

**The teacher as educator, communicator, leader and professional:
An interdisciplinary framework for the improvement of teacher
effectiveness**

B.B. Bijleveld, Linguistics (6231136), H.H. van Veeren, Educational Sciences (6120601), J.M.
Schildkamp Public Administration and Organisation science (6282857), S. Yeo, Gender and
Postcolonial Studies (6569471)

Dr. Anastasia Hacopian PHD

Dr. Joost Zwarts, Dr. Barbara Flunger, Dr. Sebastiaan Steenman, Alessandra Benedicty-Kokken

Liberal Arts & Sciences, Utrecht University

Thesis: Interdisciplinary Research (LA3V11003)

02-07-2021



Utrecht University

This page intentionally left blank

Preface

In front of you, find our interdisciplinary capstone on teacher effectiveness in higher education, titled *The Teacher as Educator, Communicator, Leader and Professional: An Interdisciplinary Framework for the Improvement of Teacher Effectiveness*. The definition, assessment and improvement of teacher effectiveness were examined by four different disciplines, namely Educational Sciences, Linguistics, Gender and Postcolonial Studies, and Public Administration and Organisation Science. This research topic was the result of a brainstorm with all four disciplines, in which the focus on education and the wish to create an action perspective that could be provided to institutions like the University of Utrecht soon emerged. After a scan of the available literature on issues in education that were subject to disciplinary discussion, the selection of teacher effectiveness materialised. We were attracted to this subject because there was no consensus on the definition and because not much research had been done on the improvement of teacher effectiveness.

With help from our super supervisor, Anastasia Hacopian, we created an interdisciplinary research question, and with help from our individual disciplinary advisors we created disciplinary sub-questions. After careful demarcation of the subject, we spent the first few weeks writing our individual disciplinary chapters. When these were as good as finished, we came together for the creation of the common ground and the more comprehensive understanding. This process involved many whiteboards, post-its, discussions, cups of coffee and graphic design programmes (we want to thank the creators of Lucid C Hart for their great free diagram-creating software and, while we are showing gratitude, Gerry for the provision of brain fuel during our integration sessions), but, overall, the process went surprisingly smooth, and it was a pleasure to work together.

We think this interdisciplinary capstone can help universities in increasing teacher effectiveness and taking a critical look at their methods of evaluating and training teachers. Moreover, we hope this capstone proves that the process of creating a universal definition for a concept is best done when working in an interdisciplinary team. We are very satisfied with the created definition of teacher effectiveness and the recommendations made for the assessment and improvement of teacher effectiveness. Furthermore, we think our newly created more comprehensive understanding-technique can truly add to the interdisciplinary research process.

We sincerely want to thank Anastasia Hacopian, Barbara Flunger, Sebastiaan Steenman, Alessandra Benedicty-Kokken, Joost Zwarts and Merel van Goch for their support in our capstone writing process. We also want to thank Iris van der Tuin for the enthusiasm on our capstone process and our more comprehensive understanding technique.

Abstract

The present study researches teacher effectiveness and the strategies for its assessment and improvement. An interdisciplinary approach is used, which combines Educational Sciences, Linguistics, Gender and Postcolonial Studies, and Public Administration and Organisation Science in a comparative literature research. A new definition for teacher effectiveness was constructed using nine components that make up an effective teacher. Namely, (1) establishing an effective *student-teacher relationship*, (2) having good *presentation- and organisational skills*, (3) continuous *professionalisation*, (4) using *diversity as an asset*, (5) by *challenging and motivating students*, (6) providing fitting *assessment and evaluation*, (7) sufficient *subject-matter experience*, (8) focussing on *leadership skill development*, (9) and having *communicative competence*. Teachers should: be evaluated through student evaluations, improve capability to deal with difference in body and minds within the classroom, follow a TCS course, teaching leadership skills course, pedagogical courses, as well as courses on all nine components. As a result of the integration a cyclical process for improvement of teacher effectiveness was constructed. Teachers follow the three elements in a continuous cycle, namely, creating positive learning conditions, then student evaluations, then courses for improvement and/or courses for novice teachers. Limitations of the present study are reliability, time constraints and practicality of student evaluations. The practicalities around the suggested courses. As well as the underexposure of the relationship between research activity and teacher effectiveness.

Table of Contents

| | |
|--|-----------|
| Preface | 3 |
| Abstract | 5 |
| Chapter 1: Introduction | 8 |
| Chapter 2: Possibilities for the assessment and improvement of teacher effectiveness at the University of Utrecht | 10 |
| 2.1 Introduction..... | 10 |
| 2.2 Defining Teacher Effectiveness | 10 |
| 2.3 Student evaluation as a tool to assess teacher effectiveness | 16 |
| 2.3.1 <i>The case study: student evaluations at the UU</i> | 17 |
| 2.4 Promotion of Teacher Effectiveness | 20 |
| 2.5 Conclusion | 23 |
| Chapter 3: The effectiveness of the teacher within a linguistic context | 25 |
| 3.1 Introduction..... | 25 |
| 3.2 Defining teacher effectiveness | 25 |
| 3.3 The assessment of teacher effectiveness | 31 |
| 3.4 The improvement of teacher effectiveness | 32 |
| 3.5 Conclusion | 34 |
| Chapter 4: Increasing teacher effectiveness through feminist and intersectional feminist pedagogies | 36 |
| 4.1 Introduction..... | 36 |
| 4.2 Premise: Education’s conundrum, between assimilation and change..... | 36 |
| 4.3 From Theory to Suggested Praxis | 38 |
| 4.3 Situated Knowledge | 39 |
| 4.4 Embodied knowledge and Pedagogy | 40 |
| 4.5. Desire in the classroom | 41 |
| 4.6 Decentralisation of power in the classroom | 42 |
| 4.6.1 <i>Empowerment</i> | 43 |
| 4.6.2 <i>Community</i> | 43 |
| 4.6.3 <i>Leadership</i> | 44 |
| 4.7.1 Conclusion | 45 |
| Chapter 5: The Effectiveness of the Teacher within an Organisational Context | 47 |

| | |
|---|-----------|
| 5.1 Introduction..... | 47 |
| 5.2 Professionalisation and Teacher Effectiveness | 48 |
| 5.3 The Institutional Force Field..... | 49 |
| 5.4 Teacher as Public Professional | 51 |
| 5.5 Strategy for Optimising Teacher Effectiveness | 55 |
| 5.6 Conclusion and Discussion | 56 |
| Chapter 6: Integration..... | 57 |
| 6.1 Towards an interdisciplinary definition of teacher effectiveness..... | 57 |
| 6.1.1 Educational Sciences | 58 |
| 6.1.2 Linguistics..... | 59 |
| 6.1.3 Gender and Postcolonial Studies..... | 61 |
| 6.1.4 Public Administration and Organisation Science..... | 62 |
| 6.1.5 Integration of the four disciplines..... | 64 |
| 6.2 Assessment of teacher effectiveness | 69 |
| 6.2.1 Conflict in the assessment of teacher effectiveness..... | 69 |
| 6.3 Improvement of Teacher Effectiveness | 70 |
| 6.3.1. Conflict in the inclusion of the body and mind | 70 |
| 6.3.2 Similarities in the improvement of teacher effectiveness | 72 |
| Chapter 7: Conclusion and Discussion..... | 75 |
| 7.1 More comprehensive understanding | 75 |
| 7.2 Discussion..... | 78 |
| 7.2.1 Testing the more comprehensive understanding..... | 78 |
| 7.2.2 Limitations and further research | 79 |
| References..... | 81 |
| Appendices..... | 92 |
| Appendix A | 93 |
| Appendix B | 96 |

Chapter 1: Introduction

Even though higher education can be seen as an abstract concept that is not related to concrete outcomes, it benefits the society in multiple ways. Blackstone (2001) links higher education benefits to the knowledge economy; higher education graduates earn about a quarter more than those who enrolled in secondary education only. Students who completed higher education also tend to live healthier and longer lives (Olshansky et al., 2012), have lower maternal death rates (Karlsen et al., 2011), are twice as likely to find employment compared to those without a bachelor's degree (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018), are more likely to vote (Newell, 2014) and contribute to their communities (e.g., through volunteering) (Association of Public & Land-Grant Universities, n.d.). Considering these findings, higher education is beneficial for society. But attending higher education alone is not sufficient; without good teachers, there can be no good education (Van der Klink & Canisius, 2020).

The absence of a phenomenon only becomes apparent when it is no longer there, which is exactly why the COVID-19 pandemic sheds light on the extent of the teacher's role in higher education. Students claim to be missing face-to-face learning, in which a teacher is a key actor (Kedra & Kaltsidis, 2020). This emphasises the role of the teacher in higher education, which is also focused upon in other studies by Bok (2006) and Ripley (2014).

A teacher is expected to fulfil multiple obligations, amongst which are managing and developing other adults as well as their students (Campbell et al., 2003). The role of a teacher is envisioned to be affective, as well as moral and cognitive. Next to that, the teacher is expected to be an organiser of social engagement, a resource of knowledge and a facilitator of learning (Kizi & Ugli, 2020). This interdisciplinary nature of the role of the teacher is consistent with the fact that the field of education is interdisciplinary and complex (Mederios, 2015; Mulder, 2012). A single teacher manages several students, and each student comes with their own background (e.g., needs, expectations and socio-economic background) (Brok et al., 2010). Teacher effectiveness is necessary to deal with individual differences caused by such varying backgrounds (Brok et al., 2010; McAllister & Irvine, 2002). Despite these varying contexts, the movement from generic teacher effectiveness to differential teacher effectiveness, where an effective teacher may not have the same characteristics in different age groups or intellectual groups, has only surfaced recently (Campbell et al., 2003).

Good teachers, in turn, cannot exist without the existence of good development programs (Van der Klink & Canisius, 2020). There is a consensus that a good teacher is an effective one (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2007; Harris & Sass, 2009; Ida, 2012). Because of the multifunctional aspects of the teacher, a disciplinary approach to analysing teacher effectiveness is not sufficient. The notion that teacher effectiveness is interdisciplinary and complex can be demonstrated through asking not only what teacher effectiveness entails, but also how it is established and how it may increase or decrease. For example, Educational Sciences mainly focuses how the assessment and improvement of teacher effectiveness can be enhanced at the University of Utrecht. Linguistics, on the other hand, is a discipline that provides us with a more nuanced understanding of teacher effectiveness by taking a closer look at what it means to communicate effectively. The relationship between teacher and student is complex and is something that can be discovered thoroughly through Gender and Postcolonial Studies since this field relies on theories on power structures and teacher effectiveness constantly deals with theories on situated knowledges and the politics of difference. The discipline Public Administration and Organisation Science analyses the teacher within an organisational context and offers a perspective on how professionalisation of the teacher can effectively be designed.

Most research up to this point has focused on defining the characteristics of effective teachers, not so much on how to incorporate these characteristics in training and development programs to improve teacher effectiveness (Campbell et al., 2003). Moreover, a universal framework or definition for effective teachers does not (yet) exist. (Campbell et al., 2003; Cheng & Tsui, 1996; Ornstein, 1990). An interdisciplinary approach where disciplinary aspects of education and teacher effectiveness are integrated is needed to create a comprehensive definition of teacher effectiveness and a framework for its improvement. The research question this thesis proposes is as follows: ‘Which action perspective can be derived from the analysis of teacher effectiveness and the strategies for its assessment and improvement in higher education?’

This research question will be answered with the use of an interdisciplinary approach. Literature research will be conducted by the four disciplines mentioned above and the findings of each disciplinary chapter will then be integrated through Repko & Szostak’s (2017) method for interdisciplinary research. The finding of common ground between the disciplinary insights will in turn be used for the creation of a more comprehensive understanding of the problem and a recommendation for an action perspective concerning teacher effectiveness in higher education.

Chapter 2: Possibilities for the assessment and improvement of teacher effectiveness at the University of Utrecht

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide an overview of the defining elements of teacher effectiveness in high schools by conducting a literature review of studies that targeted the conceptualisation of teacher effectiveness. These defining elements, or the traits and tasks an effective teacher should possess, will then be used to evaluate and improve methods of measuring and assessing teacher effectiveness and possibilities for promoting teacher effectiveness.

To improve teacher effectiveness, we first need to know how teacher effectiveness can be assessed and measured (Muijs, 2006). To do so, a clear conceptualisation of teacher effectiveness is needed. However, no consensus exists on the exact characteristics and tasks that characterise an effective teacher (Goe et al., 2008). An overview of these elements is necessary to compose an evaluation instrument for teacher effectiveness. Therefore, the disciplinary research question of the Educational Sciences discipline is as follows: ‘How can teacher effectiveness be assessed and how could it be promoted?’ The assessment and promotion of teacher effectiveness will be analysed by means of a case study on teacher effectiveness at the University of Utrecht (UU). The use of the UU as a case study will provide a deeper understanding of what is already there in terms of assessment and promotion of teacher effectiveness and what can be done to improve them.

2.2 Defining Teacher Effectiveness

One way of assessing the dimensionality of the teacher effectiveness construct is the factor analysis technique, where a questionnaire with a large number of questions about their teacher is completed by students. The underlying aspects of teacher effectiveness can be differentiated through statistical analysis, and these factors are labelled according to the common theme of the questions that have been designated to this factor (for further reference and explanation of factor analysis, see chapter one of *An Easy Guide to Factor Analysis* (Kline, 2014)). In Table 1, an overview of factor analyses on teacher effectiveness in higher education is presented. The University of Utrecht (UU) uses the definition of teacher effectiveness as composed by Graham

(2016)¹: “The effective teacher creates positive conditions for student learning – by establishing approaches to educational design, delivery and assessment that are appropriate for the subject, student cohort and institutional context – and takes a reflective approach to developing and improving their teaching practice over time”. However, when comparing this definition to the results of the factor analyses in Table 1, we find that not all factors that might be a part of teacher effectiveness are included in this definition. To create a more overarching working definition that can be used in the assessment and promotion of teacher effectiveness, a combination of Graham’s definition and the factors from Table 1 will be made.

Table 1

Overview of teacher effectiveness factors found through factor analysis in higher education settings with the corresponding items used for assessment in the measurement instrument

| Author | Factor | The teacher... |
|------------------------|--|---|
| Patrick & Smart (1998) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student respect • Organisation and presentation skills • Ability to challenge students | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respects students • Treats students as equals • Values students ideas • Is flexible enough to accommodate student input • Creates an environment of mutual respect • Uses resources well • Is well prepared for lessons • Has clear aims and demonstrations • Has high but realistic expectations • Makes their expectations clear to students • Indicates exactly what students must do to meet expectations |

¹ N.B. No literature on why this definition is used by the UU has been found.

Calaguas
(2012)

- Teaching-related behaviour
 - Chooses relevant strategies to maximise students learning gains
 - Acknowledges positive behaviours
 - Encourages students to assume responsibility
 - Sets realistic goals for students to accomplish
 - Uses instructional equipment and materials effectively
 - Tries to know the concerns of students who misbehave
- Subject-matter experience
 - Is always prepared when holding classes,
 - Shows mastery of lessons taught
 - Shares a lot of interesting ideas related to lessons taught,
 - Displays authority when teaching
- Relational expertise
 - Displays kindness for others,
 - Respects others,
 - Accepts others,
 - Thinks thoroughly before decisions are made
 - Shows concern for others,
- Personality
 - Manifests charisma,
 - Exhibits grace under pressure,
 - Manifests an outgoing personality,
 - Shows predictability of actions,
 - Spends time reflecting

Feldman
(1976)

- Stimulation of interest
 - Puts material across in an interesting way
 - Gets students interested in the subject
 - Stimulates intellectual curiosity
- Clarity
 - Makes clear explanations
 - Interprets abstract ideas and theories clearly
 - Makes good use of examples and illustrations to get across difficult points
- Knowledge of subject matter
 - Has a good command of the subject material
 - Has a thorough knowledge of the subject
 - Has good knowledge about and beyond the textbook
- Preparation and organisation
 - Is well prepared for each lecture
 - Presents the material in a well organised manner
- Enthusiasm
 - Shows interest and enthusiasm in the subject
 - Seems to enjoy teaching

Jackson
et al.
(1999)

- Rapport with students
 - Comes across as a person as well as a teacher,
 - Is generally respectful of students,
 - Is concerned and actively helpful regarding students' progress in their course.
- Course organisation and design
 - Is prepared for their presentation,
 - Is able to convey concepts of the course
 - Uses an appropriate method of presentation,
 - Is able to answer questions.
- Course value
 - Interacts with the course

Pozo-
Munoz et
al. (2000)

- Fairness of grading
 - Is consistent in their method of assigning grades

- Teaching competency
 - Expresses themselves clearly
 - Is fluent in speech
 - Is an expert
 - Is well informed
 - Is able to motivate the students
 - Knows how to listen

- Teaching qualities
 - Is calm
 - Is organised
 - Promotes participation
 - Is self-controlled
 - Is balanced

- Teachers' appearance
 - Is elegant
 - Is attractive
 - Is able to identify other people's feelings
 - Is sensitive

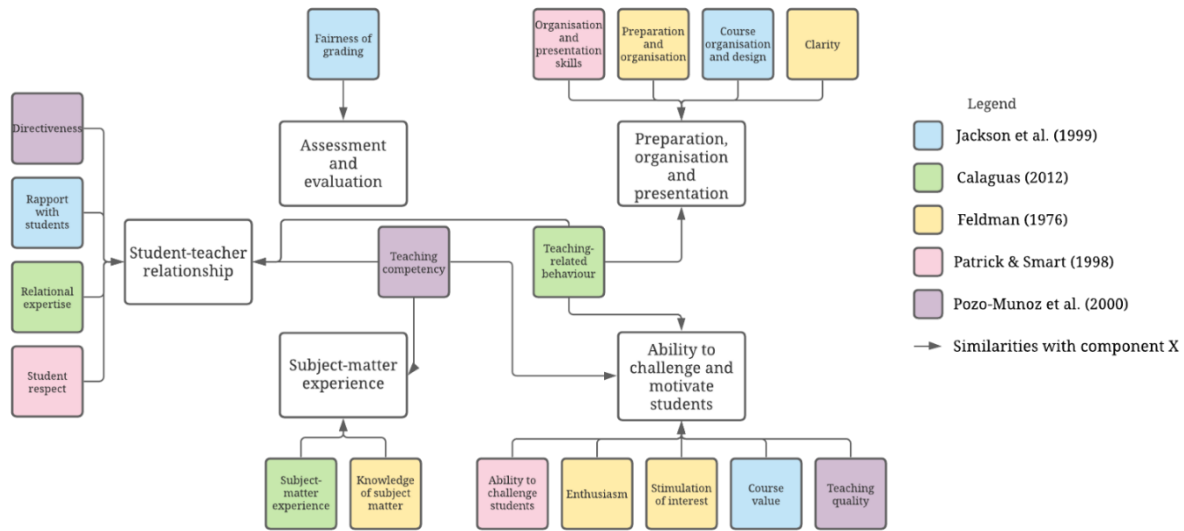
- Directiveness
 - Is authoritarian
 - Is directive
 - Is overbearing
 - Is demanding
 - Has high self-esteem

Based on the traits and examples each factor entails; the factors have been merged into five new components according to Figure 1. These components have then been renamed to an appropriate term that encompasses all traits and competences that belong to that specific factor. The factors appearance and personality have been removed from the list, as it can be argued that

these are traits or have multiple facets such as posture or clothing that do not reflect competencies that directly represent the effectiveness of the teacher. After this deletion, the remaining elements were divided into four factors: (1) *student-teacher relationship*. This aspect contains all elements that have to do with the relationship between student and teacher. Examples are respecting students, listening to students, and taking their input in consideration, creating a safe space for students in the classroom, accepting students and helping students to do their best in the course; (2) *preparation, organisation, and presentation*, which encompasses, for instance, good use of resources, preparation of the lecture in advance, organisation of learning materials; (3) *ability to challenge and motivate students*, which ranges from setting clear and realistic goals for students and the teacher themselves to stimulating intellectual curiosity, motivating students and getting students interested in the subject and (4) *subject-matter experience*, which includes the ability to answer questions well, a broad knowledge of the subject that preferably goes deeper than the course material does and the ability to share interesting knowledge on the subject. Interestingly, not many factor analysis studies seem to include the assessment and evaluation component of teaching. However, this is a large aspect of teaching competencies and duties and is therefore included in Graham's definition. For this reason, a fifth factor is added: (5) *assessment and evaluation*. This factor considers the development of assessments, the grading of assessments, formative and summative evaluation and the ability to organise peer feedback.

Figure 1

Advance organiser of the realisation of the five components of teacher effectiveness



With these five factors, the definition of Graham (2016) has been improved: The effective teacher creates positive conditions for student learning – by establishing a positive student-teacher relationship, exhibiting skilful preparation, organisation, and presentation of the course material, challenging and motivating students, possessing excellent subject-matter experience and assessment and evaluation skills that are appropriate for the subject, student cohort and institutional context – and takes a reflective approach to developing and improving their teaching practice over time.

