on a personal level or at an institutional level. This reflects the support for this study and the buy-in of the senior leadership at both institutions, as well as the framing used in a number of the questions that focused on the changes resulting from the K to 12 Transition, which was just beginning as the field work was underway. A few respondents at each institution, however, were more reticent, and some answers felt like what they thought would be “correct” answers or as though they were unwilling to share any perceived weaknesses with an outsider.

To ensure that the information collected and the conclusions reached in this analysis would be valid, several methods of checking validity were used. Triangulating data from professors and administrators (particularly from the deans, graduate program coordinators, and professors within the same faculty who participated in focus groups) was helpful in identifying issues that one interviewee may have avoided raising. In three cases, though, the sample did not include sufficient representation to discern whether or not performativity (providing socially desirable responses rather than candid responses based on their experience) was an issue (specifically in computer sciences, criminal justice, and public health). In the analysis, conclusions drawn from those KIIs are more tentative than others. In addition, initial findings were presented to the leadership of each institution and the heads of the research offices at the completion of the field work phase for respondent validation (Maxwell, 2013).

Any conclusions that they questioned were re-examined in the full data analysis. For example, based on initial impressions from the data collected, it appeared there many have been differences in conflict aversion by sex, which the leadership found to be contrary to their experience. That issue was flagged, and when the data were fully coded, it was determined that issues of conflict aversion stemmed from deference to elders, and the apparent connection to sex was an artifact of the distribution of the sample.

Survey.

The purpose of the survey (see Appendix 1, Professor/Lecturer Survey) was to collect data among participating faculties and study programs about instructors' demographics, teaching philosophy, teaching experience, preferred modes of practice, engagement with scholarship on teaching practices, and opinions of the institutional supports provided for teaching. Based on Dillman, Smyth, and Christian's (2014) tailored design approach, I drew on my past experience in examining practices and challenges in higher education institutions in other countries in Southeast Asia to develop the survey. The survey administration plan took into account the four sources of survey error (coverage, sampling, nonresponse, and measurement) and focused on making the survey as accessible to as many of the respondents as possible. Finally, the respondent contact strategy was multi-pronged, involving support from top leadership, deans, and graduate program coordinators at each university. The survey contained 25 questions (11 questions on teaching practice and teaching approaches in the

classroom, two questions on institutional supports for teaching, and 12 questions on demographics and professional background) and required six to eight minutes to complete.

The target population for the survey was all teaching staff within participating faculties and study programs. After initial meetings with the senior leadership of the participating universities at the beginning of the data collection period, teaching staff were notified by the dean of the respective faculty that this study was being conducted and that their participation would be appreciated. My intent was to conduct a census, which would avoid problems of coverage error and sampling error in the survey design. The survey was reviewed by the heads of the offices of research and development at both universities prior to its distribution as a final check on face validity and content validity. A link to the online survey (on the University of Minnesota's Qualtrics system) was provided, and paper copies were made available in all the faculties. Ultimately, 86 respondents (out of a possible 163) submitted paper surveys (68 from Saint Louis University, 80 percent of faculty members teaching graduate course and 18 from Angeles University Foundation, 23 percent of faculty members teaching graduate courses), and no respondents completed the online survey. Tables 1 through 8 below provide a snapshot of how the sample broke down across key independent variables.

Table 1

Survey respondents by sex and institution

University	Female	Male	Not Reported
AUF	11	7	0
SLU	46	20	2
Total	57	27	2

Table 2

Survey respondents by age group and institution

University	29 or younger	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 or older	Not Reported
AUF	0	8	7	2	1	0
SLU	4	19	26	14	3	2
Total	4	27	33	16	4	2

Table 3

Survey respondents by institution and discipline

Discipline	AUF	SLU	Total
Business and Accounting	1	8	9
Computer Science	0	1	1
Education	5	13	18
Engineering	2	15	17
Humanities	1	4	5
Mathematics	1	4	5
Natural Sciences	1	7	8
Nursing	2	9	11
Public Health	1	0	1
Social Sciences	1	7	8
Not Reported	3	2	5

Female respondents outnumbered male respondents in all fields except humanities (five male respondents and zero female respondents), but male respondents comprised a significant percentage of respondents from education and nursing as well, 29.4 percent and 27.3 percent, respectively. In addition, women comprised 58.8 percent of respondents in engineering, 66.6 percent of

respondents in mathematics, and 100.0 percent of respondents in computer science, fields which are typically male dominated.

Table 4

Survey respondents by highest degree held

University	MA/MS	PhD/EdD	Not Reported
AUF	8	10	0
SLU	43	23	2
Total	51	33	2

Table 5

Survey respondents by where highest degree was earned

University	Current Institution	Other Philippine Institution	Foreign Institution	Not Reported
AUF	9	8	0	1
SLU	44	16	3	5
Total	53	24	3	6

Table 6

Survey respondents by years of graduate teaching experience

University	1-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	More than 20 years	Not Reported
AUF	7	8	1	0	1	1
SLU	40	15	6	6	1	0
Total	47	23	7	6	2	1

Highest degree held and age were both correlated with number of years teaching graduate courses. Those with PhDs and EdDs had more years of teaching experience than did those who held master's degrees. Those who were older also had more years of teaching experience.

Table 7

Survey respondents by study at a foreign university

University	Studied Abroad	Did Not Study Abroad	Not Reported
AUF	0	18	0
SLU	8	57	3
Total	8	75	3

Highest degree held was correlated with study at a foreign university, as 75 percent of those who had studied abroad held PhDs.

Table 8

Survey respondents by opportunity to pursue postgraduate work

University	Postgraduate Work at Current Institution	Postgraduate Work at Another Philippine Institution	Postgraduate Work at a Foreign Institution	No Postgraduate Work	Not Reported
AUF	3	2	0	12	3
SLU	16	4	3	40	3
Total	19	6	3	52	6

Only 28 survey respondents had had an opportunity to conduct postgraduate work, of whom 17 were women (29.8 percent of female respondents) and 11 were men (40.7 percent of male respondents). Most of the women, 82.4 percent, completed their postgraduate work at their current institution, while only 45.5 percent of men did. Half of the remaining men conducted postgraduate work at institutions outside of Philippines, while none of the women did. Further, of the 28 survey respondents who had had an opportunity to conduct postgraduate work, 17 held master's degrees (34 percent of MA/MS respondents) and 11 were PhD/EdD holders (36.7 percent of

PhD/EdD respondents). Most of the master's holders, 82.4 percent, completed their postgraduate work at their current institution, while only 45.5 percent of doctorate holders did.

For many of the key independent variables, the number of respondents within subgroups are quite small, and therefore most of the survey data is presented descriptively. Further, because the survey was completed anonymously, it is unclear how those who responded differed from those who did not respond, and there may be considerable bias in the AUF data, in particular, simply because the response rate is so low. If the majority of AUF surveys were completed by full-time faculty, the many part-time faculty who teach one to two courses per semester and who may represent the majority of specialized graduate level teaching cadre would not be represented in the data collected. Without knowing how the response rate differed for those groups, it is difficult to draw conclusions from the survey data.

Despite the reviews from the heads of the research offices (as well as relevant University of Minnesota reviewers), a few of the questions were not understood as expected, and yielded less information than they might have. Issues around invalid or incorrect responses are noted in the discussion in the findings chapters.

Focus groups.

Focus groups provided more information from the teaching staff who were not selected for interviews about their views of their teaching practices and the

challenges they face in trying to deliver high-quality education (see Appendix 1, Focus Group Guide for Professors/Lecturers). Times for the focus groups were set with the senior leadership, and each faculty was asked to identify faculty members whose class teaching schedules would not be interrupted by their participation in the group. Invitations were then sent to two or three people in each faculty (selected randomly from the list – though in some cases, that included all the people on the list). Focus groups were held in a conference room convenient to the faculty. Refreshments were provided, but no other incentive was given to participants.

The first of the two SLU focus groups lasted 56 minutes and included eight participants (two men and six women) from the following departments: Teacher Education and Liberal Arts; Accountancy, Management, Computing and Information Studies; and Nursing. The participants reported having been with SLU from 15 to 33 years, and they had between 11 and 25 years of graduate teaching experience. The second SLU focus group lasted 63 minutes and included eight participants (three men and five women) from the following departments: Natural Sciences; Engineering and Architecture; and Accountancy, Management, Computing and Information Studies. In this group, participants reported having been with the institution between 10 and 33 years, and they had between 8 and 32 years of graduate teaching experience. At AUF, the focus group lasted 73 minutes and included three participants (all male) from the following departments: Education, Nursing, Business and Accountancy. (No

representatives of AUF's Arts and Sciences, Criminal Justice Education, Computer Studies, or Engineering and Architecture departments participated in the focus group.) Participants reported that they had been with AUF between 11 and 13 years and had between two and 13 years of experience teaching graduate courses. With the exception of one professor at AUF, all of the participants had been teaching at the university level for at least eight years, and four in each group at SLU had been teaching for more than 20 years. Therefore, overall, the respondents were highly experienced in teaching both graduate and undergraduate level courses. The focus groups were recorded, and the recordings were transcribed for analysis.

Validity of focus group data.

The primary concerns regarding trustworthiness of the focus group data stem from participant reactivity and performativity. As suggested by Barbour and Schostak (2011), the locations selected were conference rooms where faculty members regularly attended meeting, and many of the participants knew each other. Two of the three groups had a very positive tone, with participants who were relaxed and happy to share their ideas and seemed to enjoy the discussion with colleagues (the humanities and social sciences group at SLU and the AUF group). In the remaining group (hard sciences and engineering at SLU), however, participants were more guarded, and half arrived late, which was disruptive to the discussion. It is not clear whether or not those participants knowing each other impeded more open dialogue or if that particular conference

room had negative associations for some of the participants. By the end, the participants had relaxed somewhat and became more talkative about their experiences, but overall, the data were not as rich as from the other groups. The source of participants' wariness may have been related to a lack of familiarity with the focus group format (as it would not be used often in their fields), mistrust in the purpose of the study, or pressure from their departments to participate (or some combination of those). It seemed, however, was that the information shared fairly represented their experiences, as triangulation with interviews and survey data showed that the focus group information was aligned with information from other sources.

Data Analysis

All the data were analyzed in order to answer the key questions of the study: how teaching staff understand 'quality' within their discipline and within their teaching practice; how individual factors influence their teaching practice; how disciplinary norms influence their teaching practice; and what institutional conditions constrain or support teaching staffs' implementation of what they viewed as effective teaching practices. In addition, the analysis explored how external factors affect to the constraints that teaching staff identify as barriers to improving quality and/or teaching quality and the supports that enable them to improve quality. Finally, the analysis also addressed how institutional and individual cultural norms affect the constraints that teaching staff identify as barriers to improving quality and/or teaching quality and the supports that enable

them to improve quality.

Quantitative data analysis.

The survey data was analyzed for central tendencies (e.g., mean, median, and mode), measures of dispersion (e.g., standard deviation, variance, and range), and bivariate associations (e.g., t-tests for continuous variables and Wilcoxon rank-sum tests for ordinal variables) to summarize demographic characteristics and outcome measures. Key outcomes measures included percentage of class time that respondents thought should be spent in lecture, interactive activities, and hands-on or group work; time spent preparing for a graduate course lesson, time spent working with graduate students outside of class, and time spent assessing learning; scholars and journals that were most influential for their teaching practice; and which institutional supports were most useful to them in their teaching practice. In addition, cross-tabulations were used to discern whether there were significant differences in categorical independent variables (institution, discipline, highest degree held, sex of respondent, age range of respondent, respondent's years of experience teaching graduate courses, whether or not the respondent had ever studied at a foreign university, and the opportunity to conduct postgraduate work) against dichotomous outcomes of interest. Given the small number of respondents overall, the number of individuals in most sub-groups were too small for statistical analysis, and the survey data are therefore only used descriptively.

Qualitative data analysis.

A thematic analysis was conducted of the qualitative data collected through interviews and focus groups, as well as relevant documents, such as graduate program guidelines, CHED memoranda, and accreditation reports, gathered in the course of data collection. Using nVivo, a coding structure was developed that broadly reflects the conceptual framework described in Chapter One, including individual teaching approaches, other individual factors (such as professional goals), disciplinary modes of practice, institutional climate and culture, and external influences. This analysis relied on within case and cross-case analysis as well as open coding, reading multiple times through the transcripts of the interviews and focus groups. In addition to the thematic coding based on deductive codes derived from the framework, the transcripts were coded inductively, looking for patterns and themes that emerge, with particular attention to themes related to institutional climate. These emerging themes included: presence/absence of supportive leadership, professional development opportunities, performance standards, performance supports, faculty dynamics, and opportunities to participate in regional or international disciplinary networks.

Limitations

In addition to the threats to validity identified under each data collection method, it should be noted that the data presented in this study represent a specific point in time during an extremely dynamic period of change for Philippine universities. As CHED released its OBE guidance for disciplines and as faculty

members returned from their degree programs at other universities, changes should have occurred along a number of dimensions discussed in this study. Core issues, however, of how the layers of the conceptual framework influence quality in teaching practices and the fit of Western literature in a non-Western socio-cultural context should remain valid.

The findings chapters below combine the results of the quantitative data analysis and the qualitative data analysis to present a picture of the current strengths and weaknesses of teaching practice within two of the top-rated higher education institutions in Philippines. Chapter Four focuses on individual factors, Chapter Five addresses findings on disciplinary modes of practice, and Chapter Six reviews findings on institutional climate. The findings point to ways to close some of the gaps in quality in higher education in the country, which is the focus of Chapter Seven.

Chapter 4: Individual Factors Influencing Quality of Teaching Practice

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the individual-level factors that influence teaching practice in the model discussed in Chapter One. Key questions included in the instruments were: perceptions of the purpose of graduate education at the master's and doctoral levels, conceptions of quality, the relationship between professor and student in the graduate education process, and teaching philosophy and approaches. Each of these areas is discussed below.

Purpose of Graduate Education

Faculty perceptions.

To understand how professors and instructors in graduate programs approach their work, it is first important to ascertain what they believe the goal of that work to be. Therefore, each interview and focus group began with a question about the purpose of graduate education at the master's and doctoral levels. Among teaching staff at both institutions, the responses were quite similar across disciplines, and focused on three areas: mastery of content, engagement with theory, and research skills. On the surface then, there is a great deal of agreement on the purpose or objective of graduate education. However, in unpacking the assumptions and underlying meanings, there is a wider range of understandings than the initial analysis would indicate.

At SLU, where most interviewees were in applied fields (split between hard and soft) and only a few were in pure fields, about two-thirds of the interview respondents across disciplines indicated that the purpose of master's level

education is theoretical – to master the theories that underpin knowledge within their disciplines and that the purpose of doctoral level education is applied – to acquire research skills. Others thought the reverse – that research skills should be learned at the master's level and the doctoral level should be focused on mastering theories in the field. In fields with multiple tracks for master's degrees, a distinction was made between the master and the master of science degrees, as shared by a SLU professor in the field of business:

> We have two kinds. One is simply the master's in business administration, for instance, that doesn't require any theses. So, it doesn't require a very high written ability, cognitive skills in writing. But if it's a master of science, it really requires a thesis. Although, for master's only, it simply requires a strategic management paper. So, for master of science, we require that students ought to possess that level of analytical, cognitive and logical reasoning that is worthy of being called a graduate student.

At AUF where faculty members were almost all in applied fields, there was fairly strong agreement on the purpose or objective of graduate education at the master's level – to deepen content mastery and actively understand how to make theories work in practice within a discipline. Only a few respondents emphasized the importance of research at the master's level. However, at the doctoral level, there was less focus and less agreement (likely the result of some departments having no or a limited number of doctoral programs). Most faculty articulated that the purpose of graduate education at the doctoral level was to expand content

mastery and application of theories and to develop research skills. It was important, therefore, to unpack what was understood by theoretical and applied, and how each of those contributed to content mastery, engagement with theory, and research skills.

At SLU (where respondents represented a wider variety of applied and pure fields), there was greater variance in terms of what was understood by the terms “theoretical” and “applied”, whereas at AUF (where respondents represented only applied fields) these terms were understood consistently. In asking about those concepts, the intent was to capture their expectations about the balance between mastery of theories (and at the doctoral level, the advancement of theories) and their application in practice and research, the context for which is highly dependent on the discipline. However, many professors at SLU conflated “theory” and classroom-based learning, regardless of the activity being undertaken, and research with “applied” learning. In the focus groups, this generated some discussion about how applied learning could be classroom-based, for example in the analysis of case studies and development of strategies, plans, and solutions for the problems posed therein. At AUF, with few exceptions, faculty and administrators described their expectations regarding mastery of theory and applied learning within their disciplinary contexts. There was considerable variation, however, in what respondents felt the optimal balance of theoretical and applied learning was.

Some of the underlying causes for this are related to discipline and are discussed further in Chapter Five.

Three respondents (all of whom completed their PhDs in European institutions) did not differentiate between purpose at master's and doctoral levels but viewed it as a continuum. As one respondent described:

> Being independent, knowing how to do it alone, instead of doing…experiments with the group, with all the others…. Getting the skills for the right research methodology, knowing about research design, knowing about the philosophy of doing research by itself. It's a lot of things in terms of teaching. Research is their teaching methodology, their teaching styles. They are teaching the philosophy of doing research.

The differences in these responses about the purposes of graduate education were not consistent by discipline, and the conflicting views were likely rooted in the respondents' own experiences. Therefore, purpose – or graduate education being more theoretical or applied – is a first critical difference at the individual-level.

Further, while faculty generally articulated that the purpose of graduate education was to expand content mastery, application of theories, and development of research skills, only two (at AUF) raised the issue of confirming, contesting, or advancing theories in their disciplines or advancing research practices themselves (new approaches, adaptations to ensure approaches developed in the West generate meaningful data in the Filipino cultural context,

etc.). Some of the professors noted that in their fields, the dominant literature and epistemologies come from the West, and one noted that it was important to understand how they are contextualized. She said, “You know, we talk about context, but most of our foundational literature, most of it comes from the U.S. or the West. So, we talk about how those things are taken up in our Asian context. You know, we are very different – we are not so outspoken as Americans.” Despite her insight (and likely similar sentiments that other respondents chose not to voice), no one mentioned, for example, how they might engage with other scholars in critiquing those practices or expanding the research base on those adaptations. It is likely, therefore, in their teaching and mentoring of graduate students that these themes critiquing theories and research do not come through strongly, as they should in preparing researchers and innovators.

Student perceptions.

As interviews or FGDs with graduate students were not part of the research design, the information discussed here is second-hand from administrators and faculty, but it provides a useful juxtaposition to faculty perspectives. When asked about the perspectives of the students, and what they viewed the purpose of graduate education to be, respondents’ answers were more consistent than their own views on its purpose. Most respondents thought that the students valued graduate education only for its potential for advancement. As one administrator noted, “They look at graduate education basically in terms of promotions, especially in the academic field. The system

basically feeds this kind of thinking. That if you got higher degrees then you're basically now ready for promotion." Respondents at both institutions across disciplines agreed that for students graduate degrees essentially serve the purpose of obtaining promotions, both within and outside of academia, and that labor regulations (the system of national certifications for a wide range of careers and fields) and the current structures of Philippine institutions (academic, governmental, and private) rely on credentialism to assess capability along with subjective assessments of readiness for promotion. This orientation toward credentialism would then be the lens through which students would provide feedback on teaching in their course evaluations and other modes through which instructors elicit feedback, which will be explored further in Chapter Six.

It would seem there is space for the purposes of graduate education to be confirmed with students themselves, as it may not be as universal and simplistic as professors and administrators perceived it to be. It is likely, however, that promotion or increased employability is the primary goal for many graduate enrollees, whether through acquisition of a degree or a license or certification for which a degree program prepares students. Critics might argue that "the system," as one respondent referred to the current structure of labor regulations, higher education policy, and government and corporate hiring practices, uses credentialism as a proxy for competence and quality. Proponents, however, including one of the administrators interviewed, would point out that Philippines has experienced a long period of economic growth concurrent with the expansion

of its graduate education programs (a 294 percent increase in gross domestic product between 2003 and 2018 (World Bank, 2020), and such growth would not be possible without a workforce with skills needed by employers. As higher education and graduate education continue to evolve, however, universities and faculty members should ensure that communications to current students and to potential applicants provide clearer guidance on what purposes each graduate program are really intended to meet (recognizing that there may be a wide range depending on the programs offered). Those purposes should also be aligned with the assessment of faculty performance and incentives within the universities' staffing systems, which will be discussed further in Chapter Six.

Conceptions of Quality

As the purpose of graduate education was not uniformly understood (except their perspective of student motivations), respondents' answer to the question of how they defined or identified quality in graduate education varied as well. Most frequently, respondents cited sources of external validation – through designation as a CHED Center of Excellence, level IV accreditation, institutional autonomy, pass/fail rates on licensure examinations, ISO certification, or other externally imposed measure of quality as being evidence of high quality graduate education. As one AUF administrator explained:

> We need tangible signs that there is quality instruction. And if there is a third party telling us that we're good because of the accreditation level that they give, then I would say that's it…. And I think those will be the tangible

> signs, because if you look at the instruction sometimes it's very abstract. You would only see that with what you call the end products, with the accreditation, the certifications that we're able to get from third parties.

Among respondents who cited indicators of quality that were not external, key factors included inputs, processes, and outputs within their institutions, including quality of faculty and infrastructure, the process of curriculum development, the skills and competencies of the graduates, and the culture of the institution. Three respondents replied to that question with a list of exemplary inputs that were needed to ensure quality, while two others identified specific processes. For example, one professor at SLU suggested, “You have, of course, faculty, infrastructure, research, and we can include also extension of the graduate program…. Under faculty, we keep up with the other practices of other countries perhaps, primarily because we also have the Internet as our resource.” At AUF, the focus was less on defining the specific inputs, but the inclusive process for determining curricula with input from a wide range of stakeholders at various stages of the process. One administrator explained:

> We review our curricular programs, we make it a point that our stakeholders are present. So, by stakeholders, we need to say our alumni, our industry partners, and then our parents. Of course, our faculty members will always be there, and students…. It would start with what you call a committee-based activity. So, the moment that the committee is able to frame up and develop the curriculum already, then it goes to the

> academic council and the academic council will deliberate on the curricular program being presented…. The registrar as well as the different deans and support academic personnel - the library, the guidance, the researchers - will always be there.

