Survey of Literature Relating to Tertiary Teacher Development and Qualifications

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Executive Summary

This survey started in 1999 as part of a PhD research project that ended early in 2005, and was renewed and extended in 2009. The original research project investigated how people become tertiary teachers in New Zealand, and its conclusions emphasised the significance of informal workplace learning and therefore a need to support teachers' learning in their communities of practice. The need for more formal courses as well was acknowledged, but was not the main focus of that study. This present project sought both to update the original literature, and to give more attention to research relating to formal courses of study and qualifications for tertiary teachers.

The survey is structured into seven sections:

- Background: New Zealand tertiary education context,
- Tertiary teaching and learning: conceptions, perceptions, perspectives,
- Expertise, excellence, professionalism and education for the professions,
- Workplace learning and communities of practice,
- Educational development for tertiary teachers,
- Programmes and qualifications for tertiary teachers,
- Conclusions.

Discussion of the implications of a wide range of literature identified the following areas for consideration in planning education and development for tertiary teachers, especially in New Zealand:

- Tertiary teaching matters – modern societies need educated citizens, for social as well as economic reasons, and governments want to increase the numbers of people achieving higher qualifications.

- Tertiary teaching is a professional occupation, focused on promoting student learning and supported by a growing research base.

- Professional teachers need professional education, achieved through a well-supported mix of informal and formal learning.

- Research has shown the importance of tertiary teachers' workplace learning in their communities of teaching practice, and a need for systematic ways of supporting both the communities and the shared learning in those communities.

- While some basic skills and knowledge can be passed on during induction and in short workshops, deeper understanding and a wider repertoire of abilities need time,

experience, and engagement with formal study courses to integrate theory and practice.

- Formal courses therefore need to make connections with teachers' own working practice, and vice versa: there is potential for activities in local communities of practice to be explicitly linked to courses of study (e.g. through recognition of experiential learning, mentoring, peer observation and feedback, use of student evaluations of teaching, reflective groups, team projects, action research activities).

- Courses and workshops need to include training for mentors, team leaders and educational researchers, to support departmental initiatives for teacher development in communities of practice.

- Where courses are focused on internal staff participants, and part-time staff, there may be practical constraints on the times (and amount of time) people are able to attend, which may necessitate blended delivery patterns; it is desirable, however, to include face-to-face activities and discussions, complemented by other materials and online facilities.

- A wide range of published material is available that offers ideas for the content and delivery of both educational development and formal programmes on teaching.

- Tertiary institutions have a responsibility to support the professional learning of people they appoint to be teachers, especially those who have had no prior teacher training or experience.

- Tertiary teachers have a personal and professional responsibility for engaging in informal learning with colleagues in their community of teaching practice, and participating in teaching-related development and courses of study, as well as maintaining discipline- or industry-related professional development and currency.

Survey of Literature Relating to Tertiary Teacher Development and Qualifications

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Introduction

This survey began in 1999 when my PhD project started, and originally stopped early in 2005 when the thesis was completed. It was renewed and extended in 2009 to add more recent material for this present paper, especially the material in section 6 below. The PhD research project investigated how people become tertiary teachers in New Zealand, and its conclusions emphasised the need to support teachers' informal learning in their communities of practice. The need for more formal courses as well was acknowledged, but was not the main focus of that study. In this present project I sought both to update the original literature, and to give more attention to research relating to formal courses and qualifications for tertiary teachers. I have structured the survey into these sections:

1. Background: New Zealand tertiary education context
2. Tertiary teaching and learning: conceptions, perceptions, perspectives
3. Expertise, excellence, professionalism and education for the professions
4. Workplace learning and communities of practice
5. Educational development for tertiary teachers
6. Programmes and qualifications for tertiary teachers
7. Some conclusions

The section headings used were convenient for organisation, but clearly a number of sources have related to more than one topic. At the end of each section some implications are identified, and issues noted, that could be considered when planning courses or qualifications for tertiary teachers. The conclusion draws together those ideas, and offers some suggestions for tertiary teaching curriculum development.