2.3 Student evaluation as a tool to assess teacher effectiveness

The measurement and assessment of teacher effectiveness is commonly done through student evaluations. Goe et al. (2008, p. 69) state that students are “direct consumers of the services provided by teachers and are therefore in a good position to assess and evaluate their teachers’ performance.” There have been different attempts at developing a questionnaire for teacher effectiveness, but none without limitations. Most of these scales, for example the widely used Course Experience Questionnaire (Ramsden, 1991) and the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire (University of Queensland Tertiary Education Institute, 1993) either do not envelop the entire concept of teacher effectiveness with their items or include items that measure more than teacher effectiveness alone (Patrick & Smart, 1998). Although the aim of this chapter is not to develop a new valid and reliable scale, since there will be no use of statistical analyses, recommendations

for a revised scale will be made based on the new definition of teacher effectiveness. However, student evaluations of teacher effectiveness are not always valid. Student evaluations can be subject to the impression students have of their teacher, e.g., lecturer charisma (Shevlin et al., 2000). Another factor that comes into play when student evaluation is used for measuring teacher effectiveness is that students are no expert on the matter of teacher effectiveness, which makes for a high possibility that the evaluation indirectly measures different aspects of the learning environment as well, which gives the evaluator no way of knowing whether improvement is needed in teaching or in other aspects of the classroom (Calaguas, 2012), such as physical appearance of the teacher or spatial aspects, e.g., whether the classroom has enough windows and the temperature of the room. For these reasons, it is of importance that student evaluations are carefully composed. They should be designed in a way that take student perceptions of their teacher into account, so that teacher effectiveness can be measured clearly, e.g., by adding factors such as teacher charisma. By doing this, the influence of these factors can be seen, and the statements in the evaluation could be composed so that they are defined by one factor only. This way, there is no room for a wrong interpretation of teacher effectiveness.

2.3.1 The case study: student evaluations at the UU

At the UU, student evaluations are conducted on a voluntary base at the end of each course. In Table 2, the four statements that measure teacher quality in the UU course evaluation template (Appendix A) have been allocated one of the defining elements from this chapter, and recommendations for new statements have been added. It is apparent that the statements used by the UU are not a direct reflection of either the old definition of teacher effectiveness that the UU currently wields (*establishing approaches to educational design, delivery and assessment*) nor the newly created definition of teacher effectiveness in this chapter. As previously mentioned, student evaluations need to be carefully composed for the assessment of teacher effectiveness. It is therefore important to look at how the five defining elements of teacher effectiveness should be evaluated. The recommended statements are added by looking back at the five components of teacher effectiveness and the studies that added to these components as can be seen in Figure 1. Each study has created their own student evaluation of teacher effectiveness and has clarified which statements measure their found components of teacher effectiveness best. The proposal for

the new scale is made by selecting those statements that fit the factors used for the final five components best.

Table 2

Comparison of statements regarding teacher quality in the UU course evaluation template and suggestions for their improvement based on literature

| Component | Original assessment at UU | Suggested improvement |
|--|--|---|
| Student-teacher relationship | None | <p data-bbox="818 833 1414 917">With respect to your progress in this course, the teacher was actively concerned and helpful***</p> <p data-bbox="818 997 1349 1029">The teacher treated students with respect*</p> <p data-bbox="818 1108 1414 1192">The teacher was genuinely interested in the opinions of students*</p> |
| Preparation, organisation and presentation | <p data-bbox="509 1383 789 1520">I am happy with the didactic qualities of the teacher.</p> <p data-bbox="509 1545 789 1686">The teachers organised the course well.</p> | <p data-bbox="818 1383 1414 1467">The presentation of the material is well organised*****</p> <p data-bbox="818 1545 1414 1629">The teacher uses instructional equipment/materials effectively**</p> <p data-bbox="818 1709 1414 1850">In conveying the concepts of this course in a clear, meaningful, and appropriate way, the instructor's ability was very evident***</p> |

Ability to challenge
and motivate students

I am happy with the didactic qualities of the teacher. The teacher had the ability to motivate you to do your best*

By raising challenging questions or problems for discussion, the teacher stimulated students to think for themselves in almost every class***

The teacher stimulated intellectual curiosity****

Subject-matter
experience

I find the teacher knowledgeable concerning the theme of the course. The teacher knows a lot of information about lessons taught**

The teacher shares a lot of interesting ideas related to lessons taught**

The teacher knows how to answer questions raised about lessons taught**

Assessment and
evaluation

The methods for assessment and grading are good. None²

² Since this component did not originate from any factor analysis studies, no recommendation for the assessment has been made.

Noot. * = Patrick & Smart, 1998. ** = Calaguas, 2012. *** = Jackson et al., 1999. **** = Feldman, 1976.

Given the stated shortcomings of student evaluations, it would be worthwhile to add further methods for the evaluation of teacher effectiveness. Other methods of teacher evaluation include classroom observation (Muijs, 2006) and video-based self-coaching (Mercado & Baecher, 2014). These methods of evaluation are more time and resource consuming than student evaluations (Read et al., 2001). However, if the time and resources for these evaluation methods are available, it is recommended to implement either one as well as a student evaluation (Murphy, 2013).

2.4 Promotion of Teacher Effectiveness

The mere assessment of teacher effectiveness is not enough. The results of student evaluations must always be followed by the composition of goals for improvement (Boysen, 2016) and direct action to improve performance (Smock & Crooks, 1973). To promote teacher effectiveness, trainings in all five defining elements should be available to teachers. First, we will look at the available trainings at the UU.

At the UU, novice teachers follow a mandatory basic qualification trajectory (BKO). The aim of this trajectory is to help novice teachers develop into effective teachers as defined by Graham (2016). The BKO is divided into five categories of competencies: (1) professional development; (2) conducting education; (3) feedback and assessment; (4) educational design and (5) contributing to knowledge education and impact (Te Pas et al., 2018). Each category has one or more subcategories (Appendix A). Comparing these categories to the established categories in the first part of this paper, the elements of student-teacher relationship and challenging and motivating students seem to be absent (Table 3).

Table 3

Comparison of BKO competencies with new teacher effectiveness dimensions

| Competence | Sub-competence | Dimension from new definition |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Professional development | Subject expertise | Subject-matter expertise |

| | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|--|
| | Didactic expertise | Subject-matter expertise |
| | Development-orientation | Subject-matter expertise |
| Conducting education | Teaching | All dimensions |
| | Supervising students | Ability to challenge and motivate students, Student-teacher relationship |
| | Leading project teams | Preparation, organisation and presentation |
| Feedback and assessment | Assessing and evaluating students | Assessment and evaluation |
| | Designing assessment and evaluation instruments | Assessment and evaluation |
| | Evaluating education | Assessment and evaluation |
| Designing education | Designing lessons | Preparation, organisation and presentation |
| | Evaluative design | Preparation, organisation and presentation |
| | Coordination | Preparation, organisation and presentation |
| | Innovation | Preparation, organisation and presentation, Subject-matter expertise |
| Contributing to knowledge and impact | Outreach | Subject-matter expertise |
| | Inreach | Subject-matter expertise, Preparation, organisation and presentation |

Next to the BKO, the UU also offers optional courses through the Centre for Academic Teaching (CAT). From these courses, a selection has been made based on courses that are for teachers and could possibly promote teacher effectiveness. These courses have again been compared to the defining elements of teacher effectiveness (Table 4). In the CAT courses, subject-matter experience is absent and student-teacher relationship is severely underrepresented.

Table 4

| Course | Defining Element |
|---|--|
| Activating exercises | Ability to challenge and motivate students |
| Activating tutorials | Ability to challenge and motivate students |
| Image coaching | Assessment and evaluation |
| Coaching skills | Student-teacher relationship |
| Teaching study skills | Ability to challenge and motivate students |
| Giving lectures | Preparation, organisation, and presentation |
| Start-to-teach | Ability to challenge and motivate students |
| Teaching in tutorials & seminars | Ability to challenge and motivate students; preparation, organisation, and presentation |
| Evaluating teacher qualities | Assessment and evaluation |
| Effectively using peer feedback in writing products | Ability to challenge and motivate students; preparation, organisation, and presentation |
| Assessment & feedback | Preparation, organisation, and presentation |
| Designing tests & evaluating | Assessment and evaluation |
| Calibration: alignment on reviewing theses/papers | Assessment and evaluation |
| Giving oral and written feedback | Ability to challenge and motivate students |
| Oral assessment | Assessment and evaluation |
| Performance assessment | Assessment and evaluation |
| Test analysis and grading | Assessment and evaluation |

As we can see, the BKO as well as the CAT courses are mostly focused on assessment and evaluation and the ability to challenge and motivate students. Drawing back on the statement by

Smock and Crooks (1973) and Boysen (2016) that was highlighted earlier in this paper, the training of teacher effectiveness should be linked directly to the outcomes of the evaluations. I want to argue that teacher effectiveness trainings should follow the same five component-model as the definition of teacher effectiveness. A base for these trainings should be reflected in the BKO. Novice teachers are often insecure in their didactic skills and skills to build a positive bond with students, which can lead to high levels of stress (Vonk, 1995). These stress levels can lead to reduction of the teaching quality, anxiety and, in extreme cases, to a burn-out (Fisher, 2011). If a solid foundation for the five components is laid in the BKO, the CAT courses can build on this foundation in five separate courses for each component. Each course should be highly recommended to teachers that score low on the corresponding component, so that they can improve their effectiveness. These courses can be composed by using the existing courses and building upon these to develop a comprehensive course for each component. In the paragraph on the definition of teacher effectiveness, some examples of what each component entails have been given based on the literature used for the definition. These concepts could be included in the courses, and further research should be conducted to find the best way of training teachers in each component.

2.5 Conclusion

Teacher effectiveness has been defined using five integral components: student-teacher relations, preparation, organisation, and presentation, the ability to challenge and motivate students, subject-matter experience, and assessment and evaluation. This definition was then applied to the case of the UU, from which strategies for the enhancement of the evaluation and improvement of teacher effectiveness followed. The most convenient method for assessing teacher effectiveness is that of student evaluations since students experience teacher effectiveness first-hand and student-evaluations are not as time- and resource-consuming as other methods of evaluations are. The analysis in this chapter revealed that the framework for student evaluations used at the UU could be improved to encompass all components of teacher effectiveness. A suggestion for this new framework has been made. Teacher courses for all five components ought to be made available at the UU, and these courses could be explicitly recommended to teachers that are lacking in one or more components of teacher effectiveness. Furthermore, these five

components could be included in the BKO to give novice teachers a good foundation for their professional development as an effective teacher to reduce stress and to optimise student learning.

Although student evaluations are the most practical way of assessing teacher effectiveness, further research can be done to find whether these evaluations are the most reliable way of assessing teacher effectiveness while keeping practicality and time constraints in mind. Furthermore, an in-depth analysis of student evaluations can be done to compose a comprehensive and efficient student-evaluation and research might be done to find the best way of training teachers to be more effective.

Chapter 3: The effectiveness of the teacher within a linguistic context

3.1 Introduction

As discussed in the first chapter, teacher effectiveness is an interdisciplinary concept because the different roles a teacher needs to fulfil cannot be explained through a single disciplinary lens. Thus, when discussing teacher effectiveness, it is important to look beyond Educational Sciences at what makes a teacher effective. The goal of this chapter is to give an insight into what Applied Linguistics can add to the conversation of teacher effectiveness. More specifically, this chapter aims to take an in depth look at how Applied Linguistics defines teacher effectiveness, what it says about the assessment of teacher effectiveness and what can be done to improve teacher effectiveness according to linguistics. This chapter will therefore be structured in a way that focuses on these three main themes, by means of chapters that comply with the components.

Within the broad field of linguistics, this chapter will use *Applied Linguistics* to research teacher effectiveness. Applied Linguistics is a more interdisciplinary field within Linguistics that connects well with the theme of teacher effectiveness, since it deals with finding solutions for social problems which are language related.

3.2 Defining teacher effectiveness

The field of linguistics gives crucial insight into what makes a teacher effective. Okoli (2017) describes this when stating that the teacher needs knowledge of content and communication skills to be effective. According to his research, while several aspects can be attributed to an effective teacher, content knowledge and communication skills are essential. Furthermore, Okoli states that even though proficiency in course content is undeniable in the assessment of teacher effectiveness, a teacher cannot successfully convey content without proficient communication skills. Okoli explains that because of this, the combination of both mastery of content as well as communicative competence makes for effective teaching. Consistently, Khanet al. (2017) have found that teacher communication skills play a significant role in the academic achievement of students. Therefore, the first part of this chapter will be dedicated to this concept. When taking a

closer look at the communicative competence separately, a first definition could be that communicative competence is the ability to communicate well or effectively. Wiemann and Backlund (1980) specified this definition by stating that communicative competence is the level of competence in the use of language and nonlanguage behaviour for the purpose of communication. Canale and Swain (1981) assembled a list of components of communicative competence, which are the following: (1) linguistic competence: the knowledge of the language code (e.g., grammatical rules, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling); (2) sociolinguistic competence: the mastery of the socio-cultural code of language use (e.g., appropriate application of vocabulary, register, politeness and style); (3) discourse competence: the ability to combine language structures into different types of cohesive and coherent texts (e.g., letter, political speech, poetry, academic essay, cooking recipe); and (4) strategic competence: the knowledge of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies which can enable us to overcome difficulties when communication breakdowns occur and enhance the efficiency of communication).

According to Wiemann and Backlund (1980), the term communicative competence, despite it being used in several scientific papers since 1971, lacked definitional and theoretical consistency. As a direct result, Wiemann and Backlund felt the need to clarify and elaborate the concept of communicative competence, for only by creating a common definition, theories using the concept could be useful within the field of applied linguistic science. To achieve this, the researchers examined four issues: (1) the lack of definitional consistency; (2) the manner in which one may 'possess' competence; (3) the way in which communicative competence is distinguished from similar concepts; and (4) the constitution of communicative competence, its attributes and dimensions. Since examination of these issues gives important insight and background information into what it entails to be a competent communicator, the examination of the questions by Wiemann and Backlund will be discussed.

The first questions the researchers asked involved the lack of definitional consistency. Wiemann and Backlund (1980) state that a clear definition of a theory or concept demands broadly applicable definitions of key words associated with that theory or concept. Specifically, to effectively define communicative competence, we must also clearly define the terms *communication* and *competence*. The issue of definitional consistency lies in defining competence. In previous literature, competence was mainly defined through one of two lenses, cognitive or behavioural. In cognitive views, competence is viewed as being a mental phenomenon, distinct

and separated from behavioural. Here, competence is indicative only of *potential* performance or capability. In behavioural science, a definition of competence includes specific references to actual communicative behaviour. It is both ironic and very fitting that Wiemann and Backlund seem to suggest an interdisciplinary way of looking at the concept of competence when they state that both cognitive and behavioural processes need to be included as interdependent aspects of communicative competence. A concrete proposal on how to undertake a redefinition, however, is not suggested.

As was the case in the issue of defining competence, the understanding of how one possesses competence is also divided into a cognitive and a behavioural view. The cognitive view on possessing competence is that, strictly speaking, individuals do not have competence (Wiemann and Backlund, 1980). Behaviourists, contradictorily, have an expansive range of terms to indicate possession, amongst which are knowledge, skill, ability, awareness, use and performance (Wiemann and Backlund, 1980). This raises the question which of these categories competence belongs to. Wiemann and Backlund state that skills are the connections between knowledge and behaviour, which correlates with their statement that the combination of mastery of content as well as communicative competence makes for effective teaching. Wiemann and Backlund (1980) cite Polanyi (1958), a Hungarian-British polymath, who states that the cognitive aspects of a skill stem entirely from observing behaviour, may it be our own or that of others. When defining communicative competence, we must know what we are defining and how an individual may possess it. Because of this, a theory of communicative competence must be grounded in the observation of behaviour. Furthermore, the scientists observe that to possess communicative competence, one needs to *know*, as well as to *know how*. To concretise this within the span of this chapter: a teacher must not only *know* to communicate competently, but a teacher must also *know how* to communicate competently. This condition is an important aspect of the definition and application of teacher effectiveness and will return later in this chapter.

The next topic Wiemann and Backlund (1980) address is the way in which communicative competence is distinguished from similar concepts. The researchers cite Dubin (1969) in arguing that a theory must be manufactured around observable and distinct phenomena. Concerning communicative competence, it is still unclear what those phenomena are. Wiemann and Backlund discovered that two main areas were relevant to uncover this. Firstly, *competence as social judgement*. Scientific research on communicative competence thus far largely treated the topic as

a socially judged phenomenon, meaning individuals make assumptions about one another based on communicative competence. The question remains, however, whether these judgements are reliable. Surely, every so often, we assume something about another individual's communicative competence that's false – a misjudgement. This raises another question: who is correct in their assessment? The target's judges or the target themselves? And who is most reliable in their assessment? These questions, researchers have yet to confront in a systematic approach. The second area that is relevant in the distinguishing of communicative competence from similar concepts is *criteria*. The criterion that communicative competence was so far most referred to is appropriateness of behaviour. Appropriateness commonly refers to the ability of an interactant to meet the basic contextual requirements of the situation to be effective in a general sense. These contextual requirements consist of (1) the verbal context (making sense in terms of wording, statements and topic); (2) the relationship context (the style of structuring messages so that they are congruent with the relationship between speaker and listener at hand); and (3) the environmental context (the consideration of constraints imposed on a message for the goal of matching the environment).

The last issue Wiemann and Backlund (1980) address is the constitution of communicative competence. According to Wiemann and Backlund, it is important to raise the question of the different dimensions of communicative competence. This is because by naming a behavioural dimension, one states that variations in behaviour along this dimension are essential to one's judgement of communicative behaviour. Furthermore, the dimensions of communicative competence serve as operational definitions of competence and are therefore useful for testing, measurement and instructional strategies. Communication processes are very complex, and there are various factors that may influence one's perception of communicative competence. One of these factors is interpersonal competence, which entails establishing and maintaining desired identities both for oneself and for others, which include (Weinstein, 1969): (1) ability to take the role of the other – to correctly predict the impact that various lines of action will have on the other's perception of the situation; (2) possession of a large and varied repertoire of lines of action; and (3) possession of the intrapersonal resources to be capable of employing effective tactics in situations where they are appropriate. Another factor that is important to remember when discussing communicative competence is the style variable that is being used during communication. Norton (1978) distinguished nine style variables of communication (1) dominant;

(2) dramatic; (3) animated; (4) open; (5) contentious; (6) relaxed; (7) friendly; (8) attentive; and (9) impression leaving.

The way we communicate can be explained through a communication system which highlights the different components and actors that may influence communication. Hubley (1993) explains that a communication system is often characterised into six main components, being transmitter (speaker); channels (the five senses); message (speaker's topic); receiver (audience); noise (internal and external factors that affect message reception by the audience); and feedback (audience reaction). The speaker only has direct control over three of the components, which are transmitter, channels and message. Over the other three components, the speaker has no direct control, but they can influence these components. Moreover, nonverbal communication (like posture, appearance and facial expression) is just as important as verbal communication according to Hubley.

Wiemann and Backlund (1980) reflect on these research findings and enunciate that in most literature, there is an agreement that the most important aspect of communicative competence is empathy (including affiliation and support). What is meant by empathy, is that the individual needs to be able to take on the role of the other accurately in that they must correctly predict the impact of their actions on the other. Behavioural flexibility emerged to be crucial to communicative competence as well and seems to have connections to power in terms of control. Related to this is interaction management, which has several components that indicate control, power and/or general responsiveness to the other. This in turn means that these dimensions (empathy, behavioural flexibility and interaction management) can serve as a solid structure for both research and instruction on communicative competence.

Now that communicative competence has been defined and analysed thoroughly, we can begin to effectively answer questions regarding the linguistic definition of teacher effectiveness. There are several research papers that go in depth about the relationship between communicative competence and teacher effectiveness. Feldman conducted a meta-analytical study of 31 studies where the words and phrases students used to describe effective and ineffective teachers were compared (Feldman, 1988) Teachers with the highest ratings were mainly described with words such as interesting, approachable and clarity. Another study by Bangdade (2004) characterised communication ability as one of the main contributors to teacher effectiveness, alongside subject matter, emotional stability, good human relationship and interest in the job. As expressed earlier

in this Chapter, Okoli (2017) links teacher effectiveness heavily to knowledge and communication. He explains the connection between the two in the following quote:

From the above, it may be inferred that teaching effectiveness is a result of two main factors namely, knowledge (of content) and communication. While approachability and helpfulness are affective constructs, both also are subsumed under knowledge of the subject matter and ability to convey knowledge. A teacher who knows the subject and the communicative ability to impart it will be approachable and helpful. The teacher requires deep knowledge of content as well as the ability to communicate it. Content and communication competencies therefore add up to teacher effectiveness. (Okoli, 2017, p150)

Okoli (2017) elaborates on this by explaining that the goal of communication is to transfer a message. More specifically, a speaker attempts to aid the audience in understanding the meaning of the message using verbal and nonverbal communication. In this view, language is the verbal tool the speaker uses to convey the message to the audience. By correct use of communication, the speaker leaves the audience with a true understanding of the meaning of the speaker's message, and not merely a superficial comprehension of the language used. Hubley (1993) elaborates by stating that, if a teacher has true attention for the body language of their students, they will know when they are uninterested or confused by the message. Moreover, when the verbal and nonverbal messages are opposing, most people will choose the nonverbal message over the verbal one to believe.

