Chapter 7
Supporting part-time teachers and contract faculty

Fran Beaton and Ellen Sims

Abstract

Unprecedented increase in access to higher education over the past decade, particularly in the UK and Canada has required Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) to employ more instructors, increasingly on contractually limited arrangements. What began as a short-term solution has now become the norm in many countries. In some disciplines, for example professional and practice-based subjects, there is a history of employing staff/faculty on contractual basis, bringing valuable professional and industrial experience. Contextual pressures influence universities: changing expectations of their nature and purpose, the relationship between students and universities, changes in curriculum and teaching. At the same time, potential students and future employers scrutinise student satisfaction with the quality of their education. Public support for permanent/tenured positions has declined (Kezar, Maxey and Eaton 2014) and there is a demand for a more flexible workforce.

These conceptual and practical considerations are crucial to effective support for part-time and contractual staff. This chapter includes a series of case studies and examples from the literature, intended to illuminate good practice in the support and development of these instructors.

Acknowledgements

Introduction

This chapter begins with some definitions and attempts to identify, then explore, why these are significant in the broader educational context. The question of different understandings of what we mean by part-time staff, the work they are expected to undertake and their relationships with the institutions in which they work is central. We consider, too, national and institutional practices, chiefly in the UK and Canada, and:

- How these issues manifest in different national and policy contexts;
- The possible roles of the academic /educational developer in influencing institutional decisions, policy and practice;
- The implications for the recruitment, retention and support for part-time staff.

These are illustrated by several case studies drawn from different disciplinary fields and national contexts, illustrating key aspects of effective (or not!) support for part-time staff and identifying key messages for their support and development. We suggest, however, that while institutional support for these staff is essential, an effective institution will have structures and strategies to encourage all staff to develop their full potential. Thus, the robustness of support

and enabling structures for part-time staff could be considered a litmus test for developmental support more generally.

Who are we talking about, and what do they do?

Definitions and terminology referring to this group can vary according both to country and institution. A selection of terms used in the literature and in practice include:

- Sessional
- Casual/non-career teacher
- Graduate assistant
- Graduate teaching assistant
- Contract or contract-limited faculty
- Tutor
- Visiting/associate lecturer
- Adjunct/contingent faculty
- Non-standard academics (a particularly broad and vague category)

For the purposes of this chapter we will use the term 'part-timers' unless we are referring to a specific sub-group.

Part-time teachers are a diverse group. Beaton and Gilbert (2013:5) note that:

> *...it is becoming increasingly obvious that there are many different types of people who might be classified as having a non-standard academic post [so it is] important to consider the ways in which we might identify this elusive group.*

Gappa and Leslie (1993) identify that some may be part-time from choice, for instance combining professional practice with teaching. These practitioner-teachers are employed elsewhere but come in to share special expertise, to 'connect students to the cutting edge ideas and practices of the professions' (Chan 2010:39). They model practice and embody professional knowledge (Chan 2010; Trumble 2010), maintaining expertise and status in both spheres. Others are part-time, aspiring academics hoping for a fulltime or established roles, cobbling together enough work to survive (e.g. Bettinger 2010; Bettinger & Long 2004 ; Kezar et al 2014; Jones, Gopaul, Weinrib, Metcalfe, Fisher, Gingras and Rubenson 2014).

Part-timers within and between institutions have differing roles and responsibilities and different kinds of contracts. In Canada (Jones et al 2014) and the US (Kezar et al 2014), alternative arrangements vary widely by institution and discipline, and can be idiosyncratic. Typically they focus on teaching (although this may vary by discipline) , demonstrating, leading seminars, providing occasional specialist input, supporting students, marking student work . As academic employment becomes more global, there are implications for the changing nature of graduate education, for example the differences in teaching portfolio/dossier between the US and the UK. Between and often within institutions and locales there may be a variance in terminal qualifications required for teaching in HE. Hudd et al (2009) suggest they have an important role to play in creating a culture of integrity on campus, as so much of the assessment of student learning falls to this group. What a part-timer does may also depend on their career stage: a postgraduate combining teaching with

doctoral study has different responsibilities from an academic teaching part-time as a prelude to retirement, or a professional practice educator bringing workplace expertise. We note, too, the differences in the amount and variety of teaching undertaken. The UK postgraduate, for example, tends to have a more limited portfolio than their North American counterparts, with possible implications for their eventual employability as an academic in a global marketplace. That same global marketplace (for both staff and students) means that teachers and students from culturally and ethnically diverse backgrounds bring different expectations to their work concerning the role of the teacher and the engagement and motivation of their students. These in turn can bring both opportunities and challenges, for which part-timers must be prepared.