Sections 1, 2, 3, 5 and 6 address a range of perspectives on tertiary teaching that would be familiar to most educational/academic developers, and some teachers, working in tertiary education contexts. The literature of the section 4, relating to workplace learning and community of practice, has been less widely discussed in relation to tertiary education, but emerged as a major interest in my PhD study (Viskovic, 2005a). Much of the literature that is discussed in this survey comes from overseas, particularly from the United Kingdom (UK) and Australia, with some from North America. That is because I have focused on English language publications, and the UK and Australian tertiary systems are reasonably similar to New Zealand's. The focus of this survey has been on teaching in tertiary institutions, (universities, institutes of technology/polytechnics [ITPs], and wananga) where educational development units and programmes on tertiary teaching are commonly found; the survey should also be of value to teachers in private training establishments (PTEs), and adult community education, but they were not the main focus of this study. Some older references have been retained, rather than deleted in the update, as I have also been interested in the way

ideas and practices build on each other over time, and in identifying the times when newer things have started to emerge.

1. Background: Some aspects of the New Zealand tertiary education context

There has been considerable focus in recent years in NZ on increasing the numbers of people engaging in tertiary education and training to gain job skills and qualifications. Changes following the Education Amendment Act 1990 focused on flexibility, responsiveness and access in the tertiary sector; on funding and efficient use of resources; and on accountability through the establishment of institutional charters and quality management systems. Such developments were justified by the government in terms of meeting the needs of national economic growth, international competitiveness and globalisation (Minister of Education, 1989; Ministry of Education, 1998). The focus has been on the economic needs of the nation to increase production and reduce unemployment, resulting in an instrumental emphasis on vocational education. Educational institutions, especially universities, have also been encouraged to increase their engagement in research that can be funded by external sources, thus reducing their reliance on government funding.

Tertiary student numbers increased from nearly 150,000 in 1989 to 264,350 (168,520 Equivalent Fulltime Students or EFTS) in 2000 (MOE, 2001). The rise peaked in 2005, and since then numbers have dropped about 3% per year (MOE, 2009). With the growing enrolments came a more diverse student population and an increased range of providers catering for them. In 2007 the overall participation pattern (TEC, 2008) was:

	Organisations	*Learners*	*% of learners*	*EFTS*	*% of EFTS*
Universities	8	147,000	31.5%	110,000	45.8%
Wananga	3	42,000	9.0%	22,000	9.2%
ITPs	20	207,000	44.5%	72,000	30.0%
PTEs	376[1]	70,000	15.0%	36,000	15.0%
Totals:		466,000	100%	240,000	100%

While many students are school leavers, growing numbers are mature people seeking second-chance education, retraining for a change of career, or participating in continuing professional development (CPD). The proportions of mature students (25 years and over), female students, Maori, Pacific Nations and domestic Asian students have all increased over the last 20 years. Universities, ITPs and some PTEs also enrol full-fee-paying international students. Some of the challenges faced by tertiary teachers include the low levels of attainment of some school-leavers, and research findings that "40-50 percent of working age New Zealanders have literacy, language, and numeracy skills below those thought necessary for full participation in society and the economy" (TEC, 2008, p. 22).

A series of reports from the Tertiary Education Advisory Commission (TEAC) (2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2001c) and the establishment of the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC) in 2002 initiated further changes affecting funding and differentiation of providers in the sector. TEAC (2001b) considered a range of options for improving teaching quality, and proposed requiring new academics to undertake some form of teacher training. The *Tertiary Education Strategy 2002-2007* (Ministry of Education, 2002) included a stronger system focus on

[1] 376 PTEs TEC-funded for educational programmes, out of a total of 730 PTEs registered by NZQA. Funding sources for other PTEs include Training Opportunities and Youth Training Funding (TEC, 2008).

teaching capability and learning environments, with Objective 5 referring to provider investment in the recruitment, retention and professional development of teachers, and rewarding innovation and excellence.

Tertiary Education Strategy 2007-12 (MOE 2007) states the current focus on educational success:

> Central to the role of all tertiary education organisations is a focus on educational success. Educational success is achieved when engaged, effective students receive quality teaching in quality learning environments (whether that be in the classroom or the workplace). The government expects tertiary education organisations to have in place the necessary systems and structures to ensure that:
>
> - individuals are motivated to learn, engaged and have the skills and information needed to be effective students
> - educators continually update their knowledge of their subject and of effective teaching and learning; are responsive to a diverse range of students and teach a rich set of competencies in the content of a course
> - they foster professional learning communities, and offer the resources and support needed for teaching and learning.
>
> Tertiary education organisations need to be able to respond to the diverse needs and aspirations of students of all ethnicities, ages, and socioeconomic backgrounds (MOE, 2007, p. 18).