Three respondents, two AUF professors and one SLU administrator, felt that the quality of the graduates was the key marker for quality of the education provided. As the SLU administrator explained:

> The question that I expect…is the quality of the graduates you produce. Well, if you compare to our neighbors, neighboring universities in Baguio, we're good. But then we go outside, let's say compared to Manila…De La Salle University. We have to compare ourselves with them. It's not that good yet. And similarly, the process of teaching here in the graduate school, especially in the master's has remained the same. I mean, actually, it deteriorated. The quality of our output, our theses.

One AUF professor focused specifically on student competencies and promotion, saying:

> We would like [the students] to be more globally competent or competitive...abreast of the different trends in technology, just like the global competencies that we need to implement for them…. This is a requirement for them before they can be assigned as station chiefs or regional directors and so forth.

Two SLU respondents defined quality as the development of a research culture in their institution. As one administrator said:

> What is our definition of [quality in] our graduate education? Because to me, there is only one thing. It must be a research-oriented graduate education. Whether it's on applied or whether it's pure or academic. So, I want to develop the research culture. First of the professors. Because I can never develop the research culture of my students if I am not research-oriented.

The other noted the lack of research-orientation among the current teaching staff, saying:

> The problem I see is the quality of research – although we have support for let's say research grants and these things, I think it's the money that they're thinking of, not the contribution to the body of knowledge. And it can count only a few who are into really the research in their discipline.

Only one AUF professor, however, defined quality specifically as including peer review, saying:

> So it's like a distinction that if you present it at an international conference in a peer review [selection process], well, we can already say that the quality of your work, hey…. We want to maintain that kind of quality. That's why I think there are very few who finish the degree on time. They usually extend one, two or even three semesters for the capstone initiative.

Conceptions of quality in graduate education at AUF and SLU currently rely heavily on quality assurance frameworks and neoliberal approaches of viewing the students as customers. Institutional assessment of teaching reflects these biases, and although in principle quality relies on both student course evaluations and observation by peers, student satisfaction seems to weigh more heavily than peer review, which will be discussed further in Chapter Six. While some forms of external validation, such as the designation as a center of excellence, do include peer review processes, and are intended to generate new knowledge, advance teaching and research approaches in their disciplines, and serve as a resource for other universities in their regions, most do not. As will be shown below, sociocultural and structural barriers may inhibit the development of an effective community of practice around these centers of excellence.

Relationships between Professor and Student

Deans and professors at both institutions universally agreed on the proper relationship between the professor and the graduate student. Respect for professor's expertise and authority must be evident, but the professor's role evolves into that of a mentor or facilitator (the latter particularly at the doctoral level). In addition, at AUF, respondents placed significant emphasis on student engagement and on motivating the graduate students to complete their graduate programs, for which the role of mentor or facilitator was critical. As with the purpose of graduate education, however, upon closer analysis, that concept varies substantially in its operationalization.

It became evident, particularly at AUF, that the profile of the graduate students has an important influence on the relationship between the professors and the students, which also flows down into teaching practice. Many graduate students return for a graduate degree after several years in the workforce and some may be older than or be perceived to outrank professors in a wider social hierarchy (government officials, etc.). As one AUF professor explained:

> In my case because sometimes my students are older than me, … I feel that I give more respect to them because of their seniority, not necessarily because of their position but because of their seniority. I also had students that are already officers of the regional office. So, I felt during that time that I needed to… give them more respect than them giving me respect. I think it's a cultural thing in the Philippines when you deal with older people, whether you know that you have higher educational attainment compared to them. It comes out very naturally for us to give more respect.

In these cases, some professors described themselves as co-learners with the graduate students in the classroom, while others described themselves as leading or directing student learning, but noted the difficulty in managing class dynamics given norms around deference to elders and social hierarchy.

Many other students, however, come straight out of undergraduate education, which creates other challenges. The same AUF professor continued:

> But in terms of the students who are much younger than me, I do not actually put a boundary in terms of our professional relationship. Because

> I think that is one way of attracting more students in our program. Because if I would be stricter…I don't think they will spread how good the program is in our university…. I try to develop a very good relationship with my students because that's one way of taking their respect and trust at the same time. Because if the students do not trust you or do not respect you, no matter how good you are in your teacher learning practices, I don't think the [outcomes will be of high quality]. So, I consider them as professional as well, not necessarily them being my students.

Therefore, faculty negotiated their relationships with students, depending on their background and experiences.

Students' experience also brings differing expectations in the classroom, which can be difficult to negotiate. Most professors noted that ideally, master's applicants would have at least a few years' work experience, many come straight from undergraduate, and they do not always understand the differences in expectations at the undergraduate and graduate levels. Several also noted the challenges they have working with graduate students who have insufficient grounding in the theories of the field from their undergraduate education – either because they have forgotten or because their original undergraduate training may have been in a different discipline. Professors therefore often need to make some adjustments to ensure that all students can master the basic content required in the curricula. Some professors also noted that students may not even be really interested in undertaking research, but if they are unable to find a

job right away, they continue into the master's level to increase their employability. Thus, professors report that student goals and expectations are not always aligned with those of the university and the professors, which makes it more difficult to use some adult learning practices effectively.

Within the research context, many respondents described the relationship as one of master and apprentice, but that had different meanings to various respondents. When asked for clarification, a few respondents described the relationship between professor and graduate student as one of colleagues in which joint research is undertaken, in which the student has voice in the research design and processes, as well as in the final analysis. Most, however, viewed it as a more hierarchical relationship in which the professor makes the decisions and the student carries out the tasks as directed, noting that at the doctoral level, however, students should be more independent than at the master's level.

As related to coursework or general administrative matters, some described creating class environments in which the students can learn from each other and in which the professor also learns from the students, while others felt being accessible by email or text (without any structure around it) was a form of mentoring. Almost all AUF interviewees and focus group participants indicated that students regularly take advantage of those communication avenues, while more than three quarters of the SLU interviewees and focus group participants indicated that students rarely used email or texts to contact them. While wifi access on campus and around SLU was more constrained than at AUF at the

time data was collected, accessibility by text would have been the same. Given the clear pattern, this appears to be a behavior linked to institutional climate and culture, which will be discussed further in Chapter Six.

Underlying cultural norms clearly constrain the relationships between professors and graduate students. One professor at SLU identified the power differences in the social hierarchy as a critical barrier to collegiality, saying:

> For the Philippines, I think we really have a power distance. There's still a hierarchy between professor and the students. And that's something that cannot be changed perhaps. Because I've been exposed to other cultural practices and they call each other by first names. By that evidence alone, you know that you can easily talk to your professor. But here because of the distance, it takes time before you know it that students have problems with a subject, if ever you will even know it at all, even if the semester has ended.

Another SLU graduate program coordinator shared how she tried to reduce the social distance, saying:

> When I communicate with all graduate students, being the graduate program coordinator, I just simply write 'yours truly, [first name],' not my last name. Because perhaps teachers will always say Dr. [last name] or something, which I feel that it shouldn't be. Because by calling each other by first names, you actually strengthen the bond that ties as well as it

facilitates open communication. Open communication is very important. And that's something which cannot be achieved in a Philippine culture.

The use of social media, however, and Facebook in particular, seemed to close some of the social distance and allowed professors and students to engage in ways they would not have otherwise. The one SLU and three AUF professors who reported using Facebook to message their students reported that they got more timely responses and had greater engagement with students outside of classes than their peers. The use of social media, and Facebook in particular, seems to close some of the social distance and allow students and professors to engage in ways they might not have otherwise.

On the whole, it seems norms around social distance are one important influencing factor in how professors relate to their students, but these norms differed for several reasons. Those who trained outside of their current institutions for all or part of their graduate education were more comfortable with decreasing social distance than those with experience only at their own institutions, which indicates one way in which academic inbreeding affects teaching practice (to be discussed further in Chapter 6). Gender and/or generation may affect differences in comfort levels with decreasing social distance, as more of the older female respondents seemed to be concerned about maintaining a proper distance between students and professors than their male colleagues. This could be an artifact of the disparity between the number of men and women interviewed, a gender difference, or a generational difference,

given the limited scope of this study. This evidence supports the idea of teaching being a socially situated practice that cannot be changed simply by teaching individuals new techniques or providing them with new tools.

Mentoring.

Mentoring is an important aspect of the graduate student-professor relationship as noted above, and interviewees and focus group participants commented on how they mentored their graduate students. For most professors, motivation and maintaining student interest in completing the program appeared to be two critical goals for mentoring. As one AUF professor shared:

> We don't want to overwhelm our students. At the beginning of the subject or the master's course or the doctoral, we ask them what do you want to do for your thesis, for your dissertation? If you have something already in your mind and in your heart that you want to do it, your interest, tell us so we can guide you at the beginning. Because when they prepare their reports – because during the discussion, they can develop or they already have something in their mind. They are already pre-emptive with a topic they wanted to pursue.

At SLU, faculty members similarly described helping graduate students develop an overarching research program under which they would engage in three individual research projects for their thesis or dissertation and beyond.

The behaviors they described as part of mentoring, however, were somewhat at odds with the hierarchical relationship and behaviors that most

described for teaching and supervising research above. In addition, few faculty members had their own research agendas, and they were therefore not modeling the behaviors in which they were mentoring the students.

The specific emphasis on motivating students to complete the program and concern for potential referrals also signals that some of the key metrics the universities may be using at a program or departmental level value enrollment and completion as indicators of quality teaching. These institutional factors will be discussed further in Chapter Six.

Teaching Philosophy and Approaches to Teaching

When asked about their teaching approaches, a key phrase that was repeated by almost all participants across all disciplines in both institutions was the need to use “evidence-based” approaches to teaching, anticipating the forthcoming changes in teaching requirements with the adoption of OBE. While for most that was synonymous with student-centered teaching, few were able to draw the distinction between use of student-centered activities and use of student-centered approaches. Although all interviewees and focus group participants taught at universities affiliated with the Catholic Church, only two identified a religious or moral aspect to their teaching practice. Thus, the moral authority aspect of transmission-centered teaching approaches was not evident.

Many of the professors interviewed seemed uneasy about the uncertainty around how OBE would change teaching in their fields, as they were unable to articulate what constituted evidence or how it was generated, except to note that

CHED would issue the guidelines for each discipline. (At the time of data collection CHED had not yet issued guidelines for OBE for most disciplines.) When asked what they thought would be included in the OBE requirements, most said interactive teaching methods and a portfolio of work products. When OBE guidance was ultimately released for each degree to be granted, it specified the required program structure, program outcomes with performance standards (although many of these were still somewhat subjective), a requirement to use student-centered and interactive teaching approaches, sample curriculum, sample syllabi, guidance on minimum qualifications of dean and faculty to deliver the program, university-level supports and resources needed (library, learning labs, etc.), minimum admissions requirements for students, and a requirement that universities submit their proposed program outcomes, curriculum, performance indicators, course syllabi, and continuous quality improvement plan to CHED for approval.

As discussed in Chapter Two, scholars have identified a range of individual characteristics that influence teaching philosophies and practice. The results below focus on the preparation, content delivery, and assessment phases of teaching as that is how the survey questions were structured, and to the extent that sub-group differences were identified in the study sample, they are discussed below.

Course-load mandate as a key limitation.

One key influence in the individual sphere of teaching practice that respondents identified as a limitation to their teaching practice was the typical course-load for instructors in private universities in Philippines. Although CHED mandates a maximum of six courses per semester (two to three contact hours per week) for full-time faculty, many universities assign more courses to certain instructors as a means of increasing their compensation, and CHED has no structure or policy for enforcing that maximum. Even with six courses, professors may have to streamline their preparation or make strategic decisions about which courses get more of their attention. Survey responses, however, indicated a range of numbers of courses taught by faculty. There was a clear difference between the number of courses that SLU professors reported teaching and what AUF professors reported teaching as shown in Table 9, which reflects the fact that many AUF graduate instructors teach part-time, teaching only one or two courses per semester (72.7 percent of respondents, which likely includes administrators as well as part-time instructors).

Table 9

Average number of courses taught per semester by university

Number of Courses	AUF (n=18)	SLU (n=68)
1	1	8
2	7	9
3	1	5
4	0	8
5	2	4
6	0	2
7	0	2
8	0	13
9	0	1
Not reported	7	16

Mean	2.55	4.46
Range	1-5	1-9
Standard Deviation	1.293	2.675

Among SLU personnel, respondents' answers varied, with 32.7 percent reporting as few as two courses taught per semester (which is typical for individuals with extensive administrative responsibilities), and 26.9 percent reporting that they were teaching eight to nine courses per semester, some of which administrators attributed to covering courses while a portion of the faculty was on leave (enrolled in graduate programs at other universities in Philippines or abroad to increase the proportion of fully credentialed faculty members). Clearly, a teaching load of eight or nine classes per semester leaves little time for student advising, research, or other tasks that are typically included in the duties or responsibilities of faculty members.

Preparation for a course.

In terms of preparation for teaching, professors across universities and disciplines described very similar approaches. Most respondents at both institutions (all but two focus group participants) said they review the material for the course, update the references, and revise activity assignments, but make final adjustments to the syllabus after the initial class meeting so they have the opportunity to gauge the experience and knowledge of the students, which is critical as they often have both very experienced professionals and students straight out of undergraduate programs. Deans, graduate program coordinators, and professors indicated that they had latitude in the finalization of syllabus for

each iteration of a course. One AUF respondent thought that it is important to have students identify their own learning objectives, which he added to the standard course objectives. Another professor at AUF was particularly enterprising and said that he writes to the authors of the articles he is using to get a sense from them how they have approached teaching those topics, which he said usually elicits a good response.

The amount of time spent preparing for each graduate lesson varied widely among survey respondents, as shown in Table 10. In the case of the five respondents who responded that they spend 24, 40, and 48 hours preparing for each lesson, it is likely that they misread the question and were responding for the course rather than a single lesson or that their concept of preparation included pre-lesson work, delivery, responding to students, and grading tasks. The typical range reported was 2 hours to 6 hours (accounting for 70.5% of respondents). Preparation time, however, may have also been highly constrained by the individual's course-load, as noted above.

Table 10

Average number of hours spent preparing for each graduate lesson

Number of Hours	AUF (n=18)	SLU (n=68)
1	0	1
1.5	1	4
2	3	5
2.5	2	1
3	2	6
3.5	0	3
4	2	12
4.5	0	2
5	3	11
6	2	6

6.5	1	0
7	0	1
8	2	5
10	0	3
16	0	1
18	0	1
24	0	2
40	0	2
48	0	1
Not reported	0	1
Mean	4.222	7.209
Range	1.5-8.0	1.0-48.0
Standard Deviation	2.0738	8.9399

Approaches to student learning.

As discussed in Chapter Two, teaching practice is often described along the dichotomy of transmission-focused methods versus student-centered methods. In response to being asked which scholars were most influential in their teaching practice (n=68), the most common responses were Dewey (16.7 percent), Gardner (12.5 percent), Bruner (7.1 percent), Erikson (7.1 percent), Piaget (7.1 percent), and Socrates (7.1 percent). Often where multiple responses were recorded, respondents cited scholars from competing schools of thought, for example, Vygotsky and Skinner, which made it difficult to interpret how those divergent approaches might be used in their teaching practice.

Data from interviews and focus groups provided clarity on their practices, however. Only five professors of the 36 interviewed (three from SLU and two from AUF) discussed student-centered approaches aligned with progressivist or social constructivist schools of thought. As one of the SLU professors in Accounting and Business Management said, “It has to be experiential learning. We are both here to experience each other. It might be that I’m the one standing

here, but I am the one learning from you likewise." An AUF Public Health professor shared, "What we do is we let them go into the field…. So, what they do is they go into the field, do some surveys. And if possible, they can do some intervention, a mini-intervention program, which is achievable in one day or in two days or months."

Many professors in focus groups and in interviews indicated that they rely to a large extent on lecture and discussion. As one AUF professors explained:

> So we do some discussions. We explain to them the theories, concepts and then the applications and give plenty of examples. And then we also get some inputs based on the experiences of the students…. We already have set up quality presentations. And those presentations usually come from the textbook. And we also have the journals [as supplementary sources].

Many professors, perhaps particularly those who teach a large number of courses, rely on the course materials that they receive, which typically includes a base syllabus, PowerPoint presentation for the course, and lecture notes. As one SLU professor noted, "In terms of learning, it's not totally a learner-focused type. Because admittedly, it's more theoretical."

A few interviewees also discussed how they used what they termed blended learning approaches – transmission-focused approaches combined with student-centered activities. As one SLU professors described it:

> So we do mixed, like a blended learning approach. So, it's a combination of a number of teaching methodologies. We have the usual lecture. And at the end of the semester or even at the middle of the semester, we have our term project. So, like if the subject is organizational development, we have case analysis as well as letting our students go to companies to really apply the process of organizational development.

Most of the respondents who used described blended approaches were those in the education faculties. Individuals in the education faculties at both institutions indicated that they rely adult learning principles for graduate education, meaning utilizing the experience that the students bring to the classroom. As one SLU respondent shared, "The students who have less experience are limited when they come in. So, it is harder for them. But I still try to get them to talk."

Survey responses confirm the use of the range of approaches described in interviews and focus groups, but also revealed some inconsistencies in how they think about the different modes of content delivery. Table 11 shows the range of survey responses. In addition, 24.4 percent of respondents' combined answers for time that should be spent in interactive learning and lecture totaled more than 100 percent, indicating that they have not considered the tension between those two modes of content delivery or they consider lecture to be interactive.

Table 11

Percentage of graduate class time that should be spent in lecture and interactive activities

Percentage of Class Time	Lecture AUF Respondents (n=18)	Lecture SLU Respondents (n=68)	Interactive Activities AUF Respondents (n=18)	Interactive Activities SLU Respondents (n=68)
5%	0	1	0	0
10%	1	7	1	1
15%	0	1	0	1
20%	6	14	1	4
25%	0	3	0	7
30%	4	16	4	9
33%	0	1	0	1
35%	0	2	1	0
40%	2	7	4	4
50%	1	12	0	8
60%	3	2	1	6
65%	0	0	1	0
70%	0	1	0	6
75%	0	0	1	1
80%	1	1	1	9
90%	0	0	1	5
95%	0	0	0	2
100%	0	0	2	4
Not reported	0	0	0	0
Mean	35.56%	32.03%	50.83%	55.26%
Range	10%-80%	5%-80%	10%-100%	10%-100%
Standard Deviation	19.166	15.599	27.826	26.480

Most of the professors interviewed said that they like to use interactive methods in the classroom, but for some, “interaction” was largely between the professor and the students. Qualitatively, professors described how interaction varied from undergraduate to master’s to doctoral levels, in which the most group work and interaction seems to occur at the master’s level (where they will have more to learn from each other), with a reduction at the doctoral level as students have to demonstrate their competence to conduct their research on their own.

Interaction at the doctoral level was closely related to students presenting their progress and research findings to faculty.

About half of interviewees reported assigning group work and use of hands-on activities in the classroom, and Table 12 shows the distribution of survey responses on the percentage of time that should be used in group work or hands-on activities. Based on the discussions in interviews and focus groups, some of these differences were related to discipline (for example, lab work, use of computer simulations, site visits, case study analysis, etc., which is discussed further in Chapter Five), but some were related to their own preferences and comfort levels with various methodologies.

Table 12

Percentage of graduate class time that should be spent in group work and hands-on activities

Percentage of Class Time	AUF Respondents (n=18)	SLU Respondents (n=68)
10%	0	1
15%	0	1
20%	0	5
25%	0	3
30%	3	8
33%	0	1
35%	0	3
40%	7	9
45%	1	0
50%	1	9
60%	1	5
65%	0	1
70%	1	5
75%	0	4
80%	1	13
85%	1	0
90%	0	2
100%	2	1

Not reported	0	0
Mean	53.33%	53.43%
Range	30%-100%	10%-100%
Standard Deviation	23.452	22.820

In addition to their activities in the classroom, mentoring and working with students outside of class time is another aspect of teaching identified in the literature as being critical to graduate education. Table 13 shows the number of hours that faculty members reported meeting with students outside of class time. While variation based on the number of courses taught would be expected, the small cluster of respondents who said they spend no time and the larger cluster who spent very limited time may reflect the norms around social distance identified by some interviewees as a barrier to communication with graduate students. It may also reflect the high course-loads that many professors at SLU seem to have and the part-time status of many of the AUF professors, which will be discussed further in Chapter Six.

Table 13

Average number of hours spent meeting with students outside of class time

Number of Hours	AUF (n=18)	SLU (n=68)
0	2	5
0.5	0	3
0.75	0	2
1	1	14
1.5	2	5
2	7	16
2.5	0	1
3	3	5
4	1	3
5	1	3
6	0	1
8	0	1

10	1	3
24	0	2
30	0	1
60	0	1
Not reported	0	2
Mean	2.556	4.289
Range	0-10	0-60
Standard Deviation	2.2221	8.8606

In Chapter Two, several factors were identified that may influence teaching practice, and specifically the kinds of pedagogies or activities they use, including sex, nationality (for which study in a foreign university was substituted), degree held, and teaching experience. Although the findings from the literature did not indicate significant differences based on these factors, the lack of information about their influence in non-Western settings introduced the question of whether they might be relevant for this study. Each of those is discussed below in the data collected for this study.

Differences in teaching practices by sex.

Survey results showed no differences in teaching practices by sex, as shown in Table 14 and Table 15. Responses were very similar for men and women, which was consistent with the findings in Stes, Gijbels, and Van Petegem (2007).