The broader context

The role of the university

The contribution of part-time staff needs to be set in the context of a number of changes which have influenced universities. These include changing expectations of the nature and purpose of universities, changing curricula and changes in the way in which these curricula are designed and taught. Some reflect broader trends and affect numerous aspects and players: students, institutional perceptions of what the general public and politicians believe universities are for; how the quality of teaching and research is decided and the implications for institutional prestige. Other UK examples of change include the rise of nursing as a graduate profession, the expansion of the university sector (both as a consequence of the 1992 Further and Higher Education Act and in the development of specialist HEIs such as conservatoires, Schools of Art, and private providers), the relationship of teaching and research and the balance between teaching, research, administration, and enterprise. In some professional disciplines, such as Social Work, the curriculum is influenced by the requirements of a professional body, so staff may be involved in designing curricula which integrate aspects such as arranging and monitoring work placements. It may be important to note that in some countries such as Canada, the HE system is highly unionized, including support staff and contract faculty. Collective bargaining has been the primary mechanism for determining academic work. (Jones et al 2014).

Policy developments

These are relevant in that Higher Education policy translates into legislation and thence into university structures and practices. There is a highly decentralized approach to HE policy in Canada, with responsibility for HE assigned to the provinces, supported by grants from federal government during times of expansion, and which is now shrinking. Changes in UK student funding have contributed to a changing relationship between students and universities, generating a discourse of students as consumers, or co-constructors of knowledge. UK universities are now required to publish Key Information Sets (HEFCE, n.d.), giving information to prospective students about aspects which are likely to influence their choice of course and of institution. The KIS includes student satisfaction ratings under five headings, covering academic and pastoral experiences and gathered nationally through an online National Student Survey (NSS) of final year undergraduates

The results are published nationally and, as Education journalist John Gill points out:

Institutions have a delicate line to tread in being open about their organisations versus the pressures of competition. (Times Higher Education, 4th April 2013)

In Canada and the US, the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) is widely subscribed to by colleges and Universities and reports student responses to questions about their experience and interactions with peers, academics and the academic environment (see http://nsse.iub.edu/). For universities, the stakes are high: an excellent or poor NSS or NSSE score is perceived to have an effect on student recruitment with consequent implications for institutional fee income and standing. The question of teaching quality and the proportion of time spent on teaching and learning activities is also revisited in the KIS information. Because the feedback students give is holistic (there is no scope to name individual teachers) this pressures universities to ensure that the quality of teaching is high across the board. This is not a point we contest, but it underlines the availability and uptake of quality professional development. We will amplify this key point later in this chapter.

The impact of contract faculty on quality

Some studies (e.g. Bettinger & Long 2004) link part-timers to a decline in teaching quality. This may be due to a number of reasons, including their being made to feel like second-class citizens (Gappa and Leslie 1993). Kezar (2012) suggests that this may contribute to a 'caste' based faculty system and notes that teachers who are divided into different cultures do not usually interact. This impacts on students and the curriculum, as well as creating implications for professional development (see chapter 4) and sharing of good practice. Kezar et al (2014) document the negative impact on both institutional and student outcomes in the areas of retention, achievement, transfer and graduation rates. They list several conditions potentially affecting student learning: last minute hiring, affecting preparation time; lack of access to mentoring, orientation and professional development; exclusion from curriculum design and decision making; and lack of access to space and resources.