The strategy thus expects quality teaching, and expects institutions to support ways of achieving this.

A number of writers have studied the effects of government policies on tertiary education (e.g. Butterworth and Tarling, 1994; Hall, 1994; Olssen and Matthews, 1997; Peters, 1997; Codd, 1999; Codd and Sullivan, 2005). There have also been studies of aspects of tertiary student learning, such as Willis (1989) or Purnell (2002). Middleton (2008) focused on how the tertiary education engages with 'disengaged' students, with implications for teachers and for the wider system. There has been little research, however, that directly addressed tertiary teachers and their institutional contexts. The study by Prebble at al. (2004) addressed both teacher development and student support. Some examples relating to teaching in polytechnics include McCallin (1993), Khull (1997), Patrick (1998), Dougherty (1999), Viskovic (1993, 1995, 2000, 2001a), and Perry (2000). Adult education and training opportunities programmes have been discussed by Findsen (1996) and Benseman (2001), and literacy and numeracy teaching by Benseman et al. (2005). Studies addressing aspects of university teaching include Sutherland (1999), Robertson (2003) and Kane, Sandretto and Heath (2004). Approaches to tertiary teacher development or support have been discussed by Haigh (2003), Viskovic (2005b, 2006), Sutherland (2006) and Gossman (2008).

Seven of the completed projects funded by the Teaching and Learning Research Initiative (as reported by April 2009) have addressed tertiary teaching matters (available at http://www.tlri.org.nz/post-school-sector-2/). The Ministry of Education has also funded research projects, such as Prebble et al. (2004). Following the Teaching Matters Forum consultation and report in 2005 (Willis, 2005), Ako Aotearoa National Centre for Tertiary Teaching Excellence, was established in 2006. Ako's website now contains a growing collection of resources and reports for teachers across the sector (http://akoaotearoa.ac.nz/).

Literature on Maori in tertiary education has been less substantial than that on early childhood and schooling for Maori. Metge (1984), Pere (1994) and Pihama et al. (2004) discussed principles of Maori learning and teaching across the lifespan. Tertiary examples have included: Benton and Benton (1995), Bishop and Graham (1997), Jefferies (1997), Mead (1999), Bishop and Glynn (1999), Hemara (2000), Irwin (2000), Skill New Zealand - Pukenga Aotearoa (2001), Nikora et al. (2002), Tau, Ormsby, Manthei and Potiki (2003), Hewitson et al. (2003), and Maori Tertiary Reference Group (2003). Not all those examples directly addressed teaching, but they do indicate a growing awareness of areas of concern likely to be addressed in different ways by mainstream and by Maori providers. More recently, Haigh and Grant (2006) have compiled a bibliography of research on Maori in higher education in NZ, and Ross (2008) has researched culturally relevant peer support for Maori and Pasifika students. At the time of writing, a number of ongoing Maori initiative projects are listed on the Ako Aotearoa website.

1.1 Some implications for the education and development of tertiary teachers

Factors to be taken into account when planning and implementing professional development or courses for tertiary teachers in NZ contexts could include:

- recognition of Te Tiriti o Waitangi and the NZ cultural environment;
- addressing the strategic priorities and values of NZ educational institutions;
- preparing teachers to work with increasing diversity and numbers of students;
- modelling good practice in curriculum, student-centred teaching, assessment, evaluation, innovation, etc, to meet the needs of NZ students and other stakeholders;
- treating initial and continuing teacher development as a professional responsibility;
- understanding what it means to work in NZ communities of teaching practice;
- developing networking and collaborative initiatives;
- being responsive to the socio-political-economic context;
- being aware of current research into tertiary education and contributing to further research.

2. Tertiary teaching: conceptions, perceptions, perspectives

Much of the material in this section relates to teaching in higher education (HE) contexts, with fewer studies arising from further education (FE) contexts such as polytechnics, institutes of technology, community colleges, colleges of FE in the UK, or technical and further education (TAFE) in Australia. This reflects the situation that research and publication has long been part of the work of university staff, but not of staff in other institutions until quite recently.

2.1 Empirical studies of tertiary teaching

Key ideas that have been addressed in empirical research studies include conceptions of learning and teaching; other perceptions held by teachers; and perspectives on teaching. Some of those studies also included recommendations for tertiary teacher development.