Table 14

Percentage of graduate class time that should be spent in lecture and interactive activities by sex of respondent

Percentage of Class Time	Lecture Female Respondents (n=57)	Lecture Male Respondents (n=27)	Interactive Activities Female Respondents (n=57)	Interactive Activities Male Respondents (n=27)	Hands-on/Group Work Female Respondents (n=57)	Hands-on/Group Work Male Respondents (n=27)
5%	1	0	0	0	0	0
10%	8	0	2	0	1	0
15%	0	1	1	0	0	1
20%	12	8	3	2	4	1
25%	1	0	3	3	2	1
30%	12	8	11	2	6	2
33%	0	1	0	1	0	1
35%	2	0	1	0	1	1
40%	6	3	5	3	10	6
45%	0	0	0	0	1	0
50%	10	3	5	3	6	3
60%	2	3	5	2	3	3
65%	0	0	1	0	0	1
70%	1	0	2	4	7	1
75%	0	0	2	0	4	0
80%	2	0	5	4	8	5
85%	0	0	0	0	1	0
90%	0	0	6	0	2	0
95%	0	0	2	0	0	0
100%	0	0	3	3	2	1
Mean	32.8%	33.3%	53.9%	55.5%	53.9%	51.6%
Range	5%-80%	15%-60%	10%-100%	20%-100%	10%-100%	15%-100%
Standard Deviation	17.754	13.794	27.288	25.685	23.490	21.944

Table 15

Average number of hours on teaching-related tasks by sex

Number of Hours	Preparing for Each Graduate Lesson Female Respondents (n=56)	Preparing for Each Graduate Lesson Male Respondents (n=27)	Meeting with Students Outside of Class Female Respondents (n=56)	Meeting with Students Outside of Class Male Respondents (n=26)	Grading and Assessing Learning Female Respondents (n=54)	Grading and Assessing Learning Female Respondents (n=25)
0	0	0	5	2	0	0
0.5	0	0	2	1	0	0
0.75	0	0	1	1	0	0
1	1	0	10	4	6	4
1.5	4	1	5	2	1	1
2	3	4	18	4	8	7
2.5	2	1	1	0	2	1
3	5	3	4	4	13	4
3.5	3	0	0	0	0	0
4	8	6	2	2	3	2
4.5	1	1	0	0	0	0
5	10	3	4	0	7	2
5.5	0	0	0	0	1	0
6	5	3	1	0	4	0
6.5	1	0	0	0	0	0
7	1	0	0	0	1	0
8	5	2	0	1	1	1
10	2	1	1	3	2	2
12	0	0	0	0	1	0
15	0	0	0	0	1	0
16	0	1	0	0	0	0
18	1	0	0	0	0	0
20	0	0	0	0	2	0
24	2	0	1	1	0	0
30	0	0	0	1	1	0

36	0	0	0	0	0	1
40	1	1	0	0	0	0
48	1	0	0	0	0	0
60	0	0	0	1	0	0
Mean	6.920	6.093	3.532	4.935	5.111	4.640
Range	1-48	1.5-40	0-60	0-30	1-30	1-36
Standard Deviation	8.5327	7.4227	8.4013	7.2119	5.3875	7.0127

Table 16

Percentage of graduate class time that should be spent in lecture and interactive activities by study abroad experience

Percentage of Class Time	Lecture No Study Abroad Respondents (n=75)	Lecture Study Abroad Respondents (n=8)	Interactive Activities No Study Abroad Respondents (n=75)	Interactive Activities Study Abroad Respondents (n=8)	Hands-on/Group Work No Study Abroad Respondents (n=75)	Hands-on/Group Work Study Abroad Respondents (n=8)
5%	0	1	0	0	0	0
10%	8	0	1	1	1	0
15%	1	0	1	0	0	1
20%	18	2	5	0	4	1
25%	1	0	4	1	2	0
30%	18	2	12	1	8	0
33%	0	1	0	1	0	1
35%	1	1	1	0	2	1
40%	9	0	7	1	15	1
45%	0	0	0	0	1	0
50%	12	0	7	1	9	0
60%	4	1	7	0	5	1
65%	0	0	1	0	1	0
70%	1	0	5	1	6	0
75%	0	0	2	0	4	0
80%	2	0	8	1	11	2
85%	0	0	0	0	1	0
90%	0	0	6	0	2	0
95%	0	0	2	0	0	0
100%	0	0	6	0	3	0
Mean	33.1%	29.1%	56.1%	42.3%	54.3%	45.4%
Range	10%-80%	5%-60%	10%-100%	10%-80%	10%-100%	15%-80%
Standard Deviation	16.619	15.824	26.715	23.402	22.561	25.264

Table 17

Average number of hours on teaching-related tasks by study abroad experience

Number of Hours	Preparing for Each Graduate Lesson No Study Abroad Respondents (n=70)	Preparing for Each Graduate Lesson Study Abroad Respondents (n=8)	Meeting with Students Outside of Class No Study Abroad Respondents (n=73)	Meeting with Students Outside of Class Study Abroad Respondents (n=8)	Grading and Assessing Learning No Study Abroad Respondents (n=74)	Grading and Assessing Learning Study Abroad Respondents (n=8)
0	0	0	7	0	0	0
0.5	0	0	2	0	0	0
0.75	0	0	1	1	0	0
1	7	2	13	1	1	0
1.5	1	1	7	0	3	2
2	12	3	19	3	6	1
2.5	3	0	1	0	3	0
3	17	0	8	0	8	0
3.5	0	0	0	0	2	1
4	5	0	3	1	14	0
4.5	0	0	0	0	2	0
5	9	0	4	0	12	0
5.5	1	0	0	0	0	0
6	4	0	1	0	7	1
6.5	0	0	0	0	1	0
7	1	0	0	0	1	0
8	2	0	0	1	7	0
10	3	1	4	0	3	0
12	0	1	0	0	0	0
15	1	0	0	0	0	0
16	0	0	0	0	0	1
18	0	0	0	0	1	0
20	2	0	0	0	0	0
24	0	0	2	0	1	1
30	1	0	0	1	0	0

36	1	0	0	0	0	0
40	0	0	0	0	1	1
48	0	0	0	0	1	0
60	0	0	1	0	0	0
Mean	5.136	11.813	3.778	6.225	6.115	3.938
Range	1-36	1.5-40	0-60	0.75-30	1-48	1-12
Standard Deviation	6.0910	14.0024	7.8865	9.8824	7.2526	4.4113

Table 18

Percentage of graduate class time that should be spent in lecture and interactive activities by highest degree held

Percentage of Class Time	Lecture MA/MS Respondents (n=51)	Lecture PhD/EdD Respondents (n=33)	Interactive Activities MA/MS Respondents (n=51)	Interactive Activities PhD/EdD Respondents (n=33)	Hands-on/Group Work MA/MS Respondents (n=51)	Hands-on/Group Work PhD/EdD Respondents (n=33)
5%	0	1	0	0	0	0
10%	4	4	1	1	1	0
15%	1	0	1	0	0	1
20%	11	9	4	1	4	1
25%	1	0	2	4	1	2
30%	14	6	6	7	3	5
33%	0	1	0	1	0	1
35%	1	1	0	1	1	2
40%	5	4	5	3	11	5
45%	0	0	0	0	0	1
50%	8	5	4	4	7	2
60%	3	2	5	2	3	3
65%	0	0	0	1	1	0
70%	1	0	5	1	3	3
75%	0	0	2	0	2	2
80%	2	0	6	3	9	4
85%	0	0	0	0	0	1
90%	0	0	5	1	2	0
95%	0	0	1	1	0	0
100%	0	0	4	2	3	0
Mean	34.6%	30.4%	58.0%	48.7%	55.6%	49.3%
Range	10%-80%	5%-60%	10%-100%	10%-100%	10%-100%	15%-85%
Standard Deviation	17.258	15.159	27.001	25.440	23.888	21.065

Table 19

Average number of hours on teaching-related tasks by highest degree held

Number of Hours	Preparing for Each Graduate Lesson MA/MS Respondents (n=50)	Preparing for Each Graduate Lesson PhD/EdD Respondents (n=33)	Meeting with Students Outside of Class MA/MS Respondents (n=50)	Meeting with Students Outside of Class PhD/EdD Respondents (n=32)	Grading and Assessing Learning MA/MS Respondents (n=47)	Grading and Assessing Learning PhD/EdD Respondents (n=32)
0	0	0	6	1	0	0
0.5	0	0	2	1	0	0
0.75	0	0	1	1	0	0
1	0	1	9	5	8	2
1.5	3	2	5	2	1	1
2	7	0	14	8	7	8
2.5	1	2	0	1	2	1
3	5	3	3	5	10	7
3.5	0	3	0	0	0	0
4	11	3	2	2	4	1
4.5	1	1	0	0	0	0
5	9	4	1	3	6	3
5.5	0	0	0	0	0	1
6	5	3	1	0	3	1
6.5	0	1	0	0	0	0
7	1	0	0	0	0	1
8	4	3	0	1	0	2
10	1	2	3	1	2	2
12	0	0	0	0	0	1
15	0	0	0	0	1	0
16	0	1	0	0	0	0
18	0	1	0	0	0	0
20	0	0	0	0	1	1
24	1	1	2	0	0	0
30	0	0	0	1	1	0

36	0	0	0	0	1	0
40	0	2	0	0	0	0
48	1	0	0	0	0	0
60	0	0	1	0	0	0
Mean	5.610	8.227	4.246	5.2669	5.181	4.641
Range	1.5-48	1-40	0-60	0-30	1-36	1-20
Standard Deviation	6.9966	9.5436	9.4199	5.2699	6.9505	3.9944

Differences in teaching practices by experience studying abroad.

Only a very small number of survey respondents had experience studying abroad, as shown in Table 16 and Table 17. While their responses were somewhat different than their peers, it is not possible to draw conclusions from the survey data. Similarly, the number of interviewees who had study abroad experience was very small, and no patterns were discernible in the qualitative data either.

Differences by degree held.

Although interviews and focus groups did not reveal patterns of differences between master's holder and doctorate holders in their teaching practices, survey responses did differ somewhat. On average, respondents with doctoral degrees spent more time preparing their lessons and more time working with students outside of class than those with masters degrees, as shown in Table 19. It is likely that those with doctoral degrees are teaching the most advanced courses and have heavier advising responsibilities than those with masters degrees (at least for graduate students), and that at least partially explains the difference in their allocation of time.

Differences by teaching experience.

As shown in Tables 20-25, few differences were identified by years of graduate teaching experience. Those who had the most years of teaching experience reported spending more time preparing for their lessons than their peers with less experience, but as noted above in the section on differences by

degree held, that may reflect the assignment of more advanced courses to them. Finally, those with the fewest years of experience teaching graduate courses spent both more and less time than their peers grading assignments and assessing student learning. While the responses of those with more teaching experience clustered in the three to six hour range, 44.4 percent of those with one to five years of teaching experience reported spending fewer than three hours on grading and assessment, while 13.3 percent reported spending more than six hours on grading and assessment. Thus, it appears that experience has a great deal of influence on teaching practice, and as teaching loads were not significantly different across years of teaching experience, those with more experience were likely able to spend their time more efficiently than those with less experience. As one AUF professor described:

> During my first year of handling grad school, I think I gave so much pressure to myself, I set a very high standard…. I remember I prepared so much and then [put so many requirements on] my students. Because I had this idea that when you're in grad school, you have to…learn so much. But after that, I realized that it’s not about the quantity or the number of topics that you’re able to discuss. It’s more of a depth of the quality and how you’re able to integrate the theories to the actual practice…. I’m somehow able to identify the things…my students’ essential needs as compared to the things that I just want them to learn

but are not necessarily essential. I used to do so much, requirements, lectures. But now it's more relaxed.

Table 20

Percentage of graduate class time that should be spent in lecture by years of teaching experience

Percentage of Class Time	1-5 years of experience (n=47)	6-10 years of experience (n=23)	11-15 years of experience (n=7)	16-20 years of experience (n=6)	More than 20 years of experience (n=2)
5%	0	1	0	0	0
10%	5	0	1	1	1
15%	1	0	0	0	0
20%	12	4	2	1	0
25%	0	2	1	0	0
30%	12	6	0	2	0
33%	1	0	0	0	0
35%	1	0	0	1	0
40%	4	4	1	0	0
50%	7	4	1	0	1
60%	1	2	1	1	0
70%	1	0	0	0	0
80%	2	0	0	0	0
Mean	32.6%	34.6%	32.1%	30.8%	30.0%
Range	10%-80%	5%-60%	10%-60%	10%-60%	10%-50%
Standard Deviation	17.344	14.135	18.225	16.857	28.284

Table 21

Percentage of graduate class time that should be spent in interactive activities by years of teaching experience

Percentage of Class Time	1-5 years of experience (n=47)	6-10 years of experience (n=23)	11-15 years of experience (n=7)	16-20 years of experience (n=6)	More than 20 years of experience (n=2)
10%	0	2	0	0	0
15%	1	0	0	0	0
20%	3	1	0	0	1
25%	3	2	1	1	0
30%	6	4	0	3	0

33%	1	0	0	0	0
40%	5	2	0	1	0
50%	4	1	1	1	1
60%	6	1	0	0	0
65%	0	1	0	0	0
70%	3	3	0	0	0
75%	1	1	0	0	0
80%	7	1	2	0	0
90%	3	1	2	0	0
95%	1	1	0	0	0
100%	3	2	1	0	0
Mean	56.0%	52.8%	73.6%	34.2%	35.0%
Range	15%-100%	10%-100%	25%-100%	25%-50%	20%-50%
Standard Deviation	25.680	29.109	26.570	9.174	21.213

Table 22

Percentage of graduate class time that should be spent in hands-on or group work by years of teaching experience

Percentage of Class Time	1-5 years of experience (n=47)	6-10 years of experience (n=23)	11-15 years of experience (n=7)	16-20 years of experience (n=6)	More than 20 years of experience (n=2)
10%	1	0	0	0	0
15%	0	0	0	1	0
20%	3	1	0	1	0
25%	2	1	0	0	0
30%	5	2	1	0	0
33%	1	0	0	0	0
35%	1	0	1	1	0
40%	9	4	1	2	0
50%	8	1	0	0	1
60%	2	4	0	0	0
65%	1	0	0	0	0
70%	0	4	1	0	1
75%	1	2	1	0	0
80%	9	2	2	1	0
85%	0	1	0	0	0
90%	2	0	0	0	0
100%	2	1	0	0	0
Mean	52.3%	57.8%	58.6%	38.3%	60.0%
Range	10%-100%	20%-100%	30%-80%	15%-80%	50%-70%
Standard Deviation	23.804	21.417	22.493	22.949	14.142

Table 23

Hours spent preparing for each graduate lesson by years of teaching experience

Hours	1-5 years of experience (n=46)	6-10 years of experience (n=23)	11-15 years of experience (n=7)	16-20 years of experience (n=6)	More than 20 years of experience (n=2)
1	0	0	1	0	0
1.5	2	1	1	1	0
2	6	2	0	0	0
2.5	1	2	0	0	0
3	4	1	2	1	0
3.5	0	0	1	2	0
4	10	2	1	0	1
4.5	2	0	0	0	0
5	6	6	1	1	0
6	5	3	0	0	0
7	1	0	0	0	0
8	4	3	0	0	0
10	2	0	0	0	1
16	0	1	0	0	0
18	0	1	0	0	0
24	1	1	0	0	0
40	1	0	0	1	0
48	1	0	0	0	0
Mean	6.728	6.587	3.00	9.417	7.000
Range	1.5-48	1.5-24	1-5	1.5-40	4-10
Standard Deviation	8.8240	5.5261	1.3844	15.0247	4.2426

Table 24

Hours spent meeting with students outside of class by years of teaching experience

Hours	1-5 years of experience (n=47)	6-10 years of experience (n=22)	11-15 years of experience (n=6)	16-20 years of experience (n=6)	More than 20 years of experience (n=2)
0	2	5	0	0	0
0.5	2	1	0	0	0
0.75	1	0	0	1	0
1	13	1	1	0	0
1.5	3	1	2	0	1
2	13	5	2	3	0
2.5	0	0	0	0	1

3	4	4	0	0	0
4	2	2	0	0	0
5	1	1	0	1	0
6	0	1	0	0	0
8	0	1	0	0	0
10	3	0	1	0	0
24	2	0	0	0	0
30	0	0	0	1	0
60	1	0	0	0	0
Mean	4.432	2.364	3.000	6.967	2.000
Range	0-60	0-8	1-10	0.75-30	1.5-2.5
Standard Deviation	9.6625	2.1111	3.4496	11.3704	0.7071

Table 25

Hours spent grading and assessing student learning by years of teaching experience

Hours	1-5 years of experience (n=45)	6-10 years of experience (n=21)	11-15 years of experience (n=6)	16-20 years of experience (n=6)	More than 20 years of experience (n=2)
1	7	3	1	0	0
1.5	1	0	0	1	0
2	10	3	1	1	0
2.5	2	1	0	0	0
3	10	5	1	1	0
4	4	1	0	0	0
5	2	5	2	0	1
6	3	1	0	0	0
7	0	0	0	1	0
8	0	0	1	0	1
10	2	0	0	2	0
12	0	1	0	0	0
15	1	0	0	0	0
20	1	1	0	0	0
30	1	0	0	0	0
36	1	0	0	0	0
Mean	5.078	4.452	4.000	5.583	6.500
Range	1-36	1-20	1-8	1.5-10	5-8
Standard Deviation	7.1263	4.3067	2.5298	3.9296	2.1213

Assessment of student learning.

Respondents indicated that they used a variety of tools to assess student learning. At AUF, the AUF Graduate School's standards for grading guided respondents' practices, as did SLU's Graduate Programs Policies, Guidelines, and Curricula (1998 edition). At both AUF and SLU, student assignments, presentation, papers, and exams comprised a majority of the tools for assessing learning. As one SLU professor explained:

> We assess our students based on their performance when they do their reports. And the manner how they make their write-up…. If they have the field work, we go with them. We observe how they perform…. And the quality of the paper they presented. And then another is the success of the feedback coming from the listeners.

Degrees in computer science, however, had a differing set of standards. One AUF professor explained:

> Well, basically it's the difference between the doctorate level program in IT from the other. If you would compare the programs and standards of the Commission on Higher Education in the Philippines, all other disciplines do not have a requirement of international and national paper presentation. But in our field, there are two requirements. First, you need to present your research study or research work or designation, concentration, in the national presentation. And you also need to present that…in an international context.

Most professors indicated that assignments are structured so that graduate students can select their own topics or use their own experience or institutional setting as the bases for their work, which they believed had the result of increasing engagement in the learning process. While opinions on how classes should be conducted varied, in practice almost all the professors interviewed used some student-centered activities in their course assignments.

The time reported for grading or assessing student learning varied almost as widely as the time reported for preparing for lessons, as shown in Table 26, ranging from 1 hour to 36 hours with a mean time of 4.9 hours (n=81). As noted above, time spent grading and assessing student learning differed significantly by years of teaching experience, with more experienced professors seemingly able to direct their energies more efficiently.

Table 26

Average number of hours spent grading or assessing student learning for a graduate course

Number of Hours	AUF (n=18)	SLU (n=68)
1	1	10
1.5	0	2
2	4	11
2.5	1	2
3	4	13
4	3	2
5	2	8
5.5	1	0
6	0	4
7	0	1
8	0	2
10	0	4
12	0	1
15	0	1

20	0	2
30	0	1
36	0	1
Not reported	2	3
Mean	3.187	5.338
Range	1-5.5	1-36
Standard Deviation	1.2894	6.4391

Conclusion

The Philippines Development Plan 2017-2022 (National Economic Development Agency, 2017) assumes that transmission-centered approaches dominate higher education and represent a performance gap in the higher education system. While it does appear that at AUF and SLU, the majority of professors rely on transmission-focused approaches with some student-centered activities, given the course-loads for which full-time instructors are responsible, it is likely infeasible for them to used student-centered approaches in much of their teaching, even at the graduate level. Still, many report using some types of student-centered activities. The literature clearly supports the finding that student-centered approaches require more time in preparation and delivery, and there is a limit to the number of work hours in professors' employment agreements. Therefore, in addition to a reduction in course-loads, a concerted professional development effort would likely be required to shift teaching practices to student-centered approaches, which will be discussed in Chapter Six.

As found in the Western literature, demographic factors seemed to not be relevant within the Philippine context. Experiential factors, however, including

degree held and years of experience teaching graduate courses may be important factors influencing teaching practice as professors were able to refine their teaching practices and reconceptualize their own goals and processes over time. Their reliance on external measures of validation, however, as opposed to critical reflection on their own and within their departments, reflects the cultural norms around conflict avoidance and respect for elders, as well as the influence of academic inbreeding within the institutions (to be discussed further in Chapter Six).

The majority of faculty interviewed were passionate about teaching, and teaching was the central element of their professional identities. Teaching staff at both institutions face similar challenges in terms of building consensus on the purpose of graduate education and how that purpose will be met through the new OBE curricula when they are released by CHED. However, at least some of the faculty will continue to face challenges with the increasing emphasis on research in both institutions given their lack of attention to ontology and epistemology within their departments. While teaching is certainly a core part of their professional identities, very few of the professors interviewed or who participated in FGDs focused on researcher or knowledge generator as an equally important part of their identities, which poses a challenge when they are responsible for training graduate students to become researchers. Administrators and heads of research offices noted that the emphasis on research in graduate education will only intensify. As one said, “Graduate school should be productivity, but it should

be knowledge productivity. That should be the…main difference… between graduate school from undergrad…. I tell the teachers even in graduate school, in seminars, ‘Do you really know why you're here?’ Because this changes the way that you teach. It shouldn't be like an undergrad way of teaching. Your expectations of outputs and hopefully outcomes in there is going to be different…. Hopefully, we will have that.” Further, there seems to be a very important role for Filipino scholars in contesting and adapting the dominant literature and research methods in some fields to their cultural context. At the individual level, some of these factors will be shaped by disciplinary standards and practices, as well as the extent to which they may be able to engage with disciplinary networks beyond their institutions, which is the focus of the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Disciplinary Modes of Practice

As practices used for teaching vary within each discipline, disciplinary practices are inculcated in scholars over the course of their education and their careers, one would expect to find distinct differences in teaching practices based on disciplinary norms. This chapter examines differences in teaching practice, including epistemological stances, focus of course content, development of research skills, and modes of delivery across different disciplines, using Becher's typologies. It also discusses engagement in disciplinary networks and international influences in disciplinary practice at each of the institutions. In addition, the final section of the chapter focuses on findings related to departmental climate and culture.

For the purposes of this chapter, disciplines were categorized as shown in Table 27. The vast majority of graduate programs offered by both SLU and AUF fall into the applied-hard category, although their education programs are both large and fall into the applied-soft category. Some faculties had smaller numbers of teaching staff than others, and 13 survey respondents did not report their department. As noted in Chapter Three, at SLU, one focus group combined pure-hard and applied-hard and the other combined pure-soft and applied-soft. The AUF focus group combined applied-hard and applied-soft, as those are the only graduate programs offered.