Having stated the above, the connection between communicative competence and teacher effectiveness is undeniable; teachers are constantly transmitting (communicating) information to their students and if this is not done competently, the information will not be transmitted successfully. Effective teachers are experts on communication in that they are excellent in instructional language and a master in the art of classroom information management and public speech (Okoli, 2017). Other than verbal and nonverbal communication, instructional materials are vital to the communicative competence of a teacher. This is because instructional materials are essential and significant tools for teaching that improve students' performance (Abdu-Raheem, 2016). Summarising, according to Abdu-Raheem, an effective teacher engages student attention

through dynamic delivery, vocal variety, appropriate employment of instructional materials and frequent gestures and movement.

More concretely, The National Communication Association (America’s the oldest and largest national organisation to promote communication scholarship and education) names five broad teacher communication competencies that effective teachers should demonstrate in sending and receiving messages. These are (1) give or obtain information; (2) express or respond to feelings; (3) speculate or theorise; (4) maintain social relationships and facilitate interaction; and (5) seek to convince or influence.

3.3 The assessment of teacher effectiveness

According to Okoli (2017), when a teacher commences classroom communication it is with the goal of informing, clarifying, questioning and expecting students’ feedback. Furthermore, Prozesky (2014) states that communication is a skill and we as humans improve skills by getting feedback. Therefore, to improve and determine the impact of their communication, teachers must get feedback, either from peers or students. It is also found that feedback is better (more useful) when using a checklist to judge performances. Three examples of such checklists can be seen in Table 5, Table 6 and Table 7. These checklists have been developed to assess teacher communication competence based on style of presentation, content and writing style (Prozesky, 2014).

Table 5

Checklist for teaching style of presentation

| Style of Presentation: Area of Measurement | Remark |
|---|---------------|
| Does the teacher speak clearly? (loud enough; not too fast; faces the class; avoids mannerisms like ‘oum’) | |
| Is the teacher’s nonverbal communication suitable? (appropriate gestures and expressions; moves around; eye contact with whole class) | |
| Does the teacher speak understandably? (uses words that the students should be able to understand) | |

Is the speed of the presentation right? (the students must be able to absorb the material that is presented)

Is there two-way communication? (the teacher checks regularly if the students have understood)

Is there evidence of a good relationship between teacher and students? (teacher and students respect each other, listen to each other)

Table 6

Checklist for teaching content

| Content: Area of Measurement | Remark |
|---|---------------|
| Does the teacher emphasise important knowledge? (the main messages are clear and emphasised, unnecessary detail is left out) | |
| Is information presented in a logical order? (bits of information follow logically after each other, easy to understand and remember) | |

Table 7

Checklist for teaching writing style

| Writing Style: Area of Measurement | Remark |
|---|---------------|
| Are the sentences short? (not more than 20 words; one idea per sentence) | |
| Are active verbs used as much as possible? (feed children regularly, not children should be regularly fed) | |
| Are the readers likely to understand the words? (no jargon; using the simplest word that will say what you want to say) | |

3.4 The improvement of teacher effectiveness

Okoli (2017) finally states that teacher education demands for a core Teacher Communication Skills (TCS) course that aims to attract higher credit and runs through the different levels of teacher effectiveness due to communicative competence. As he states it, a TCS-course is the sole way to

compensate for the disproportion in the curriculum of teacher education that leans in favour of content at the expense of communication (Okoli, 2017).

The last question remaining in this chapter is crucial to the previously argued usefulness of this interdisciplinary research. As presented in the first chapter of this research, most research up to this point has focused on defining the characteristics of effective teachers, not so much on how to incorporate these characteristics in training and development programs to improve teacher effectiveness (Campbell et al., 2003). We argue that because of this, an interdisciplinary approach where disciplinary aspects of education and teacher effectiveness are integrated is needed to create a comprehensive definition of teacher effectiveness and an action perspective for the improvement of teacher effectiveness. (p. 8)

So, according to Applied Linguistic research, how can we incorporate communicative competence into a framework for the improvement of teacher effectiveness? Taking the literature discussed so far into consideration, it is easy to agree with Okoli (2017): a Teacher Communication Skills course (TCS-course) is necessary to improve teacher communicative competence and therefore teacher effectiveness. The question is what this TCS-course should look like for it to be effective. Earlier, it has been established that the course must focus on *knowing how* to communicate competently. Also, teachers must be trained in the five competencies effective teachers should demonstrate: giving or obtaining information, expressing or responding to feelings, speculating or theorising, maintaining social relationships and facilitating interaction, and seeking to convince or influence. What can other literature tell us about the necessary content of a TCS-course? Feingold (1976) conducted a study that concentrated on determining which principles of effective communication discriminate between perceptions of an effective communication and perceptions of an ineffective communicator. In other words: what differentiates a competent communicator from an incompetent one? He found that a competent communicator is empathetic, committed to the message and able to adapt appropriately to the communication. This means that guidance in these skills needs a central position in the TCS-course. Rubin and Feezel (1986) studied which elements of teacher communication competence are most useful in predicting perceptions of teacher effectiveness. They discovered that a teacher's ability to obtain information, describe another's viewpoint, recognise non-understanding, pronounce clearly, understand suggestions, persuade, identify oral assignments, use topical order, use appropriate facial expressions and tone of voice, summarise, describe differences of opinion,

and answer questions are positively correlated to perceptions of teaching effectiveness. Moreover, Rubin and Feezel uncovered that the skill of teacher communication was the most important element in predicting teacher effectiveness.

Not only has communication competence (and the inclusion of a TCS-course in teaching programs) been argued widely to be necessary to improve teacher effectiveness, several studies, amongst which that of Zlatić et al. (2014) have found that the communication competence of teachers (prospective and active teachers) is increased in the process of communication education, as well as teacher interest to participate in communication training. To summarise, there is an obvious positive spiral of teacher effectiveness advancement that needs to be turned into practice.

3.5 Conclusion

Communicative competence has a central position in the previous chapter since it is the most important aspect of teacher effectiveness according to Applied Linguistics. Communicative competence is the level of competence in the use of language and nonlanguage behaviour for the purpose of communication and it can be divided into linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. When defining communicative competence, it is important to remember that there are differentiating views on how to go about defining the concept. It is best to include all processes as interdependent aspects of communicative competence. In most literature there is a consensus that the most important aspect of communicative competence is empathy. Variation of behaviour along with empathy, flexibility and interaction management seem to distinguish competent communicators from their incompetent counterparts. This in turn means that these dimensions can serve as a sufficient structure for both research and instruction on communicative competence. When defining teacher effectiveness within the field of linguistics, it is first and foremost undeniable that communicative competence plays a vital role in the assessment of teacher effectiveness – the combination of both mastery of content as well as communicative competence makes for effective teaching. When communicative competence needs to be assessed this can be done by providing the teacher with feedback, preferably using a checklist. This is because a teacher must not only know to communicate competently, but a teacher must also know *how* to communicate competently. Feedback can aid teachers in discovering which areas of their communication skills need improvement. To help teachers advance in the areas of their communication that need improvement, a TCS-course

(Teacher Communication Skills course) needs to be assembled. This course needs to include training in the five competencies effective teachers should demonstrate: giving or obtaining information, expressing or responding to feelings, speculating or theorising, maintaining social relationships and facilitating interaction, and seeking to convince or influence. Furthermore, a competent communicator is empathetic, committed to the message and able to adapt appropriately to the communication. The TCS-course, therefore, needs to put emphasis on these aspects of communication.

Chapter 4: Increasing teacher effectiveness through feminist and intersectional feminist pedagogies

“To be empowered is to be able to claim an education.”

Adrienne Rich (1995)

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we aim to establish that education plays a role in edifying society as well as having the potential to be pivotal in questioning society. The chapter argues that if education is to both maintain a status quo and to effect change in a given society, feminist and gender studies pedagogies are well positioned to negotiate the tricky, and sometimes contradictory, roles played by education. To be clear, feminist pedagogy is based on a history of women’s studies, but it entertains a methodology that seeks inclusivity as well as the enjoinder of scholars to engage in scholarship to serve those people whose positionalities continue to be underserved by academe, and as such remain underprivileged and vulnerable to the most unjust aspects of a given society. Whilst feminist pedagogy began with defending women, its methods have been taken up by, adapted, and refined in disability studies, gender studies, queer studies, trans studies, Africana Studies, and Indigenous Studies. The effectiveness of the teacher in putting feminist and gendered approaches to teaching into practice is therefore pivotal to the way a student learns to become aware of and be effective in crafting a less oppressive society. While this chapter considers pedagogical literatures more generally across the European and North American academes, it does so in a 2020’s Dutch social context and specifically asks:

‘Which action-oriented perspective can be derived from the analysis of teacher effectiveness through a feminist lens?’

‘Which specific strategies might a teacher put into play to improve higher education?’

4.2 Premise: Education’s conundrum, between assimilation and change

Following Émile Durkheim (1956)’s pivotal, yet often ignored work on education, there is the option to approach “education as society’s means of guaranteeing continuation of its existence

by assimilating new individuals into it” (Abbott, 2009, p. 235). Educational transformations, as Durkheim notes in one of his lectures at the Sorbonne in 1904, are always a result or a symptom of societal changes, as education functions as a sort of mirror to society (Barber, 1987). Contradictory to this, Carl Lieberman (1977) explains that the relationship between society and education is one that holds the potential to enable students to respond to society. In a sense then, institutions of education engage a conundrum: they simultaneously represent a place that reproduces how the older generations understand society, as well as offer themselves as a breeding ground for rethinking this society. Students are at once conscripted into an assimilating role (as per Durkheim) yet can also be invited to respond and act upon it (as per Lieberman). This chapter thus engages this conundrum in its analyses of how teacher effectiveness can be examined. First, by looking at the different consequences either side of the problem evokes, this chapter considers the ways in which teaching could be reformed to become more fruitful for both teacher and student.

In our neoliberal society, we argue that there is a natural preference for Durkheim’s (1956) ideas on the role of education. As of now, education is organised with a top-down mentality that approaches students as either consumers of education or products of education (Haley, 2010). In other words, students are seen as beings who enter a learning environment to be filled up with information and perspectives. This chapter argues that preferably, students should have a say in the kind of curriculum that they think fits them, but still with set curricula that they have no say in after choosing it. In neither of the options do students have real agency in determining how they learn.

Accordingly, such a top-down approach results in students having little agency over their education and consequently feel little responsibility for it (Webb, et al., 2002). Such an organisation creates a one-size-fits-all design of classes and curricula. In so doing, education is being curated for a certain type of student, namely, the white cisgender male (Perez, 2020). Consequently, education fails a large group of students who do not fit this mould. Such white-male privilege is based on Enlightenment ideals, which were ushered in by Immanuel Kant in the 1600s (Israel, 2002). As Benjamin Israel’s (2002) history of the Enlightenment through its institutions shows, the history of the university is very much predicated on how universities embraced (or not) Kant’s work. Therefore, if the modern European university is based on the Enlightenment, where Kantian thought was crucial, then the university student, and by extension the ideal citizen, is assumed as white and male (Grosfoguel, 2013). The educational system built on such white male

privilege brings along subjectivity which cannot cater towards a society that is supposed to function for everyone.

Consequently, before we can analyse the ways in which teacher effectiveness can be improved, it is important to understand how, the role of education is pivotal, dual, and intrinsically contradictory in our current capitalist economy, wherein such a contradiction is exemplified when juxtaposing Durkheim to Lieberman. We therefore argue for a need to approach education in a way that enables students to take on more responsibility for their education. If the students who do not fit the Enlightenment ‘mould’ have a say in their curriculum and in how such curricula are delivered, there is a chance of changing the system. We argue, and even advocate for, the need to create more space for educational practices that allow for societal change next to society’s assimilative tendencies. Perhaps it is not the place of an academic thesis to advocate, but insofar as we understand our thesis as engaged scholarship, there is a certain advocacy involved in this kind of scholarship. As Barge and Shockley-Zalabak (2008) argue, engaged scholarship to makes research relevant to organizational practitioners through building a bridge between theory and practice.

4.3 From Theory to Suggested Praxis

As explained above, when curricula are curated with this ‘one-size-fits-all’ mentality, the quality of education cannot fit a majority of the learners. In this chapter, we aim to argue that to be an effective teacher is to acknowledge and adequately deal with the fact that not everyone in the classroom fits the mould. Thus, to improve teacher effectiveness, teachers need to implement classroom strategies that allow for differences to exist alongside each other, while striving to get beyond racism, sexism, classism, homophobia, and other forms of marginalisation and oppression. We then zoom in on the way knowledge is produced, transformed, and transmitted within a classroom environment and start with analysing embodied teaching and then move into theories on feminist pedagogy to analyse the power structures at play within the classroom and how they might be challenged and changed to improve teacher effectiveness. The remainder of this chapter consequently intends to offer an intersectional analysis of teacher effectiveness and suggest the three focus points, empowerment, community and leadership, that offer the ground for teaching strategies that promote an inclusive learning environment. For a feminist approach to teaching, we

draw on Donna Haraway's (1988) theory on situated knowledge as a base from which we analyse both embodied pedagogy as well as feminist pedagogy and their relationship. We draw on the work of Helene Cixous' (1975) and Luce Irigaray's (1996) approach to feminist knowledge production, and their notion of embodied teaching, as well as theories on embodied pedagogy by bell hooks (1994) and Audre Lorde (1992).

4.3 Situated Knowledge

In Haraway's (1988) text *Situated Knowledges: The Science Question in Feminism and the Privilege of Partial Perspective*, the notion of objectivity is challenged. Haraway argues that all knowledge comes from a situated perspective, meaning that knowledge is constructed by one's situatedness, which limits the individual's access to information and the ways they express their knowledge. Each person is limited by location and social categories, like race, gender, class, sexuality, disability and debilitating discourses (as per Jasbir K. Puar, 2006) which they are conscripted into, and do not choose themselves (Puar, 2006). In other words, people understand the same situations, objects, and phenomena in different ways because each person has varied lived experiences which drastically affects how they process knowledge. Haraway writes:

So, not so perversely, objectivity turns out to be about particular and specific embodiment and definitely not about the false vision promising transcendence of all limits and responsibility. The moral is simple: only partial perspective promises objectivity. (Haraway, 1988, pp. 580-581)

Moreover, situatedness encompasses the way people experience the world with and through their bodies. Such embeddedness in social structures is also referred to as embodiment. The situatedness of an individual disestablishes the notion of what Haraway refers to as "the God Trick." The God Trick is defined as the disembodied knower who claims to 'see all from nowhere' and therefore pretends or believes themselves to be neutral and objective (Haraway, 1988 p. 580). As such, Haraway rejects the notion of scientific objectivity. Caroline Perez (2020) argues, in line with Haraway, that even science, understood as objective, is situated in the experience of an Enlightenment-based subject, who is understood, without being stated as so, as a white, heteronormative and cisgender male. Such situatedness forms the dominant discourse in Western society and takes on the pretence of being all-knowing. Such a perspective influences the makeup

of education (Perez, 2020). So, because of different attitudes, emotions, values and interests, people represent phenomena differently. Therefore, since the classroom reflects society, the fact that society today is made up of more diverse citizens should be addressed in the classroom.

4.4 Embodied knowledge and Pedagogy

The way situatedness influences how every person experiences the world compels a pedagogy that integrates embodied teaching, since a pedagogy aware of how specific experiences, based in social structures, influence not only learning, but also what is deemed worthy to be studied. Such integration can only take place through attention to how, as per Judith Butler (2001), a body-and/as-mind takes “account” of itself and is taken account of by the given society it is a part of. The term *embodied knowledge* has come to mean a vast thinking around situated knowledges. For example, embodied knowledge can refer to Maurice Merleau-Ponty’s (2010) notion of somatic knowledge, where “perception” passes “through the body”, or it can refer to the way knowledge can be held in the body and is of itself an archive, which constantly changes and transforms (Foucault, 1969; Lèpecki, 2010; Rey, 2010, p. 392).

In this chapter, we refer to embodied knowledge as the link between experience and situated knowledge.

bell hooks writes in *Teaching to Transgress* (1994) that feminist pedagogy does not engage with Cartesian thinking. In other words, feminist pedagogy rejects the mind - body split that is dominant in the academy, also known as The God Trick. hooks writes: “Therefore women’s studies take on a subversive location in the academy” (hooks, 1994, p.193). She argues that the institutional pressure to fit the mould of the “white male body” is problematic because it refuses to be recognised as a model. For Sylvia Waldby (1955, p. 243), the disembodied scholar has authority through being seen “only as a properly trained mind, unlocated in the specific historical experience and social position of a sexed, classed or racially marked body’.

In its inclusive method to inquire with methods yet unknown to academe to facilitate knowledges that serve those mostly unserved by academe, feminist pedagogy—regardless of if it is for women per se, or for those positioned outside academe—argues for an embodied style of teaching, where experience is linked to what is taught and how this is taught by a teacher, in order to improve teacher effectiveness.

Alison Bartlett (1998) argues that placing the teacher into such a subject-to-subject relationship would displace the hierarchical model of teaching that relies solely on knowledge transmission and turn it into a 'more interactive and dynamic teaching model'. Luce Irigaray, as cited by Majorie Hass, (2000) stresses the importance of language in order to become a subject in the way we imagine it to be. The research conducted by Irigaray, whereby she analysed speech patterns of men and women to see if they linked to women's exclusion of subjectivity, concluded that for women to become subjects, language must change.

Helene Cixous' (1976, p. 879) theory on *écriture féminine* supports this claim, for she argues that writing is a source of power and thus constitutes the 'very possibility of change': semiotic language can disrupt the authoritarian subject, in this case being white male subjects, and can therefore free itself, at least momentarily, of this oppressive order and rationality of the dominant discourse within the classroom. Accordingly, Teresa DeLaurentis (2011) argues that a change in language challenges accepted meanings and relationships at a (micro) political level and thus intervenes with ideological codes and codes of perception (Albers et al., 2011). In this way, changing language to move marginalised groups from objects to subjects within the classroom, thus decentralising power, is crucial for creating an inclusive environment (Buikema et al., 2009). So, the notion of embodied pedagogy calls for a redefinition of power and its structures within the classroom to overcome unequal hierarchies that assume the superiority of one group over another. Thus, the basis for a more effective way of transmitting and producing knowledge must be through a decentralisation of power to redefine student- teacher relationships. Such decentralisation challenges the idea of students as products or consumers and instead views them as agents in their own learning experience, where there is a shared responsibility for one's education between the student and the teacher.

4.5. Desire in the classroom

Although we are aware of how the #MeToo movement has drastically made us cognizant of the gross gender-based injustices taking place consciously in our societies' institutions. We are also keenly aware that its forms of redress do not attend to the importance of rethinking how desire informs our lived experiences and thus how we learn. Finding feminist ways to think of desire in pedagogical settings while also holding on to the gains of the #MeToo movement is no easy task,

nor do we resolve it in this chapter. We do however want to discuss the way embodied pedagogy is contingent on the concept of desire.

When discussing embodiment, we must also discuss the passionate subject and the space for eroticism in the classroom (Bartlett, 1998, p. 3). Eroticism or desire should, in this situation, be interpreted beyond the sexual dimension, although that dimension should not be denied (hooks, 1994, p.194), but for reasons related to physical safety, we attend to the concepts as means of thinking through alternative pedagogies in this chapter.

Eroticism should be interpreted as forces of desire, and an effective teacher is successful in mobilising these forces, think of motivating students for instance. As Erica McWilliam argues, there is a desire to teach and a desire to learn. They can both be productive and poisonous (McWilliam, 1995, p.15). Audre Lorde argues that such desire is active in everybody's daily lives. "We are taught to separate the erotic demand from most vital areas of our life other than sex" (Bartlett, 1998, p. 5). For Lorde, the purpose that the erotic has is not limited to one function. Rather, she emphasizes the notion of sharing that emerges through this. She argues that this act of sharing a positive emotion in any way, physical or emotional, creates the space for a connection that can function as the common ground, where there is an understanding of all the elements that two or more individuals do not share (Lorde, 1992, p. 19). In response, the threat that is felt because of their differences decreases (Bartlett, 1998, p. 5). Bartlett argues that, because the bodies within a classroom are so diverse, these bodies all have different desires, and different responses to those desires and the knowledge this brings. Therefore, the the power of effective teaching comes with acknowledgement of these different bodies. How we deal with these desires affect our bodies of knowledge and influence the possibilities for teaching (Bartlett, 1998, p. 9). If pedagogy can honour a broader spectrum more effectively, motivation increases and both teaching and learning become more advantageous.