Conceptions of learning and teaching

Much of the research on teachers' conceptions of teaching in higher education arose following earlier research into university students' conceptions of learning (e.g. Saljo, 1979;

Van Rossum and Schenk,1984; Marton and Saljo, 1984; Marton, Dall'Alba and Beaty, 1993). The latter identified a hierarchy of six conceptions:

- Increasing one's knowledge
- Memorising and reproducing
- Applying
- Understanding
- Seeing something in a new way
- Changing as a person.

Related research into student learning identified patterns of deep, surface, and strategic or achieving approaches to learning, and some linked students' learning approaches to their perceptions of teachers' assessment expectations (e.g. Marton, Hounsell and Entwistle,1984; Richardson, Eysenck and Warren Piper, 1987).

From the later 1980s, researchers linked conceptions of learning to teachers' strategies and practices (e.g. Entwistle, 1988; Ramsden, 1988). Then came research (mainly phenomenographic) into university teachers' conceptions of teaching (e.g. Marton and Ramsden, 1988; Martin and Balla, 1991; Samuelowicz and Bain, 1992; Gow and Kember,1993; Kember and Gow, 1994). A typical example is Prosser, Trigwell and Taylor (1994), finding five conceptions of teaching held by university science teachers:

- Teaching as transmitting concepts of the syllabus
- Teaching as transmitting the teachers' knowledge
- Teaching as helping students acquire the concepts of the syllabus
- Teaching as helping students acquire teacher knowledge
- Teaching as helping students develop conceptions

Further studies looked at relationships between teaching approach and students' deep/surface learning (e.g. Trigwell and Prosser, 1996; Trigwell, Prosser and Waterhouse, 1999).

Martin and Ramsden (1992) discussed how lecturers change their conceptions of teaching as a process of 'expanding awareness,' which individual teachers started at different points and moved through at different rates. They concluded that changing teachers' understanding of teaching was a key to improving university teaching. Gow and Kember (1993) found two major orientations to teaching - knowledge transmission and learning facilitation - and concluded that: "Altering existing conceptions, however, is not a task to be underestimated" (p. 31). They recommended: "…encouraging lecturers to reflect on their own teaching by engaging in supported action research projects" (p. 32). Gibbs (1995a) similarly recommended changing lecturers' conceptions, through action research projects.

Murray and Macdonald (1997) compared some university lecturers' conceptions of teaching with the lecturers' claimed teaching practices, and observed that "Staff beliefs about their role did not always appear to match their intentions or their subsequent actions" (p. 343). They related this to notions of espoused theory and theory-in-practice (Argyris and Schon, 1974). Similar effects had been noted by Samuelowicz and Bain (1992), who referred to this inconsistency as one of the "mysteries of higher education". Murray and Macdonald found that the teachers they studied reported gaining their teaching skills mainly from trial and error, learning by doing, observation of colleagues, advice from colleagues, and staff development workshops. They concluded: "A final explanation for the inconsistencies found could be that more staff development is needed to help staff challenge or operationalise their perceived role" (p. 346).

Overall, many studies of conceptions of teaching have been phenomenographic, and have focused on cognitive learning in "concept-heavy mainstream disciplines" (Eidos, 1997, p. 4) rather than the humanities or subjects involving experiential and affective learning. Recommendations for teacher development arising from such research mainly focused on ways of changing teachers' conceptions.

Other perceptions and perspectives held by teachers

Other researchers investigated teachers' attitudes, perceptions or reflections on their identity and roles. Much of this literature also identified varied concerns about teachers' practice, frequently related to continuing attitudes and practices in teachers' contexts, not just to teachers' personal views of teaching.

Pettigrove (1992), studied tertiary teachers' self-perceptions and found that they saw themselves primarily as communicators and assessors of subject content, rather than experts in pedagogy, and saw teaching and research as very different activities, with teaching having no comparable theoretical underpinning or legitimation (p. 423). Falchikov (1993) found that a range of factors influenced teachers' attitudes, and that innovators in particular shared factors such as being student-focussed, enjoying teaching and being involved in a variety of non-traditional activities. Her conclusion that "…the present study suggests that a majority of staff not only copes with but welcomes change" (p. 509) was more positive than Pettigrove's findings.