Table 27

Categorization of departmental personnel into disciplinary typologies

Pure-hard (n=5)	Pure-soft (n=3)	Applied-hard (n=39)	Applied-soft (n=26)
Mathematics	Humanities	Business and Accounting	Education
Natural Sciences		Computer Science	Social Sciences
		Engineering	
		Nursing	
		Public Health	

Differences in Teaching Practices by Disciplinary Typology

Analysis of interviews with professors, graduate program coordinators, and deans across departments provided information about how disciplinarity is manifested in teaching practice. The influence of discipline on teaching practice became evident in discussions on epistemology, theory and application, course content, the development of graduate students' research skills, and engagement in disciplinary networks, which are discussed below.

Epistemological stances.

As noted in Chapter Four, overall, interview questions about epistemology in their fields were difficult for many respondents, those in the pure-hard and applied-hard fields in particular, reflecting that their fields are not value-laden. Respondents in the applied-soft and pure-soft disciplines did reflect on their epistemological stances. One applied-soft respondent volunteered for her department, "We are constructivist in terms of teaching." The pure-soft representative reported much wider range within his department, "There are varied epistemologies in our department. Some are Marxist, some are more Freirean, while others do more critical analysis. So, we have a range of philosophies, and it is good for the students to see that." Neither committed to a

particular stance for him or herself, however. This gap may indicate that many doctoral programs at these institutions lack a critical examination of their own practices. Alternatively, it may be that many faculty members' limited experience with research has offered them little opportunity to explore and examine their own research stances and further limited their ability to bring research into their teaching effectively. It may also limit their ability to effectively mentor graduate (and particularly doctoral) students in research stances.

Utilization of the terms "theory" and "application".

Chapter Four identified inconsistent uses of the terms theory and applied related to graduate learning, particularly at SLU. In analyzing the results using Becher's disciplinary typology, however, clear patterns of utilization emerged. In pure-hard and pure-soft fields, "applied" meant research, the application of principles learned in mastering the theoretical constructs at earlier stages in their academic career. In applied-hard and applied-soft, the terms were used in the reverse. "Applied" referred to the technical skills and the mastery of underlying constructs and frameworks typically developed at the master's level, and "theoretical" applied to research. One SLU applied-hard professor explained, "For the Ph.D. students, I really expect 80 percent of theoretical learning, meaning research, and only 20 percent applied learning. In applied fields, 'theoretical' means research." As all AUF interviewees were in applied fields, they used the terms consistently.

Some pure-hard and applied-hard respondents still had more limited expectations of what doctoral-level education should or could achieve in terms of research. They posited that but their responses also indicated that doctoral students could master the theories behind the research conducted in their fields, but their exposure to research in a doctoral program was predicated on the limited use of laboratory equipment (often not state of the art) and their own funding of expendable supplies or relevant software as the institutions had limited resources in those areas. This institutional constraint was of particular concern for teaching in the new OBE paradigm, in which graduate students will presumably need those resources (access to hardware and software, access to laboratory equipment, and expendable supplies) to develop their learning portfolios. This issue will be discussed further in the section on development of research skills below and in Chapter Six.

Focus of course content.

In most of the applied-hard and applied-soft disciplines for which graduate programs are offered at both institutions, national or local credential and licensure requirements drive the content selected for inclusion in master's program courses. Content for the pure fields had no similar guidelines. The faculty and leadership developed core programs based on their own knowledge, what competing institutions offer, and what CHED recommends for content within specific programs of study. Assessments of mastery of the content are based within the institution rather than by external bodies. Based on their advertised

pass rates for licensure and credentialing examinations, personnel in applied disciplines at both AUF and SLU excelled at teaching to the external examinations. There appears to be less agreement, however, within pure-hard and pure-soft faculties on the content that should be required at master's level or at the doctoral level for any of the graduate programs.

Development of research skills.

Significant differences emerged regarding the expectations of professors in terms of the focus of master's and doctoral level programs and the development of research skills. Respondents in the applied-soft fields seemed to expect that undergraduate programs included preliminary research training, and that it would be expanded through the course of master's and doctoral programs. As one SLU applied-soft professor stated, "At the master's level, follow up on initial research training during undergrad. At the PhD [level], faculty and students have to be more independent in terms of doing their research and contributing to their fields." The pure-soft representative in the sample felt that exposure to research did not begin until the master's level, but that it should occupy about 50 percent of a master's student's time. He said, "The master's is the starting point for doing serious research. The content knowledge of students is much improved. The PhD is research-based instruction," by which he meant 70 percent of the doctoral student's time should be occupied with research.

Respondents in the hard-pure and hard-applied fields indicated that research is only a minor part of a master's program, if it features at all. Pure-

hard professors felt that the master's level focused on principles with research coming later:

> Master's program is something that goes into the deepening of what has been studied in the undergraduate. And then if you go to the… doctoral level, you again enrich the content as well as the methods that are going to be realized in the doctoral program.

Applied-hard fields typically had multiple tracks at the master's level. Most of those tracks (all but one) focused on technical or managerial skills to be used by practitioners outside of academia. The remaining track was an academic track intended to prepare students who want to enter a doctoral program. As one applied-hard professor noted:

> Now, for the doctor of philosophy in nursing program, there is no specialty track anymore. But it's actually preparing the nurse who has finished a master's degree towards theory development. It's a research track. So, we expect that output to develop their competencies in model development, consult analyses, theory development. And it's expected that these theories will eventually be tested and eventually will be realized in practice. So, it's really much complex and it's more focused, compared to the bachelor's education.

A few of the applied-hard fields did not have multiple tracks, however, and where there was no doctoral program within the same discipline, there was no research track, for example SLU's Master of Science in Engineering.

In sum, the influence of disciplinary typology on teaching practices appeared in subtle ways, with the largest divergence between disciplines emerging in the training graduate students in research skills. Given that at least one clear point of divergence did emerge, it is possible that a larger respondent pool would have yielded more varied and nuanced information. It is also a possibility that institutional climate and culture are more influential on teaching practice than is disciplinary typology at AUF and SLU, which will be discussed in Chapter Six.

Modes of Content Delivery

Recognizing that utilization of various modes of content delivery varies across disciplines, the survey asked respondents to identify what percentage of time should be dedicated to the following modes: lecture, interactive learning, and hands-on or group work. Responses varied widely, and disciplinary differences were apparent between fields for interactive learning and lecture, as shown in Table 28 and Table 29.

Table 28

Percentage of time in graduate classes that should be interactive learning by disciplinary typology

Percentage of time	Pure-hard (n=3)	Pure-soft (n=5)	Applied-hard (n=39)	Applied-soft (n=26)
10%	1	0	0	1
15%	0	0	1	0
20%	0	1	4	0
25%	0	1	5	1
30%	0	0	6	4
33%	1	0	0	0
40%	0	0	5	3

50%	0	2	1	3
60%	0	0	1	5
65%	0	0	0	1
70%	0	0	6	0
75%	0	0	1	1
80%	1	0	3	2
90%	0	0	1	4
95%	0	0	2	0
100%	0	1	3	1
Mean score	41.0%	49.0%	51.9%	57.1%
Range	10%-80%	20%-100%	15%-100%	10%-100%
Standard Deviation	35.679	31.702	27.948	24.379

Table 29

Percentage of time in graduate classes that should be lecture by disciplinary typology

Percentage of time	Pure-hard (n=3)	Pure-soft (n=5)	Applied-hard (n=39)	Applied-soft (n=26)
5%	0	0	0	1
10%	0	0	4	4
15%	0	1	0	0
20%	0	0	9	4
25%	0	0	1	2
30%	1	1	10	6
33%	1	0	0	0
35%	0	0	1	0
40%	0	1	3	5
50%	0	1	9	1
60%	1	1	2	0
70%	0	0	0	1
80%	0	0	0	2
Mean score	41.0%	39.0%	32.6%	32.1%
Range	30%-60%	30%-60%	10%-60%	5%-80%
Standard Deviation	16.523	17.464	14.504	20.059

Although the responses were widely distributed, the mean scores indicate that professors in applied disciplines believed that somewhat more class time should be interactive than their pure discipline peers. Conversely, the professors

in the pure disciplines believed that more class time should be dedicated to lecture than their applied discipline peers, but respondents in the applied-soft typology were those who reported the highest percentage of time for lecture.

The qualitative data collected through interviews and focus groups support that conclusion. Focus group participants from the soft disciplines discussed the importance of using adult learning approaches for graduate education and providing scaffolding to enable students to achieve their goals. As one applied-soft professor explained, “Most [of our faculty] are graduates of teacher education. So, the professors largely agree on use of good adult learning approaches…. We are sharing and learning new methods too – discourse analysis and ethnography.” The adult learning approaches the respondent referred to included extensive use of interactive methods and building on and integrating with the knowledge base the students have prior to their graduate programs. Despite the overall low average responses on percentage of time dedicated to lecture, three applied soft respondents cited higher percentages than respondents from any other typology. All three of those respondents were from psychology, and they clearly felt that the content to be mastered required more lecture than interactive learning. Given the dearth of psychology laboratories at both institutions, they may have felt that their options to structure interactive learning opportunities for students were limited.

Interactions with students.

Contrary to the findings in the literature, interviewees in the applied-hard and pure-hard fields did not appear to make fewer concessions to the learning needs of their students. They described the role of student and professor in the same ways that their colleagues in the “soft” fields did. They did not spend significantly less time working with students outside of class than their peers in other fields. The average number of hours spent meeting with students about lessons and assignments outside of class was lowest for pure-hard respondents (2.0 hours), followed by applied-soft (2.1 hours), applied-hard (3.7 hours), and pure-soft (8.8 hours). The only indication that they might be less receptive to students’ needs (or wants) than others emerged in one interview with an applied-hard graduate program coordinator who was frustrated that students would withdraw from classes that were taught by professors who have a reputation for being tough. She said, “So now as a coordinator, if they ask who the teacher is, I have my assistant make sure that they wouldn’t know… who the teacher is.”

Overall, modes of content delivery differed significantly across typology groups, but each group also encompassed a wide range of answers. The typology is useful in showing those differences, but the data collected for this study do not support Becher’s conclusion that personnel in hard disciplines may be less accommodating of student needs.

Engagement in Disciplinary Networks

As noted in Chapter Two, teaching is a socially situated practice, and engagement in disciplinary networks is critical to the advancement of knowledge, research practices, and teaching practices in academic fields. In other words, connections to a disciplinary network constitute a source of professional development and support. As will be discussed further in Chapter Six, respondents in all focus groups and a few interviewees cited the need for support for attendance at inter-university, national, and international conferences to expand their connections to existing networks in their disciplines. A handful of respondents, those connected with centers of excellence in their institutions, indicated that they do regularly attend national conferences and occasionally have attended international conferences, but their experience was exceptional. In addition, SLU had just begun a new inter-university exchange with De La Salle University in Manila, focused on an exchange of specialized teaching staff in the Natural Sciences. As one interviewee shared:

> We have the inter-university exchange program with La Salle. It's a first. And I am now involved teaching there every Saturday. And then the dean also of La Salle comes here…. So, I appreciate that very much. Because you would see different kinds of people.

This new initiative would be beneficial, she thought, for SLU faculty in engaging more deeply with their peers in that disciplinary network.

Most faculty members at AUF and SLU, however, do not appear to be well entrenched even in national disciplinary networks. Aside from those engaged with centers of excellence (and most thought that designation as a center of excellence was the result of long-standing engagement, not the cause of it), interviewees and focus group participants identified limited financial resources, limited connectivity, and limited library resources in their disciplines as key constraints. Some of the survey questions, however, served to highlight other factors that seem to be relevant in connecting to disciplinary networks, including the location of any study abroad experiences that respondents may have had and the location of any postgraduate work that the respondent may have done.

As discussed in Chapter Three, only eight survey respondents (out of 86) reported that they had ever had the opportunity to study abroad, four men and four women. Respondents studied in Ireland, Japan, South Korea, Austria, Netherlands, Belgium, Italy, and the United States. Given the disparity in the overall numbers of male and female respondents, this may indicate that it is easier for men to engage in opportunities to travel that facilitate the expansion of their professional networks. The location of postgraduate work seems to support that more clearly. As discussed in Chapter Three, only 28 survey respondents had an opportunity to conduct postgraduate work, of whom 17 were women (29.8 percent of female respondents) and 11 were men (40.7 percent of male respondents). Most of the women, however, 82.4 percent, completed their postgraduate work at their current institution, while only 45.5 percent of men did.

Half of the remaining men conducted postgraduate work at institutions outside of Philippines, while none of the women did. This pattern seems to indicate how Philippine gender roles influence professional development and connections to disciplinary networks, and through it, teaching practice. The lack of opportunities for women to conduct postgraduate work at other institutions (whether self-imposed or dictated by social norms) reduces the opportunity for women to engage in disciplinary networks and to enrich their research and teaching practice through those new experiences.

International Influences on Teaching Practice within Disciplines

As most AUF and SLU faculty members have limited contact with their disciplinary networks, their primary connections to their fields comes through knowledge gained in texts, which are frequently dominated by Western scholarship as discussed in Chapter Two. Survey respondents were asked to identify up to three scholars and three journals that had most influenced their teaching practice. Only 48.8 percent provided any response on the scholar question and only 58.1 percent responded to the journal question. Once non-responsive answers were excluded (“none,” “indexed journals,” “Elsevier,” for example), only 26.7 percent of respondents (n=86) provided useful responses. Respondents cited a wide range of scholars who influenced their teaching practice, from their undergraduate professors and their advisors to their deans and department chairs and to well-known scholars in Western literature, including Piaget, Bourdieu, Foucault, Erikson, and others. In total (as each respondent

had three opportunities to provide an answer), 35.5 percent of the scholars named were Filipino, 0.9 percent were Asian (outside of Philippines), and 63.6 percent were European, American, or Australian. Among the journals that professors reported as being most influential, only 11.3 percent were journals published in Philippines, and the remaining 88.7 percent were published in the United States, Europe, or Australia.

These findings would seem to suggest that within AUF and SLU, at least, Western approaches and perceptions of quality are dominant across disciplines. Only slightly more than one third of responses reflected personal experiences with the scholars or instructors they cited. The lack of response, however, may be more critical. While some respondents may have chosen not to answer the questions because they had never reflected on scholars or journals that influenced their thinking about their teaching, others have likely relied heavily on textbooks for the courses they have taught. It is also possible that some respondents could not identify anyone immediately but might have answered if they took more time (required too much effort), or they may have been concerned that someone else might see their answers, as the paper surveys were deposited into a box in each department. All respondents who skipped those questions continued with the questions that followed, so they did not simply choose to end the survey at that point. While external influences may be either helpful or unhelpful, a lack of thoughtful reflection among teaching staff on their teaching practice and its sources of influence is detrimental to their ability to

teach and mentor graduate students effectively, particularly those aspiring to become professors.

Departmental Climate and Culture

A final consideration in terms of how discipline informs teaching practice is the specific climate and culture of individual departments separate from the institution overall. Departments can have their own distinct subcultures within a broader institutional culture, and as they are closer to day-to-day teaching in some cases, they could be more influential. Most respondents had little to say about the culture within their departments. The business and accounting departments were an exception to that, as some of the faculty moved back and forth between industry and academia throughout their careers. One respondent indicated that they try to maintain a more “private sector” culture within that department, but his two colleagues who were also interviewed did not have the same perception.

The relative influence of the dean seemed to vary across departments. In one hard-applied department, for example, the dean deferred to the graduate program coordinator throughout their interview, and, according to focus group participants from that department, regularly deferred to the professors on other matters as well. Another graduate program coordinator in a pure-hard department across campus indicated that the dean had a great deal of influence over teaching practices through control of resources (equipment, expendable supplies) needed for labs, assignment of courses (those who did not conform to

her ideas were assigned the “worst” courses to teach), and annual assessment of teaching (for more information, see Chapter Six). One young professor in that department described the resistance he encountered from the dean when he tried to introduce advanced research techniques into their graduate programs. In this case, the younger professor held a PhD in the discipline while the dean held a PhD in education, and he felt that the dean simply did not understand the benefits of the new approaches and was reluctant to introduce anything that she did not have mastery of herself, even at the graduate level. While he had managed to gain the support of the Office of Research for some of the initiatives he wanted to undertake, his success in that area put him at odds with the dean. The dean commented in our interview that some in the department were too ambitious for their positions, which may have been a veiled reference to the young professor.

These two examples are simply that, and this study included too few respondents in some departments to develop full impressions of their departmental climate and culture. It is, however, clear that within a single institution multiple subcultures can exist, and effects on teaching practices can be minimal or very direct. Therefore, effective leadership and management that creates a supportive environment is not just important at the institutional level, as will be discussed in the next chapter, but also at the departmental level.

Conclusion

Disciplinary impacts on teaching practice can range from very subtle to very overt. Becher's typologies provide a useful framework for categorizing disciplines, particularly in smaller-scale studies like this one for which analysis by discipline or specialization might result in excessive fragmentation. Variations within those typologies, however, align well with the critiques that Tight (2015) and others have elaborated, for example, the variations with the applied soft fields on utilization of lecture versus interactive methods. While AUF and SLU faculty are broadly aware of the debates in their fields, most have weak connections to disciplinary networks and rely on dominant Western scholars and texts as the sources of influence in their teaching practice. Decisions about the focus of content, the extent of research training in graduate programs, and acceptable forms of student-centered teaching will ultimately be arbitrated by CHED in its issuance of OBE guidelines and approval of each university's degree program. The weakness in relying on CHED's approval, however, is that they stem from a quality assurance approach, guaranteeing minimum standards but not focusing on quality enhancement and advancing the field, which should be the role of scholars at top-ranked research institutions.

Chapter 6: Institutional Climate and Culture

At the third level of the model, institutional climate and culture are examined for how they affect teaching practice. This study focused on the three key areas identified in Chapter Two because they were shown (or presumed) to influence teaching: staffing systems and faculty engagement, resources and supports, and academic inbreeding. Each of these is discussed below, focusing on the current systems in place, the variance in perceptions between administrators and faculty members, and the extent to which the key issues identified in the literature are relevant in the Philippine context.

Staffing Systems and Faculty Engagement

As discussed in Chapter Two, Gappa, Austin, and Trice's (2007) study identified three key elements of staffing systems that facilitate the creation of work culture that supports excellence in teaching and research in fluid and complex environments: (1) equity across faculty appointment types; (2) flexibility in appointments and careers; and (3) professional growth opportunities. While other studies (Putranta & Kingshott, 2011) identified much more simplistic approaches to assessing culture, the highly dynamic nature of higher education at the point at which this study was conducted (the K to 12 Transition followed immediately by the adoption of OBE) provided better structure to examine how leadership and management in a higher education institution affects teaching. Each of the three elements is discussed below, and a fourth section discusses other personnel-related issues that faculty members identified that did not fit within the three elements identified by Gappa, Austin, and Trice.

Faculty appointments and administration.

Administrators and professors referred to several different types of faculty appointments, and qualifications and categorization of the positions were critical discriminating factors for determining classification. As one professor noted, “the minimum requirement for you to be a regular employee is for you to have your master’s degree.” “Regular” employment as defined in Philippine labor law is a permanent, full-time position (i.e., not a fixed-term contract), and for faculty positions, a graduate degree is required. Only about 55 percent of teaching staff in private universities have graduate degrees (Commission on HIgher Education, 2019), so many staff are hired on fixed term contracts or in “regular” positions as support personnel with some teaching responsibilities. There was little concern among respondents (either professors or administrators) that those who did not have graduate degrees might be treated unequally, as they were encouraged to complete graduate degrees, and the universities had programs in place to assist staff to do so either within the institution or through a successful application to CHED’s Faculty Development program.

Another key distinction in types of appointments was full-time regular employees and part-time contract employees. AUF, in particular, has made extensive use of part-time appointments (fixed-term contracts) for professors to teach graduate courses, most of whom had full-time positions as professors at universities in Manila or were experts in their field (in the private sector, for example). This strategy enabled AUF to access a talent pool it could not

otherwise afford to maintain as full-time staff (although it also had some negative ramifications on engagement with students, as noted in Chapter Four). SLU has also shifted from engaging professors as regular employees to having them work at contract employees, at least for a probationary period. As one SLU administrator shared:

> I'll have to be very honest in that respect. We have very young faculty members. Because a good number of our older faculty members have already retired. And the idea of contractualization…in two years' time you are permanent. Now, that is becoming a problem. So, there is a constant hiring of new faculty. And we saw that there is a backlash, some more there, like competence-wise, commitment-wise, and more so average teaching.

While these concerns raise some evidence that administration of faculty appointments may directly affect teaching practice, the selection process used to recruit new teaching staff does have an effect as it does not support the identification of individuals with effective student-centered teaching skills. The selection process focuses on a demonstration lecture, which is at odds with the new requirements identified for OBE. As one SLU professor shared, speaking about the criteria for selecting new faculty members:

> First, competence. We have always these SOP or the standard procedure of recruiting faculty. First, we look into their credentials. Then they go for a lecture demo. We give them a topic and they demonstrate in front of a

> class. And the supervisors or the senior teachers would observe. We make an evaluation and then we put them together and see if they had the competence for the teaching. So that's the normal SOP.

AUF interviewees described a similar process, and those processes do not provide an opportunity for an applicant to demonstrate student-centered teaching. OBE teaching portfolios might be one tool that universities can use in the recruitment process in the future, but in the short-term, the current practices are not aligned with the goal of improving teaching. Administration of faculty appointments therefore may negatively affect teaching through an ineffective selection mechanism and may also negatively affect staff engagement and indirectly affect teaching practice, as discussed below.

Flexibility in teaching appointments and careers.

As noted above, fixed term contracts are also one important way that AUF has augmented its cadre of professors teaching graduate courses. AUF's administrators have leveraged their location (just over 50 miles from metro Manila) to attract part-time personnel who teach full-time at other institutions in Manila (both public and private). This is feasible because AUF's graduate classes are offered almost exclusively on Saturday, while many of the universities in Manila schedule their courses on weekdays. AUF made good use of this in key fields to offer graduate classes by more highly qualified professors than they could afford to retain on faculty full-time. The two part-time professors interviewed (in nursing and business administration, respectively) stated that they

very much liked the arrangement of teaching part-time at AUF, however, they felt at a disadvantage at times because they did not know the institution all that well, and they were not well positioned to assist students when they had trouble accessing university resources or when AUF's guidelines and policies differed from their primary institution's. While their teaching might be better than the full-time faculty, particularly for highly specialized topics, their ability to advise and mentor graduate students over the full course of their graduate program was more limited, as their contracts were short-term (although many were renewed over several years). They did, however, feel that they were in a strong position to help connect students to additional professional resources or networks that they might not have had access to through other professors at AUF.