In contrast, Landrum (2009:25) found no significant differences in course evaluations and grade distributions between tenured faculty and part-timers, also noting that *'it appears they do the same with less'*. Kezar et al (2014) conclude that it is not the tenure track status alone that affects quality, but the appropriate policies and practice in place to support faculty. Landrum (2009) also found that where there is a difference, it is small and differs by discipline – where 'vocational' knowledge is more valued, adjuncts may provide better teaching outcomes. Jones et al (2014:347) note that contingent faculty *'... make important contributions... and complement the work of faculty with more traditional workloads'*. Gunderman (2006:134) suggests that as a result of educational compartmentalization, specialists know more about less and argues *'[O]ne of our greatest opportunities as organizations is to increase the permeability of our internal boundaries.'* It is worth noting that a large number of the authors cited in this chapter recommend an increase in opportunities for interactions between part-timers and full time, permanent academic staff, to improve the student and staff experiences, as well as to benefit the institution (see Chapter 4). Meixner, Kruck and Madden (2010) reviewed the literature on the relationship of instructor type and student success, some of which is quoted elsewhere in this chapter, and found

contradictions and the need for further study. However, it is often noted in the literature that institutional support for faculty can improve student success and experience.

Staff development needs and support

Recognition of the importance of teaching quality has been evidenced by the setting up of centres of teaching excellence, such as University Learning and Teaching Enhancement units. Lyons (2007) suggests that there is some argument that staff development is inconsequential as adjuncts have weak ties to the institution. However, he counters that they do so much of the teaching it should be taken seriously. Burk (2000, in Meixner et al 2010:143) suggests that part-time faculty are at risk through 'institutional neglect', which can include exclusion from development opportunities. Kezar et al (2014:7) find that '…*prior studies and reports have been used to justify a positive working environment for tenured and tenure-track faculty*' yet these rationales are not being applied to the *'new majority'* (Gappa 2008). Blackwell and Blakemore (2003:21) note, however, that *'for staff development, there is a major task in ensuring that part-time and casual staff receive…appropriate support'*. Barriers to participation noted are: inconsistent and ineffective outreach (Meixner et al 2010); poor communication and scheduling conflicts (Meixner et al 2010; Anderson 2007) and lack of payment for attendance (Anderson 2007).

Anderson (2007) suggests that professional formation is both formal and informal, through academic development and less formal ad hoc encounters, and reflective practice. These ad hoc opportunities are not always available or practicable for part-time employees. Staff need help to identify their needs, but they are not usually part of the feedback process, except from students, and this is not always useful for this purpose.

Based on responses from faculty, Meixner et al (2010) identified the need for developing skills to *'cultivate additional knowledge requisite for advancing university teaching'*, such as learning and teaching with technology; peer-review and exchange with other part-time faculty; course planning strategies and motivating students. Additional areas for development identified in the literature include: marking and assessment, teaching international students and avoiding plagiarism (Anderson 2007); using discipline-based pedagogies such as dialogic approaches and problem based learning (Smith and Smith 2012) and the need for training in interdisciplinary team teaching of medical students and curriculum development (Reuben, Fink, Vivell, Hirsch and Beck 1992).

The role of the academic developer

Schroeder (2010) suggests Educational Developers have an emerging role in organisational change at individual, departmental and institutional levels, through support and review and influence of institutional policy (see also chapters 13 and 17). Debowski (2014) suggests this requires a more open, partnership model of working to change academic practice, and 'being' present' to be able to recognise and accommodate needs. We accept that there are limits to what educational developers can achieve within an institution, although their cross-institutional role gives them a uniquely broad perspective. At the policy influencing level, educational developers can help identify issues to bring to senior management and make the case to be present at decision-making. Their responsibilities for various forms of provision

(whether credit-bearing or not) gives them an overview of the kinds of available and appropriate support and the educational developer can play a strategic role in identifying gaps in support and making the case for these to be remedied (see Chapter 4). Developers are likely to have built relationships with individuals and programme teams on curriculum development or other aspects of academic practice, which can create a climate for critical friend questions about 'local' arrangements, such as who has responsibility for supporting and developing part-time teachers. There may be limits to the educational developer's influence but this does not mean it is not worth a try. Case study 2 is an example of one such cross-institutional initiative designed to support postgraduates with teaching responsibilities – and a coda identifying the conditions which make such initiatives more likely to be effective.