Burroughs-Lang (1996) found that lecturers' perceptions of their teaching role focused on traditional transmission and evaluation. "Lecturers mainly have idiosyncratic, intuitively-based knowledge about learning derived from their experiences with teaching and learning" (p. 47). Lecturers knew from experience what worked, but not why; and many did not see themselves as learners. Willcoxson (1998) found that academics tended to teach the way they had been taught (transmission); most were using lectures despite a lack of enthusiasm for them on the part of both teachers and students.

Most studies focused on more experienced teachers, but Allan (1996) gathered accounts of people's first experiences as teachers in UK colleges and universities, noting that many felt they had been "flung in at the deep end" and "an indelible impression of the new university teacher increasingly as the victim of an identity crisis" (p. viii).

Ballantyne, Bain and Packer (1999) surveyed over 700 university teachers nominated as exhibiting exemplary practice, looking for common themes and issues in the teachers' reflections. They concluded that, "the motivation to improve teaching is personal and intrinsic, arising from an enthusiasm for a subject and a desire to see students learn and grow" (p. 255). They also observed, however, that while lecturers were strong in content knowledge, they had limited knowledge of theories of learning and strategies of teaching, and so perpetuated traditional teaching methods with little reflection on their effects for student learning. Patrick and Smart (1998) took a different approach, in a study to develop a measure for evaluating teacher effectiveness. They identified three inter-related dimensions: respect for students, ability to challenge students, and organisation and presentation skills. Those factors were supported by other publications, such as Brown and Atkins (1993) and Ramsden (1992).

More recent examples relating to university teachers include: Nicholls (2005) on new lecturers' constructs of learning, teaching and research in HE; Akerlind's (2005) study of academics' experiences of their own growth and development; Carnell's (2007) study of university teachers' conceptions of effective teaching, which included insights about the importance of social contexts. In a NZ study, Robertson (2007) explored the complexity of academic experience, finding that academics' epistemologies are strongly influenced by the way knowledge is conceived of and structured within their discipline, and therefore influence their experiences of teaching, learning and research. Those findings echo aspects of the study by Lindblom-Ylanne et al. (2006) of how approaches to teaching are affected by discipline and teaching context. Clancy et al. (2007) found that teachers bring their personal epistemologies to the teaching and learning context, and this influences their perceptions and subsequent practice within that context. Archer (2008) studied the nature and formation of contemporary academic identities, interviewing younger academics in UK universities about how they positioned themselves in relation to authenticity and success. He found that constraining factors could include the performative ethos in their context, and their age, race, class, gender and status, especially for those on contract rather than tenured.

In the literature noted so far there has been a strong emphasis on university teaching. A significant exception is Pratt and Associates (1998), whose study included adult, further and higher education, and was spread over several countries. Pratt et al. identified five perspectives on teaching (not hierarchical categories), reflecting teachers' beliefs, intentions and actions in response to different contexts and purposes:

Perspective	*Brief Definition*
Transmission:	Effective delivery of content
Apprenticeship:	Modelling ways of being
Developmental:	Cultivating ways of thinking (intellectual development)
Nurturing:	Facilitating self-efficacy (personal development)
Social reform:	Seeking a better society.

Another who considered non-university teachers was Patrick (1998). Her New Zealand study found considerable consistency between the teachers' stated philosophies, their practice and their awareness of student learning. Patrick also found that they put more focus on political issues and social reform than was generally reported in studies of university teachers: Malcolm and Zukas (2001) found a similar situation in FE teaching in the UK. Spenceley (2007) looked at the initial impressions of education and the role of the educator among those entering the UK FE sector. She found that, "Working in a new role, often without support or any real understanding of the work, had major implications for some learner-educators… (they) struggle to make sense of the sector and of their role within it" (p. 94-5). Jephcote et al. (2008) tracked 27 FE teachers from seven sites over two years. Faced with competing pressures from college managers and challenging students, they commonly gave priority to caring for the needs and interests of learners, and saw pedagogical expertise as more important than expertise in subject matter – the latter finding very different from a number of university studies of teaching.

The literature thus presents diverse views of teaching. A number of writers identified concerns, though not all linked those to suggestions for teacher development. Many of the issues discussed echoed my own observations, and anecdotal comments by New Zealand polytechnic and university staff developers.

2.2 Scholarly discussions of tertiary teaching

Some academics have reflected on their own experiences and observations, while others have reviewed and integrated findings from empirical studies such as those above. Many publish in journals such as *Teaching in Higher Education*, *Journal of Further and Higher Education,* or the *Journal of Excellence in College Teaching* – I will not attempt to canvas them all here, but will address some I found particularly relevant.