SLU's more remote location had a much smaller pool of potential part-time teaching staff, and as its reputation was that it was the best in the region, administrators felt they had the top experts in the region on faculty. To ensure some flexibility in staffing, SLU had some shared staff positions with an affiliated institution about 90 minutes away, but according to the respondents, the shared staff positions were not teaching graduate courses.

According to administrators interviewed, professors have some influence over the selection of courses they teach, but professors across departments at both universities repeatedly referred to the courses they were assigned to teach, and they indicated that they were not allowed to propose swaps or changes. They are also apparently not permitted to co-teach or co-lead courses, which

reduces flexibility in teaching and balancing teaching and research. When asked about the opportunity to propose new courses or to develop new programs, professors indicated that they had some influence, particularly if it was in their area of specialization, but they generally did not take the initiative to develop the structure and content of the course. Administrators seemed to want to stress that the process was highly participatory, but they language they used and description of the final phases of the process would seem to indicate that final decisions are made by the administrators. As one AUF administrator said:

> They have great participation since the subjects that are assigned to them are within their line of specialization. We give them great participation. And then we look at their work and we discuss among ourselves. Teachers have a great say because we do respect their inputs.

Beyond full-time and part-time teaching appointments, a number of administrative positions were appointed from the pool of teaching staff, including deans, department chairs, and graduate program coordinators. In addition to their administrative responsibilities, deans, chairs, and graduate program coordinators at both AUF and SLU typically continue to teach two courses per semester (one undergraduate and one graduate). At both SLU and AUF, deans' positions seemed to be long-term, with little turnover, while graduate program coordinator positions seemed to rotate after several years. An AUF administrator shared, "we don't have [training] for the deans. We don't have [training] for the

chair. But we only know the job [at the orientation]." Similarly, SLU reported having no training program to assist teaching staff in taking on these administrative roles. This lack of training, particularly on annual performance reviews and observation of teaching, results in inconsistent administration of the performance review system (see below for further discussion). Faculty members therefore may not be benefitting from feedback loops that are supposed to be in place regarding their teaching performance.

The challenges for mentoring among part-time faculty, limited involvement in the development of new course and program offerings, and lack of preparation for those tasked with assessing teaching performance would indicate that AUF and SLU may not have optimal systems in place for maximizing the engagement and full professional potential of their teaching staff. Flexibility in appointments appears to be fairly low overall given the high teaching load for full-time faculty, with a narrow range of career paths and appointment types. Other factors seem to be much more highly valued, as will be shown in the next section.

Professional growth opportunities.

Professional development is a key aspect of maintaining high faculty engagement, and it was very clear this is the most important support that the universities offer to their teaching staff. Overall, 82.6 percent of survey respondents (n=86) rated professional development as one of the three most valuable supports provided to their teaching practice. (The other two most

valued supports were online resources and library support, which are discussed below.)

One key area of professional growth for many teaching staff, as noted above, was the pursuit of higher qualifications (master's degrees for baccalaureate holders and doctorates for master's holders). Both SLU and AUF offered scholarships for a limited number of faculty members to study at other institutions, and administrators at both institutions reported that they had encouraged teaching staff to apply for CHED Faculty Development funding. At the time of data collection, both institutions had several staff members who were completing degrees at other institutions in Philippines and overseas. Another strategy, also mentioned earlier, was the enrollment of teaching staff in doctoral programs on campus (sometimes in a different discipline than the one in which they taught).

In addition to the opportunity to advance their degrees, both AUF and SLU supported ongoing faculty development initiatives and a range of resources, such as training on new software and technology, training on new library resources, training on research methods, and training on research publication that would support their professional development as well as student learning. While it was the most frequently cited top support, professional development was also one of the most commonly identified needs for additional support within both AUF and SLU by survey respondents and interviewees, with five key areas for support emerging from open coding of the interview and focus group transcripts: research

support in the form of more deloading of undergraduate courses and discipline-specific research centers (SLU respondents only); support to attend professional conferences, ongoing trainings, and professional exchange programs; and teaching assistantships. Each of these is discussed in turn.

Research support.

Faculty members felt research support was critical, not only for their own benefit, but for that of their graduate student as well. Several professors at both universities shared that they had only ever published one article or had only published in the university's own journal. They felt ill-equipped to teach graduate students how to conduct research and publish given their limited experience.

Despite the significant differences in their sizes, respondents at SLU and AUF identified similar needs for research support. Both universities reward publication of articles in respected journals with cash awards and university-wide recognition, and administrators were eager for professors to expand their research portfolios. As one SLU dean described:

> We also have faculty researchers that are fully funded by the university. And, of course, incentives also. Like when they're able to participate – present in international conferences – in those, they get cash incentives. They are recognized on special occasions on like we call it the celebration for faculty.

Similarly, AUF's Center for Research and Development provides both large-scale seminars and more targeted training for research methods and publication, but capacity is limited. As one of the staff of the Center described:

> In terms of training workshops, we prefer something like the five to ten people only in there. There are some seminars that is more for information, so we get as many as possible. Get 100 or 50 faculty members, okay, that's fine. For one whole day, it's like an introduction something. That's okay. Workshops, we now prefer something like five or ten which we can…have a one on one. In workshops, it's much more in terms of the quality of the output rather than the quantity of who attended the seminar.

Despite the focus on research support, fewer than half of survey respondents from each institution rated their research support centers as one of the top three most valuable supports the university provided (47.1 percent at SLU (n=68) and 44.4 percent at AUF (n=18)), and approximately one third of professors interviewed at each institution were unfamiliar with the services offered by their respective research support centers. At AUF, interviewees in the social sciences and humanities were particularly critical of the Center for Research and Development because it was staffed by personnel from the hard sciences, who were ill-prepared to assist with qualitative or behavioral science research studies. Similar issues were raised at SLU, in that there are discipline-specific research support offices focused on business, engineering,

environmental research, and natural sciences research, but little to support research in education, social sciences, or humanities. Both universities prioritized resources in areas that were only partially aligned with the Philippine National Higher Education Research Agenda 2, which identified nine priority research clusters: science and mathematics; education and teacher training; health and health profession; information and communication technology; engineering, maritime and architecture; agriculture; environmental science; humanities; and social sciences (Commission on Higher Education, 2009). As both universities also provide cash awards and recognition to those professors who do succeed in getting published in respected journals, the lack of research center support at the institutional level for specific disciplines creates inequities in opportunity for remuneration, as well as limiting the opportunities for faculty in those fields to compete for and, potentially, be awarded CHED research funds.

While the institutions may have limited some professors' opportunities that CHED might have supported, CHED constrains their opportunities in other ways, as it places strictures on maximum permissible deloading per research project (15 credits or 5 courses) for private universities, which has to be split in the event of joint research proposals. Given the heavy course-loads of some private university faculty members (anywhere from five to nine courses per semester for full-time personnel without administrative duties), deloading of up to 15 credits over the life of a research project is unlikely to provide sufficient time to develop a research proposal, obtain approvals and external financing (when needed),

conduct the research, analyze the data, and publish the results except for very small projects. CHED's stated goals to increase the research productivity of Philippine higher education institutions (public and private) is at odds with its regulations that inhibit universities and professors from undertaking ambitious, large-scale research programs.

Another research support that one AUF interviewee and two SLU interviewees identified that would be useful was graduate research assistants. In their estimation, establishing graduate assistantships would provide research support to faculty members, provide hands-on opportunities for graduate students to learn research skills, and create opportunities for close mentorship of graduate students. Graduate assistantships could be an important way to ensure that OBE portfolios include rigorous research products. The current structure of graduate programs largely precludes this possibility, however, as most graduate students work full-time and only attend classes on Saturday as discussed earlier.

Attendance at national and international conferences.

Another area that two SLU survey respondents and participants of all three focus groups identified as needing additional support was attendance at inter-university, national, and international conferences as a means of gaining access to new research in their fields, presenting their own research, and expanding their disciplinary networks. As one respondent shared, "I would like to be able to talk to others – how they teach this topic or that topic. What textbooks do they use?" It is notable that professors expressed a willingness to ask those

questions of their peers at other universities (and perhaps particularly from other countries) but they said they did typically not engage in extensive discussions about those topics in their own departments (likely a result of conflict avoidance and deference to elders norms discussed in Chapter Four).

While AUF administrators indicated that they have approved all requests for international conference travel (if a professor is presenting), professors in engineering and natural sciences departments believed that funds were sufficient for everyone to have that opportunity, while in other departments they did not. Professors at SLU believed that only about 10 percent of the staff might receive funding to attend conferences, and administrators were not able to share what percentage of requests had been granted in recent years. Focus group participants and interviewees across all departments indicated that they did not submit conference proposals unless they felt they could absorb the cost of attending on their own.

As national and international conferences represent key opportunities for faculty to engage in debates with their peers on a wide range of topics including teaching practice, identify collaborative research opportunities, and, in at least some cases, meaningfully contribute to the advancement of the discipline, the lack of support for conference attendance represents a lost opportunity for professional growth.

Ongoing trainings.

Both AUF and SLU have faculty development initiatives as discussed above, but almost all SLU respondents and about half of AUF respondents noted that they would like to have an expanded faculty development program (with accompanying deloading to enable them to make the most use of it). SLU respondents suggested that this capacitation program should include both research and teaching, particularly the effective use of technology (both for classroom settings and online or blended learning), discipline-specific software, and OBE-related teaching and assessment methods. One critique of the approach used by SLU in the past is that the trainings or seminars were structured as one-off events without a larger program structure or scaffolding to move participants from their current level of expertise to the next. AUF respondents' suggestions for ongoing training were predominantly related to research, research methods, and publishing for their own practice and also for mentoring graduate students.

Another type of "training" that administrators mentioned (although other interviewees and survey respondents did not) was pursuit of higher graduate degrees among the teaching staff who did not have PhDs. As noted earlier, both CHED and the universities provided scholarships for a limited number of staff to take advantage of programs outside of their universities, and some could attain graduate degrees within their universities. The administrators also noted, however, that motivation and personal constraints are often a challenge for those staff. One administrator at SLU said, "But sometimes because of families,

especially if they're still growing, their kids, it's one time when you expect faculty to say to you, well, I'm going to take [those courses] later." Therefore, at least from the perspective of the administrators, some supports for professional growth are not utilized because priorities lie outside the institution, and no incentives that the institution offers can shift those priorities.

Professional exchanges.

The final professional development support identified by three survey respondents and six interviewees was a desire for expanded opportunities for professional exchanges. Respondents' suggestions for exchanges varied in terms of their levels of ambitiousness and cost. For example, respondents from both AUF's and SLU's Business and Accounting departments suggested immersion opportunities for faculty to ensure they remain abreast of current issues in their industries, which would align with AUF's engagement of industry representatives in curricular reviews. SLU's new partnership with De La Salle University (discussed in Chapter Five) could serve as a model for such exchanges. Similarly, expanding international exchange programs for faculty would increase their exposure to state-of-the-art practices and encourage research partnerships.

Overall, institutional support for professional development is uneven, as is demand for it. Teaching staff value the current professional development initiatives at both institutions, but not all supports are fully utilized and some of the areas they suggested for additional support are unlikely to be addressed.

Research as an element of professional development is largely lacking and currently favors some disciplines over others, creating unequal opportunities for staff.

While CHED's support for faculty development is positive, some of its other initiatives and policies intended to improve quality seem to be detrimental. CHED-mandated metrics on percentage of teaching faculty with advanced degrees has created incentives for universities to ensure as many staff as possible have higher degrees, but without ensuring that the degrees enable teaching staff to prepare their graduate students in advanced disciplinary research techniques, which is a critical element of graduate education. The strategy of encouraging staff to obtain degrees on campus in other disciplines (typically education) does not position the institution for success in the long-term because those professors may not be able to teach advanced research techniques in their disciplines to future graduate students, which ultimately makes the institution less competitive. Government policy also significantly constrains private universities' options for providing research support. One of AUF's administrators stated that he had raised the issue of the conflict between its goals for research productivity with the regulations effectively limiting time professors can spend on research with CHED leadership, but to no avail. According to him, preference for public institutions and low trust in the quality of a large percentage of the private institutions creates an insurmountable political barrier to changing the regulations (at least in the near-term). Similarly,

perceptions about the availability of funds for presenting research at or attending national or international conferences vary and may inhibit requests for support.

It would appear from the responses that support for professional growth is very much a factor in supporting teaching and research excellence, as Gappa, Austin, and Trice's framework indicates, but it has limitations as individuals' priorities may not lie in the professional realm at a given point in time. Some of the topics identified for ongoing training are relevant to teaching practice, but none specifically addressed the uptake of student-centered teaching approaches, one of the key weaknesses in Philippine higher education that was discussed in Chapter One. To the extent that faculty members' research and publication experience enables them to be more effective in training and mentoring graduate students (and particularly doctoral students), lack of effective research support for a significant proportion of the departments (stemming from decisions at the institutional and policy levels) hinders their effectiveness in teaching and the institution's ability to address another key weakness identified in Chapter One, inadequate production of researchers and innovators.

Other factors related to personnel administration.

In addition to the domains elements of staff support systems identified above, several of the full-time professors who participated in interviews and focus groups identified additional concerns about the administration of appointments, specifically how their institutions assessed the quality of their teaching and how those assessments were used for promotion and tenure.

Institutional assessment of teaching quality.

Annual performance assessments are part of each university's human resources system and are intended to be used to make decisions about future course assignments, promotion, tenure, and remuneration. At both SLU and AUF, colleges and departments followed the universities' guidelines for assessing professors' performance annually, but the details of implementation differed across departments, and there were some perceptions that graduate program coordinators and deans are not always consistent in how performance criteria were applied to different people. In principle, both universities' systems included classroom observation of teaching (by dean and/or graduate program coordinator), review of syllabi (by graduate program coordinator), and student course evaluations. At SLU, however, it seemed that not all graduate program coordinators were conducting classroom observations for their assessments, rather they collected syllabi and had informal conversations to obtain the information they needed. One SLU graduate program coordinator noted that some of the professors may take any criticism personally rather than as a tool for reflection and professional advancement, and the behavior of the graduate program coordinators was reflective of norms of conflict avoidance. There also appeared to be no consistent standard for assessing the teaching of online courses. The course evaluations were also not used universally. Among SLU respondents (n=68), 22.4 percent said they did not use the required course evaluations. The SLU course evaluation was critiqued as being a poor

instrument for capturing students' feedback. One respondent provided a very concise critique, "I use the standard, required approach. It is not useful. The assessment tool is not aligned with the expectations of students or teachers." Another identified the entire process as problematic:

> We are not evaluated based on merit, and I think these are things that have to be seen. Like we have an objective way of evaluating a professor. These are actually written, the experiences. But the heavy part is really the unwritten part. So, these are things that we struggle with actually in the graduate program. Even in the promotion of who should be [department chair], these are actually issues also.

The assessment process at AUF seemed to have greater support among the faculty. This may be because administrators interpreted the results of the course evaluations with allowances for attitudes and characteristics they viewed as being indicative of long-term success, specifically, passion for teaching and commitment to the university. Those subjective judgments, however, may explain why 11.1 percent of AUF respondents (n=18) reported that they did not use the student course evaluations. One dean indicated that he had developed his own rubric for assessing faculty:

> I made my own rubric so that I do not, you know, judge the lessons subjectivity. Although I put their quality of submission, quantity of submission, timeliness, commitment, initiative, things like that. Yeah, I prepared my own rubric for it. And that is infused in my performance

> evaluation which is 25 percent of the whole…[the remaining 75 percent comprises] research, innovation, … personal performance where you get to present, your attendance at seminars and trainings, projects that you initiated, community service.

Among AUF interviewees and focus group participants, faculty paid particular attention to the results of the student course evaluations of their teaching (as opposed to the subjective portions of their performance evaluation), which is indicative of a stronger assessment tool than SLU used. Most indicated that continually improving their teaching was a professional goal, and they viewed the student assessments as a critical tool in that process.

The assumptions in the literature discussed in Chapter Two about how course evaluations could be used did not hold for the SLU respondents, but did hold for most AUF respondents. With the use of an improved student course evaluation tool, SLU professors might find those reviews more useful. However, at neither SLU nor AUF did any respondent discuss using the annual assessment of their teaching practice to reflect on and advance teaching individually or within the discipline. The critical literature (Fox, 2002; Hayes, 2002; Maringe, 2011) seems to make two key underlying assumptions about culture and institutional settings: (1) that criticism can be given and taken objectively without penalty (professional or social); and (2) that institutions either have incentives to encourage or no disincentives or structural obstacles to discourage collaboration and group reflection on teaching practice. Based on the

data collected for this study, the assumptions in the critical literature about the use for peer review in order to assess quality and improve teaching performance do not hold in these settings, as will be shown in the discussion below.

Incentives, promotion, and tenure.

Neither administrators nor faculty members at either institution identified specific incentives related to teaching. In principle, teaching competencies are considered for promotion and tenure at both institutions. As one AUF dean shared, “Promotion, of course, education and qualifications is a given…. The three areas: involvement in research, teaching competencies, instructions. And then, of course, participation in community service, of course not of the same weight.” It is significant to note, though, that at AUF new criteria for promotion and tenure had been recently rolled out, and SLU had developed new criteria, which changed the axes by which performance was measured. As one SLU administrator explained:

> There was a time when even the top people didn’t [consider] intellectual productivity. It was… teaching and the… heaviest part of that is for as long as you're able to handle your course load then you are maintained. Then it’s the number of years that come, rather than the intellectual productivity. But we are trying to change that. Hopefully by next year, we’ll implement the new system of promotion and ranking.

Most professors at both institutions were reluctant to discuss processes for promotion and tenure, which may have owed to lack of confidence in either

the old or new systems, a lack of transparency in or communication about the change process, or reluctance to share their uncertainties with an outsider.

Current staffing systems in both universities are functioning in ways that fail to support strong teaching practices. Further, in terms of achieving the goals for the development of the higher education system, current structures and initiatives are insufficient with an absence of effective leadership that will guide universities in supporting individual and organizational learning and productivity.

Resources and Supports

Resources and supports beyond professional growth can be critical factors in supporting professors' teaching practice. As noted in Chapter Two, Rice and Austin (1988) identified the following as most critical: (1) support of faculty work with students; (2) collaborative environment; (3) encouragement of risk taking; and (4) willingness to test new ideas, and each of these is considered in turn below.

Support of faculty work with students.

Faculty work with students typically focuses on teaching, advising, and mentoring. In addition to a survey question about the most critical supports to teaching, open coding of qualitative data revealed a range of resources provided by the institutions that respondents identified as critical in supporting these functions, as well as gaps in resources and structural challenges.

Critical supports for teaching practice.

As noted above, professional development was the most frequently selected support among survey respondents at both universities. As shown in Table 30, Other supports were also extremely important as well, particularly online resources and the library. Laboratories were important for professors in engineering and hard sciences, in particular, and research center support has already been discussed above. The two remaining categories of supports, writing center and teaching assistantships are structures that neither AUF and SLU have in place, but it is possible that teaching staff who have worked in other universities had experience with those structures in their prior positions.

Table 30

Survey respondents' top three ratings for institutional supports for their teaching practice

Institutional Support	AUF respondents (%) (n=18)	SLU respondents (%) (n=68)
Online Resources	83.3	73.5
Library	72.2	61.8
Research Center	44.4	47.1
Lab	16.6	14.7
Writing Center	0.0	16.2
Teaching Assistantships	0.0	13.2

In interviews, administrators and a few professors suggested that AUF's learning commons and extensive library resources stand out as excellent supports to graduate education that are not widely available in all universities in the Philippines. Given students' limited time on campus, however, it was not clear how much utility the learning commons provided to graduate students.

Resource gaps and structural challenges.

A variety of resource gaps emerged from interviews, focus groups, and survey responses. The one most directly connected to teaching practice was the need for additional instructional materials (SLU) and easy access to instructor resources at AUF, such as PowerPoint presentations, the test bank, the instructor's manual, and solutions manual. One SLU survey respondent also suggested including a variety of strategies for delivering the subject matter. These needs were identified by professors who reported teaching six to nine courses per semester (the CHED-permitted maximum and more). While it might be expected under other circumstances that they would take the initiative to develop their own (as presumably those with course-loads closer to the AUF average of two to three and SLU average of four to five do), those expectations would be an unreasonable burden on any instructor assigned eight or nine courses in a semester.

While online resources and library support were highly valued, two respondents at each institution also identified an additional need for more specialized books and access to a broader array of online journals. One AUF and six SLU survey respondents also noted the need for a writing center that could help with preparation of journal articles for submission (and as one noted, also support students), as that is out of the purview of the existing research support centers at both universities. The greater perceived need for writing support among SLU respondents may be related to their (until recently) more limited access to online journals than AUF respondents.

Another resource gap that is directly linked to teaching and student learning is the availability of technology and software in and outside of the classrooms. At SLU, the lack of audio-visual equipment in many classrooms was a limitation on how professors could present their lessons. At the time data were collected, SLU and some buildings at AUF lacked a fast, reliable internet connection in classrooms, which limited on-demand resource access for both staff and students. Staff in education and social science departments at both institutions noted that slow access to library resources discourages extensive literature searches that would serve both professors and students well. Respondents also identified specialized software for operations research, statistics, and math and computation, which they believed would allow their graduate students to be more prepared and more competitive upon graduation. Interviewees who were asked about the use of open source software as an alternative stated that they needed to prepare students with the software that employers in the area use. As one said, referring to graduate students, “They need to keep abreast with what's current in the industry, and they need to be at the forefront of research, coming up with new techniques for devising solutions. Specifically, software solutions for stakeholders in the industry.” In all but two cases, however, they were not familiar with the open source alternatives, and while they have a valid concern about employers recognizing key skills, their dismissal of open source options may stem from the fact that they would need to learn the software before they could use it effectively in their teaching practice.