The changing nature of academic work

So far this chapter has focused on who and what we teach; we turn now to the question of how we are expected to teach it. As noted, the focus of most part-time employment is teaching. There is an expectation of use of innovative approaches that are learner-centred and inclusive, whereas the nature of contract work does not often allow opportunities for support to achieve this. Globally, teaching and learning have been transformed by the explosion of ICT (information and communication technology) (see Chapter 8). At its simplest, this can mean teachers needing to know how to navigate an institutional Virtual Learning Environment. More complex uses of ICT may involve blended or distance learning. Teachers and academics are likely to be employed in several institutions in the course of their careers, so the widespread use of ICT means that capability will be expected. Those who do not have it may be put at a career disadvantage. Developing such capability is part of an individual's personal professional development (as discussed in Chapter 4). Since ICT has become integral to the learning experience of students, there are clear implications for the quality of that experience. Gunderman (2006:131) suggests that becoming good '*knowledge sharers*' is essential to education, and acknowledges the value of technology for teaching and learning. However, he posits that information sharing is a collaborative process and '*no technology can replace a gifted teacher who thoroughly understands both the subject and the audience*'.

There is, too, the question of research and scholarship in relation to the part-time teacher. The model of the full time professoriate persists, but has been shown to be diminishing in many locales and becoming fragmented with the increasing use of contract teachers (Jones et al 2014). Many of their fulltime colleagues are expected to undertake and publish original research contributing to universities' research standing and funding, through (in the UK) the nationally applied Research Excellence Framework. The Canadian HE system is one where the professoriate are expected to *'maintain a balance of both research and teaching'* (Jones et al 2014:336), with both teaching and research being the mission of the university (ibid p339). However, not undertaking such research may inadvertently diminish individuals' chances of gaining more permanent positions, so it is important to develop a culture where part-timers have opportunities to develop a scholarly approach to their work. They should be expected to become familiar with different approaches to teaching e.g. uses of technology, student-centred learning and academic literacies for their immediate role, but also have opportunities to consider other aspects (such as research) which will affect their future careers. As HE

recruitment and hiring becomes increasingly global, through casting a wider net as well as graduating a diverse population from which to draw future academics, part-timers need to have the opportunities to get to grips with these aspects.

In summary, institutions need to ensure that professional development addresses multiple facets of the academic role, enables all staff to develop their capability in their current role and some degree of future-proofing. In Australia, the RED report (Percy et al, 2008) identified the numerous challenges of an increasingly casualised workforce. The report calls for a systematic approach to the recruitment, induction and professional development of increasing numbers of part-time staff, estimated at that time as undertaking between 20% and 50% of teaching, and linking this both to quality of teaching and broader integration into the academic community. In Canada, the HEQCO study (Field et al, 2014) similarly identifies employment trends which, although varying across institutions in Ontario, indicates an increase in the employment of part-time instructors in most HEIs to meet increasing enrolments due to increased access. The study calls for further research into the potential implications for quality and student success of these trends. We suggest that the integration and development of **all** staff needs to be approached holistically, attended to by all areas of an institution which a member of staff, whether fulltime or part-time, permanent/tenured or on time- limited contract, encounters. The practicalities of involving part-timers need attention too: involvement in discussion and the extent of agency which a part-timer feels they have, and more basic but important aspects such as payment for attending meetings and eligibility for recognition. Attending to these aspects increases the benefits to part-time and contract teachers (the group concerned in our first case study), their fulltime colleagues, their students and the educational processes and outcomes of the institution.