Reviews of the literature on teaching and learning

Kember (1997) examined the research to date into university academics' conceptions of teaching. He suggested more research was needed into the relationships between facets of teaching and learning.

From a survey of the literature of teaching and learning in higher education (TLHE), Zukas and Malcolm (1999) identified five pedagogic "identities", further discussed in Malcolm and Zukas (2000, 2001):

- Educator as reflective practitioner,
- Educator as critical practitioner,
- Educator as situated learner within a community of practice,
- Educator as psycho-diagnostician and facilitator of learning,
- Educator as assurer of organisational quality and efficiency, deliverer of service to agreed or imposed standards.

Their discussion of those identities developed a very different perspective from Kember's, taking more account of the contextualised nature of teaching practice, and also making one of the first published links between tertiary teachers and the concept of situated learning in a community of practice.

Another overview article is that of Kane, Sandretto and Heath (2002), who criticised the research approach of many of the studies of conceptions of teaching on the grounds that they relied on what teachers said in interviews, with no balancing observation of what they did in class to verify what they said about their teaching. [2] They suggested that studies of teacher beliefs and thinking in school contexts offered conclusions that could transfer to tertiary settings, noting that the school teacher and tertiary teacher literatures rarely referenced each other. Their comments echoed those of Entwistle, Skinner, Entwistle and Orr (2000), who also noted little cross-referencing between the higher education and school-based literatures, with the former focusing on conceptions of learning and teaching and the latter on teachers' beliefs and knowledge. Kane et al. concluded:

> What is clear is that further research is needed to make explicit the links between tertiary teachers' espoused theories and their teaching practice so that we can understand better how university academics learn to teach and, especially, so that novice teachers may benefit (p. 204).

Those three reviews thus produced different commentaries on a largely similar body of literature, and all raised implications for tertiary teacher development.

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[2] The phenomenographic research approach used in many studies of conceptions of teaching is based on studies of second order data: "Phenomenographers do not claim to study 'what is there' in the world (reality) but they do claim to study 'what is there' in people's conceptions of the world" (Webb, 1996, page 87).

A later review of similar and additional sources is that done by Prebble at al (2004), which I have addressed in section 6, below.

Other views of teaching

Eisner (1994) suggested that teaching could be considered an art, because teachers make judgments based on qualities that unfold during the course of action; their activity is not dominated by prescriptions or routines but is influenced by unpredicted contingencies; and the ends that teaching achieves are often created in process. Similar ideas were applied to tertiary education by Trow (1993):

> Teaching is not an action, but a transaction; not an outcome, but a process; not a performance, but an emotional and intellectual connection between teacher and learner. (p. 20)

Fox (1983) discussed teachers' personal theories of teaching, identifying four metaphors: transfer and shaping (simple theories), growing and travelling (developed theories). Although Fox's work is now old, and was based on anecdotal comments and observations rather than systematic research, it has been cited in several other discussions of teaching (e.g. Kember, 1997; Murray and Macdonald, 1997; Pratt, 2002).

Sotto (1996) critiqued the notion that "given sufficient good will and rigorous reflection, the level of teaching could be improved" (p. 205): he thought that detailed knowledge and supervised experience were also necessary, as in preparation for practice in other professions. He hoped academics would see teaching and learning as "mysterious matters", meriting research that would lift teaching from being a "self-evident" activity into as rewarding and creative an activity as their research into their disciplines (p. 208). Similar issues were raised by Weimer (1997) who critiqued commonly held assumptions "that devalue the inherent intellectual richness and intrigue of teaching".

Other writers have discussed views of teaching that reflect the ways by which government or institutional policies influence the work of teachers. For example, Codd (1997) challenged the technocratic-reductionist view of teaching and learning that he associated with the approach of New Zealand's National Qualifications Framework (see Table 1, following).

	Technocratic-Reductionist	**Professional-Contextualist**
Role model	Skilled technician	Reflective practitioner
Criterion of good practice	Competence	Integrity
Pedagogical aim	To produce the attainment of specific learning outcomes	To enable the development of diverse human capabilities
Administrative context	Efficient management (hierarchical)	Professional leadership (collaborative)
Type of motivation	Extrinsic	Intrinsic
Form of accountability	Contractual compliance	Professional commitment

Table 1: Contrasting Conceptions of Teaching (Codd, 1997, p. 140)

Codd concluded that "...what we have now in New Zealand's educational institutions, including higher education, is a political struggle between two opposing views of teaching" (p. 139) and "...it could be argued that behind these two conceptions of teaching lie different assumptions about human nature." (p. 141).