4.6 Decentralisation of power in the classroom

Feminist pedagogy approaches the classroom as a liberatory environment for both teachers as students, aiming to move both the teacher and student into the role of subjects instead of objects. Through this, feminist pedagogy emphasizes reflection when it comes to the teaching process and is cognizant of the genderedness of all social relations, and which of those fits the dominant discourse more than the others (Shrewsbury,1987). By doing so, feminist pedagogic strategies call

for an active engagement with class material and teaching styles, striving to eliminate discriminatory discourses, like sexism and homophobia.

Achieving this liberatory environment through decentralising the power in the classroom creates space for learning to be the centre of the class. It places both teacher and student in the position of learners which creates the space for a positive feedback loop in knowledge transmission and production (Webb, et al, 2002). Accordingly feminist pedagogy puts forward three main concepts that encourage a liberatory classroom environment. namely, *empowerment*, *community*, and *leadership* (Webb, et al, 2002).

These three concepts challenge systems of domination and question social construction of knowledge and power through generating consciousness and critical thinking to promote social change.

4.6.1 Empowerment

If feminist pedagogy power is defined as an energy and action potential (Chow, et al, 2003), it creates the opportunity for individuals and groups to act, breaking with the traditional notion of power as domination. Power in the feminist pedagogic sense is seen as *capability* and therefore seeks to increase the power of all, instead of limiting the power of the few. It draws on the Foucauldian notion that power is needed to maintain a sense of self and can be used to “accomplish ends” (Chow, et al, 2003). This approach creates the space for strategies that counteract unequal power arrangements and views power as a creative community energy. In this way, power functions as the glue that holds a community together (Webb, et al., 2002).

4.6.2 Community

Arguing in line with Nancy Hartsock, who noted that theories of power are implicitly theories of community, theories of community also influence the way in which we construct systems of power. In the case of learning environments, we need to analyse the gendered nature of the traditional classroom and how underlying notion of white cisgender maleness creates an unequal power structure (Tronto,1984). According to research conducted by Carol Gilligan, the moral development and conception of men and women differ (Gilligan, 1988). Moral conceptions of men are classified by Gilligan as focused on the separation and the construction of a web of rules creating a classroom environment where both teachers and learners are individuals (Gilligan,

1988). The rules that are fabricated are based on fairness and equity but have little to no consideration of the diverse needs that are present (Gilligan, 1988). The result of white, hetero and cisgender males being model students created linear forms of examination like memory-based learning and standardized tests, and as such, this aids the idea of the student as a product or consumer of education (Perez, 2020). The consequence of such an approach to education is one of individualism. Students participate in the class as individuals, and little care or compassion is built into the classroom (Webb, et al, 2002). Women, according to Giligan, are more focused on building connections and put emphasis on how social relationships are more than just interactions between individuals (Gilligan, 1988). Since, “We know ourselves as separate only insofar we live in connection with others and we experience relationships only insofar we differentiate the other from the self” (Chow et al., 2003, p. 12). Therefore, feminist pedagogy aims to create a classroom environment that functions as a community of learners, where there is autonomy of the self and there is also mutuality with others in such a way that is compatible with the needs of others. This means to be responsible *for* and *to* each other, this will destabilize the present current power structure which emerges from the current male based standard, through the creation of community feeling (Chow et al., 2003).

4.6.3 Leadership

If theories on power are simultaneously theories on community, they are also contingent on theories on leadership. Therefore, effective leadership functions as the glue that holds a community together (Webb, et al, 2002) Accordingly, there should be a focus on leadership skills within the classroom. Leadership, in the liberatory sense, is the embodiment of our ability and willingness to act on our beliefs and learning how to articulate needs and how to find the connection between our own needs and that of others. Leadership therefore functions as a form of empowerment which simultaneously empowers others (Webb, et al, 2002). There is a dynamic between leadership and followership creating the theory that effective leaders are also effective followers, since they are capable of knowing what their followers need. So, when students within a classroom are encouraged to develop their leadership skills, and as they do, they will also become more effective learners (Webb, et al, 2002). In other words, a teacher becomes more effective when they are capable of teaching leadership skills.

4.7.1 Conclusion

To conclude, for teachers to become more effective we must better understand the role of education in society and the way this constructs the role of the student within learning environments. The way students and learning are approached has a direct effect on the learning process a student goes through. The current approach to student learning stems from a place where the student has no agency over their education and that education is created through a white, hetero, cisgender male standard. Consequently, a learning environment is created which does not cater to the need of all learners.

To counteract this there should be more decentralisation of power in the classroom which creates room for more student agency. Accordingly, this is achieved through approaching knowledge, knowledge production and knowledge transmission as situated practices, that acknowledges individual differences. As such, a more embodied approach to teaching is needed, where there is room for passion and desire to exist within the learning environment, diminishing the threat of differences between each other. If teachers put students in a position where there is shared responsibility, for example through linking personal experience to knowledge and changing the language use, *learning* becomes the centre of the classroom and both teacher and student would turn into subjects, thus creating the room for overcoming differences between students (and teachers) and creating a more effective learning environment.

However, this can only happen when the relationship between teacher and student changes from subject-to-object to a subject-to-subject. Meaning that students from marginalised groups are invited to actively take part in their own education. Therefore, the teacher must focus on leadership skill development within such classroom environments, so students and teachers can learn from each other, can learn how to articulate, and account for their own needs as well as finding the connection between their own needs and those of others. By doing so, there is more space for active reflection on learning and the classroom, since everybody is empowered to voice their needs and with that their opinions. Such active reflection in turn encourages more room to overcome individual debilitating differences. Since empowerment is contingent on the sense of mutuality there must be an active focus on empowerment by the teacher for students to yield responsibility for their own education, since effective leaders are effective learners. Therefore, teacher effectiveness is increased when there is a focus on creating leadership, empowerment and community within the classroom. This practice of empowering the self and simultaneously

empowering the other creates an inclusive classroom environment where everybody can claim their education.

Chapter 5: The Effectiveness of the Teacher within an Organisational Context

5.1 Introduction

Education is constantly changing and that is reflected in reorganisations and innovations, which in turn are designed by policymakers with the aim to improve the quality of education, and thereby also improve humankind (Fullan, 2015). Currently, the learning environment in higher education is changing rapidly because of digitalisation and the transition in society to a knowledge-intensive economy. Because of this rapidly changing learning environment, Joos and Meijdam (2019) claim that it is crucial to innovate higher education to continue to be able to prepare students for their participation in society. Research shows that the rate of success or failure of such educational change depends on highly skilled teachers that can teach effectively (Darling-Hammond, 2009). However, even the most qualified teachers are unable to teach effectively when there is a mismatch between the teacher and the context in which the teacher operates. This teaching context is built up from: (1) the field in which the teacher is expected to teach, (2) the curriculum and the material that the teacher must use, and (3) the distance that the teacher has from other colleagues (Darling-Hammond, 2009). Together with the quality of a teacher, this context constructs a teacher's teaching quality, which influences a student's learning and/or progress. In other words, teaching context is constructed by policies and institutions which together with a teacher's quality form the basis for the progress that students make. From the Public Administration and Organisation Science perspective, the effectiveness of a teacher can be measured through performance-based assessment, which detects aspects of teaching that are related to student achievement gains (Darling-Hammond, 2009).

Nevertheless, the overall aim of this thesis is to analyse the concept of teacher effectiveness in higher education and establish strategies for its assessment and improvement. With regard to this purpose, this disciplinary chapter focusses on establishing a strategy to improve teacher effectiveness in higher education by answering the following sub-question: 'What can the analysis of teacher professionalisation in an organisational context contribute to improve teacher effectiveness in higher education?' In order to answer this sub-question, first, the definition of teacher professionalisation and its relation to teacher effectiveness is explained in the subsequent chapter. Second, it is described in what institutional force field the teacher as a public professional finds themselves in. This is followed by an explication concerning how a teacher can be seen as a

public professional. Fourth, it is elucidated what strategy for optimising teacher effectiveness can be learned from the relation between (effective) teacher professionalisation and teacher effectiveness in higher education. Finally, concluding remarks and reflections are stated.

5.2 Professionalisation and Teacher Effectiveness

A person can only be seen as a professional if the job that the person performs can be classified as a profession. It is possible to define teaching as a profession because it complies to the two profession criteria of Wilensky (1964): (1) teaching is technical, which means that it is based on systematic knowledge obtained through long prescribed study and/or training, and (2) a teacher adheres to a set of professional norms, which indicate that a teacher executes high-quality work and is devoted to a service ideal by making decisions that put student interests above personal or commercial profit, even during conflict. Examples of norms that cover the teacher-student relationship are objectivity by avoiding emotional involvement, and impartiality, which entails giving equal service towards all students (Hoyle, 1982; Wilensky, 1964).

Furthermore, Hoyle (1982) extends the concept of profession through adding three more criteria, namely that a profession: (3) performs a crucial social function, (4) requires extensive skill and systematic knowledge acquired by lengthy higher education, and (5) is executed by a professional who has the freedom to make their own judgements in (non-)routine situations while regarding appropriate practice. The latter can be rephrased as that professionals possess a high degree of autonomy.

Together with these five criteria, the concept of teacher professionalisation can be defined as a continuous process that is constructed around a teacher's: professional knowledge and skills, professional identity, social function, access requirements and associated training, development, and evaluation of performance (Fernández, 2013; Hoyle, 1982; Wilensky, 1964). In this definition, expertise in teaching is a component of the professionalism of a teacher but does not constitute the professionalism of a teacher as a whole. Therefore, ideally, teacher professionalism includes professional skills, knowledge, and expertise. The aim of teacher professionalisation as a continuous process is to pursue useful and responsible practice of professionals which ensures better quality in professional performance (Fernández, 2013). Taking this definition of teacher professionalisation into account, it is important to note that there is no clear consensus in the literature about how professionalisation as a process should be defined. The definition of teacher

professionalisation that is used in this chapter is therefore only one of the various possibilities. The used definition is chosen because it creates a valuable starting point for linking the concept to teacher effectiveness and constructing how a teacher can be seen as a public professional.

Continuing, through establishing a relation between teacher professionalisation and teacher effectiveness, it is argued by Fernández (2013) and Pleschová et al. (2012) that teacher professionalisation leads to an increase in teaching quality. As discussed earlier in the introduction of this chapter, teaching quality positively influences student learning (Darling-Hammond, 2009). Given that teacher effectiveness can be measured through performance-based assessment, which is related to student achievement gains (Darling-Hammond, 2009), it can be argued that teacher professionalisation is in an unknown degree related to teacher effectiveness.

5.3 The Institutional Force Field

The teacher in higher education finds themselves in an institutional force field with the profession, labour organisations, accrediting agencies, society, and politics (Zijlstra et al., 2019). Regarding teacher professionalisation, each actor has their own interests which can vary widely, causing tensions. A teacher's own interests and wishes regarding professionalisation can differ from institutional interests and wishes (Zijlstra et al., 2019). For example, the University of Utrecht delivers education with the mission to work for a better world by investigating complex issues and stepping across the boundaries of disciplines (Utrecht University, n.d.). How does Utrecht University view teachers from this mission perspective? To what extent do teachers share this mission and how do they view themselves in relation to this mission? Suppose that both actors share the same mission, then it is realistic that the actors have other ideas regarding the professionalisation (policy) that is needed to achieve this mission (Zijlstra et al., 2019). This tension that arises regarding the professionalisation of teachers, or higher education in general, is characteristic for the increasing distance and alienation between the primary process that teachers as professionals carry out: teaching, and the management of it. As for teacher professionalisation, this is a process that can occur bottom-up from the teacher themselves through intrinsic motivation for improving their teaching quality. But this process can also be initiated from top-down by institutions that set requirements for the professional in the form of certification or other classification and assessment methods (Zijlstra et al., 2019).

Furthermore, it is possible for institutions such as higher education organisations to undertake activities in order to enhance and/or facilitate the professionalisation of a teacher. Pleschová et al. (2012) specifies these activities as typical educational development activities which can occur both bottom-up and top-down. Firstly, activities that enhance bottom-up teacher professionalisation include giving teachers the space to participate in curriculum development processes, and letting teachers secure their own professional development by providing scholarships, research opportunities and professional networks. Conversely, examples of organisational top-down initiated activities are obliging teaching courses and workshops, teacher consulting, administering teaching and learning funds, developing new supportive teaching structures, evaluate teaching quality, and assessing pedagogical merits of teachers (Pleschová et al., 2012).

The top-down approach to teacher professionalisation is also viewable when zooming in on higher educational organisations in general. According to Kallenberg (2016), higher educational organisations are characterised through low hierarchy and high autonomy of loosely coupled fundamental units and a diffuse decision-making culture. Weick (1976) agrees with this vision by describing educational organisations as loosely coupled systems. In his view, loose coupling conveys the image that certain components coupled within an organisation are responsive, but each component sustains its own identity (e.g., through physical or logical separateness). It thereby acts as the glue that holds an organisation together (Weick, 1976). The concept of loose coupling has been employed in journal articles focussing on higher education for over 40 years, causing a variety in interpretation and definitions of the concept (Elken & Vukasovic, 2019). This makes it possible to approach the concept both top-down and bottom-up. The scholarly popularity of loose coupling resulted in studies that took the concept of loose coupling in higher education as a starting point to explore how institutions/organisations responded to challenges of strategic planning (Elken & Vukasovic, 2019; Kondakci & Van den Broeck, 2009; Simsek & Louis, 1994).

As discussed earlier, teacher professionalisation is a continuous process. Kondakci and Van den Broeck (2009) state higher education organisations are subject to a process of continuous change. Therefore, professionalisation of teachers can be seen as part of this continuous change. Taking the context of loosely coupled higher education organisations as a starting point, it is argued that this can result in (1) lessen interdependency among units, (2) increasing specialisation among

units and individuals, (3) decreasing predictability of organisational outcome, and (4) individuals have total authority over their (teaching) practices. These developments are a crucial element for the self-reflection of individuals and the social interaction between units and individuals (Kondakci & Van den Broeck, p. 461). With regard to the professionalisation of teachers, especially points (2) and (4), the loose coupling approach matches with the ideal-typical perspective of the public professional: the teacher as an organising professional. This perspective, together with three other perspectives on public professionalism, is outlined in the subsequent paragraph.

5.4 Teacher as Public Professional

So far, this chapter has discussed that teacher professionalisation is related to teacher effectiveness and that the teacher finds themselves in an institutional force field. In this paragraph, the main goal is to describe that the teacher can be viewed as a public professional, and ideal-typical can be analysed from the organising professional perspective. This perspective is classified as the ideal-typical lens for analysis of the teacher because it includes the values effectivity and efficiency and considers other multiple values as well. To achieve this goal, first, New Public Management (NPM) in higher education is discussed. Second, the classification of the teacher as a professional is examined in more detail. Hereafter, the current perspectives on public teacher professionalism are explicated, after which the professional values associated with this perspective are explained.

Higher education as a professional service has been subject to various changes since the emergence of NPM in the late 1970s, such as budget control, managerialism, reorganisations and other transitions (Noordegraaf & Siderius, 2016; Osborne, 2006). NPM was expected to professionalise governance in the public sector, including higher education, by improving the efficiency and effectiveness of service inputs and outputs (Osborne, 2006). By translating this to the teacher as a public professional, this would mean that, since the rise of NPM, teachers are expected to professionalise further to improve their effectiveness (output). Nevertheless, it can be argued that teachers as public professionals feel oppressed by this expectation. Through NPM processes as policy change, organisational change, and managerialism, teachers are deprived of their autonomy and professional values. This deprivation causes the opposite from the intended

development: the deprofessionalisation of teachers and thereby the deprofessionalisation of higher education in general (Noordegraaf & Siderius, 2016).

Before stating the teacher as a public professional, it has to be noted that, depending on the perspective from which you look at the teacher, it could be argued that the origin of the professionalism of a teacher in higher education lies especially in their field of research. Although the main aim of universities was originally to teach universal knowledge, whereby research had to be undertaken outside the university, the role of research has acquired a significant role within universities over the past two centuries (Hattie & Marsh, 1996). Because of this significant role, multiple studies argue that there is a positive or negative relationship between a teacher's research productivity and teaching effectiveness (Jencks & Riesman, 1968; Neumann, 1992). However, a meta-analysis on the relationship between research and teaching by Hattie and Marsh (1996) concluded that evidence showed that productivity in research is unrelated to being an effective teacher. At most, research and teaching are very loosely coupled, which implicates that the professionalism of a teacher in higher education can be constructed from both a research and teaching perspective. Simultaneously, this means that a teacher's research activities differentiate from their teaching activities and cannot be seen as a unity. Therefore, the definition of teacher professionalisation outlined in the introduction of this chapter can be justified because this definition does not include the research activities of a teacher in higher education.

There exist multiple perspectives on public professionalism that are based on principles concerning the coordination of professional work, the establishment of professional authority, and the professional values at stake (Noordegraaf, 2015). Currently, there are four dominant perspectives on public professionalism in the literature: (1) pure professionalism, (2) controlled professionalism, (3) organised professionalism, and (4) organising professionalism (Noordegraaf & Siderius, 2016). Managerialism, as a result of NPM, affects the latter three perspectives by encroaching the traditional image of professionalism and thereby creating respectively a controlled (2), hybrid (3), and connected (4) view on public professionalism. These four ideal-typical perspectives can be used to link teacher professionalisation to institutions and organising, which is essential given the intertwined principles of professionalism and managerialism (Noordegraaf, 2015; Noordegraaf & Siderius, 2016). Providing an overview of these perspectives presents a convenient setup for establishing the professional values that can be associated with teacher professionalism in higher education of the 21st century.

Firstly, the most traditional perspective on professionalism: pure professionalism, uses professional principles to ensure that teachers deliver high-quality services to their students in (complex) cases. This perspective assumes bottom-up leadership and the limited presence of organisational components. This form of coordination acts as the foundation for the authority and high degree of autonomy of the teachers and is legitimated because the professionals are highly educated. All this together leads to a high-quality output (e.g., teaching), which means that (complex) cases can be handled as effectively as possible (Noordegraaf & Siderius, 2016). However, this perspective can be seen as time consuming given that there is no focus on efficiency. The second perspective, controlled professionalism (or managerialism), originated with the introduction of NPM. This perspective did not focus on the teacher as a professional, but on the institutions/organisations and the delivery of concrete results. Therefore, the professional degree of autonomy is low, and this complies with the values of efficiency and control that are central to managerialism (Noordegraaf & Siderius, 2016). Thirdly, the hybrid perspective on public professionalism: hybrid professionalism combines professionalism and managerialism because the boundaries of these concepts become blurred (Noordegraaf & Siderius, 2016). The coordination within this perspective is done through cooperation and interaction between organisation managers and professionals. The professional authority of this perspective is established by enabling professionals to deliver flexible and reliable services (Noordegraaf, 2015). For teachers this means that they possess more autonomy in comparison with the perspective-controlled professionalism (2), but less autonomy compared to the perspective of pure professionalism (1). As for the values of hybrid professionalism they concern effectivity and quality (Noordegraaf & Siderius, 2016). Therefore, this ideal-typical perspective can be classified as the most suitable for analysing teaching effectiveness as it offers the best of both worlds: effectivity and efficiency.

At least, that would have been the case if a fourth perspective on public professionalism had not been developed. This fourth perspective is named organising or connected professionalism and goes beyond hybrid professionalisation. Noordegraaf (2015) claims that it is necessary to go beyond hybrid professionalisation because due to shifting contexts, changes are taking place in professional work. This is reflected in case treatment becoming more demanding as time and attention must be combined with speed. Beside this, contexts are shifting because professionals have to deal with multiple cases (students) which pressures them to prioritise and divide their amount of work effectively. On top of that, contexts shift because professionals have to treat these

multiple cases (students) in demanding and potentially hostile environments (Noordegraaf, 2015). An example of this are the regulators and assessors who keep an eye on the possible risks and errors that professionals make and take.

From the fourth perspective, professionals are seen as persons who are connected with their outside world. They collaborate with other professionals and work in teams or with teams from other divisions and/or disciplines. In other words, they are organising professionals (Noordegraaf & Siderius, 2016). Furthermore, organising professionals know how to professionalise themselves by keeping their teaching up to date through learning and applying innovation in their teaching methods (e.g., the use of ICT during lectures and seminars). The possession of these abilities makes a professional better equipped to connect their expertise and experiences with: (1) other professionals and their expertise, (2) other actors in their organisational environment, (3) students, (4) external actors with direct interests, and (5) external actors with indirect interests (Noordegraaf & Siderius, 2016, p. 14). As for the associated principles, the coordination takes place through the five connections that are stated above, but also through certain standards and procedures in structuring work processes. The professional authority is exerted by taking active responsibility for their actions (e.g., self-reflection or evaluation) and involving stakeholders in this (Noordegraaf, 2015). Organising professionals value both efficiency and quality and comprehend that they need to serve and possess multiple values at the same time. These professional values are discussed in more detail in the subsequent indention.