Supporting Graduate Teaching Assistants (GTAs): a Canterbury Tale
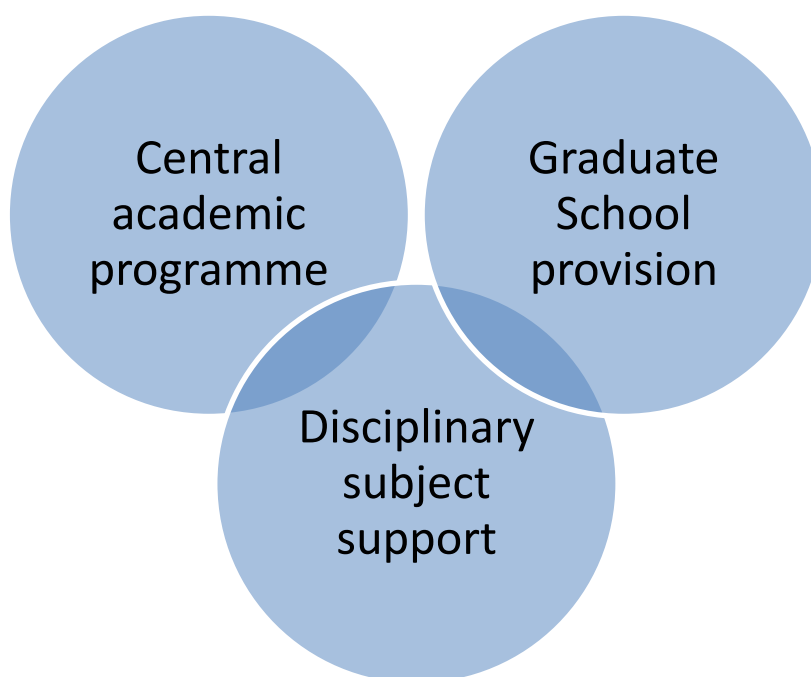
Figure 7.1 GTA Support at the University of Kent

These GTAs are postgraduate students at the University of Kent, UK, registered for PhDs. They had been awarded University postgraduate scholarships to support their studies, of which one condition was that they should undertake some teaching. For those in the Humanities and Social Sciences this typically involved leading seminars and/or workshops, with some degree of agency about how they set about the actual teaching. In the Sciences, the role was more commonly working as a lab demonstrator under the direction of a permanent member of staff, or responding to individual students' questions as and when required in problems classes or practicals. Across all Faculties there were variations in GTA involvement in other aspects, such as assessing student work.

There were two triggers for developing a range of support for these GTAs. The first was that they had been told in their letter of appointment that central support for teaching development would be available, but the nature of the support was not made clear. Thus many of these students were applying for places on a centrally run Postgraduate Certificate. This had originally been developed with fulltime probationary staff in mind (and those responsible for the PGCert were initially unaware of the need to expand provision) so the sudden spike in demand for places for part-timers considerably outstripped what the central team was able to offer. As part-time staff were having to wait up to six months to begin the course, this meant that they were often flying blind at the point at which they were embarking on their first taste of teaching. This had obvious implications from the point of view of the students they were about to start teaching and a wider equity issue in terms of the support available for this group of staff. In terms of the broader picture too, all UK universities' postgraduate students complete a nationally administered Postgraduate Research Experience Survey (HEA, n.d.), which includes a question about the extent and usefulness of support offered them to develop their teaching.

Once the situation became clearer, academic developers, in consultation with the Graduate School, set up one-day workshop sessions, repeated several times on different campuses to cover the basics of university teaching and complemented by two further layers of provision. Firstly, sessions were run by each Faculty, led by experienced staff (often university teaching prize winners) to provide a context for more discipline-specific considerations and to take account of the specific requirements for different GTAs. Secondly, individual Schools (departments) set up regular workshop series to consider the detail of teaching in, for example, Politics or Languages, to address the specific context for Sciences demonstrators and those simultaneously engaging in practice and HE teaching in disciplines such as Creative and Performing Arts and led by a named member of the permanent staff who takes responsibility for GTAs. The combination of these sessions acted as initial preparation, enabled the central team to identify demand and make a business case for expanding provision, and set up a progression route to the centrally taught programme as places became available. Overall provision was well received by participants.

These experiences highlighted three interrelated aspects. First and foremost, communication is all. Institutional planning needs to be coherent and anticipatory as far as possible. Secondly, there needs to be a balance of discipline- transcendent and discipline – specific provision; as

with any such group, participants from different disciplines have much to learn from each other, but there needs to be a forum where context-specific questions can be aired. Finally, some disciplinary specialists who take on the role of GTA (or indeed other kinds of) support have reported that this kind of work is not necessarily recognised in workload allocation models or reward structures.