Hall and Kidman (2004), in another New Zealand example, developed a relational view of university learning and teaching (see Fig. 1, following). Their model does not imply a preference for any one of the views of teaching and learning described above: its focus is rather on a series of simultaneous relationships between learner, teacher and what is to be learned, within an institutional context.

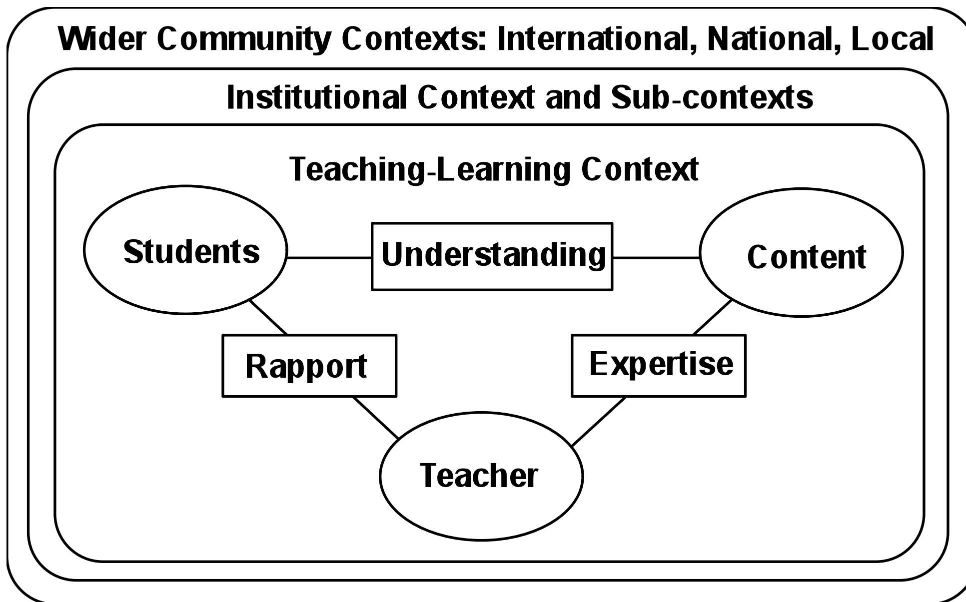

Fig. 1: Relational Model of Teaching and Learning (Hall and Kidman, 2004, p. 333)

In that last group of examples from the literature, I found art, metaphors, mystery, emotional and intellectual connection, tension between the technical and professional, anxieties about assumptions, and a contextual map - all contributing to a broad tapestry of ways of thinking about teaching. While formal empirical studies of conceptions of teaching are important, they are not the only ways of seeing, and the literature confirms that many perspectives are being shared.

2.3 Implications for the education and development of tertiary teachers

Different approaches to studying teachers' perspectives or conceptions of their roles have resulted in different ways of describing tertiary teaching. Phenomenographic analyses (e.g. Prosser et al., 1994) produced hierarchical conceptions of university teaching. Other analyses, such as those of Pratt et al. (1998) or Zukas and Malcolm (1999), were not hierarchical, and are more useful for considering teachers' perspectives across a variety of contexts.

There were differences in emphasis or examples cited, resulting from the research approach adopted, for example: studying experienced or novice teachers, or looking for links between teachers' conceptions of teaching and students' conceptions of learning, or analysing other researchers' findings. There were also differences in interpretation of the concerns observed and their implications for teacher development.

There was little discussion of how teachers' conceptions of learning and teaching or attitudes or practices have developed. Several writers observed that teachers appeared to rely mainly on tacit experiential knowledge and did not have a strong theory-based understanding of their own teaching (e.g. Murray and Macdonald, 1997). Some writers commented on the effects of

educational development, or lack or it, for teaching: but studies that are more concerned with teacher development are addressed in sections 5 and 6, below. While there is a wide literature of teaching and learning in higher/tertiary education, Ballantyne et al. (1999) found that many tertiary teachers do not appear to have a deep understanding of or familiarity with that literature (Ballantyne et al., 1999).