Up to this point, the term 'value' is only used in this chapter in the context of 'professional value', as can be explained in other words as values that a professional can serve such as quality, efficiency, meaningfulness, effectivity, and legitimacy. Besides this, it can be argued that another component exists in the term value, namely 'personal value'. According to Carr (2011) the moral virtues of a teacher are part of a teacher's professional virtues and influence effective teaching. Examples of such virtues are courage, honesty, and justice. Continuing on that, Harland and Pickering (2011) use other dimensions under which personal values, or in the words of Carr (2011) moral virtues, can be categorised. These dimensions are: (1) academic values such as honesty, integrity, fairness, truth, evidence, and (2) attitudinal values like caring and respecting others (Harland & Pickering, 2011, p. 43). Ideally, a teacher as an organising professional is aware that, whether consciously or not, through teaching values are being passed on to students. Essentially, this means that personal values can slip into a teacher's professional life. Although personal values

of teachers influence teacher effectiveness, there can be no consensus to what degree this extends. Especially when considering that effectiveness is a normative standard overall. However, as argued, it is important to note that regarding the perspective of a teacher as organising professional, the personal values of a teacher cannot be separated from their professional values. The perspective of the teacher as an organising public professional within an institutional force field forms the basis for discussing what can be learned for enhancing teacher effectiveness through optimising teacher professionalisation, which is covered in the subsequent paragraph.

5.5 Strategy for Optimising Teacher Effectiveness

Internationally, the importance of professionalisation of higher education is increasing because of changing educational contexts caused by massification, marketisation and managerialism (Shaw, 2017). Teacher professionalisation functions as a response to these changes and can take place in the form of creating new and extended professional standards for teaching regarding the disciplinary knowledge, teaching quality, development, and professional values of teachers (Ödalen et al., 2018). However, whereas the development of such professional standards with the aim to improve teacher professionalisation creates a policy-making challenge on the one hand, it creates an organisational challenge on the other hand: to bridge the distance between policymakers who set the standards and the teacher who carry out the practice (Daniels, 2016). This distance was illustrated earlier in this chapter as the tension that arises regarding teacher professionalisation because of the institutional force field the teacher is in. Overcoming both described challenges, and thereby improving teacher professionalisation which indirectly improves teacher effectiveness, can be facilitated through changing a teacher's fundamental approach towards teaching. Whereas the purpose of the teacher-centred approach to teaching is to transfer information from the teacher to the student and teacher focus primarily on their own behaviour, the student-centred approach sees transferring information just as one component of teaching (Ödalen et al., 2018). The student-centred approach focusses more on students and their learning, rather than on the teachers themselves. Teaching from this approach is more interactive and uses more different teaching methods in comparison with the teacher-centred approach. Furthermore, the student-centred approach takes the heterogeneity of students into account. Because of all this, the teaching approach enhances a student's ability to learn, and increases the willingness of students to take responsibilities for their own studies (Ödalen et al., 2018; Postareff

et al., 2007). Therefore, it improves teacher effectiveness. Moreover, the movement towards a more student-centred teaching approach can be accomplished by pedagogical training courses for teachers in higher (Ödalen et al., 2018; Postareff et al., 2007), and complies with teacher professionalisation as a continuous process, because it is related to a teacher's professional skills, knowledge, and expertise.

5.6 Conclusion and Discussion

Concluding, this disciplinary chapter has aimed to argue that teacher professionalisation improves teacher effectiveness because of the improvement of teaching quality and the increase in student learning. However, the degree to which this is related remains unknown and depends on the normative standards of teacher effectiveness. Organisations within higher education are loosely coupled but can influence teacher professionalisation both bottom-up and top-down. The teacher as a public organising professional also influences teacher professionalisation through their own intrinsic motivation and professional values, which includes their personal values as well. The proposed strategy for improving teacher effectiveness in higher education concerns moving towards a more student-centred teaching approach, with the aid of pedagogical training courses and requirements for teachers, which also leads to creating new and extended professional standards for teaching to improve teacher professionalisation.

However, it should be noted that the influence of pedagogical training courses on student-centred teaching has not yet been extensively researched. Studies from Ödalen et al. (2018), Postareff et al. (2007), and Prosser et al. (2006) show that there is a positive relationship, but that further, more extensive, research is needed in different contexts to make this positive relationship more generalisable. Besides, it must be taken into account that teacher professionalisation as a component of teaching quality is just one factor that influences teacher effectiveness. Therefore, to optimise teacher effectiveness other factors such as teaching context and teaching assessment should not be lost sight of in future academic research.

Chapter 6: Integration

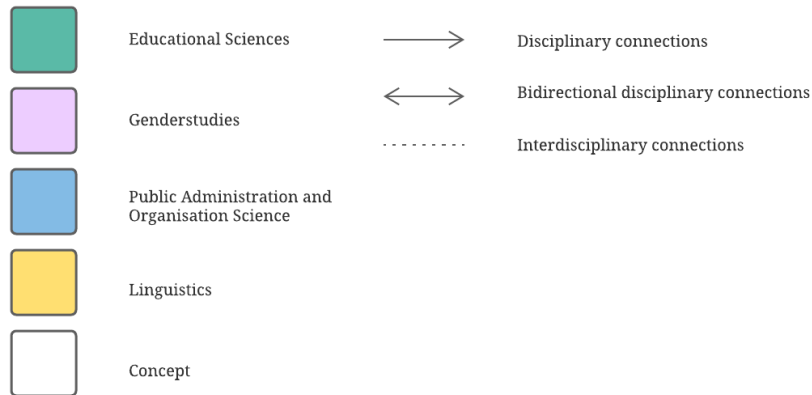
In the previous chapters, the four disciplines investigated separately what teacher effectiveness in higher education is and how it can be assessed and improved. This chapter aims to integrate the insights gained from the different disciplines by using the integration techniques of Repko and Szostak (2017). With the aid of these integration techniques, relations between disciplinary findings are found, which then leads to the identification of conflicting insights. The techniques of organisation, extension, transformation and intension from Repko and Szostak (2017) are used in order to solve the conflicts between disciplinary insights, which will be explained in the rest of the chapter. By using these techniques, a *common ground* is created between the conflicts found in the definition, the assessment and the improvement of teacher effectiveness that functions as a starting point for creating a *more comprehensive understanding*, which will be explicated in the conclusive chapter of this thesis. Finally, the more comprehensive understanding is tested and a discussion of the limitations and a future scope is provided.

6.1 Towards an interdisciplinary definition of teacher effectiveness

To create an interdisciplinary consensus on teacher effectiveness, all disciplinary insights need to be compared to create common ground. Otherwise, relevant disciplinary insights may be omitted. For defining teacher effectiveness, the integration technique of organisation (Repko & Szostak, 2017) is used to create one comprehensive definition. This technique is used because teacher effectiveness consists of many distinct variables according to the disciplines, and the technique of organisation focuses on mapping the overall relationships between these variables. Therefore, in the following paragraphs, each discipline provides an outline of their found defining elements of teacher effectiveness subsequently, organising these disciplinary components from abstract to concrete. When constructing an action perspective, we aim to create results that are as concrete as possible. However, we consider it valuable that the abstract insights are also included, since it is important to remember how the concrete insights were created. After these disciplinary organisations, the connections between the defining elements are visualised in Figure 1.

Figure 2

Legend for the organisations of the disciplinary insights and common ground regarding the definition of teacher effectiveness



6.1.1 Educational Sciences

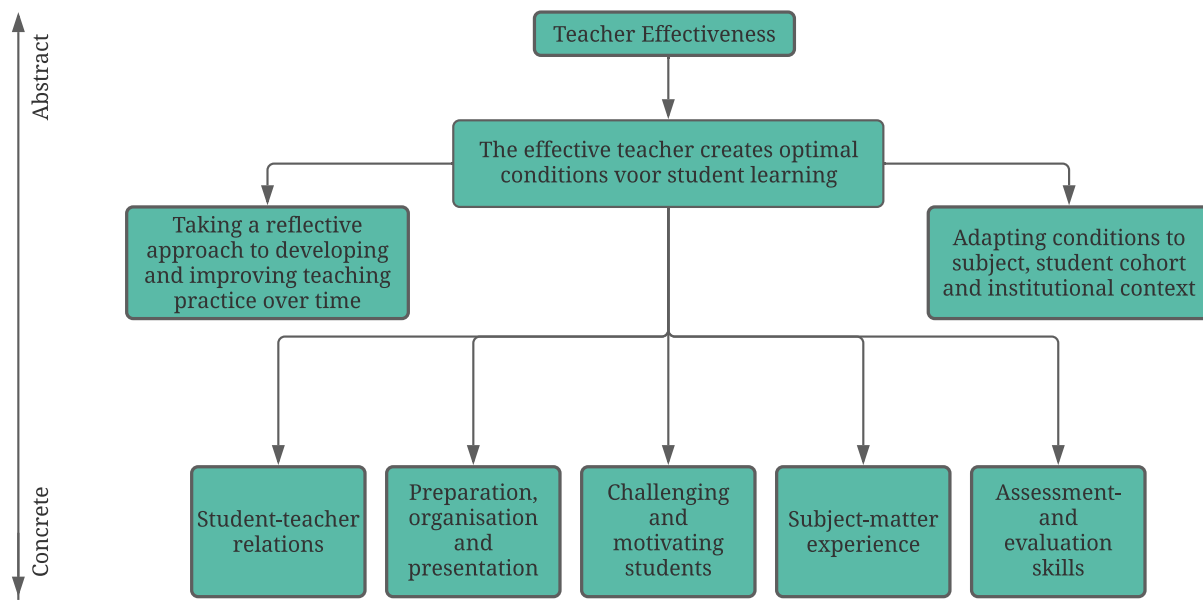
When defining teacher effectiveness, Educational Sciences finds five integral components: *student-teacher relationship* (e.g., student respect, listening to students and taking their input in consideration, creating a safe space for students in the classroom, accepting students, and helping students do their best in the course) *preparation, organisation and presentation* (e.g., good use of resources, preparation of the lecture in advance, organisation of learning materials), *ability to challenge and motivate students* (e.g., setting clear and realistic goals for students and the teacher themselves to stimulating intellectual curiosity, motivating students and getting students interested in the subject), *subject-matter experience* (e.g., the ability to answer questions well, a broad knowledge of the subject that preferably goes deeper than the course material does and the ability to share interesting knowledge on the subject) and *assessment and evaluation* (e.g., the development of assessments, the grading of assessments, formative and summative evaluation and the ability to organise peer feedback). Educational Sciences uses the framework of the definition that is currently used by the University of Utrecht:

The effective teacher creates positive conditions for student learning – by establishing approaches to educational design, delivery and assessment that are appropriate for the subject, student cohort and institutional context – and takes a reflective approach to developing and improving their teaching practice over time. (Graham, 2016)

However, the discipline replaces the concepts in this definition with the five new components to create the following definition: The effective teacher creates positive conditions for student learning – by establishing a positive student-teacher relationship, exhibiting skilful preparation, organisation, and presentation of the course material, challenging and motivating students, possessing excellent subject-matter experience and assessment and evaluation skills that are appropriate for the subject, student cohort and institutional context – and takes a reflective approach to developing and improving their teaching practice over time. In Figure 3, this definition has been organised by placing each separate concept on a spectrum from abstract to concrete.

Figure 3

Organisation of the definition of teacher effectiveness according to Educational Sciences from abstract to concrete



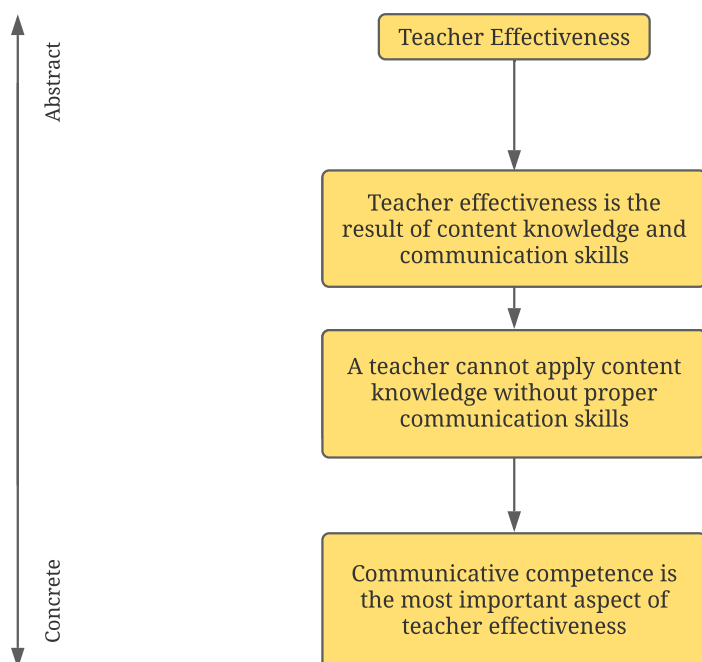
6.1.2 Linguistics

According to Linguistics, a teacher needs knowledge of course content and communication skills in order to be effective. Because a teacher cannot successfully transmit knowledge of course content without sufficient communication skills, communicative competence makes for the most important aspect of Teacher Effectiveness. Within communicative competence, Linguistics

differentiates between *linguistic competence* (the knowledge of the language code), *sociolinguistic competence* (the mastery of the socio-cultural code of language use), *discourse competence* (the ability to combine language structures into different types of cohesive and coherent texts), and *strategic competence* (the knowledge of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies which can enable us to overcome difficulties when communication breakdowns occur and enhance the efficiency of communication). In teaching communicative competence, Linguistics prioritises *informing, clarifying, questioning and expecting students' feedback, public speech and instructional materials* and *behavioural flexibility* as most important competencies. Other than these five competencies, effective teachers should have empathy, behavioural flexibility, and interaction management. In Figure 4, the definition of teacher effectiveness according to Linguistics has been organised by placing each separate concept on a spectrum from abstract to concrete.

Figure 4

Organisation of the definition of teacher effectiveness according to Linguistics from abstract to concrete

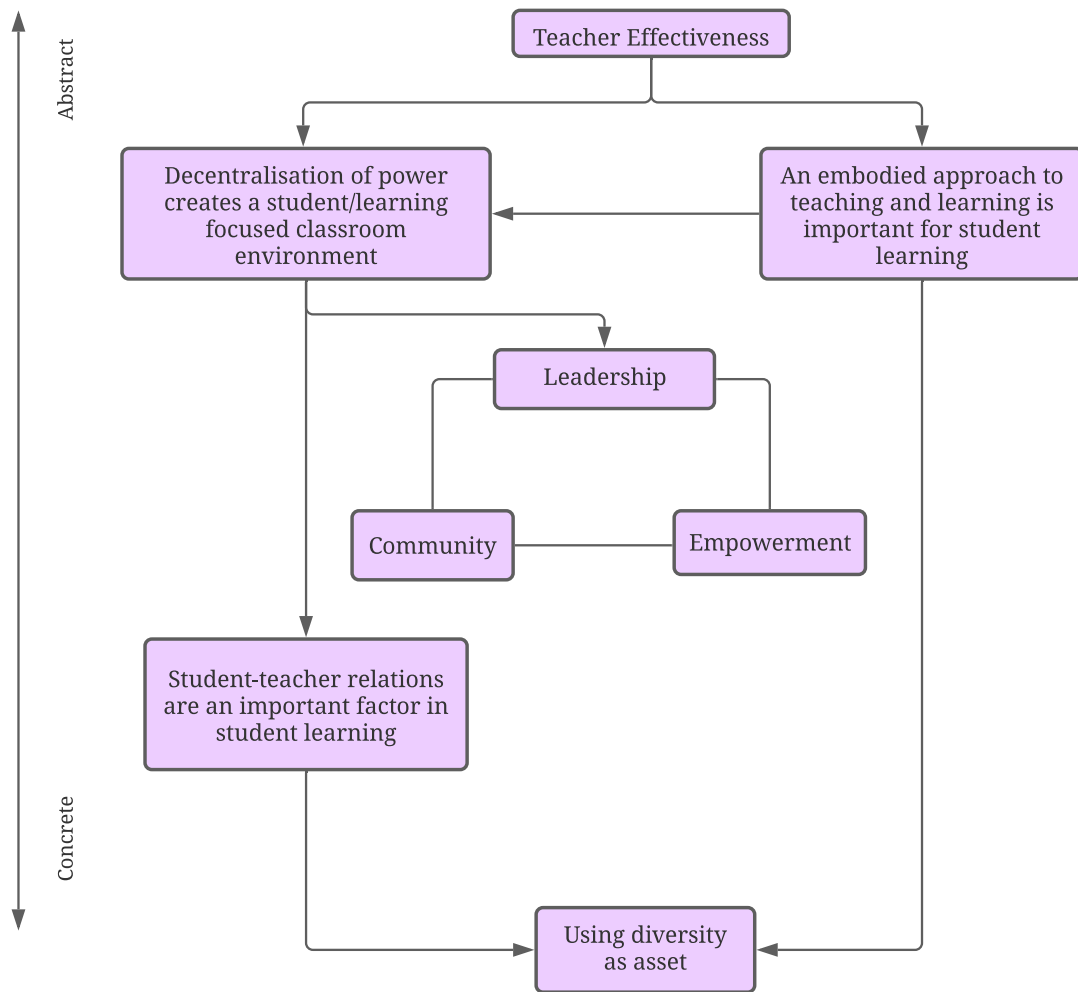


6.1.3 Gender and Postcolonial Studies

Gender and Postcolonial Studies provides us with a framework using *situated knowledge production, empowering the self and other* and *an embodied approach to teaching*. Gender and Postcolonial Studies argues that all knowledge is produced from a subjective point of view. This point of view influences the way one produces and transmits knowledge and is called situated knowledge. Simultaneously, this calls for an embodied approach to teaching, since Gender and Postcolonial Studies argues that the way our bodies are positioned within social structures influences our lived experience, and therefore our knowledge production and transmission. Since the classroom is diversely populated, Gender and Postcolonial Studies argues that, in order for a teacher to be effective, they must be aware of their own situated knowledge and that of their students to reduce the threat of difference and make the classroom an inclusive learning space for all, Gender and Postcolonial Studies suggest three main concepts that are contingent on each other, namely: empowerment, community, and leadership. The traditional classroom is based on the standard model of the white cisgender male and therefore holds an unequal power structure, by empowering all bodies present in the classroom this inequality can be counteracted. Through creating a community within the classroom there is a shared responsibility for one's own education and that of others, thus working against the unequal power dynamic. Through implementing a focus on leaderships skills, the teacher can create an environment where one can account for their own needs and the needs of others. Consequently, making students more effective learners since they are empowered to claim an education that fits them. A teacher therefore is more effective when they decentralise the power structures, through an embodied approach for instance, in the classroom in order to deal with the inequalities and the subjective point of views present within the classroom. This redefines student – teacher relationships, so all people can claim an education. In Figure 5, the disciplinary components are mapped from abstract to concrete.

Figure 5

Organisation of the definition of teacher effectiveness according to Gender- and Postcolonial Studies from abstract to concrete



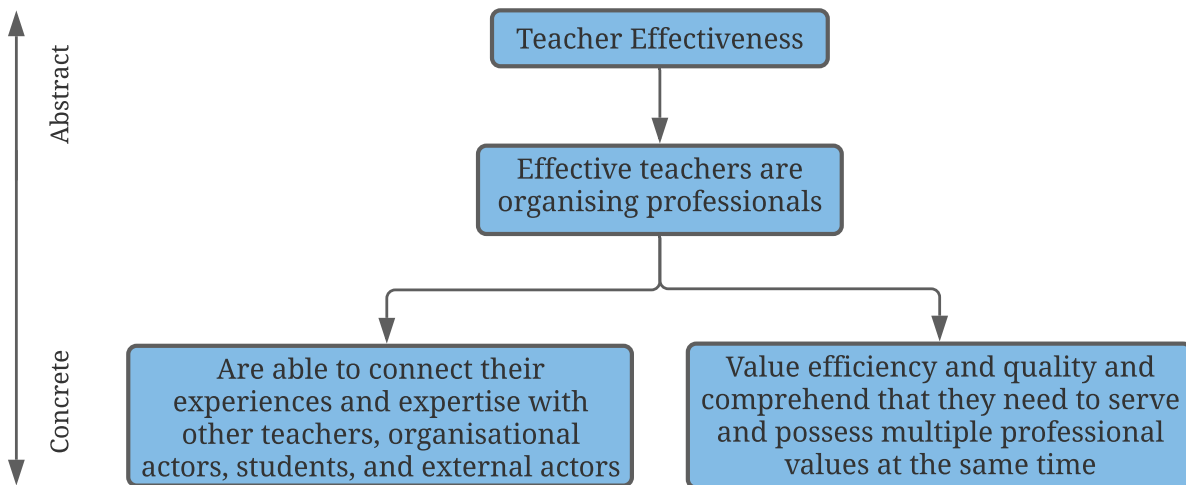
6.1.4 Public Administration and Organisation Science

Lastly, Public Administration and Organisation Sciences puts emphasis on effective teachers as *organising professionals*. This means that effective teachers should be connected with their outside worlds (e.g., teachers, organisational actors, students, and external actors), and that effective teachers are able to professionalise themselves. Furthermore, as organising professionals, effective teachers comprehend that they need to serve and possess multiple values at the same time. The complete set of values that a teacher serves and possesses can be categorised as a

teacher’s professional values. Teachers need to serve values such as: quality, efficiency, meaningfulness, effectivity, and legitimacy. Because personal values are also a part of the professional values of a teacher, effective teachers should additionally possess personal values such as courage, honesty, and justice. Moreover, they must be able to care and respect for others in order to be effective professionals. The concept of organising professionals as a component of the definition of teacher effectiveness is organised from abstract to concrete in Figure 6, through mapping the disciplinary components as described above. An element of teacher effectiveness that is not included in this figure concerns the relation between the teacher and the student. According to Public Administration and Organisation Science, effective teachers have a student-centred teaching approach. This approach focuses on students and their learning, rather than on teachers themselves, and therefore can be considered as more effective in relation to teacher-centred teaching.