Our second case study, contributed by Pat Atkins, Assistant Director (Associate Lecturer Support and Professional Development) at the Open University, UK illustrates a holistic approach to integrating and supporting part-time tutors.

Part-time staff at the heart of the student experience

Introduction: structures and processes

The UK Open University (OU) was created in 1969 as one of the earliest distance learning Universities. Today it has roughly 200,000 students at any one time (Atkins, 2008). It has a full range of traditional academic, professional and vocational curricula.

When the OU was created it designed organisational structures to support its vision of becoming a University for all rather than for an elite. Like other mass-production systems of its time it divided up the work between roles. Full-time academics carry out research, design curricula and work with others to create distance teaching materials and assessment but do not generally interact directly with students. On almost all modules, groups of around 20 students are supported by an associate lecturer (AL), part-timers normally working about 6 hours a week on teaching-only contracts, facilitating student learning on one module through feedback and marking of assignments, delivery of tuition (tutorials, face to face and/or using online synchronous technologies, asynchronous teaching in the VLE) and reactive remedial support when a student encounters problems.

The OU integrates ALs into the university through mechanisms designed to overcome the potential problems of delivering a consistent and coherent experience to large numbers of students spread across a wide geographic area. Key features include AL induction and access to professional development; marking guidelines, developed by fulltime staff; and ensuring ALs make use of the multi-media module materials available to students.

AL professional development – a partnership

The wider University, the Faculty, the module teams and the student support teams all have an interest in how ALs are integrated into the academic communities of the University and how they do their job. ALs themselves are often as expert as any in how to do it well. This case study includes two examples of very different approaches to AL staff development. What they share is central design and distributed delivery. In these two cases, the 'centre' is a central team acting for the whole University but in other cases the 'centre' may be a Faculty, a module team or a student support team.

AL support – career development and staff appraisal (CDSA)

Like most organisations the OU has a scheme to enable each member of staff to have an annual, recorded discussion with their line manager of their current performance and career

aspirations. The University extended this to ALs in 2011. Delivering such a process at a distance, with AL to line manager ratios of approximately 30:1, posed challenges. The University aimed to make the AL processes as similar to other staff CDSA processes as possible. However, in setting up central support systems and sources of advice and guidance for AL line managers, the need for some adaptations emerged. For example, it was agreed that ALs would only have a CDSA discussion every two years and less frequent follow-up discussions of objectives. The implementation project decided to start rolling out the process to 'early adopters' as soon as possible, to develop some case studies on which to base wider staff development for both ALs and their line managers. Resistance to the new processes from both groups of staff was mitigated by hearing the voice of colleagues who had found the CDSA discussions helpful and enjoyable, a significant factor in building acceptability.

Two years on almost all ALs who had passed probation have had a CDSA discussion with their line manager, agreed objectives and written up a small development plan, to go on their records. Lessons from the implementation are still being learnt and some of the innovations being sought for ALs may also feed back into improving CDSA for other staff. For example, it is clear that ALs need a fully-online process; at the moment (2014) there is an agreement that CDSA reports should be filed on paper and no electronic copies retained. The staff responsible for AL CDSA are leading the drive to get that changed.

Teaching online using 'OULive'

The staff who use online synchronous technologies (e.g. Blackboard 'Collaborate') most regularly in the University are ALs. Many of them have been users for a number of years, while others are still novices. As the need for more, and more advanced skills became clear, the University decided to extend its resources to support this for ALs.

There already existed a very well received basic course for ALs, taken over a week and requiring about 6 hours' time, in a cohort of about 20. However this can at some times in the year not be sufficient for demand, with new ALs tending to all start together and existing ALs finding that the module they are on suddenly requires them to up-skill. The model has therefore been extended to include online resources which ALs can engage with more as reference materials in their own time, including opportunities to join a role-play group where the AL spends some time as the moderator delivering some learning to others about to try their hand, to give them real experience before meeting their group of students.