Gaps in terms of physical spaces were primarily related to limited access to laboratories or equipping laboratories with equipment to support advanced research techniques and/or simulations. When asked if private sector and government linkages could facilitate access to equipment without having the university bear the cost, professors were doubtful it would be possible. Top-level administrators suggested that such arrangements should be negotiated by the deans or department chairs, while the professors and deans felt that those requests would be best received from top leadership. Additionally, SLU professors identified a dedicated space (or spaces) for graduate students to study, similar to the learning commons that AUF established.

Finally, 16.2 percent of SLU survey respondents and all SLU professors interviewed thought that the lack of teaching assistantships represented a gap. Neither AUF nor SLU has a structure for engaging graduate students as teaching assistants or research assistants, in part due to the structure of graduate education and in part because it has never been done. As noted above, some professors had experience with such arrangements in other universities, and it would align well with capacitation efforts (more training for future teaching staff earlier in their careers) and efforts to encourage more research (as teaching assistants could assume some of the burden for grading or other teaching-related activities).

The structural constraints to teaching practice that professors identified relate to course-loads (as discussed in Chapter Four) and the structure of

graduate education more generally. Graduate education in many Philippine institutions is structured around a regular five-day work schedule, with classes only on Saturdays, and all masters programs and a few doctoral programs at both AUF and SLU were structured that way. This has implications for staffing, balancing course-loads between undergraduate and graduate, and recruiting students. While responding to the desires and constraints of many students, the structure of the graduate programs also signals to students and potential students that graduate education is a steppingstone to something else rather than a full-time endeavor or vocation. In terms of staffing, the Saturday-only structure provides opportunities for some institutions (particularly those more centrally located and close to the many strong universities in Manila, such as AUF) to hire as part-time faculty scholars from other institutions who are not teaching on Saturdays in their full-time jobs.

Professors and administrators were generally in agreement that the universities try to provide resources to support student learning to the extent possible within the bounds of their budgets. Both institutions had prioritized fast, reliable internet access, as well as expanded access to online journals to support a more robust research program. Appropriate use of those tools has to be learned over time, however, and therefore they are unlikely to have an immediate impact on graduate teaching practice across the institutions, particularly given the structural constraints that limit the time of many professors to learn new tools and habits.

Collaborative environment.

While most administrators and professors gave lip service to a collaborative environment, few concrete examples were provided other than course development, which has been shown above to not be structured in a collaborative mode. Administrators at both institutions stated that they encouraged professors to engage in joint research and publication, however, a number of structural challenges inhibit such initiatives, also discussed above. One AUF professor identified a lack of collegiality and an institutional structure that enables individuals to avoid collaboration, saying:

> I came from an industry. So, I know relations in the industry versus in the academia…. In an industry, you have to be a team worker. But in the academia, they are hardly a team worker…. In the academia, it's very different. You can always deliver your output [courses taught]. Whether I work with you or not, I can deliver my output. Whether I deal with the administration or not, I can deliver my output. You know, I can even deliver my output even if I don't have a table in the faculty or even if I don't sit down in the faculty because I have some personal strife with my colleagues.

Another AUF professor further shared very clear examples of how patterns of interpersonal interaction inhibit attempts at interdisciplinary collaboration. He said:

> We cannot seem to make a distinction between a personal and professional level. Just to contextualize what I'm saying, if, for example, you are my colleague and I [critique your work] … I might be told, ‘From what position are you telling me that? I am a graduate of this. I am a Ph.D. and you are this’ … instead of looking at it objectively.

SLU respondents were more reticent about supports for or challenges to collaboration within their institution, offering no concrete examples from their own experience aside from mentoring students. One SLU professor described good collaboration this way:

> But the faculty [member], who should already be at a higher level in terms of conducting research, should be able to help all students or co-faculty [members] before they start the research. So, there should be a close-knit relationship between the two. And I believe that if you are a mentor, you have to go for a mentee who also has the same passion and then who has the same specialization and then the line of research agenda. So that each one will be helping another. So, collaboration is important.

While administrators and professors clearly understand the discourse around collaboration and a collaborative environment, it is notable that on this particular topic, all but three interviewees (two at SLU and one at AUF) spoke in the conditional or future tense rather than the past tense, which may indicate they were referring to a notional approach to collaboration and had very little concrete experience from which to draw. Even those that spoke in the present or

past tense did not provide details on how they collaborated, as one SLU interviewee's response indicated, "There are some faculty members [who collaborate], but it's more on a personal thing where we have the same interest, specialization. So, we work together, but it's not a formal system." The lack of concrete examples pointed toward an institutional culture that does not support or use collaboration as a typical mode of operation.

Risk taking and willingness to try new things.

Similar to the results from lines of questioning around collaboration, professors and administrators talked about trying new things and taking risks, but in the future or conditional tense, and without being able to provide concrete examples. One SLU top leader indicated that another administrator was developing a new mentorship initiative. When asked about it, however, he replied, "One of the challenges or one of the opportunities maybe we can take advantage of, even the limited system that we have, maybe we can come up with… propose a new system." While top leadership at each institution seemed sincere in their desires for others to develop new ideas and initiatives, they were themselves behaved in a way very constrained to CHED policy and trying to anticipate what CHED would require or do next. Faculty members observed that the behavior of administrators is fairly risk averse, perhaps most clearly by those in the Business departments who had worked in the private sector where institutional climate and norms are very different.

SLU was making changes and taking some risks in the view of the administrators, however, was in establishing an interuniversity exchange with De La Salle University (discussed in Chapter Five) and bodies within the institution that CHED and accreditation agencies recommended establishing. For the latter, SLU had recently established an office of Institutional Development and Quality Assurance to manage internal and external quality assurance processes and an Academic Council to create space for academic concerns to be addressed and recommendations to be developed prior to being presented to the administration for action. Change management in introducing these bodies was weak, however. Resources were minimal initially, and understanding of how these structures would support the day-to-day work of the faculty was poor among interviewees. Several faculty members referred to the Quality Assurance office as being responsible for “fixing” the quality of teaching and research, which was not an accurate understanding of its mandate. Several administrators, however, viewed these changes as emblematic of being in a benevolent environment where changes could be made if recommended by an authoritative agency. As one noted, “I think what I’m kind of happy about is at least the [top leadership] also is quite open about all this, even if they do not totally fully realize what we are trying really to do.”

While there is always risk of disrupting current operations when new bodies are formed within an institution, the external recommendation was based on best practices in Western and other Philippine universities. For example, AUF

already had parallel bodies in place, fully engaged in the day to day operations of the university, and staff and faculty generally understood their purpose. Further, their routine hiring of part-time personnel from other universities to teach graduate courses was largely intended to achieve some of the same outcomes as SLU's partnership with De La Salle University.

Overall, the picture that emerges from the data is one in which many individuals do not receive meaningful, collegial support from their peers or the institution. Similar to the findings on staffing systems, resource limitations may mean that administrators prioritize some disciplines' needs over others (targeted investments in research support centers and collections of journals and books, for example). Supports for student learning do appear to have priority, however, and Rice and Austin's framework for understanding supports to teaching practice seems fairly robust for the Philippine context. While some areas currently lack institutional support and collaboration appears to be very limited and largely informal, the general lack of sense of community within some departments is consistent with what Rice and Austin describe in the absence of effective institutional, and as discussed in Chapter Five, departmental supports at AUF and SLU.

Similar to the findings above in terms of achieving the goals for the development of the higher education system, current initiatives are not sufficient. Resource limitations, including and perhaps most significantly time limitations,

constrain the ability of professors to develop innovative approaches to substitute accessible resources for unobtainable ones.

Academic Inbreeding

As noted in Chapter Two, academic inbreeding can hinder academic productivity and innovation in teaching, but the literature lacks clear information about the pervasiveness of academic inbreeding in Philippine institutions. Despite concerted efforts at AUF to reduce academic inbreeding, survey responses showed that academic inbreeding is fairly high at both AUF and SLU. Among survey respondents, 53 percent of AUF professors and 70 percent of SLU professors received their highest degrees from those institutions. Other survey respondents indicated that they had earned their degrees from a range of Philippine institutions, primarily in Manila among AUF respondents, and primarily in Baguio or in Manila among the SLU respondents. Only two professors at SLU reported having earned their degrees outside of Philippines – one in the Netherlands and one in Belgium.

Enabling their professors to complete doctoral degrees in one of the programs on campus has been one of the strategies used by both universities to achieve higher percentages of teaching staff with advanced degrees, one metric that is considered in the accreditation process (without examination of the institution granting those degrees or of the field in which the degree was awarded). For example, a number of senior faculty at SLU reported that they had completed doctoral degrees in education (although they are employed in

other faculties, such as Natural Sciences or Computer and Information Sciences). One of the interviewees who had this experience indicated that she felt it helped her in coaching her colleagues on more effective teaching methods when they found that students were struggling. She explained:

> So giving them some in-service training on how to bridge the gap between just teaching, just picking up questions to ask and how to do it with more effective way of bridging this difficulty. And it helped because later the failures started to lessen and lessen.

While this strategy can have benefits within departments and addresses one goal, improving accreditation ranking, it creates other challenges within disciplinary practices, as discussed earlier (see discussion in Chapter Five).

In a highly inbred system, inequities and interpersonal conflict can inhibit effective functioning of departments and programs. It would appear from the findings on staffing systems and collaboration (or the lack thereof) that academic inbreeding may be a significant contributing factor to the lack of community and collegiality in some departments. Its effects may also be particularly stark given the limitations described earlier in this chapter and in Chapter Five for creating and participating in independent networks of peers through disciplinary research and publication and attendance at national and international conferences. Indeed, one of the administrators at SLU noted the difficulty of transitioning students into colleagues, saying:

> When you consider your student as a colleague, then the quality of work sometimes suffers in our case. I would say that it should be a mentoring relationship. Like you teach a student to become your colleague. That will be the best thing, but it's not yet happened. For masters and doctorate, it should be the same. You start mentoring from the masters to once – until the…student becomes your colleague.

The administrator's comment about the unfinished shift in the relationship from student to colleague also reflects his perception of a highly hierarchical relationship between graduate student and professor, where mentoring really begins once the teaching relationship has ended (rather than mentoring being a critical element of graduate education). More in-depth research would be needed to determine how inbreeding affects relationships in specific departments and programs.

Conclusion

While SLU and AUF experienced many similar challenges in terms of mandated operational parameters, resource limitations, and staffing concerns, their approaches to management (and change management) have produced different institutional climates. AUF seemed to have a somewhat flatter hierarchy than SLU, and fewer professors expressed disgust or distrust in the systems for performance assessment, incentives, and promotion. Some of the differences in their institutional climate and culture may have been attributable to the difference

in the sizes of the institutions, but faculty trust and engagement seemed to be a little bit higher at AUF.

Both AUF and SLU have made concerted efforts to support faculty, particularly in the areas of professional development and supports for student learning. Professional development is a key area of support that is most appreciated and most needed among faculty members, but current faculty development programs are not sufficiently robust to meet demand in key areas (particularly around discipline-specific research methods and publication). Recent investments in research support for targeted fields favors some disciplines over others, creating unequal opportunities for staff and allowing capacity for training future graduate students in research to atrophy in those disciplines lacking support. Demand for professional development in teaching approaches, tailored by discipline, is likely to increase with the introduction of OBE requirements. Faculty members with heavy course-loads, however, may find it difficult to apply any newly learned approaches in their teaching, if they can find time to participate in training at all. Universities may also need to create incentives to ensure that teaching staff do participate in professional development around student-centered teaching, as motivation to avail themselves of the supports offered varies among teaching staff (by both the university and by CHED).

Other supports, particularly those focused on student learning, including investments in internet access on campus and online resources, have been

prioritized in the past, and both faculty and administrators saw the value in providing those supports.

Despite the positive impacts of the professional development initiatives, supports for student learning, and, to a lesser extent, the research support, it is not clear that either institution will be in a position to close the gaps identified in Chapter One at small-scale in its own graduate programs. Institutional structures, such as the staffing structure, are not currently not supporting excellence in teaching at either AUF or SLU with misalignments in the selection processes, lack of opportunities for meaningful involvement in decision-making, lack of systemic training for those tasked with assessing teaching performance, and, in the case of SLU, an assessment tool that is not currently meeting the needs of students, faculty, or administrators. Further, cultural norms that inhibit the giving and taking of constructive criticism in professional settings are exacerbated by the extent of academic inbreeding, as any criticism may reflect not only on the individual, but on others in the department as well. In addition, strategic decisions about the investment of limited resources may foster tension between peers and inhibit the collaboration and risk-taking that could improve research and teaching practice in graduate programs.

Leadership at the university and departmental levels have not been able to overcome these barriers to collaboration or the lack of cohesion or sense of community within some departments within either university. In order to position these universities for long-term success, these gaps will need to be addressed,

with an eye toward individual and organizational learning, flexibility, connectivity (within the university and within disciplinary networks external to the university), and sustainability.

Chapter 7: Discussion

This study revealed a great deal about quality and teaching practices in graduate education at AUF and SLU. Both institutions have some areas of strength and some areas that will require additional focus and resources with the shift to OBE and student-centered teaching. Table 31 summarizes the key findings by institution for each factor examined using the socioecological conceptual framework applied to this study.

Table 31

Key findings for AUF and SLU

Factor	AUF	SLU
Individual: Conceptions of Quality	Driven by external factors; some initiative to critique and contest knowledge in a few fields	Driven by external factors, concern around developing research culture in a few fields
Individual: Relationships between Professors and Graduate Students	Lower social distance; greater student-teacher contact, especially using social media; use of part-time staff reduces opportunities for ongoing mentoring	Higher social distance; less student-teacher contact; use of full-time staff provides opportunities for ongoing mentoring
Individual: Approaches to Teaching	Predominantly teacher-centered with some student-centered activities; course-loads generally within CHED maximum; significant reliance on part-time faculty for graduate teaching	Predominantly teacher-centered with some student-centered activities; course-loads frequently exceed CHED maximum; experimentation with partnerships to improve graduate teaching
Individual: Assessment of Learning	Variation in faculty approaches; some fields rely heavily on licensure requirements to assess learning	Variation in faculty approaches; some fields rely heavily on licensure requirements to assess learning
Disciplinary: Teaching Practices	Clarity and consistency across applied fields on balance of theoretical and applied learning, but few research programs through which graduate students could be trained in research	Clarity and consistency in applied fields, less so in pure fields, on balance of theoretical and applied learning, but few research programs through which graduate students could be trained in research
Disciplinary: Modes of Delivery	Heavy reliance on classroom-based delivery; some use of online courses; some use of field	Classroom-based delivery

	work in disciplines such as public health	
Disciplinary: Engagement with Networks	Three Centers of Excellence serve as hubs for disciplinary networks; limited connectedness among other faculties	Three Centers of Excellence serve as hubs for disciplinary networks; limited connectedness among other faculties
Disciplinary: International Influence	Heavy reliance on international texts and scholars	Heavy reliance on international texts and scholars
Disciplinary: Departmental Climate	Hierarchical relationships within departments	Hierarchical relationships within departments
Institutional: Staffing Systems	Significant use of part-time/contract staff for teaching graduate courses; ineffective institutional assessment of teaching; no structure for teaching assistantships or graduate assistantships; some mechanisms for staff input into management decisions	Increasing use of contracts for teaching appointments; ineffective institutional assessment of teaching; no structure for teaching assistantships or graduate assistantships; previously few mechanisms for staff input into management decisions until adoption of new Academic Council
Institutional: Professional Development	Professional development initiative for research and publication; use of technology; use of new software	Professional development initiative for research and publication; use of new library resources
Institutional: Resources and Supports	Campus-wide wifi; online resources; library resources; some use of research center support and labs	Campus-wide wifi (forthcoming at time of data collection); online resources; library resources; some use of research center support and labs
Institutional: Academic Inbreeding	Significant academic inbreeding; impacts on teaching practices somewhat tempered by engagement of part-time staff from other institutions; limited involvement in larger departmental roles, however results in no change to low levels or collaboration and lack of innovation as a result of conflict avoidance	Extensive academic inbreeding; inertia in relationships results in very little collaboration and potentially a lack of innovation as a result of conflict avoidance

Summary of Findings

At present, judgments of quality stem more from quality assurance frameworks rather than quality enhancement frameworks for Philippine institutions. Most of the respondents in this study looked for external, institutional

sources of validation rather than engaging with networks of peers to advance their teaching and research practices.

Teaching is the core of the professional identity of most of the respondents in this study. They see themselves as dedicated, effective experts in their fields, and while some actively seek opportunities to continually improve their teaching practice, others do not. Those who do not seek opportunities to change their teaching practice may find it difficult to shift from transmission-focused approached (with student-centered activities) to student-centered approaches (as only a small percentage of professors seem to be using them). A lag in the adoption of student-centered teaching approaches may result in some of the expected outcomes of OBE (in particular, development of teamwork and cooperation, critical thinking, and meta-cognitive skills) not being met.

Linkages to disciplinary networks are weak for many of the faculty members, although the Centers of Excellence at each university may serve as models for how those hubs can improve connections within disciplinary networks. The weakness of disciplinary networks may dampen OBE outcomes or prolong the refinement of OBE programs, as debate and discussion of desired outcomes and behaviors is a fundamental element of OBE curriculum and program development. These weak linkages also contribute to continued reliance on dominant texts and scholars from Western institutions, and although research support has increased significantly at both institutions (with their own and CHED funding), opportunities for research and networking are not evenly distributed.

Both universities have aligned their incentive and reward systems with the goal of advancing research and publication, and they may need to be revisited to ensure that they are balanced in rewarding both good research and student-centered teaching. Further, CHED's lack of enforcement of the maximum course-load requirement encourages institutions and individuals to sacrifice quality for quantity in their teaching practice.

Thus, changes at the individual level identified in the socioecological model must be supported by changes in the institutional and policy levels (informed by the wider sociocultural context) in order to attain the significant changes in higher education to which the national development plan aspires. Given the gaps in current initiatives at the institution and national level related to teaching, they will likely not be sufficient to advance student-centered teaching and increase the quality of graduate education in any short-term time horizon.

Critical Gaps in Reform Efforts

As noted in Chapter One, efforts to reform and improve higher education rarely focus on teaching practice (as opposed to reform efforts in primary and secondary, which often do). This study supports the arguments in the literature on social practice theory that teaching is a socially situated practice, but not just within disciplinary networks as reflected in social network theory or specific work groups as reflected in community of practice theory, but also within specific institutional and cultural normative practices that are very effective in influencing teaching behaviors. Teaching practice is also situated within national political

and policy frameworks that may influence teaching directly, for example, through professional development schemes, and indirectly through regulation of the higher education sector. The critical gaps in reform efforts identified in this study follow.

Individual teaching practice.

While CHED's stated support for student-centered approaches may provide sufficient incentive for some professors to try to employ new approaches, the current professional development initiatives at SLU and AUF are not sufficiently robust or systematic to assist large numbers of professors in making those shifts. The ongoing training offered will have to help professors explore how to navigate norms around social distance and deference for elders as age differences between professors and graduate students may be large or small in either direction. In addition, At the individual level, adoption of student-centered teaching will require a reorientation of professors' relationships with graduate students and increased mentoring (as opposed to other forms of teaching).

Disciplinary networks.

While some of the key approaches to student-centered learning can be shared through interdisciplinary professional development, uptake and application must also be specific to disciplinary modes of practice. Significant academic inbreeding, combined with limited resources for research, publication, and presentation at international conferences, effectively insulates professors from the wider disciplinary networks outside of Philippines. They do engage in

national associations and conferences, but no respondents in this study had the resources to conduct research on a regular basis and effectively engage in global disciplinary debates. Therefore, connections to disciplinary networks must be strengthened within and across Philippine institutions, as well as with the wider academic networks outside the country, which requires investment of resources in more publishing, conference attendance, and professional association memberships on the part of both individuals and institutions, as well as a reexamination of CHED and institutional deloading policies for research. Academic inbreeding is largely a barrier to this effort as it inhibits collegial debate and productive conflict within faculty groupings, particularly in the Philippine cultural context, as the study participants noted, but it will be a continued factor for the foreseeable future. While research and publication has been a clear focus, the reform agenda has not focused sufficiently on other forms of engagement with or linkages to disciplinary networks, and as resources are limited, creative and low-cost opportunities to foster those linkages must be identified. There is also a need and an opportunity to engage disciplinary networks on optimal ways of implementing student-centered teaching within their fields, which may be a very useful way to engage a number of professors whose own opportunities to conduct research have been limited in the past.

Institutional climate.

Teaching as a social practice also requires shifts in institutional and departmental cultures. A number of approaches might be viable, but universities

should create spaces in which thoughtfully and respectfully critiquing and contesting current practice within institutions and departments is acceptable and encouraged. Leaders of higher education institutions must support having an institutional climate in which productive disciplinary conflict can occur without penalty within the institution or department, particularly given the high levels of academic inbreeding within the institutions. Undertaking such a change would also create an opportunity for new scholarship on the intersection of Philippine culture, academic culture, and change management, which leading research institutions could share with others through relevant Centers of Excellence and Centers of Development.

In addition, current efforts to advance the quality of higher education in Philippines are likely to fall short of their goals without additional focus on developing student-centered teaching skills among graduate teaching staff tailored to their disciplines, as noted above. While scholarships for faculty members to pursue higher studies may contribute to that goal, they only benefit a small proportion of the teaching staff, and there is unlikely to be a significant spread effect given the current interpersonal dynamics within Philippine higher education institutions. Universities will need to allocate more professional development resources to student-centered teaching at least in the short-term.

Institutions may also consider the adoption of additional staffing structures that would support better teaching practice (and expansion of research programs), such as graduate assistantships, particularly for doctoral students.

While this increases the complexity of personnel administration, this in turn will require concerted efforts within each discipline to articulate and demonstrate how to tailor those approaches appropriately. Institutional support will be required for balancing of teaching and other responsibilities (including time for professional development of student-centered teaching skills). It would also be to the universities' long-term advantage to establish a system of teaching assistantships concurrent with these other reforms. Teaching assistantships could reduce some of the increased work for professors and would also provide early career training for doctoral students, creating an upward spiral of teaching quality in graduate education. If the extent of academic inbreeding remains high, the institutions that adopt these strategies then will also reap the rewards within a few years as new junior faculty are better prepared for teaching and research than they would be otherwise.