Figure 6

Organisation of the definition of teacher effectiveness according to Public Administration and Organisation Science from abstract to concrete

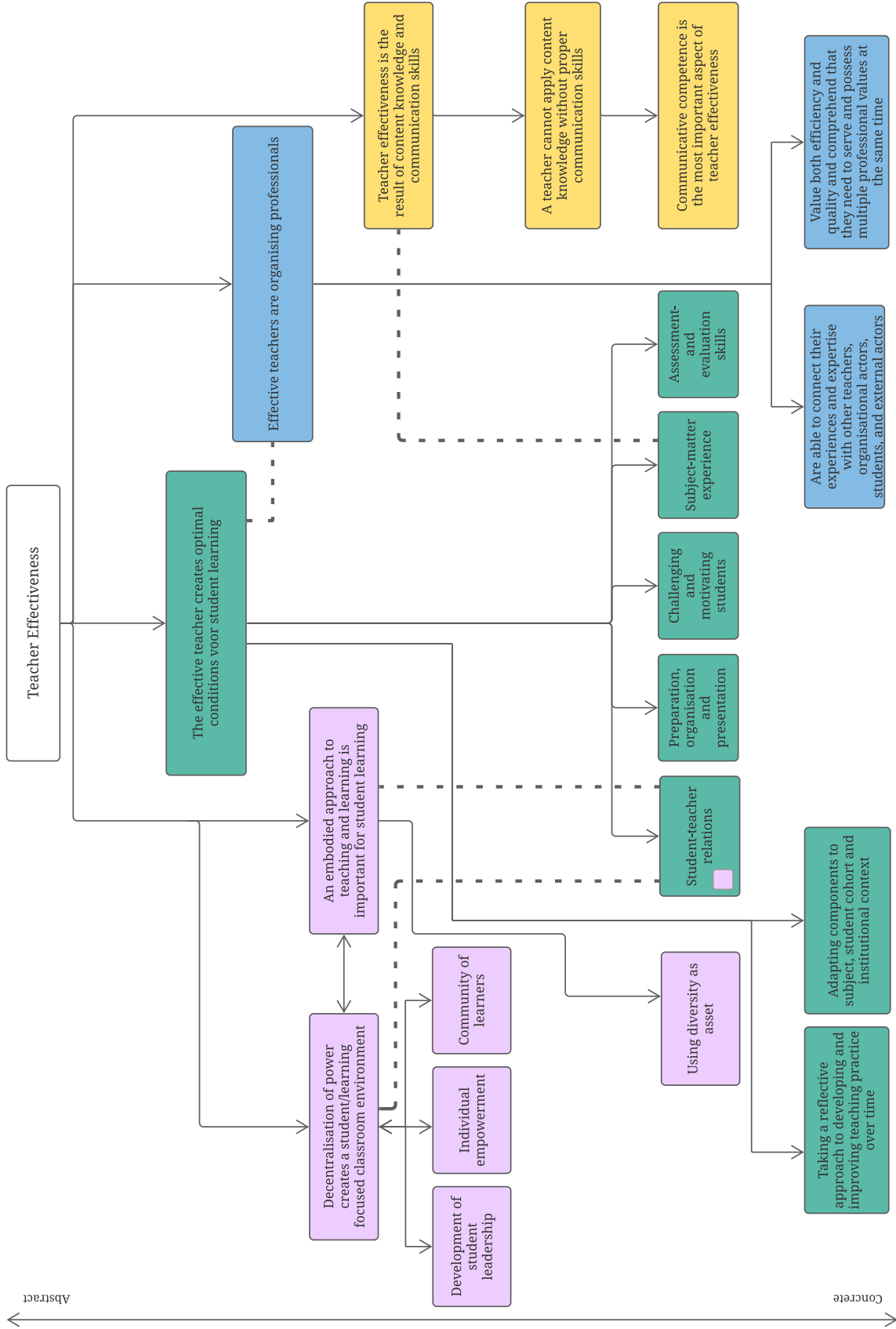


6.1.5 Integration of the four disciplines

After creating a discipline-by-discipline outline of teacher effectiveness, the disciplinary insights are compared. This is done by using the organisation technique put forward by Repko and Szostak (2017). The defining elements of each discipline's definition of teacher effectiveness are organised from abstract to concrete again. Examples of relatively abstract insights are *the effective teacher creates optimal conditions for student learning* (Educational Sciences), *an embodied approach to teaching and learning is important for student learning* (Gender- and Postcolonial Studies) and *effective teachers are organising professionals* (Public Administration- and Organisational Science). Examples of considerably concrete insights are *communicative competence is the most important aspect of teacher effectiveness* (Linguistics), *the inclusion of leadership skills in the teaching curriculum* (Gender- and Postcolonial Studies) and *effective teachers are able to connect their experiences and expertise with other teachers, organisational actors, students and external actors* (Public Administration- and Organisation Science). After organising the different disciplinary insights from abstract to concrete, similar topics between disciplines are reviewed and connected (Figure 7). Insights that have a one-way connection to an insight of the same discipline (insight a affects insight b, but insight b does not affect insight a) are connected with a one-way arrow. These types of connections are labelled disciplinary connections. Insights that are connected in a two-way manner with an insight of the same discipline (insight a affects insight b and vice versa) are connected with a two-way arrow. These types of connections are labelled bidirectional disciplinary connections. Connections between insights of different disciplines are marked with a dashed line. These types of connections are labelled interdisciplinary connections. Following the organisation of our disciplinary insights, the most important conclusion is that a new definition of teacher effectiveness is needed that encompasses all disciplines used in this thesis. The result of the organisation of our disciplinary insights concerning the definition of teacher effectiveness is presented in Figure 7.

Figure 7

Organisation of the definition of teacher effectiveness according to Educational Sciences, Linguistics, Gender and Postcolonial Studies and Public Administration and Organisation Science from abstract to concrete



The one-directional and bidirectional connections between disciplinary insights are outlined in the previous disciplinary chapters. However, the visible interdisciplinary connections between disciplinary insights from Figure 7 have yet to be explained. First, *effective teachers as organising professionals* is connected to *the effective teacher creates optimal conditions for student learning* because organising professionals indirectly create optimal conditions for student learning by connecting with students and serving values such as quality, efficiency, meaningfulness, effectivity and justice. Second, *content knowledge and communication skills* are connected to *subject-matter experience* since content knowledge is a component of subject-matter experience. Finally, through the decentralisation of power in the classroom, the teacher and student move into a subject-to-subject relationship instead of a subject-to-object relationship. The acceptance of everyone's subjective position within societal structures provides a new entry point for knowledge production which overcomes the threat of differences that is felt between each other. Accordingly, they can use their personal differences as a learning aid, through moving everyone into an equal power dynamic. This equal power dynamic entails that everyone becomes more empowered, which is supported by a community feeling within the classroom.

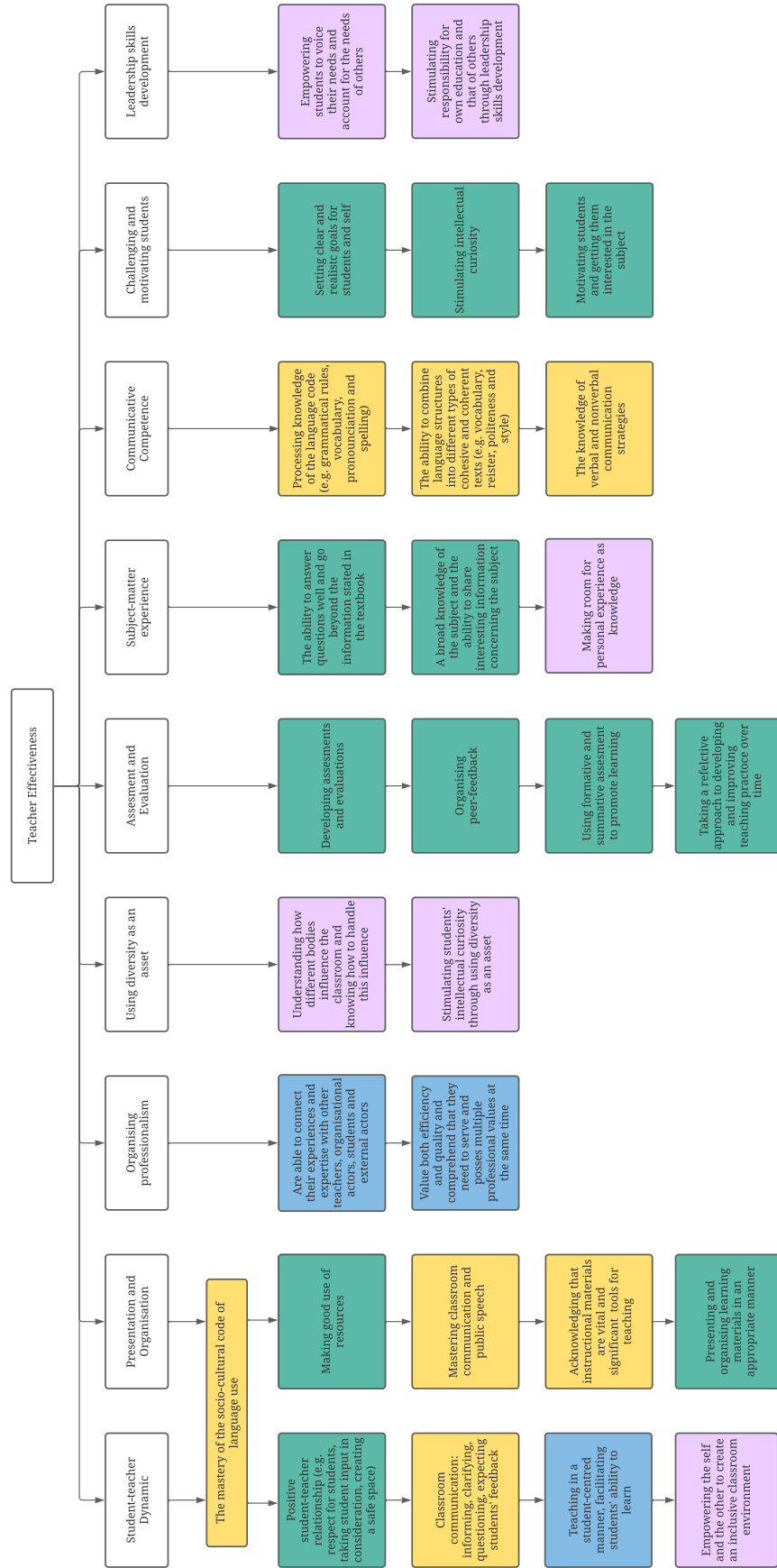
As exhibited in Figure 7, the accumulation of the five components of Educational Sciences together with the components found by Linguistics, Gender and Postcolonial Studies and Public Administration and Organisation Science result in nine components that together create a new definition of teacher effectiveness. This expansion of the disciplinary definitions of teacher effectiveness to one universal definition is done by means of the extension technique for the integration of conflicting concepts (Repko & Szostak 2017). The definition of teacher effectiveness used by Educational Sciences, that is, the five defining components that create optimal conditions for student learning, is extended to also encompass Linguistics' communicative competence, Public Management and Organisations Science's professionalisation and Gender and Postcolonial Studies' using diversity as an asset, focus on leadership skills development and student-teacher dynamic that corresponds with Educational Sciences' student-teacher relations. Thus, by means of extension, the following universal definition of teacher effectiveness is created that encompasses all important disciplinary insights: *The effective teacher creates positive conditions for student learning – by establishing an effective student-teacher relationship, having good presentation- and organisational skills, continuous professionalisation, using diversity as an asset, by challenging and motivating students, providing fitting assessment and evaluation,*

sufficient *subject-matter experience*, focussing on *leadership skill development*, and having *communicative competence* - while taking a reflective approach to developing and improving their teaching practice over time and adjusting these competencies in a way that is appropriate for the subject, student cohort and institutional context. The definition follows the framework as seen in the disciplinary chapter of Educational Sciences, because this forms a sufficient foundation for an interdisciplinary definition of Teacher Effectiveness, and it is the only discipline that provides us with such a framework. A digression of the nine components of teacher effectiveness can be seen in Figure 8.

Three components need further elaboration since it has not yet been discussed why these have been added to or omitted from the final definition of teacher effectiveness. The elements of Gender and Postcolonial Studies that were added to the new definition are *using diversity as asset* and *leadership skills development*, since a *community of learners* and *individual empowerment* are contingent on and come forth from leadership. For Public Administration and Organisation Science, *organising professionalism* has been added as component, leaving out *are able to connect their experience and expertise with other teachers, organisational actors, students, and external actors* and *value both efficiency and quality and comprehend that they need to serve and possess multiple professional values at the same time*, for they are direct results from organising professionalism.

Figure 8

A digression on the defining elements of teacher effectiveness



6.2 Assessment of teacher effectiveness

6.2.1 Conflict in the assessment of teacher effectiveness

In the disciplinary insights concerning the assessment of teacher effectiveness, a conflict is found in how and by whom teacher effectiveness should be assessed. Public Administration and Organisation Science states that the effectiveness of a teacher can be measured by performance-based assessment of the teacher (e.g., teacher performance evaluations and standards-based teaching evaluations), because this assessment method detects aspects of teaching that are related to student achievement gains (Darling-Hammond, 2009). Linguistics argues that communication is a skill, and that humans improve skills by receiving feedback. Therefore, to improve and determine the impact of teacher's communication, teachers must get feedback, either from peers or from students. Furthermore, Linguistics argues that feedback is more beneficial when using a checklist to judge performance. Gender and Postcolonial Studies argues for constant reflection on class material and for active student participation in producing and transmitting knowledge. Therefore, there should be focus on feedback on the teacher and material from both the teacher as well as the students. Educational Sciences agrees with Linguistics and Gender and Postcolonial Studies in that the assessment of teacher effectiveness can best be done through feedback, but argues specifically for student evaluations, not so much for feedback from peers, since students stand closer to the performance of the teachers than anyone else. In addition, Educational Sciences finds that these student evaluations should be carefully constructed to only include statements that review teacher effectiveness.

The integration technique of intension (Alkema & Hamer, 2016) is applied to the assumption of Public Administration and Organisation Science that advocates for the need of performance-based assessment of the teacher. Intension reduces an assumption so that it complies with other assumptions. In other words, by zooming in on one or more assumptions to the part where the assumption complies with another assumption other. In this case, the assumption of performance-based assessment is reduced to only encompass student evaluations. The assumptions of Linguistics and Gender and Postcolonial Studies are also subject to intension, in the sense that the focus shifts from feedback in general to feedback from students. After this creation of common ground, the insight of Linguistics regarding the benefits of a checklist to the assumption is added, which has been illustrated earlier in this chapter. After applying this technique, we come to the following common ground: teachers must get feedback to improve and determine the impact of

their communication and teaching style. Students are directly involved with the services provided by teachers and are therefore in a good position to assess and evaluate their teachers' performance. However, student evaluations need to be carefully composed so that the evaluator knows which aspect needs improvement. Furthermore, it is recommended to create a checklist to judge performances since this makes feedback more useful. A recommendation for this checklist can be found in Appendix B. This checklist is constructed by using insights concerning teacher effectiveness from all four disciplines mentioned in this thesis, as well as the nine components of effective teaching. These components are made assessable by adding statements. For example, Linguistic adds the statement *the teacher's non-verbal communication is suitable (appropriate gestures and expressions; moves around; eye contact with the whole class)* which aids in the assessment of communicative competence, one of the nine components of effective teaching. The assessment checklist can be found in Appendix B. Answering the statements will be done according to a five-point Likert scale. The Likert scale is a satisfactory approach to teacher evaluations since it allows the student to differentiate between 'agree', 'disagree', but also between 'somewhat agree', 'neutral' and 'somewhat disagree'. This way, evaluations will go more in depth about the competencies of a teacher which in turn allows training on those competencies to be more precisely applied (Johnson, 2010). All statements are regarding one of the nine main competencies we use to describe an effective teacher. Lastly, evaluations must always be followed by direct action to improve performance following the results of the evaluation, which brings us to the next element of our integration, the improvement of teacher effectiveness.

6.3 Improvement of Teacher Effectiveness

6.3.1. Conflict in the inclusion of the body and mind

One conflict that emerges when comparing the insights on the improvement of teacher effectiveness found by the four disciplines is the influence of the body and the mind on the degree of effectiveness of the teacher. This conflict concerns the inclusion of the body and the mind in relation to teacher effectiveness (Gender and Postcolonial Studies), and the exclusion of the body in relation to teacher effectiveness (Educational Sciences). Repko and Szostak (2017) use the technique of transformation to solve conflicts between concepts and assumptions that are opposites of each other, with the aid of continuous variables. Consequently, we use transformation to solve our conflict between the inclusion or exclusion of the mind and the body in relation to teacher

effectiveness. This results in using ‘the degree inclusion of the mind and the body’ as the continuous variable that can help us to solve the conflict between Gender and Postcolonial Studies and Educational Sciences. The process of transformation in order to solve this conflict is described subsequently.

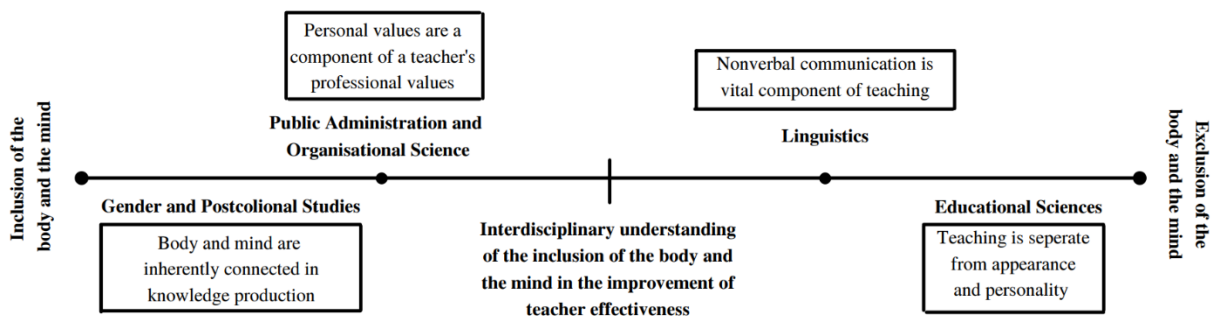
Gender- and Postcolonial Studies argues that the body and mind are inherently connected, which creates the basis for embodied teaching, since it provides the link between personal experience and the subjective position in which everyone experiences the world, also known as situated knowledge production. The body in Gender and Postcolonial Studies encompasses the gender, race, social class and sexuality of a person. Therefore, it aids in creating a learning environment that is effective for all, and by incorporating such an embodied approach, learning transcends the classroom and thus continues outside of the classroom environment. In other words, when a person learns something in class and can connect this to their experience outside of the class, learning is not just allocated to class time alone. Public Administration and Organisation Science highlights the personal values of a teacher as a different component in order to improve teacher effectiveness. Personal values such as courage, honesty and empathy cannot be separated from a teacher's professional values according to the discipline. These professional values influence effective teaching, but there is no consensus in Public Administration and Organisation Science as to what degree this influence extends. In relation to Gender and Postcolonial Studies, Public Administration and Organisation Science focuses solely on the mind by stating that personal values are part of the mind, whereas Gender and Postcolonial Studies argues that such values are inherently connected to the body. Linguistics explains that nonverbal communication is important to teaching but puts more emphasis on verbal communication. Specifically, Linguistics gives insight into how knowledge of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies can enable us to overcome difficulties when communication breakdowns occur and enhance the efficiency of communication. In Educational Sciences, it is argued that contextual factors such as looks, and personality cannot be trained and should therefore not be included in the characteristics of an effective teacher. Therefore, this discipline excludes the body of the teacher when improving teacher effectiveness. Because these assumptions are contradictory, the question of the inclusion of contextual factors like the body in and mind in teacher effectiveness has been put on the far left of the spectrum together with the insight of Gender and Postcolonial Studies on body inclusion, and the exclusion of the body and the mind in teacher effectiveness has been put on the far right

of the spectrum together with the insight of Educational Sciences on body exclusion (Figure 9). Linguistics and Public Administration and Organisation Science have insights about the inclusion of the body and the mind in teaching, that exist in-between the two extremities. Linguistics is placed in between exclusion of the body and the middle-ground because it predominantly focuses on verbal communication instead of non-verbal communication and thereby emphasises the mind over the connection between body and mind. As described above, Public Administration and Organisation Science only highlights the aspect of the mind by emphasising the personal values of the teacher as part of their professional values. Therefore, the discipline is located leftwards of the spectrum in between the inclusion of the body and the mind, and the middle-ground.