ALs needed more advanced resources through a course for advanced pedagogic use of 'OULive', run over 2 weeks and needing about 8 hours' study and a set of resources designed for independent study with 'play spaces' built in. Both approaches allow ALs to test more advanced pedagogic and technological approaches, gather tips from other 'advanced' users and think about how the tools work within an ALs own discipline.

Whilst the requirements were specified and agreed centrally within the University's AL e-Learning Development group and overseen by staff who are regular experienced OULive proponents, the vast majority of the development and facilitation work was undertaken by ALs.

Key messages

- Structurally coherent, context-dependent and professionally relevant initial and continuing professional development
- Emphasis on peer learning and expertise

Art and Design

Background

Art and design education provides opportunities to learn through authentic activities, and there is a long history of learning and teaching with practitioners. Smith and Smith (2012) suggest that design professionals may deliver knowledge and bridge gaps between the academy and creative practice, therefore the use of 'Non-Career Teachers' (NCTs) may be pedagogic as well economic. Teaching and learning in art and design is iterative and negotiated, with uncertain outcomes. Therefore there may be numerous dilemmas for design education when employing TAs and NCTs, as there are substantive methodological and pedagogical differences between design and other disciplines, and most mainstream professional support does not prepare individuals for these diverse methods.

Britt (2013) provides evidence from a range of studies, including her own (ibid:57) that indicate that creative practice of the teacher practitioner has significant influence on pedagogy, curriculum, increased student engagement and employment skills. They use their connections and knowledge to create industry based opportunities and collaborations. One study (Clews and Mallinder, 2010) identified that teacher-practitioners would welcome staff development opportunities to become more confident and proficient in these areas. A further issue is the role of writing in art and design and Britt (ibid:59) identifies that support for writing and research projects is needed by creative practitioner teachers.

Additional reasons for creative practitioner-teachers to engage with professional development 'include giving teachers the language of pedagogy to participate more fully in research and academic discourse; engaging students as co-researchers and building learning communities; and acknowledging the 'liquidity' of knowledge and developing new forms of social engagement with the world. (Sims 2009:138). The activities of learning and teaching development include evaluation of individual and local practices and scholarly approaches and contributions to the debates in art and design pedagogy in HE.

The principles of students engaging with practitioners noted for art and design have potential advantages for any field of practice.

Medical Education

Background

Medical education has been influenced by policy and funding developments as well as philosophical positions on the nature and purpose of medical education that go far beyond the scope of this chapter. However, the role of the medical educator is considered as an example of practice-based teaching and learning models that, although changed over time (see eg

Gunderman 2006; Steinert et al 2006 and Trumble 2010) has long persisted. Gunderman (2006:6) suggests that '*we need to see in today's medical students and residents not only the future of medical practice, but the future of medical education… Yet faced with the daunting challenge of teaching medical students and residents everything they will need to know to be good physicians, we frequently forget to see them as educators. We treat them as passive recipients of education rather than future educators in their own right.*' In this context, Steinert et al (2006:498) suggest that faculty development has become an increasingly important component of medical education. Whereas it was once assumed that a competent basic or clinical scientist would naturally be an effective teacher, it is now acknowledged that preparation for teaching is essential.

Rao et al (2013) assert that development is essential to provide academic skills not taught in medical training, such as curricula design, but may be too narrowly focused on teaching and requiring response to other needs, such as leadership skills, as faculty roles are more diverse and demanding than in the past. They also argue it is essential for institutional morale and vitality to attract and retain faculty. Al-Eraky and McLean (2012) note that the expectations of medical academics now include clinical, college and university service as well as leadership and scholarly activities. They suggest that needs assessments may be wish lists, but managers need to consider the agendas when planning, given the cost and significance. In their analysis of development programs for medical education, Steinert et al (2006) found need for practice that makes more use of theory linked to practice; stimulates reflective practice; extends programmes over time; and re-examines the question of voluntary participation.