Finally, institutions may need to realign assessment and incentive systems for their staff to ensure that they reward research and teaching appropriately given the new requirements of OBE. Currently, incentive and promotion systems prioritize research over teaching, and while that prioritization may ultimately remain the same in research institutions, broader consideration of teaching portfolios and more effective assessment of teaching practices would be warranted with the shift to OBE.

Education policy and national higher education initiatives.

None of the gaps identified are easy to address. They all require significant resources and effective leadership and management, as well as clear, consistent communication from top university officials, but given the current tendency to seek external validation of quality, CHED also has a critical role to play in providing consistent messages to universities about what is expected. Effective teaching and research cultures must be fostered within institutions simultaneously, and CHED policies regarding private higher education institutions need to align with its stated goals. Resources should support teaching and research equitably, and those autonomous universities that have presumably earned the trust of the accrediting agency, government regulators, and the public should be encouraged to begin to use quality enhancement approaches to benchmark quality assurance internally, similar to public institutions.

CHED should also monitor the implementation of the new OBE curricula and sponsor regular reviews of performance and expected outcomes within disciplines. In addition to enforcing accountability for fidelity of implementation, it would have the benefit of serving as a means of strengthening national disciplinary networks and subnetworks around teaching practice within disciplines and also potentially provide opportunities for additional research.

Relevance of Western Domains of Analysis for Assessment of Teaching Practice in Philippine Higher Education Institutions

Much of the content of the OBE reform program is based on evidence of what has worked in Western contexts. Recognizing the intersecting ways in which teaching is socially situated as shown through the analysis in this study, a number of the domains that are important in improving teaching practice in graduate education in Western institutions must be reshaped to be equally effective in the Philippine sociocultural context.

Faculty members focused on ‘evidence-based’ approaches to teaching but were not at all critical of the cultural assumptions that may have underpinned the evidence to which they referred. Many were very successful at incorporating student-centered activities into their teaching practice, but a full shift to student-centered approaches will not be a simple next step, as noted in the critical gaps discussion above. Guthrie’s (1990) observation that student-centered teaching is misaligned with the values and patterns of interpersonal interactions in many cultures was relevant for the Philippines, despite the significant influence of the American higher education system on the Philippine system and its unique colonial history.

As the current evidence base is not derived from extensive study of the Philippine context, additional research may also be needed on how student-centered approaches can be taken up in cultures with greater degrees of hierarchy and social norms around conflict avoidance. It will be critical to the

success of OBE that student-centered teaching approaches are implemented in ways that enhance (rather than damage) relationships between professors and students. For example, one possibility might be to build on the field work model that is currently in use in some of AUF's Public Health courses that would allow students to conduct field work and brief interventions in small groups rather than individually. Such an approach would enhance cooperative learning and allow for co-construction of knowledge in their assigned or self-selected groups.

In addition, the findings from this study support the arguments of critical scholars, such as Marginson, Naidoo, and Rizvi, that scholars on the periphery are frequently unable to engage in disciplinary networks and debates in meaningful ways. The adoption of OBE, however, provides an opportunity to strengthen disciplinary networks at the national level if resources are made available and effective leadership is fostered.

Finally, the domains identified under institutional climate by Rice and Austin (1988) and Gappa, Austin, and Trice (2007) are relevant, but in order to be useful, the assumptions about processes of collaboration, individual goals and motivations for 'success', and cultural norms governing interpersonal relations must be made explicit.

The missing piece: underlying cultural assumptions.

As indicated throughout the study, cultural assumptions embedded in the domains relevant to quality in higher education are often tacit but extremely important for operationalization of those concepts. In the case of AUF and SLU,

norms around hierarchy and social distance, conflict aversion, and generational and gender relations were particularly important to understand.

One of the key norms that plays into the actualization of changes in teaching practice (at all levels) is hierarchy and social distance. Both with students and with colleagues in their departments, hierarchy and social distance can impede professors' open communication about learning needs or effective use of resources. Suggestions for change either cannot be made in highly hierarchical systems or generate significant conflict and loss of face. Many of the approaches intended to improve teaching practice (student-centered teaching approaches, peer review of teaching, and faculty involvement in decision-making processes) developed from Western experiences are underpinned by implicit assumptions about acceptable ways in which conflicting ideas can be shared and resolved in public forums. While both AUF and SLU now have Academic Councils that can play that role to some extent at the institutional level, no mechanism exists to address issues at the departmental level.

Respect for elders is another aspect of social distance, particularly in terms of "correct" relationships between younger and older individuals. These not only play out in the classroom interactions between professors and students, but also in navigating collegial relationships within programs and departments and may be exacerbated by the high degree of academic inbreeding found in some Philippine universities. These norms affect how tensions and conflicts can be resolved and how change processes can be implemented.

Norms of conflict avoidance also then come into play, as senior administrators and professors may not be willing to engage in open conflict that may result in significant social repercussions. In Western cultures, it is often expected that the professional and personal can be compartmentalized, and a reasoned and constructive critique of a person's work would not be interpreted as a personal attack. In Philippine culture, however, the professional and the personal are intermingled, and criticism effectively flows only from those in higher positions to those in lower positions. Thus, the expectation may be that junior faculty members will avoid debate and conflict with their elder colleagues, but those trained in U.S., European, or Australian universities, for example, may have a greater tolerance for conflict than their colleagues trained in the Philippines or in other Asian countries. Conflict avoidance norms may also influence professors' desire and willingness to undertake research that might challenge their colleagues' theories or methods.

Utility of the Socioecological Conceptual Framework

The socioecological conceptual framework used for this study was helpful in identifying key cultural assumptions underlying frameworks used for examining various aspects of quality in higher education. It drew out three important cultural factors described above, the impact of which would otherwise not have been clearly understood. It also helped identify CHED policies as one critical root of inertia and a key limitation in changing teaching practices (i.e., enforcement of maximum teaching loads to allow more time to use student-centered

approaches, more flexibility on deloading, allocation of time for advising and mentoring).

Using a socioecological conceptual framework is one approach that can assist scholars in assessing the relevance of Western frameworks in non-Western contexts. It helps explore the sociocultural and political contexts to identify what are the value-related assumptions underlying those frameworks and how they may or may not be valid in that specific situation.

Areas for Future Research

The discussion above noted several potential areas for future research, including implementation of student-centered teaching in cultures with high degrees of hierarchy and social norms around conflict avoidance, outcomes of new OBE curricula within disciplines, and scholarship on the intersection of Philippine culture, academic culture, and change management. In addition, future research on leadership, change management, and communication within institutions around OBE would be useful in identifying more and less successful approaches to its implementation. Finally, the wider regional approach to quality assurance and mutual recognition of national qualifications provides fertile grounds for comparative studies of higher education reforms and outcomes.

References

Allison, C., Tolo, K., Ladd, A., Goldstein, B., Blackwell, J., Turner, K., & Anderson, H. (2012). *Collaborative assessment of 11 higher education institutions in Indonesia.* Jakarta: USAID/Indonesia.

Altbach, P. (1989). Twisted roots: The Western impact on Asian higher education. *Higher Education, 18*, 9-29.

Altbach, P. (2004). The past and future of Asian universities. In P. A. Umakoshi (Ed.), *Asian universities: Historical perspectives and contemporary challenges* (pp. 13-32). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Altbach, P., Yudkevich, M., & Rumbley, L. (2015). Academic inbreeding: Local challenge, global problem. In M. Yudkevich, P. Altbach, & L. Rumbley (Eds.), *Academic inbreeding and mobility in higher education* (pp. 1-16). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Archer, M. (2000). *Being human: The problem of agency.* New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Asian Development Bank. (2011). *Improving instruction quality: Focus on faculty development.* Mandaluyong City, Philippines: ADB.

Austin, A. (2002). Preparing the Next Generation of Faculty: Graduate School as Socialization to the Academic Career. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 94-122.

Austin, A., & Sorcinelli, M. (2013). The future of faculty development: Where are we going? *New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 133*, 85-97. doi:10.1002/tl.20048

Bamber, V. (2012). Learning and teaching in the disciplines: Challenging knowledge, ubiquitous change. In P. Trowler, M. Saunders, & V. Bamber (Eds.), *Tribes and Territories in the 21st Century: Rethinking the significance of disciplines in higher education.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Barabasi, A. (2003). *Linked. How everything is connected to everything else and what it means for.* New York, NY: Plume.

Barbour, R., & Schostak, J. (2011). Interviewing and Focus Groups. In B. Somekh, & C. Lewin, *Theory and Methods in Social Research* (pp. 61-68). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bartlett, R. (2011). The marketised university: Defending the indefensible. In M. Molesworth, R. Scullion, & E. Nixon (Eds.), *The marketisation of higher education and the student as consumer* (pp. 39-51). New York, NY: Routledge.

Becher, T. (1991). The disciplinary contexts for quality judgments. In R. Berdahl, G. Moodie, & J. I. Spitzberg (Eds.), *Quality and access in higher education* (pp. 152-163). Bristol, PA: SRHE and Open University Press.

Belloc, B. (2003). Incentives and accountability: Instruments of change. *Higher Education Management and Policy, 15*(1), 23-41.

Bok, D. C. (2003). *Universities in the marketplace: The commercialization of higher education.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design.* Cambridge, MA: President and Fellows of Harvard College.

Brown, G. (1993). Effective teaching. In R. Ellis (Ed.), *Quality assurance for university teaching* (pp. 211-232). Bristol, PA: Open University Press.

Brown, R. (2011). The Impact of Markets. In R. Brown (Ed.), *Higher Education and the Market* (pp. 20-52). New York, NY: Routledge.

Buxton, C. (1956). *College teaching: A psychologist's view.* New York, NY: Harcourt Brace.

Campbell, D. F., & Carayannis, E. G. (2013). *Epistemic Governance in Higher Education: Quality Enhancement of Universities for Development.* New York, NY: Springer.

Chapman, D. (2015, March 9). Changing higher education practice in Malaysia: The conundrum of incentives. (C. 2015, Interviewer)

Chapman, D., & Austin, A. (2002). The changing context of higher education in the developing world. In D. Chapman, & A. Austin (Eds.), *Higher education in the developing world: Changing contexts and institutional responses* (pp. 1-22). Chestnut Hill, MA: Center for International Higher Education and the Program in Higher Education, Boston College.

Chapman, D., Austin, A., Farah, S., Wilson, E., & Ridge, N. (2014). Academic staff in the UAE: Unsettled journey. *Higher Education Policy*(27), 131-151.

Church, A. T., & Katigbak, M. S. (2000, September). Trait psychology in the Philippines. *American Behavioral Scientist, 44*(1), 73-94.

Commission on Higher Education. (2009). *National Higher Education Research Agenda - 2 (2009-2018).* Manila: CHED. Retrieved from https://ched.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/NHERA-2.pdf

Commission on Higher Education. (2011). *Commission on Higher Education (CHED) Strategic Plan 2011-2016.* Manila: CHED. Retrieved from http://www.ched.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2014/12/CHED-Strategic-Plan-2011-2016.pdf.

Commission on HIgher Education. (2019, December 31). *Private Higher Education Institutions Faculty by Highest Degree Attained.* Retrieved March 20, 2020, from Commission on Higher Education: https://ched.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2018/07/Private-Higher-Education-Institutions-Faculty-by-Highest-Degree-Attained.pdf

Contu, A., & Wilmott, H. (2003). Re-Embedding Situatedness: The Importance of Power Relations in Learning Theory. *Organizational Science*, 283-296.

Cook, C. E., & Kaplan, M. (Eds.). (2011). *Advancing the culture of teaching on campus: How a teaching center can make a difference.* Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing, LLC.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cummings, W., Bain, O., Postiglione, G., & Jung, J. (2014). Internationalization of the academy: Rhetoric, recent trends and prospects. In F. Huang, M. Finkelstein, & M. Rostans (Eds.), *The Internationalization of the Academy: Changes, Realities and Prospects* (pp. 55-78). New York, NY: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-94-007-7278-6

Dillman, D., Smyth, J., & Christian, L. (2014). *Internet, phone, mail, and mixed-mode surveys: The tailored design method* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Emerson, R., Fretz, R., & Shaw, L. (2011). *Writing Ethnographic Fieldnotes.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Fox, C. (2002). The massification of higher education. In D. Hayes, & R. Wynyard (Eds.), *The McDonaldization of Higher Education* (pp. 129-142). Westport, CT: Bergin & Garvey.

Frandsen, A. (1961). *Educational psychology: The principles of learning in teaching.* New York, NY: McGraw Hill.

Gappa, J. M., Austin, A. E., & Trice, A. (2007). *Rethinking Faculty Work.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

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*, 87-100.

Ginns, P., Kitay, J., & Prosser, M. (2010). Transfer of academic staff learning in a research-intensive university. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 235-246.

Goldman, L. (2012). Dewey's Pragmatism from an Anthropological Point of View. *Transactions of the Charles S. Peirce Society: A Quarterly Journal, 48*(1), 1-30.

Green, R. (2003). Markets, Management, and "Reengineering" Higher Education. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 196-210.

Guthrie, G. (1990). To the defense of traditional teaching in lesser developed countries. In V. Rust, & P. Dalin (Eds.), *Teachers and Teaching in the Developing World* (pp. 219-232). New York, NY: Garland Publishing.

Hakim, G. (2014). *Firms' perceptions of graduate competencies: A labor demand study of industry sectors in North Sumatra and South Sulawesi.* Jakarta: USAID.

Hallinger, P. (2010). Using faculty evaluation to improve teaching quality: A longitudinal case study of higher education in Southeast Asia. *Education Assessment, Evaluation and Accreditation, 22*, 253-274. doi:10.1007/s11092-010-9108-9

Haris, Z., Kassim, M., Yusof, A., & Kassim, N. (2011). Teaching methods fo Islamic education post graduate diploma in teaching primary school in Malaysia. *2011 IEEE Colloquium on Humanities, Science and Engineering Research* (pp. 294-299). Penang, Malaysia: IEEE.

Harpur, J. (2010). *Innovation, profit, and the common good in higher education: The new alchemy.* New York, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Hayes, D. (2002). Taking the hemlock? The new sophistry of teacher training for higher education. In D. Hayes, & R. Wynyard (Eds.), *The McDonaldization of Higher Education* (pp. 143-158). Westport, CT: Bergin & Garvey.

Hofer, B. (2002). Motivation in the college classroom. In *McKeachie's teaching tips* (pp. 118-127). Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Horta, H. (2013). Deepening our understanding of academic inbreeding effects on research information exchange and scientific output: new insights for academic based research. *Higher Education, 65*, 487-510.

Horta, H., Sato, M., & Yonezawa, A. (2011). Academic inbreeding: exploring its characteristics and rationale. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 12*, 35-44.

Hu, Y., van der Rijst, R., van Veen, K., & Verloop, N. (2014). And never the two shall meet? Comparing Chinese and Dutch university teachers about the role of research and teaching. *Higher Education, 68*, 607-622.

Husin, A., Zin, M., Kasim, J., Kadir, M., & Sakat, A. (2012). The practice of Islamic educational thought. *Advances in Natural and Applied Sciences, 6*(3), 467-471.

Hutchings, P. (2011). From Departmental to Disciplinary Assessment: Deepening Faculty Engagement. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 43*(5), 36-43.

ILO. (2020, March 20). *ILOSTAT Explorer*. Retrieved from ILOSTAT: https://www.ilo.org/shinyapps/bulkexplorer27/?lang=en&segment=indicator&id=EMP_2EMP_SEX_STE_DT_A

Inanc, O., & Tuncer, O. (2011). The effect of academic inbreeding on scientific. *Scientometrics, 88*, 885–898.

Jaafar, N., Tamuri, A., Muhamad, N., Ghazali, N., Amat, R., Raus, N., & Hassan, S. (2012). The importance of self-efficacy: A need for Islamic teachers as murabbi. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 69*, 359-366.

Jamshidi, L., Arasteh, H., Ebrahim, A., Zeinabadi, H., & Rasmussen, P. (2012). Developmental patterns of privatization in higher education: a comparative study. *Higher Education, 64*, 789-803.

Jongbloed, B. (2003, April). Marketisation in Higher Education, Clark's Triangle and the Essential Ingredients of Markets. *Higher Education Quarterly, 57*(2), 110-135.

Kincheloe, J., & McLaren, P. (1998). Rethinking critical theory and qualitative research. In N. Denzin, & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues* (pp. 260-299). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Knight, J. (1999). Internationalisation of Higher Education. In *Quality and Internationalisation in Higher Education* (pp. 13-28). Paris: OECD.

Knight, P., & Trowler, P. (2000). Department-level cultures and the improvement of teaching and learning. *Studies in Higher Education, 25*(1), 69-83.

Landfried, K. (2004). The incentive system in higher education. *European Education, 36*(2), 60-64.

Ma, W. (2014). Integration and transformation: The teaching experiences and pedagogical jpourneys of four Chinese professors. In W. Ma (Ed.), *East meets west in teacher preparation: Crossing Chinese and American borders* (pp. 64-78). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Marcial, D. E., Caballero, R. D., Rendal, J. B., & Patrimonio, G. A. (2015). “I Am Offline”: Measuring Barriers to Open Online Learning in the Philippines. *Інформаційні технології і засоби навчання*, 28-41.

Marginson, S. (2006). Dynamics of national and global competition in higher education. *Higher Education, 52*, 1-39.

Marginson, S. (2011). Higher education in East Asia and Singapore: Rise of the Confucian model. *Higher education, 61*, 587-611.

Marginson, S., & Sawir, E. (2005). Interrogating global flows in higher education. *Globalisation, Societies and Education, 3*(3), 281-309.

Maringe, F. (2011). The student as consumer: Affordances and constraints in a transforming higher education environment. In M. Molesworth, R. Scullion, & E. Nixon (Eds.), *The marketisation of higher education and the student as consumer* (pp. 142-154). New York, NY: Routledge.

Mathieson, S. (2012). Disciplinary cultures of teaching and learning as socially situated practice: rethinking the space between social constructivism and epistemological essentialism from the South African experience. *Higher Education*, 549-564.

Maxwell, J. A. (2013). *Qualitative Research Design.* Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.

McKeachie, W. (2002). *McKeachie's teaching tips.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Montenegro, C. E., & Patrinos, H. (2013). *Returns to schooling around the world, [Background Paper for the World Development Report 2013].* Washington, DC: World Bank. Retrieved from http://siteresources.worldbank.org/EXTNWDR2013/Resources/8258024-1320950747192/82

Montenegro, C. E., & Patrinos, H. (2014). *Comparable estimates to schooling returns around the world, [Policy Research Working Paper 7020].* Washington, DC: World Bank. Retrieved from http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/830831468147839247/pdf/WPS7020.pdf

Moore, J. (1995). Some historical and conceptual relations among logical positivism, behaviorism, and cognitive psychology. In J. T. Todd, & E. K. Morris (Eds.), *Modern Perspectives on B.F. Skinner and Contemporary Behaviorism* (pp. 51-74). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Mosier, D. (1952). Progressivism in education. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 274-281.

Naidoo, R. (2008). Entrenching international inequality: The impact of the global commodification of higher education on developing countries. In J. Canaan, & W. Shumar (Eds.), *Structure and agency in the neoliberal university* (pp. 84-100). New York, NY: Routledge.

Naidoo, R. (2010). Global learning in a neoliberal age: Implications for development. In E. Unterhalter, & V. Carpentier (Eds.), *Global Inequalities and Higher Education. Whose interests are we serving?* (pp. 66-90). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Nash, R. (1990). Bourdieu on education. *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 11*(4), 431-447.

Newman, M., Barabasi, A., & Watts, D. (2006). *Structure and dynamics of networks.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Nixon, E., Scullion, R., & Molesworth, M. (2011). In M. Molesworth, R. Scullion, & E. Nixon (Eds.), *The marketisation of higher education and the student as consumer* (pp. 196-208). New York, NY: Routledge.

Parker, M. (2002). Total quality control: Universities, language, and politics. In D. Hayes, & R. Wynyard (Eds.), *The McDonaldization of Higher Education* (pp. 114-128). Westport, CT: Bergin & Garvey.

Postiglione, G. A. (2010). East Asian knowledge systems: Driving ahead amid borderless higher education systems. In D. C. Chapman, & G. Postiglione (Eds.), *Crossing Borders in East Asian Higher Education* (pp. 25-46). Dordrecht: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-94-007-0446-6

Putranta, M., & Kingshott, R. (2011). The relationship between ethical climates, ethical ideologies and organizational commitment within Indonesian higher education institutions. *Journal of Academic Ethics, 9*, 43-60.

Republic of the Philippines Department of Education. (2019, March 3). *Historical Perspective of the Philippine Education System*. Retrieved from Department of Education: https://www.deped.gov.ph/about-deped/history/

Rice, R. E., & Austin, A. (1988, March/April). High Faculty Morale: What Exemplary Colleges Do Right. *Change, 20*(2), 50-58.

Ricklefs, M., Lockhart, B., Lau, A., Reyes, P., & Aung-Thwin, M. (2010). *A new history of Southeast Asia.* New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Rizvi, F. (2007). Postcolonialism and Globalization in Education. *Cultural Studies ⁄ Critical Methodologies, 7*(3), 256-263. doi:10.1177/1532708607303606

Ropers-Huilman, R. (1998). *Feminist teaching in theory and practice: Situating power and knowledge in poststructural classrooms.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Roxa, T., & Martensson, K. (2013). How effects from teacher-training of academic teacher propogate into the meso level and beyond. In E. Simon, & G. Pleschova (Eds.), *Teacher development in higher education: Existing programs, program impact, and future trends* (pp. 213-233). New York, NY: Routledge.

Roxa, T., Martensson, K., & Alveteg, M. (2011). Understanding and influencing teaching and learningcultures at university: a network approach. *Higher Education, 62*, 99-111. doi:10.1007/s10734-010-9368-9

Sauntson, H., & Morrish, L. (2011). Vision, values and international excellence: The 'products' that university mission statements sell to students. In M.

Molesworth, R. Scullion, & E. Nixon (Eds.), *The marketisation of higher education and the student as consumer* (pp. 73-85). New York, NY: Routledge.

Schwandt, T. (1998). Constructivist, interpretivist approaches to human inquiry. In N. Denzin, & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues* (pp. 221-259). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Schweisfurth, M. (2013). *Learner-centered education in international perspective: Whose pedagogy for whose development?* New York, NY: Routledge.