Through the transformation that is visualised in Figure 9, we can conclude that the body and the mind do indeed influence teaching and that nonverbal communication aids the transmitter in sending a message. However, appearance and personality cannot and should not be trained as it is not something that can be taught. Therefore, teacher effectiveness can be improved through increasing the capability of the teacher in dealing with difference in bodies and minds, but such differences themselves cannot be changed.

Figure 9

Spectrum for creating common ground concerning the extent of inclusion of the body and the mind for improving teacher effectiveness



6.3.2 Similarities in the improvement of teacher effectiveness

By mapping the disciplinary components for improving teacher effectiveness, a similarity is found between the four disciplines. The four disciplines all suggest or make room for the design of courses for teachers to improve their effectiveness. Firstly, Public Administration and

Organisation Science states that the effectiveness of teachers can be improved by moving towards more student-centred teaching. According to the discipline, this can be accomplished by pedagogical training courses for teachers in higher education. However, the discipline does not exclude other possibilities for achieving student-centred teaching and increasing teacher effectiveness. Therefore, the discipline of Public Administration and Organisation Science provides an optimal foundation for integrating the other three disciplines and their components for improving teacher effectiveness. Educational Sciences states that individual courses for each component of teacher effectiveness should be made mandatory for novice teachers. These individual courses should also be provided to teachers based on the student evaluations on their effectiveness, because evaluations are only effective when they are used to set clear goals for improvement and when followed by direct action. According to Linguistics, a Teacher Communication Skills (TCS) course is necessary for improving teacher effectiveness. Effective teachers demonstrate five competencies: giving or obtaining information, expressing or responding to feelings, speculating or theorising, maintaining social relationships and facilitating interaction, and seeking to convince or influence. Therefore, the TCS-course must include training in these competencies. Besides this, it is important that the TCS-course puts emphasis on guidance in empathy, commitment to the message and the teacher's ability to adapt appropriately to any type of communication. Gender and Postcolonial Studies adds that feminist pedagogy argues that effective leaders are simultaneously effective learners. This empowerment comes through teaching leadership skills within the class curriculum. Leadership skills enable the student to actively voice their own needs while considering the needs of others, thus enhancing the learning community in which they are situated, which in turn enhances the empowerment of all individuals present. Therefore, a course could be designed that improves the teaching of leadership skills to students to improve teacher effectiveness.

Taking these disciplinary suggestions for courses that improve teacher effectiveness together, common ground can be created through stating that the courses in all nine teacher effectiveness components is necessary, including the development of a TCS course, pedagogical courses, a course on teaching leadership skills. These courses should be provided and could even be made mandatory for novice teachers and experienced teachers can be strongly encouraged to take part in these courses based on how they are evaluated. If a teacher takes part in all these

courses, the teacher has all the tools needed to be an effective teacher, which in turn results in effective learning.

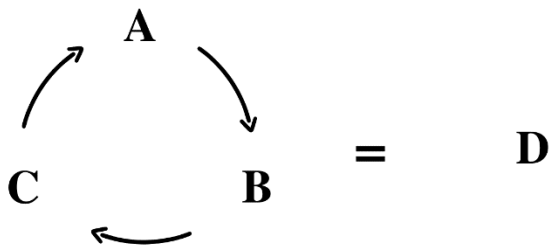
Chapter 7: Conclusion and Discussion

7.1 More comprehensive understanding

After the creation of common ground, a more comprehensive understanding will be formed to answer our main question: ‘Which action perspective can be derived from the analysis of teacher effectiveness and the strategies for its assessment and improvement in higher education?’ The goal of the more comprehensive understanding is to offer new insights that emerge from the integration of the various disciplines used. In the more comprehensive understanding, the newly constructed interdisciplinary insights are placed in a network, to compose an answer to the interdisciplinary main question. Repko and Szostak (2017) provide six integration techniques for the formation of such a more comprehensive understanding. However, these techniques all create a more comprehensive understanding in a causal or propositional manner. For teacher effectiveness, the more comprehensive understanding is not and cannot be linear, since the professionalisation of the teacher as well as the nine components of teacher effectiveness are both continuous processes that develop over time. A new method of integration, titled *cyclical integration*, has been created for creating a more comprehensive understanding where $A + B + C$ does not equal D , but a continuous process of A followed by B followed by C and so on is needed to reach D . This process is depicted in Figure 10.

Figure 10

Visual representation of the cyclical integration process for creating a more comprehensive understanding



Using this technique, a more comprehensive understanding is created where D equals improving and/or sustaining teacher effectiveness. In Figure 10, our more comprehensive understanding has

been pictured in a cyclical model. The common ground elements A, B and C respectively represent the definition of teacher effectiveness (creating positive conditions for student learning through the nine components of teacher effectiveness), the assessment of teacher effectiveness through student evaluations following the nine components of teacher effectiveness, and the improvement of teacher effectiveness by providing courses for all nine components of teacher effectiveness. Notable is that the nine components of teacher effectiveness are an integral part of A, B and C. Therefore, the concept of the nine components of teacher effectiveness is positioned in the middle of the cycle and connects with all three elements. These nine components and what they entail are pictured in Figure 8. Furthermore, the element of *courses for novice teachers*, originating from the disciplinary chapter of Educational Sciences, is added to the cycle as a starting point, since novice teachers need to be provided with a foundation for the nine components of teacher effectiveness to start implementing them in the classroom. This element has been labelled as C2, since this is part of the teacher effectiveness improvement element C. Elements A, B and C are positioned in a continuous cycle, because in order to reach teacher effectiveness, the teacher needs to go through this continuous cycle of practicing teacher effectiveness in the classroom, reflecting on their effectiveness through student evaluations and improving their effectiveness by following courses. The cycle then continues when the teacher practices their newly developed skills in the classroom, is subject to student evaluation, and again follows courses for improvement. The cycle represents the time frame of one iteration of a course (e.g., one period or one semester), since student evaluation usually occurs at the end of an iteration.

The process of improving and/or sustaining teacher effectiveness begins with courses in all nine components of teacher effectiveness. After this, the cyclical process starts with creating positive conditions for effective student learning in the classroom. At the end of the course, the effectiveness of the teacher is evaluated by students. Based on these evaluations, the teacher follows courses to improve those components of teacher effectiveness that the teacher scored low on in the evaluations. The improved or newly learned skills, competencies, and knowledge of the teacher are then again applied in the classroom, starting the cycle all over again. Because the way teacher effectiveness is evaluated depends on variables like student cohort or period, there will always be room for improvement in teacher effectiveness. This makes the continuous cycle the only method for improving and/or sustaining teacher effectiveness while consistently relying on

the nine components of teacher effectiveness. The different components of the cyclical framework presented in Figure 12 are explained in Figure 11.

Figure 11

Legend of the cyclical representation of the more comprehensive understanding of teacher effectiveness

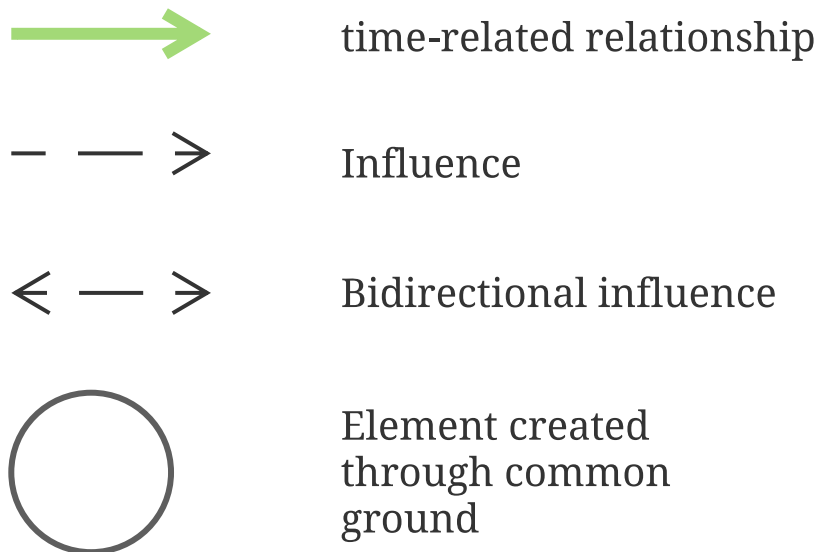
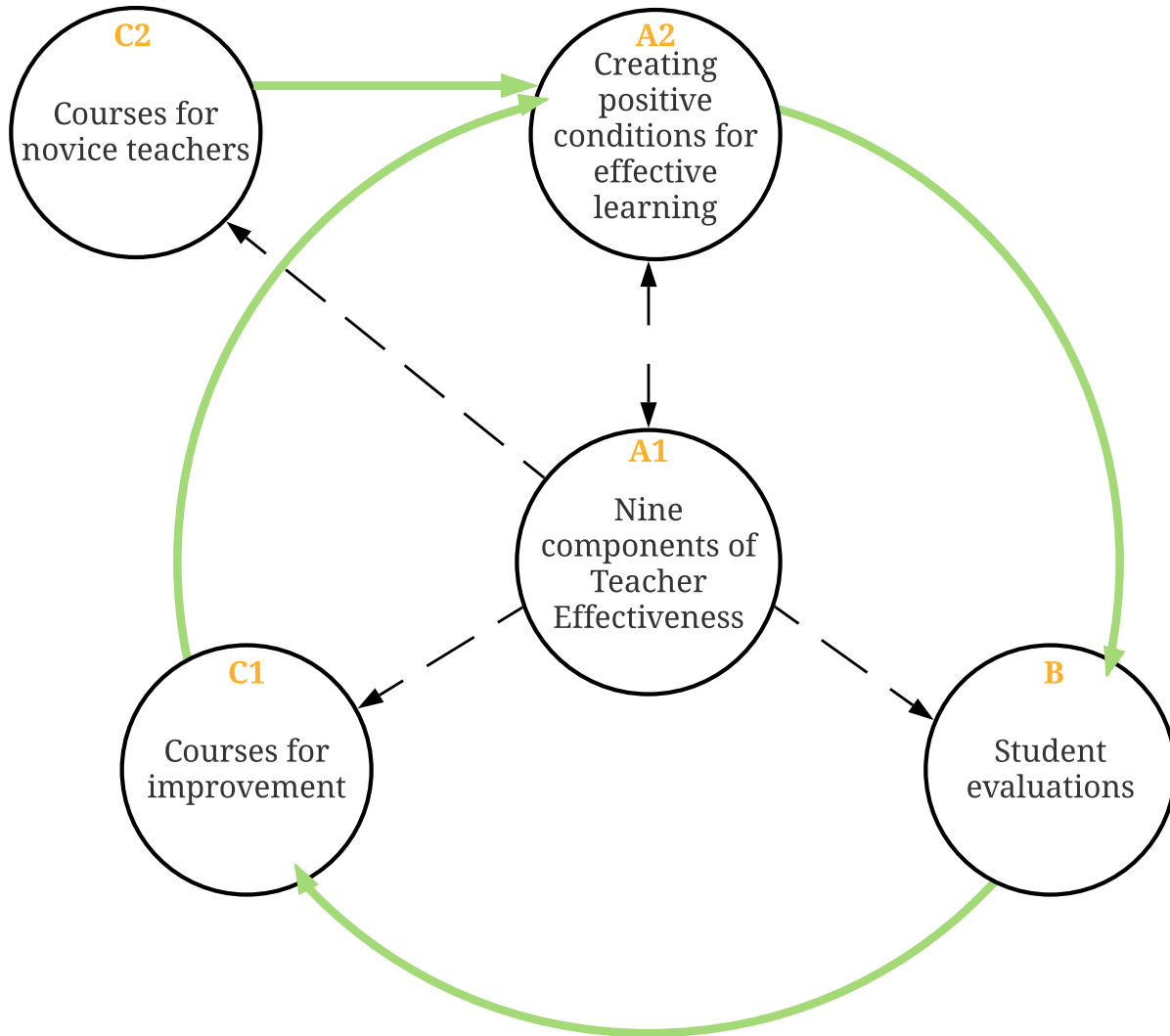


Figure 12

Cyclical representation of the more comprehensive understanding of teacher effectiveness



7.2 Discussion

7.2.1 Testing the more comprehensive understanding

To test the results of our more comprehensive understanding, we use the Tress et al test and the Szostak test. Tress et al. (2006) as cited by Repko & Szostak (2017, p. 360) require the more comprehensive understanding to be of interest to other researchers or people in the field. This in turn requires the more comprehensive understanding to transform “tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge”. As this is an undergraduate thesis, the scientific communication will be

done as *feedback into the academy*. The thesis will be shared with teachers and other relevant stakeholders within the university. According to the test developed by Szostak (2009) as cited by Repko & Szostak (2017), it is of importance whether the new understanding from the interdisciplinary piece gives a better insight into the problem than any disciplinary understanding. In this thesis, an interdisciplinary definition of teacher effectiveness has been created to transcend the discussion on the definition of teacher effectiveness between disciplines. Furthermore, where disciplinary research focuses mainly on either the definition, the assessment and in rare cases the improvement of teacher effectiveness, this thesis aims to provide a model in which the three elements are intrinsically connected. The thesis has covered the greater extent of the causal relations between the used disciplines, but further relations could be uncovered, especially if additional disciplines were to be added. In addition, negative consequences of the more comprehensive understanding have not yet been highlighted in this thesis. These negative consequences could, among other things, include high workload amongst teachers due to courses that need to be followed, or a decline in teaching confidence due to potentially ‘low’ scores on student evaluations.

The disciplines used in this thesis are all relevant disciplines that provide different perspectives on the discussion regarding teacher effectiveness. Educational Sciences provides a framework for understanding the current situation on teacher effectiveness in the case study of the UU. Public Administration and Organisation Science rises above this framework to look at teacher effectiveness from a macro perspective by looking at educational organisations. Gender and Postcolonial Studies and Linguistics provide a micro perspective by zooming in to look at specific elements of teacher effectiveness, that is power relations in the classroom and embodied teaching in Gender and Postcolonial studies and the influence of language and communication in Linguistics.

7.2.2 Limitations and further research

The integration chapter of this interdisciplinary research poses that student evaluations are the best available and most effective method for measuring teacher effectiveness in higher education. Nevertheless, the interdisciplinary capstone does not address the reliability, time constraints, and practicality of student evaluations. Therefore, follow-up research into these aspects of student evaluations can provide valuable insights on these matters.

Furthermore, this interdisciplinary capstone primarily focuses on teachers and their teacher effectiveness in higher education. However, teachers in higher education are not only expected to teach, but also to publish scholarly research. Another limitation of this thesis therefore concerns that it does not go into enough detail on the relationship between the pressure for teachers in higher education to publish scholarly research and their teacher effectiveness. Only the discipline Public Administration and Organisation Science argues briefly that a teacher's research productivity in research is unrelated to being an effective teacher, despite there is no final disciplinary consensus. Because the relationship between the research activity of the teacher and their teacher effectiveness is underexposed throughout this interdisciplinary thesis, it can serve as a good starting point for further research.

In addition, we recommend further practical research on how or when courses should be followed if a teacher instructs two or more consecutive iterations of a course in a row. The created more comprehensive understanding does not take this into account. Therefore, further research into this practicality can increase the degree of feasibility of the created more comprehensive understanding.

References

Chapter 1: Introduction

- Association of Public & Land-Grant Universities. (2016, October 14). *How do college graduates benefit society at large?* APLU. <https://www.aplu.org/projects-and-initiatives/college-costs-tuition-and-financial-aid/publicvalues/publicvalues-resources/q4/GradsSociety.pdf>
- Blackstone, T. (2001). Why learn? Higher education in a learning society. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 55(2), 175-184.
- Bok, D. (2006). *Our Underachieving Colleges: A Candid Look at How Much Students Learn and Why They Should Be Learning More - New Edition*. Princeton; Oxford: Princeton University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctvc4j0>
- Brok, P., Tartwijk, J., Wubbels, T., & Veldman, I. (2010). The differential effect of the teacher-student interpersonal relationship on student outcomes for students with different ethnic backgrounds. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80(2), 199–221. <https://doi.org/10.1348/000709909x465632>
- Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. Unemployment rate 2.1 percent for college grads, 3.9 percent for high school grads in August 2018. *The Economics Daily*. <https://www.bls.gov/opub/ted/2018/unemployment-rate-2-1-percent-for-college-grads-3-9-percent-for-high-school-grads-in-august-2018.html>.
- Campbell, R. J., Kyriakides, L., Muijs, R. D., & Robinson, W. (2003). Differential teacher effectiveness- Towards a model for research and teacher appraisal. *Oxford Review of Education*, 29(3), 347-362. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03054980307440>
- Cheng, Y. C., & Tsui, K. T. (1996). Total teacher effectiveness: new conception and improvement. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 10(6), 7–17. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09513549610151659>
- Darling-Hammond, L., & Baratz-Snowden, J. (2007). A good teacher in every classroom: Preparing the highly qualified teachers our children deserve. *Educational Horizons*, 85(2), 111-132.
- Harris, D. N., & Sass, T. R. (2009). *What makes for a good teacher and who can tell?* (Vol. 30). Washington, DC: Urban Institute.

- Ida, Z. (2017). What Makes a Good Teacher? *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 5(1), 141-147.
- Karlsen, S., Say, L., Souza, J. P., Hogue, C. J., Calles, D. L., Gülmezoglu, A. M., & Raine, R. (2011). The relationship between maternal education and mortality among women giving birth in health care institutions: analysis of the cross sectional WHO Global Survey on Maternal and Perinatal Health. *BMC public health*, 11(1), 1-10.
- Kedraka, K., & Kaltsidis, C. (2020). Effects of the COVID-19 Pandemic on University Pedagogy: Students' Experiences and Considerations. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 7(8), 17–30. <https://doi.org/10.46827/ejes.v7i8.3176>
- Kizi, D. B. O., & Ugli, M. K. S. (2020). Roles of teachers in education of the 21st century. *Science and Education*, 1(3).
- McAllister, G., & Irvine, J. J. (2002). The role of empathy in teaching culturally diverse students: A qualitative study of teachers' beliefs. *Journal of teacher education*, 53(5), 433-443.
- Medeiros, E. O. (2015). Education as interdisciplinary knowledge: production, theory and practice-in search of an essay. *European Scientific Journal*.
- Mulder, M. (2012). Interdisciplinarity and education: towards principles of pedagogical practice. *The Journal of Agricultural Education and Extension*, 18(5), 437-442.
- Newell, M. A. (2014). What's a degree got to do with it? The civic engagement of associate's and bachelor's degree holders. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, 18(2), 67-90.
- Olshansky, S. J., Antonucci, T., Berkman, L., Binstock, R. H., Boersch-Supan, A., Cacioppo, J. T., Carnes, B. A., Carstensen, L. L., Fried, L. P., Goldman, D. P., Jackson, J., Kohli, M., Rother, J., Zheng, Y., & Rowe, J. (2012). Differences In Life Expectancy Due To Race And Educational Differences Are Widening, And Many May Not Catch Up. *Health Affairs*, 31(8), 1803–1813. <https://doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2011.0746>
- Ornstein, A. C. (1990). A Look at Teacher Effectiveness Research—Theory and Practice. *NASSP Bulletin*, 74(528), 78–88. <https://doi.org/10.1177/019263659007452814>
- Ripley, A. (2014). *The Smartest Kids in the World: And How They Got That Way*. Simon & Schuster.
- Van der Klink, M., & Canisius, E. (2020, December). *De vijf bekwaamheden van docenten in beeld*. Zuyd Hogeschool.

<https://www.zuyd.nl/binaries/content/assets/zuyd/onderzoek/interviews--artikelen/pvo---de-vijf-bekwaamheden-van-docenten-in-beeld.pdf>

Wei, R. C., Darling-Hammond, L., Andree, A., Richardson, N., & Orphanos, S. (2009, February). *Professional learning in the learning profession: A status report on teacher development in the United States and abroad: Technical report*. Dallas, TX: National Staff Development Council.

Chapter 2: Educational Studies

- Calaguas, G. M. (2012). Teacher effectiveness scale in higher education: Development and psychometric properties. *International Journal of Research Studies in Education*, 1(1), 1-18.
- Cai, Y., Lin, C. Theory and Practice on Teacher Performance Evaluation. *Front. Educ. China* 1, 29–39 (2006). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11516-005-0004-x>
- Entwistle, N., & Tait, H. (1990). Approaches to learning, evaluations of teaching, and preferences for contrasting academic environments. *Higher education*, 19(2), 169-194.
- Feldman, K. A. (1976). The superior college teacher from the students' view. *Research in higher education*, 5(3), 243-288.
- Goe, L., Bell, C., & Little, O. (2008). Approaches to evaluating teacher effectiveness: A research synthesis. *National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality*.
- Jackson, D. L., Teal, C. R., Raines, S. J., Nansel, T. R., Force, R. C., & Burdsal, C. A. (1999). The dimensions of students' perceptions of teaching effectiveness. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 59(4), 580-596.
- Kline, P. (2014). *An easy guide to factor analysis*. Routledge.
- Mercado, L. A., & Baecher, L. (2014). Video-Based Self-Observation as a Component of Developmental Teacher Evaluation. *Global Education Review*, 1(3), 63-77.
- Muijs, D. (2006). Measuring teacher effectiveness: Some methodological reflections. *Educational research and evaluation*, 12(1), 53-74.
- Murphy, R. (2013). Testing Teachers: What works best for teacher evaluation and appraisal.
- Read, W. J., Rama, D. V., & Raghunandan, K. (2001). The relationship between student evaluations of teaching and faculty evaluations. *Journal of Education for Business*, 76(4), 189-192.