Medical Faculty

Medical faculty are 'part-time' in the sense that they also generally maintain clinical responsibilities. 'Practitioner-Teacher' might more closely describe their roles than 'part-timers', even though they may not be in the university fulltime. They tend to be dedicated individuals who have the personal resources to give a lot in the interests of the continuance of their own profession, supporting Gunderman's (2006:8) view that being an educator is

> built into the very essence of what it means to be a doctor. The word doctor is derived from the Latin… docere, which means to teach. Hence to be a doctor is to be a teacher.

This puts them in a different category from other part-timers.

In one example explored, the academic practice course offered is not mandatory for any of the permanent faculty: it is entirely up to the health practitioner-teachers if they decide to participate. Moreover, there are financial implications, which are sometimes borne by the faculty member, although others are subsidised by work or their Faculty. There is also, as is increasingly available in the UK, US and Canada (Australia too), a generic, university-wide programme for all new lecturers, which is free and compulsory for those new to teaching in HE. There is variation across institutions as to whether these are discipline-focused or more generic. In our example, the medical educators' course tends to be preferred for its discipline-specificity as well as its rigour as it is all at Master's level, giving a thorough theoretical as well as practical grounding in education.

The one area in which this UK example has become compulsory is for the 'clinical teaching fellows'. These are junior doctors (often after their first two years of training in hospitals, though sometimes more than that) who are considered as temporarily out of their career path. Most of them are, for one year, full- or nearly full-time teachers, based in the hospitals that take this institution's students on their clinical placements. A few may be doing varying amounts of clinical work but teaching undergraduates in hospital settings on a very regular basis. Undertaking the course supports them in their teaching work and the institution reports that a number of them continue to the next level – the Diploma – (in their academic practice development) after finishing their teaching year. This supports them in developing careers in which education will be a key factor and some return later to progress to the MSc.

Recommendations from the literature

As the situation of using adjuncts is unlikely to change, the question becomes how to make the most of the situation (Schmidt 2008). Some if this is addressed by academic development that is flexible and relevant and offered in different formats including online, shorter and more sustained formats, self-directed learning, facilitated mentoring and mentoring networks, orientation courses, instructional effectiveness, social activities, recognition and information resources (Lyons 2007). Anderson (2007) suggests that formal development may not be appropriate or doable and suggests instead occasional conferences, opportunities for sharing reflective processes and innovations such as a virtual staff room. Kezar (2012) suggests the benefits of development programs are to students as well as faculty, with improved teaching and less work than having to support sessionals ad hoc. Rao et al (2013) state that many needs can be met by steering faculty members to appropriate mentors (see chapter 6), courses or other activities, making use of existing resources to meet individual needs. However, Kezar (2012) and others (e.g. Burk 2000 in Meixner 2010; Blackwell and Blakemore 2003) suggest there is benefit in offering specific programs as well as those that bring part-time and full-time academics together.

Some issues can be addressed in faculty development but also require policy and structural change to offer better compensation, more security and permanence and changes to structures so longer, more formal and valuable roles can be undertaken (Hudd et al. 2009); to engender feelings of purpose, belonging and feeling valued, and being more strategic about where and whom they teach (Schmidt 2008). Finally, there should be opportunities for '*evaluation responsive to and aligned with the contingent role*' Kezar (2012:7) and feedback to allow opportunities to evidence good practice and identify development needs and aspirations.

Conclusion

The case studies and literature combine to highlight the need for better relationships and outcomes for part-timers, who have been identified in the literature as a concern and priority. Clarity is essential in establishing expectations, responsibilities and support, both at institutional and departmental levels. If, as Blackwell and Blakemore (2003) suggest, strategic staff development is an institutional function, then to be effective it has to engage with institutional concerns and priorities and ensure that provision is holistic, relevant and accessible to all staff, with a sensitivity to the particular practical challenges which part-timers

have. Further, as Lewis (2002) asserts, if one of the primary goals of academic development programmes is to help faculty members become happier and more productive members of the HE community, this is the most effective method for instilling commitment and change. While the discipline may be at the heart of academic endeavour, robust institution-wide structures and practices are the backbone of effective provision for part-time staff and those who support them.

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