Sidhu, R. K. (2006). *Universities and globalization: To market, to market.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Slaughter, S. (1998). National Higher Education Policies in a Global Economy. In J. Currie, & J. Newson (Eds.), *Universities and globalization: Critical perspectives* (pp. 45-70). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Stes, A., Gijbels, D., & Van Petegem, P. (2007). Student-focused approaches to teaching in relation to context and teacher characteristics. *Higher Education*, 255-267.

Struyven, K., Dochy, F., & Janssens, S. (2010). 'Teach as you preach': the effects of student-centred versus lecture-based teaching on student teachers' approaches to teaching. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 33*(1), 43-64.

Takayama, K. (2011). The comparativist's predicament of writing about 'other' education. *Comparative Education, 47*(4), 449-470.

Thanh, P. (2012). A framework to implement cross-cultural pedagogy: The case of implementing learning reform at Confucian heritage cultural colleges. *Higher Education Review*, 27-40.

Tight, M. (2008). Higher education research as tribe, territory and/or community: A co-citation analysis. *Higher Education, 55*(5), 593–605.

Tight, M. (2015). Theory Development and Application in Higher Education Research: Tribes and Territories. *Higher Education Policy*, 277-293.

Tolo, K., Allison, C., & Ladd, A. (2012). *Trends and opportunities in quality assurance and external stakeholder collaboration for Indonesian higher education institutions.* Washington, DC: USAID.

Tolo, K., Method, F., French, P., Rhodes, J., & Allison, C. (2011). *Best Practices for USAID International Higher Education Institutional Partnerships: Asia and Middle East Regions (Volume 1).* Washington, DC: USAID.

Trigwell, K. (2011). Scholarship of teaching and teachers' understanding of subject matter. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 5*(1).

Trigwell, K., Prosser, M., & Waterhouse, F. (1999). Relations between teachers' approaches to teaching and students'approaches to learning. *Higher Education*, 57–70.

UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (2020, March 20). *Education: Enrollment by Level of Education*. Retrieved from Data Centre: http://data.uis.unesco.org/

UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (2020, March 29). *Global Flow of Tertiary-Level Students*. Retrieved from UNESCO Institute for Statistics: http://uis.unesco.org/en/uis-student-flow

Unterhalter, E. (2010). Considering equality, equity and higher education: Pedagogies in the context of globalization. In E. Unterhalter, & V. Carpentier (Eds.), *Global Inequalities and Higher Education. Whose interests are we serving?* (pp. 91-116). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Varghese, N. (2004). Incentives and institutional changes in higher education. *Higher Education Management and Policy, 16*(1), 27-39.

Vavrus, F., Bartlett, L., & Salema, V. (2013). Introduction. In F. Vavrus, & L. Bartlett (Eds.), *Teaching in Tension: International Pedagogies, National Policies, and Teachers' Practices in Tanzania* (pp. 1-22). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in Society.* Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Wallerstein, I. (1974). *The Modern World System: Capitalist Agriculture and the Origins of the European World Economy in the Sixteenth Century.* New York , NY: Academic Press.

Wankat, P., & Oreovicz, F. (1993). Chapter 15: Learning Theories. In P. Wankat, & F. Oreovicz, *Teaching Engineering* (pp. 284-305). New York, NY: Knovel.

Ward, S. C. (2012). *Neoliberalism and the global restructuring of knowledge and education.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Weinstein, C. (2002). Teaching stiudents how to learn. In W. McKeachie, *McKeachie's teaching tips* (pp. 270-283). Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Welch, A. (2011). *Higher education in Southeast Asia: Blurring borders, changing balance.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Wells, P. (2014). *The DNA of a converging diversity: Regional approaches to quality assurance in higher education.* Washington, DC: Council for Higher Education Accreditation.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice. Learning, meaning, and identity.* New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Wenger, E., McDermott, R., & Snyder, W. (2002). *Cultivating communities of practice: A guide to managing knowledge.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Publishing.

World Bank. (2016, November 16). *SABER-TE Scoring Rubric.* Retrieved from Systems Approach for Better Education Results (SABER): http://wbgfiles.worldbank.org/documents/hdn/ed/saber/supporting_doc/Background/TED/Rubrics_TED.pdf

World Bank. (2016, August 20). *World Development Indicators Database*. Retrieved from Data Bank: http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=world-development-indicators

World Bank. (2020, March 20). *GDP (current US$) - Philippines*. Retrieved from Data: https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.CD?end=2018&locations=PH&start=2003

Annex 1: Data Collection Instruments

Exploring Teaching Approaches and Quality in Graduate Education
Interview Guide for Deans and University Leadership

Thank you for your time today. My name is Christine Allison, and as you know, I am conducting a study on teaching approaches and quality innovations in graduate education as part of the requirements for my doctorate.

I would like to talk with you today about your opinions and experiences as a professor of graduate courses. There are no right or wrong answers - I am interested in your opinions, and your personal experience. All of your personal information, as well as your opinions and ideas that you share with me today, will be treated as confidential.

I would like to audio record this interview today. The recording is only for my use for the purposes of accurately capturing your input and will not be shared with other parties at any time. The digital files will be held on a password-protected external hard drive that I do not use when connected to the internet.

This consent form contains more information. You have two copies, one to be signed and returned to me and the other for your records. Please take a few minutes to review it, and let me know if you have any questions. {Pause for respondent to review form.] Do you have any questions? Do you consent to participate? If so, please sign the form. [If respondent refuses, thank him/her and conclude the interview.)

Philosophy of Graduate Education

For the first part of our discussion, I would like to find out a little more about the institution's philosophy of graduate education.

1. What is the main purpose of education at the masters level and at the doctoral level (e.g., content mastery, teaching practice, research skills, habits of mind, etc.)? [Probe on any difference between masters and doctoral levels.]

2. What is the appropriate balance of theory and applied [hands-on] learning at the masters level? At the doctoral level? [Probe on differences among disciplines.]

3. Does the university have a graduate education handbook (or equivalent)? Is it possible to get a copy?

4. What, in your opinion, is the appropriate relationship between a professor and graduate students? [Probe: How do you expect your students to view

professors at this university? Do you expect professors to have moral authority as well as an intellectual authority? Do your expectations vary by discipline? Do your expectations vary by a student's personal characteristics (sex, religion, ethnicity, disability, etc.)?]

Institutional Supports for Teaching

Thank you for sharing that. Now, I would like to understand more about the institutional supports for teaching within the university.

1. What supports exist for professors teaching graduate courses (e.g., professional development, library support, lab support, research support centers, writing support centers, teaching assistantships, etc.)? [Probe on online resources, special support for new/junior faculty.]

2. How do you as a leader within the university try to support effective teaching practices among the professors and lecturers? [Probe on forms of support – ask respondent to be as specific as possible.]

3. What supports have you found to be most used by professors and lecturers? Why?

4. What support would you like to offer for teaching at the graduate level that is not currently in place (either still in the planning stages or not available within existing resources)? [Probe on specific resources and services, policies, and process changes.]

Faculty Members (Deans only)

Thank you. I would like to shift the discussion now so I can better understand the criteria you apply when assessing teaching staff.

1. When selecting new faculty members, what specific criteria do you apply? What experience do you look for? [Probe on teaching experience versus other considerations (research) and differences by discipline.]

2. What criteria are used for promotions and tenure? [Probe on role of teaching and any differences by discipline.]

3. How is teaching performance assessed? What metrics are used? [Probe on differences before and after tenure and differences by discipline.]

4. To what extent, if at all, does teaching performance factor into your institutional accreditation reviews?

5. How are courses assigned to teaching staff? [Probe on who makes decisions and factors used in decision making, particularly for graduate courses, and differences by discipline.] What is a typical teaching load for this university? [Probe on differences by discipline.]

6. How are professors involved in the development of new graduate programs and new graduate courses within existing programs? [Probe on who makes decisions and factors used in decision making, particularly for graduate courses, and differences by discipline.]

Current Course Offerings (Deans only)

Thank you. We are coming to the end of my questions. Now, I would like to ask about the graduate courses currently being offered.

1. Which graduate courses are being offered within your department this semester?

2. Who are the professors teaching each of those courses?

Demographic Information

We are almost at the end, and I would like to ask a few demographic questions.

1. What degree do you hold? [Highest degree]
2. Where did you earn your [highest] degree?
3. Have you ever studied (at any level – undergraduate, graduate, post doc) at a foreign university?

   Yes ◯ No ◯

   a. If yes, which one?

   _____

4. How long have you been with your current institution?
5. What is your title? [for deans, capture department(s)]
6. How many years of teaching experience do you have in total (undergraduate and graduate)?
7. How many years of experience do you have teaching graduate courses?
8. Do you currently have teaching responsibilities in addition to your administrative responsibilities? [Probe on typical number of graduate vs undergraduate courses and current teaching load this semester.]

Do you have any questions or comments to share with me? [If so, respond to questions and comments.]

I would like to thank you for your time today. Do you have any questions or concerns about next steps in this process? [If so, respond to questions and concerns. Thank the interviewee and conclude the interview.]

INTERVIEWER INFORMATION

Name of Respondent: _____

Sex of Respondent: Female ◯ Male ◯

Location of Interview: _____

Date of Interview:_____ Duration of Interview:_____

Exploring Teaching Approaches and Quality in Graduate Education
Interview Guide for Professors/Lecturers

Thank you for your time today. My name is Christine Allison, and as you know, I am conducting a study on teaching approaches and quality innovations in graduate education as part of the requirements for my doctorate.

I would like to talk with you today about your opinions and experiences as a professor of graduate courses. There are no right or wrong answers - I am interested in your opinions, and your personal experience. All of your personal information, as well as your opinions and ideas that you share with me today, will be treated as confidential.

I would like to audio record this interview today. The recording is only for my use for the purposes of accurately capturing your input and will not be shared with other parties at any time. The digital files will be held on a password-protected external hard drive that I do not use when connected to the internet.

This consent form contains more information. You have two copies, one to be signed and returned to me and the other for your records. Please take a few minutes to review it, and let me know if you have any questions. {Pause for respondent to review form.] Do you have any questions? Do you consent to participate? If so, please sign the form. [If respondent refuses, thank him/her and conclude the interview.)

Philosophy of Graduate Education

For the first part of our discussion, I would like to find out a little more about your personal philosophy of graduate education.

1. What, in your opinion, is the main purpose of education at the masters level and at the doctoral level (e.g., content mastery, teaching practice, research skills, habits of mind, etc.)? [Probe on any difference between masters and doctoral levels.]

2. What is the appropriate balance of theory and applied [hands-on] learning at the masters level? At the doctoral level?

3. What, in your opinion, is the appropriate relationship between a professor and graduate students? [Probe: How do you expect your students to view you as a professor? Do you expect to serve as a moral authority as well as an intellectual authority? Do your expectations vary by a student's

personal characteristics (sex, religion, ethnicity, disability, etc.)?]

Teaching Practice

Now I would like to expand our discussion to actual teaching approaches that you use in the classroom.

1. How do you typically prepare for a graduate course that you will be teaching? [Probe on timing of initial planning, development of new/adaptation of existing syllabi, teaching assistant selection if applicable, review of course material, assignment planning, assessment, etc.]

2. How do you prefer to deliver the content in the lessons you teach? [Probe on balance of lecture, interactivity, and hands-on learning and use of technology.]

3. What kind of interaction do you expect to have with graduate students in the classroom? [Probe on how much interaction they expect and how it is structured.]

4. How do you assess learning in your graduate classes? [Probe on use of different kinds of assignments, hands-on activities, group work, etc.]

5. To what extent do you support graduate students' learning outside of the classroom? If at all, how? [Probe on approaches to advising, mentoring, or otherwise providing learning support.]

6. How, if at all, has your teaching practice (specifically for graduate courses) changed over time? [Probe on perceptions earlier in career vs now and key drivers of change – growing expertise, technology, resources, advancements in field, etc.]

7. How, if at all, does the department assess your teaching performance? [Probe on use of course evaluations, informal feedback mechanisms from students or peers, tenure reviews, etc.]

8. How do you assess your own teaching performance? [Probe on use of course evaluations, informal feedback mechanisms from students or peers, tenure reviews, etc.] Do you have specific benchmarks for your own performance that you try to achieve? If so, what are they?

Discipline-specific Practices and Debates

For the next part of our discussion, I want to ask you some questions about your perceptions of practices and debates specific to your discipline or area of specialization.

1. What is/are the dominant epistemology(ies) found in your field? [Clarify if needed, the nature of knowledge and how it is produced.]

2. How does/do the dominant epistemology(ies) inform your teaching practice, particularly with regard to (a) content mastery and (b) habits of mind/practice among graduate students?

3. Are there major debates about best teaching practices for graduate education in your discipline? If so, what are the primary points of contention?

Institutional Supports for Teaching

So now I want to shift the conversation to the institutional setting for your teaching.

1. What supports exist for professors teaching graduate courses (e.g., professional development, library support, lab support, research support centers, writing support centers, teaching assistantships, etc.)? [Probe on online resources, special support for new/junior faculty.]

2. What support is provided by the leadership of the university and department? [Probe on forms of support – ask respondent to be as specific as possible.]

3. What supports, if any, have you personally found to be the most helpful? Why?

4. If funding were no issue, what supports would you ideally like to have for teaching at the graduate level? [Probe on specific resources and services, policies, and process changes.]

Demographic Information

We are almost at the end, and I would like to ask a few demographic questions.

1. What degree do you hold? [Highest degree]
2. Where did you earn your [highest] degree?
3. How long have you been with your current institution?
4. In which department(s) do you teach?

5. What is your specialization or area of interest?
6. How many years have you been teaching in total (undergraduate and graduate)?
7. How many years have you been teaching graduate courses?
8. What is a typical teaching load for you? [Probe on number of graduate vs undergraduate courses.]
9. What is your current teaching load this semester?

Do you have any questions or comments to share with me? [If so, respond to questions and comments.]

INTERVIEWER INFORMATION

Sex of Respondent: Female ◯ Male ◯

Location of Interview: _____

Date of Interview: _____ Duration of Interview: _____

Exploring Teaching Approaches and Quality in Graduate Education

Focus Group Guide for Professors/Lecturers

Thank you all for coming. My name is Christine Allison, and as you know, I am conducting a study on teaching approaches and quality innovations in graduate education as part of the requirements for my doctorate. I would like to talk with you today about your opinions and experiences as professors of graduate courses. All of your personal information, as well as your opinions and ideas that you share with me today, will be treated as confidential. I will only report information on an anonymous, aggregated basis. While you may all know each other, I would ask that you hold the discussion we have today in confidence as well and not share any of your colleagues' responses with others not participating today.

I want you to know that I am audio recording this discussion today. However, the recording is only for my use for the purposes of accurately capturing your input and will not be shared with other parties at any time. The digital files will be held on a password protected external hard drive that I do not use when connected to the internet.

This consent form contains more information. Each of you has two copies, one to be signed and returned to me and the other for your records. Please take a few minutes to review it, and let me know if you have any questions. [Pause for respondents to review form.] Do you have any questions? Do you consent to participate? If so, please sign the form. [If any respondent refuses, thank him/her and invite him/her to depart.]

There are no right or wrong answers - I am interested in all of your opinions, and particularly differences of opinion that reflect debates in your discipline. I want everyone to participate. If you have something to say, please speak up. However, I ask that you please speak one at a time so that each person is heard clearly on the tape and please be respectful of everyone's input.

Introduction
*(Approximate Time: **10 min**)*
First, I'd like to go around the table and have everyone introduce themselves by their first names and share the number of years of experience you have teaching and what your current teaching load is.

Philosophy of Graduate Education
*(Approximate Time: **15 min**)*
For the first part of our discussion, I would like to find out a little more about your personal philosophy of graduate education.

1. What, in your opinion, is the main purpose of education at the masters level and at the doctoral level (e.g., content mastery, teaching practice, research skills, habits of mind, etc.)?
2. What is the appropriate balance of theory and applied [hands-on] learning at the masters level? At the doctoral level?
3. What, in your opinion, is the appropriate relationship between professors and graduate students? [Probe: How do you expect your students to view you as a professor? Do you expect to serve as a moral authority as well as an intellectual authority? Do your expectations vary by a student's personal characteristics (sex, religion, ethnicity, disability, etc.?]
4. To what extent do you think perceptions of purpose and appropriate relationships vary by academic discipline?

Teaching Practice
*(Approximate Time: **25 min**)*
Now I would like to expand our discussion to actual teaching approaches that you use in the classroom.

1. How do you typically prepare for a graduate course that you will be teaching? [Probe on timing of initial planning, development of new/adaptation of existing syllabi, teaching assistant selection if applicable, review of course material, assignment planning, etc.]
2. How do you prefer to deliver the content in the lessons you teach? [Probe on balance of lecture, interactivity, and hands-on learning.]
3. What kind of interaction do you expect to have with graduate students in the classroom? [Probe on how much interaction they expect and how it is structured.]
4. How do you assess learning in your graduate classes? [Probe on use of different kinds of assignments, hands-on activities, group work, etc.]
5. To what extent do you support graduate students' learning outside of the classroom? If at all, how? [Probe on approaches to advising, mentoring, or otherwise providing learning support.]

Discipline-specific Practices and Debates
*(Approximate Time: **20 min**)*
For the next part of our discussion, I want to ask you some questions about your perceptions of practices and debates specific to your discipline or area of specialization.

1. What is/are the dominant epistemology(ies) found in your field? [Clarify if needed, the nature of knowledge and how it is produced.]
2. Do you see differences between your discipline and others in terms of the range of teaching approaches used? [Probe on whether the range

is wider or narrower for that discipline and why.]

3. Are there significant debates within your field as to the best ways to ensure (a) content mastery and (b) habits of mind/practice among graduate students?
4. How, if at all, have the debates about best teaching practices in your discipline changed over time? [Probe on perceptions earlier in career vs now and key drivers of change - technology, resources, advancements in field, etc.]

Institutional Supports for Teaching
*(Approximate Time: **20 min)***
So now I want to shift the conversation a little to the institutional setting for your teaching.

1. What supports exist for professors teaching graduate courses (e.g., professional development, library support, lab support, research support centers, writing support centers, teaching assistantships, etc.)? [Probe on online resources, special support for new/junior faculty.]
2. What support, if any, is provided by the leadership of the university and department? [Probe on forms of support - ask participants to be as specific as possible.]
3. If funding were no issue, what supports would you ideally like to have for teaching at the graduate level? [Probe on specific resources and services, policies, and process changes.]

Moderator: Ask if there are any further comments they would like to share with you. Tell them how to contact you if they have any further thoughts, ideas, or suggestions.
Thank the participants for their time.

MODERATOR INFORMATION

This focus group was composed of: _____Men and _____Women

Location: _____
Date: _____
Duration: _____

Exploring Teaching Approaches and Quality in Graduate Education
Professor/Lecturer Survey

Thank you for your interest in the Professor/Lecturer Survey for "Exploring Teaching Approaches and Quality Innovation in Graduate Education in Philippines." This study is a doctoral dissertation research project by Christine Allison of the University of Minnesota. [Saint Louis University/Angeles University Foundation] is one of the sites hosting this important research on teaching approaches arid innovations in graduate education. The survey is 25 questions long and will take approximately 6-8 minutes to complete.

Your responses will be collected anonymously so none of your responses can be linked to you in any way. The information that you provide will be combined with information from everyone else participating in the study. Deidentified data will be shared with the university's leadership to help identify opportunities to improve support to teaching staff.

Dr. David Chapman is the advisor overseeing this dissertation research. If you have any questions or concerns about participating in the study, you can contact Dr. Chapman at chap026@umn.edu.

PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH IS VOLUNTARY. You are free to decline to be in this study. If you decide to participate, you can refuse to answer any question you do not wish to answer or withdraw from it a any point. There is no monetary or other compensation for participating.

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

By checking the circle below, you are giving your consent to participate in this study. Thank you in advance for your time and willingness to share your opinions and experiences!

I Consent to Participate in Survey ○

Teaching Practice and Teaching Approaches in the Classroom

1. What percentage of class time do you think should be hands-on learning or group work in graduate classes? _____%

2. What percentage of class time do you think should be interactive in graduate classes? _____%

3. What percentage of class time do you think should be lecture in graduate

classes? _____%

4. How many hours do you typically spend preparing for each graduate lesson you teach? _____ hours

5. How many hours do you typically spend meeting with students about lessons and assignments outside of class in a graduate course? _____ hours

6. How many hours do you typically spend grading/assessing student learning for a graduate course? _____ hours

7. Who are the three scholars who have most influenced your teaching practice?

8. What journals do you find most useful in reflecting on your teaching practice?

9. Do you regularly use course evaluations to obtain feedback on your teaching performance? No O Yes O

10. Do you use a method other than course evaluations to assess your teaching performance? No O {skip to Q12} Yes O (go to Q 11)

11. If yes, what method do you use? [write in, open-ended]

Institutional Supports for Teaching

12. What supports have you personally found to be the most helpful? [select top three]

Professional development O	Library support O	Lab support O
Research support centers O	Writing support center O	Teaching assistantships O
Online resources O	Other O	

a. Please describe "Other":

13. What support would you like to have for teaching at the graduate level that is not currently in place?

Demographic Information

14. What is your sex?

Female O Male O

15. In which age range do you fall?

Under 30 O 30-39 O 40-49 O 50-59 O 60 or above O

16. What degree do you hold? [Highest degree]

BA/BS O MA/MS O PhD/EdD O

17. Where did you earn your [highest] degree?

18. Have you ever studied (at any level - undergraduate, graduate, post doc) at a foreign university?

Yes O No O

a. If yes, which one (name and country)?
_____

19. Have you had an opportunity to do any postgraduate **work?**

Yes O (go to Q20) No O (go to Q21)

20. If yes, where did you do your postgraduate work?

My current institution O
Another institution in Southeast Asia O
Another institution in my country O
Another institution elsewhere in the world O

21. How long have you been with your current institution?
_____ years

22. In which department do you teach?
_____

23. How many years have you been teaching in total (undergraduate and graduate)?
_____ years

24. How many years have you been teaching graduate courses?
_____years

25. What is a typical teaching load for you?
_____ courses

Thank you for your time and consideration!