- Shevlin, M., Banyard, P., Davies, M., & Griffiths, M. (2000). The validity of student evaluation of teaching in higher education: love me, love my lectures?. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 25(4), 397-405.
- Soar, R. S., Medley, D. M., & Coker, H. (1983). Teacher evaluation: A critique of currently used methods. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 65(4), 239-246.
- Young, S., & Shaw, D. G. (1999). Profiles of effective college and university teachers. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 70(6), 670-686.

Chapter 3: Linguistics

- Abdu-Raheem, B. O. (2016). Effects of instructional materials on secondary schools students' academic achievement in Social studies in Ekiti state, Nigeria. *World Journal of Education*, 6(1, 32-39).
- Allen, R. R., & Brown, K. L. *Developing communication competence in children*. Skokie, Ill.: National Textbook, 1976
- Bangbade JO 2004. Effects of subject matter knowledge in the teaching and learning of Biology and Physic. *Teaching and Teacher Education*: 109-102.
- Campbell, R. J., Kyriakides, L., Muijs, R. D., & Robinson, W. (2003). Differential teacher effectiveness- Towards a model for research and teacher appraisal. *Oxford Review of Education*, 29(3), 347-362.
- Canale, M., Swain, M., 1981. A theoretical framework for communicative competence. In: Palmer, A.S., Groot, P.J.M., Tropper, G.A. (Eds.), *The Construct Validation of Tests of Communicative Competence*. TESOL Publications, Washington DC, pp. 31±35
- Dubin, R. *Theory building*. New York: Free Press, 1969.
- Ezeukwu, G. E. (2000). *Essentials of public speaking*. Enugu: Feloks Communications
- Feingold, P. C. *Toward a paradigm of effective communication: An empirical study of perceived communicative effectiveness*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, 1976.
- Feldman, K. A. (1988). Effective college teaching from the students' and faculty's view: Matched or mismatched priorities? *Research in Higher Education*, 28 (4), 291-344.
- Hamm, P.H. (2006). *Teaching and Persuasive Communication: Class Presentation Skills: a handbook for faculty, teaching assistants and teaching fellows*. Providence, USA: The Harriet W. Sheridan Center for Teaching and Learning, Brown University

- Hubley, J. (1993). *Communicating Health*. London: Macmillan.
- Khan, A., Khan, S., Zia-Ul-Islam, S., & Khan, M. (2017). Communication Skills of a Teacher and Its Role in the Development of the Students' Academic Success. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 8(1), 18-21.
- Norton, R. W. Foundations of a communicator style construct. *Human Communication Research*, 1978, 4, 99-1
- Okoli, A. C. (2017). Relating Communication Competence to Teaching Effectiveness: Implication for Teacher Education. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 8(3), 150-154.
- Polyani, M. *Personal knowledge*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958.
- Prozesky, D. R. (2014). *Role of communication in teaching*. Teaching Eye Health. South Africa: University of Pretoria.
- Rubin, R., & Feezel, J. (1986). Elements of teacher communication competence. *Communication Education*, 35, 256-268.
- Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (2012). *Professional standards for Nigerian Teachers*. Abuja: TRCN
- Weinstein, F. A. *The development of interpersonal competence*. In D. A. Goslin (Ed.), *Handbook of socialization theory and research*. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969.
- Wiemann, J. M., & Backlund, P. (1980). Current Theory and Research in Communicative Competence. *Review of educational research*, 50(1), 185-199. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543050001185>
- Zlatić, L., Bjekić, D., Marinković, S., & Bojović, M. (2014). development of teacher communication competence. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, 606-610.

Chapter 4: Gender and Postcolonial Studies

- Abbott, A. A. (1981). Durkheim's theory of education: A case for mainstreaming. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 58(4), 235–241. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01619568109538341>
- Albers, P., Vasquez, V., & Harste, J. C. (2011). Making visual analysis critical. In *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts* (pp. 207-213). Routledge.
- Barge, J. K., & Shockley-Zalabak, P. (2008). Engaged Scholarship and the Creation of Useful Organizational Knowledge. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 36(3), 251–265. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00909880802172277>

- Bartlett, A. (1998). A Passionate Subject: Representations of desire in feminist pedagogy. *Gender and Education*, 10(1), 85–92. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09540259821113>
- Buikema, R., Plate, L., van der Tuin, I., & Thiele, K. (Eds.). (2009). *Doing gender in media, art and culture*. Routledge.
- Butler, J. (2001). Giving an Account of Oneself. *diacritics*, 31(4), 22–40. <https://doi.org/10.1353/dia.2004.0002>
- Chow, E. N. L., Fleck, C., Fan, G. H., Joseph, J., & Lyter, D. M. (2003). Exploring Critical Feminist Pedagogy: Infusing Dialogue, Participation, and Experience in Teaching and Learning. *Teaching Sociology*, 31(3), 259. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3211324>
- Falk-Rafael, A. R., Chinn, P. L., Anderson, M. A., Laschinger, H., & Rubotzky, A. M. (2004). The Effectiveness of Feminist Pedagogy in Empowering a Community of Learners. *Journal of Nursing Education*, 43(3), 107–115. <https://doi.org/10.3928/01484834-20040301-08>
- Foucault, M. (1970). The archaeology of knowledge. *Social Science Information*, 9(1), 175–185. <https://doi.org/10.1177/053901847000900108>
- Grosfoguel, R. (2013). The structure of knowledge in westernised universities: Epistemic racism/sexism and the four genocides/epistemicides. *Human Architecture: Journal of the sociology of self-knowledge*, 1(1), 73-90.
- Haraway, D. (1988). Situated Knowledges: The Science Question in Feminism and the Privilege of Partial Perspective. *Feminist Studies*, 14(3), 575. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3178066>
- Hass, M. (2000). The Style of the Speaking Subject: Irigaray’s Empirical Studies of Language Production. *Hypatia*, 15(1), 64–89. <https://doi.org/10.1353/hyp.2000.0005>
- Hooks, B. (2021). *bell hooks - Teaching to Transgress + Teaching Critical Thinking + Teaching Community | bell hooks Teaching Trilogy 3-in-1 Combo (Set of 3 Books)*. Taylor and Francis Books.
- Irigaray, L., & Wenzel, H. V. (1981). And the One Doesn’t Stir without the Other. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 7(1), 60–67. <https://doi.org/10.1086/493859>
- Israel, J., I. (2002). *Radical Enlightenment: Philosophy and the Making of Modernity 1650–1750* (1st ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Johnson, M. M., & Gilligan, C. (1983). In a Different Voice: Psychological Theory and Women’s Development. *Contemporary Sociology*, 12(4), 448. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2067520>

- Lepecki, A. (2010). The Body as Archive: Will to Re-Enact and the Afterlives of Dances. *Dance Research Journal*, 42(2), 28–48. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0149767700001029>
- Lieberman, C. (1977). Education and Social Change. *American Secondary Education*, 7(3), 42-48. Retrieved June 23, 2021, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41063162>
- Lorde, A. (2021). *Uses of the Erotic: The Erotic As Power by Audre Lorde* (1981–08-01). Crossing Pr; No Edition Stated edition (1981–08-01).
- McWilliam, E. (1996). Touchy Subjects: a risky inquiry into pedagogical pleasure. *British Educational Research Journal*, 22(3), 305–317. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0141192960220304>
- Parnell, D. (1985). *The neglected majority*. Community College Press, American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, One Dupont Circle, NW, Suite 410, Washington, DC 20036
- Perez, C. C. (2020). *Invisible Women*. Vintage.
- Puar, J. K. (2006). Mapping US Homonormativities. *Gender, Place & Culture*, 13(1), 67–88. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09663690500531014>
- Rey, T., & Richman, K. (2010). The Somatics of Syncretism: Tying Body and Soul in Haitian Religion. *Studies in Religion/Sciences Religieuses*, 39(3), 379–403. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0008429810373321>
- Rich, A. (1995). *On Lies, Secrets, and Silence: Selected Prose 1966–1978* (Revised ed.). W. W. Norton & Company.
- Spencer, T. E. (1974). Education and the social order. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 51(2), 132–139. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01619567409537955>
- Shrewsbury, C. M. (1987). What is feminist pedagogy? *Women's Studies Quarterly*, 15(3/4), 6-14.
- Tronto, J. (1984). *Political Theory*, 12(2), 291-294. Retrieved June 23, 2021, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/191369>
- Webb, L. M., Allen, M. W., & Walker, K. L. (2002) Feminist pedagogy: identifying basic principles. *Academic Exchange*, 6(1),67-72

Chapter 5: Public Administration and Organisation Science

- Carr, D. (2011). Values, virtues and professional development in education and teaching. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 50(3), 171–176. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2011.07.004>
- Daniels, J. (2016). Professional learning in higher education: making good practice relevant. *International Journal for Academic Development*, 22(2), 170–181. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1360144x.2016.1261352>
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2009). Recognizing and Enhancing Teacher Effectiveness. *The International Journal of Educational and Psychological Assessment*, 3, 1–24. <http://www.wrksolutions.com/documents/employer/education/research/recognizing%20and%20enhancing%20teacher%20effectiveness.pdf>
- Elken, M., & Vukasovic, M. (2019). The Looseness of Loose Coupling: The Use and Misuse of “Loose Coupling” in Higher Education Research. *Theory and Method in Higher Education Research*, 5, 53–71. <https://doi.org/10.1108/s2056-375220190000005005>
- Fernández, J. T. (2013). Professionalisation of Teaching in Universities: Implications from a Training Perspective. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, 10(1), 345–358. <https://doi.org/10.7238/rusc.v10i1.1471>
- Fullan, M. (2015). *The New Meaning of Educational Change* (5th ed.). Routledge.
- Harland, T., & Pickering, N. (2011). *Values in Higher Education Teaching* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203842003>
- Hattie, J., & Marsh, H. W. (1996). The Relationship Between Research and Teaching: A Meta-Analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 66(4), 507–542. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543066004507>
- Hoyle, E. (1982). The professionalization of teachers: A paradox. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 30(2), 161–171. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00071005.1982.9973622>
- Jencks, C., & Riesman, D. (1968). *The Academic Revolution* (1st ed.). Garden City: Doubleday.
- Joos, P., & Meijdam, L. (2019). *Innovatie in het universitair onderwijs: het moet, het kan!* Tilburg University. https://www.tilburguniversity.edu/sites/default/files/download/UVT0144_ESSAY_NR2_2018_NL_V3%20AT_1.pdf
- Kallenberg, T. (2016). *Organiseren en innoveren in het hoger onderwijs* (1st ed.). Boom Lemma.

- Kondakci, Y., & Van den Broeck, H. (2009). Institutional imperatives versus emergent dynamics: a case study on continuous change in higher education. *Higher Education*, 58(4), 439–464. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-009-9204-2>
- Neumann, R. (1992). Perceptions of the teaching-research nexus: a framework for analysis. *Higher Education*, 23(2), 159–171. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf00143643>
- Noordegraaf, M. (2015). Hybrid professionalism and beyond: (New) Forms of public professionalism in changing organizational and societal contexts. *Journal of Professions and Organization*, 2, 187–206. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jpo/jov002>
- Noordegraaf, M., & Siderius, K. (2016). Perspectieven op publieke professionaliteit. *M & O*, 70(2), 4–19. https://dspace.library.uu.nl/bitstream/handle/1874/342238/MO02_2016_pp_04_19.pdf?sequence=1
- Ödalen, J., Brommesson, D., Erlingsson, G., Schaffer, J. K., & Fogelgren, M. (2018). Teaching university teachers to become better teachers: the effects of pedagogical training courses at six Swedish universities. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 38(2), 339–353. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2018.1512955>
- Osborne, S. P. (2006). The New Public Governance? *Public Management Review*, 8(3), 377–387. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14719030600853022>
- Pleschová, G., Simon, E., Quinlan, K. M., Murphy, J., Roxa, T., & Szabó, M. (2012). *The Professionalisation of Academics as Teachers in Higher Education*. European Science Foundation. http://archives.esf.org/fileadmin/Public_documents/Publications/professionalisation_academics.pdf
- Postareff, L., Lindblom-Ylänne, S., & Nevgi, A. (2007). The effect of pedagogical training on teaching in higher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(5), 557–571. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.11.013>
- Prosser, M., Rickinson, M., Bence, V., Hanbury, A., & Kulej, M. (2006, May). *Formative evaluation of accredited programmes*. The Higher Education Academy. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Mike_Prosser/publication/239585933_Formative_evaluation_of_accredited_programmes/links/00b4953ba80b885960000000/Formative-evaluation-of-accredited-programmes.pdf

- Shaw, R. (2017). Professionalising teaching in HE: the impact of an institutional fellowship scheme in the UK. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 37(1), 145–157. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2017.1336750>
- Simsek, H., & Louis, K. S. (1994). Organizational Change as Paradigm Shift: Analysis of the Change Process in a Large, Public University. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 65(6), 670–695. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2943824>
- Utrecht University. (n.d.). Missie en visie. Retrieved 27 May 2021, from <https://www.uu.nl/organisatie/profiel/missie-en-strategie>
- Weick, K. E. (1976). Educational Organizations as Loosely Coupled Systems. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 21(1), 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2391875>
- Wilensky, H. L. (1964). The Professionalization of Everyone? *American Journal of Sociology*, 70(2), 137–158. <https://doi.org/10.1086/223790>
- Zijlstra, A., Meerman, M., & van Middelkoop, D. (2019). De lerende professional: over leren professionaliseren en kennisontwikkeling. *Mens&Markt*, 161-172. https://pure.hva.nl/ws/files/5923552/Meerman_161_172_De_lerende_professional_aange_past.pdf

Chapter 6: Integration

- Alkema, J.G. & Hamer, T. (2016) De Vernietiging van de Vernietiging: een interdisciplinair onderzoek naar de verandering van eigendom in een circulaire economie. [scriptie] Utrecht: Universiteit Utrecht.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2009). Recognizing and Enhancing Teacher Effectiveness. *The International Journal of Educational and Psychological Assessment*, 3, 1–24. <http://www.wrksolutions.com/documents/employer/education/research/recognizing%20and%20enhancing%20teacher%20effectiveness.pdf>
- Johns, R. (2010). Likert items and scales. *Survey question bank: Methods fact sheet*, 1(1), 11-28.
- Repko, A. F., & Szostak, R. (2017). *Interdisciplinary Research* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.

Chapter 7: Conclusion and Discussion

- Repko, A. F., & Szostak, R. (2017). *Interdisciplinary Research* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.

- Tress, B., Tress, G., Fry, G., & Opdam, P. (2006). *From Landscape Research to Landscape Planning: Aspects of integration, education, and application*. Springer Medizin Verlag.
- Szostak, R. (2009). *The Causes of Economic Growth*. Springer Publishing.

Appendices

Appendix A

Cursusevaluatie template vragenlijst
Versie 01-03-2015

Algemeen

Ik ben tevreden over de kwaliteit van de cursus

Geheel oneens Geheel eens

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

Kwaliteit docent

Ik ben tevreden over de didactische kwaliteiten van de docent(en)

Geheel oneens Geheel eens

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

Ik vind de docent(en) deskundig met betrekking tot het thema van de cursus

Geheel oneens Geheel eens

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

Licht je antwoord op de bovenstaande vragen toe

Zwaarte

In relatie tot het niveau van de cursus (1,2,3 of M) vond ik de cursusstof

Te makkelijk Te moeilijk

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

Gegeven de standaardlast van de cursus (1 ECTS staat gelijk aan 2 2/3 uur per week) is de hoeveelheid werk die verzet moet worden

Te weinig Te veel

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

Toetskwaliteit

De manier van toetsen past bij de inhoud van de cursus

Geheel oneens Geheel eens

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

De wijze waarop getoetst en beoordeeld werd, is goed

Geheel oneens Geheel eens

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

Voorkennis

Ik had genoeg voorkennis om de cursus te kunnen volgen

Geheel oneens Geheel eens

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

Mijn academische vaardigheden (b.v. schrijven, presenteren) waren voldoende om de cursus te kunnen volgen

Geheel oneens Geheel eens

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

Werkvormen

Voor deze cursus vind ik de gekozen werkvormen (seminar, computerpractica, werkcollege, hoorcollege, etc.) zinvol

Geheel oneens Geheel eens

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

Ik heb de opdrachten ervaren als zinvol

Geheel oneens Geheel eens

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

Kwaliteit locatie

Ik ben tevreden over de ruimte(s) waarin de colleges plaatsvonden

Geheel oneens Geheel eens

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

De apparatuur in de collegezalen functioneerde goed

Geheel oneens Geheel eens

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

Organisatie

De docenten hebben de cursus goed georganiseerd

Geheel oneens Geheel eens

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

De samenhang tussen de verschillende onderdelen/opdrachten/(werk)colleges binnen de cursus is goed

Geheel oneens Geheel eens

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

Open vragen

Wat is er goed aan deze cursus?

Wat kan er beter aan deze cursus?

Overige op- of aanmerkingen

Algemeen

Geef de cursus een rapportcijfer tussen 1 (laagst) en 5 (hoogst)

1 5

Geen antwoord of N.V.T.

Appendix B

| Nine Components of Teacher Effectiveness | Statement |
|--|--|
| Student-teacher dynamic | <p>With respect to my progress in this course, the teacher was actively concerned and helpful***</p> <p>The teacher treated students with respect*</p> <p>The teacher actively made room for the opinions of students concerning subject matter*</p> <p>The teacher actively made room for the opinions of students concerning teaching style*</p> <p>The teacher had the ability to motivate me to do my best*</p> <p>By raising challenging questions or problems for discussion, the teacher stimulated students to think for themselves***</p> |
| Presentation and organisation | <p>The presentation of the material is well organized****</p> <p>The teacher uses instructional equipment/materials effectively**</p> <p>In conveying the concepts of this course in a clear, meaningful, and appropriate way, the instructor's ability was very evident***</p> |
| Professionalism | <p>The teacher uses their experience and/or expertise to connect with students in the classroom</p> <p>The teacher serves the values quality, efficiency, meaningfulness, effectivity</p> <p>The teacher respects the students</p> |

| | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| Using diversity as an asset | <p>The teacher creates the space for sharing my personal experiences during class</p> <p>The teacher is aware of the diverse student population present in the classroom</p> |
| Assessment and evaluation | <p>The teacher has made room for feedback on teaching styles from the students</p> <p>The teacher has taken the time to reflect on the course materials</p> |
| Subject-matter experience | <p>The teacher knows a lot of information about lessons taught**</p> <p>The teacher shares a lot of interesting ideas related to lessons taught**</p> <p>The teacher knows how to answer questions raised about lessons taught**</p> |
| Communicative competence | <p>The teacher speaks clearly (loud enough; not too fast; faces the class; avoids mannerisms like ‘oum’)</p> <p>The teacher’s non-verbal communication is suitable (appropriate gestures and expressions; moves around; eye contact with the whole class)</p> <p>The teacher speaks understandably (uses words that the students should be able to understand)</p> <p>The teachers speed of presentation is right (the students must be able to absorb the material that is presented)</p> <p>The teacher makes sure there is two-way communication (the teacher checks regularly if the students have understood)</p> <p>There is evidence of a good relationship between teacher and students (teacher and students respect each other; teacher and student listen to each other)</p> <p>The teacher emphasizes important knowledge (the main messages are clear and emphasized; unnecessary detail is left out)</p> |

| | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| | <p>The teacher presents information in a logical sequence (bits of information follow logically after each other; bits of information are easy to understand and remember)</p> <p>The teacher uses short sentences (not more than twenty words; one idea per sentence)</p> <p>The teacher uses active verbs as much as possible (feed children regularly, not children should be regularly fed)</p> <p>The readers/listeners are likely to understand the teachers' words (no jargon; using the simplest word that will say what you want to say)</p> |
| Challenging and motivating students | <p>The teacher sets clear and realistic goals for students and for themselves</p> <p>The teacher uses their skills to stimulate the students' intellectual curiosity</p> <p>The teacher motivates students and gets them interested in the subject</p> |
| Leadership skills development | <p>The teacher empowered students to voice their needs and account for the needs of others</p> <p>The teacher stimulated responsibility for students' own education and that of others through leadership skills development</p> |

*Noot. * = Patrick & Smart, 1998. ** = Calaguas, 2012. *** = Jackson et al., 1999. **** = Feldman, 1976.*