The studies surveyed yield a range of findings that can contribute to the content and/or delivery of educational development and/or formal courses on tertiary teaching, for example:

- Research on topics that can inform the content and delivery of workshops and courses, for example:
  - understanding conceptions of learning and teaching
  - understanding deep and surface learning
  - using approaches to assessment that focus on student learning
  - concept of espoused theory and theory in practice
  - rationale for the importance of student-centred learning
  - teaching strategies that are supported by research
  - responsiveness to students' needs in different contexts
  - principles for evaluating teaching and courses
  - effects of all these for practice – linking theory to implementation
- Research that establishes the importance of helping teachers to develop their own teaching identity, reflect critically on their development as teachers, and look for deeper understandings of their tacit, experiential learning about teaching;
- Research on the needs of newer teachers;
- Research on the scholarship of teaching and learning.

3. Expertise, excellence and professionalism

This section includes both studies of expertise or excellence in tertiary teaching, and some more general studies that have potential for their ideas to be transferred to that context. The literature of education for the professions, as it relates to the education of tertiary teachers, is also noted. While there is a wide general literature on expertise, comparatively few writers have discussed expertise in relation to tertiary teaching.

3.1 Expertise

In studies of expertise I found two main areas of interest: stages in the development of expertise, and characteristics of expertise and expert performance.

Stages in the development of expertise

Dreyfus and Dreyfus' (1986) Model of Skill Acquisition proposed a sequence of developmental levels that people were observed to pass through over time:

Level 1. Novice
Level 2. Advanced Beginner
Level 3. Competent
Level 4. Proficient
Level 5. Expert

Characteristics of a person at the expert level include:

- No longer relies on rules, guidelines or maxims
- Intuitive grasp of situations based on deep tacit understanding

- Analytic approaches used only in novel situations or when problems occur
- Vision of what is possible.

The emphasis of the model is mainly on learning from experience, with few references to more formal, propositional learning. Although now quite old, the Dreyfus model is still being cited in more recent works. Similar processes were described by Hoffman (1998), who considered the cognitive psychology of expertise. From a developmental view, Hoffman found a sequence from novice to master could be seen: in terms of knowledge structure, it took time to become an expert, and by then one's knowledge was both specific to the domain and very extensive.

Eraut (1994) noted tacit knowledge and intuition (in the Dreyfus expert level) as critical features of professional expertise applicable to educational settings. He commented, however, on the model's limited focus on the interactive and progressive nature of decision-making, which he considered important in teaching. Ethell (1998), discussing the knowledge-in-action of expert university teachers, similarly noted that the procedural knowledge of experts was largely unarticulated, tacit, and grounded in experience. Kember (1997) suggested that teachers' awareness of conceptions of teaching might follow a developmental sequence; and Kugel (1993) saw five stages of 'focus' rather than expertise that US college teachers went through in developing as professors. Dall'Alba and Sandberg (2006) critiqued stage models of development of professional skill (such as Dreyfus and Dreyfus), and proposed an alternative. Their model, which allows for a range of development trajectories, has two axes, the vertical for embodied understanding of practice, and the horizontal for skill progression.

Characteristics of expertise

Glaser and Chi (1988) discussed seven key characteristics of expertise:

- Experts excel mainly in their own domains;
- Experts perceive large meaningful patterns in their domain;
- Experts are faster than novices at performing skills of their domain, and they solve problems with little error;
- Experts have superior short-term and long-term memory;
- Experts see a problem in their domain at a deeper level than do novices;
- Experts spend a great deal of time analysing a problem analytically;
- Experts have strong self-monitoring skills.

Billett (1996) identified similar ideas, but also emphasised the social context in which expertise is developed. Billett (1998a) presented a socio-cultural perspective on expertise in a workplace community, identifying key elements of expertise as being:

- *Relational* to a particular community of practice, i.e. workplace
- *Embedded* - the result of extensive social practice over time
- *Requiring competence* in the community's discourse and activities
- *Reciprocal* - shaping as well as being shaped by the community of practice
- *Requiring pertinence* in the appropriateness of problem solutions, such as knowing what behaviours are acceptable.

Billett's work thus provides a useful bridge between individual characteristics of expertise, as described by Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) or Glaser and Chi (1988), and the communal workplace settings in which people develop and apply their expertise and perform with others. Stein (1997) similarly saw expertise as a function of social context as well as individual skills,

knowledge or experience, saying: "the expert and his or her social system can be viewed as a coupled system" (p. 191).

Hamachek (1999) linked behaviours associated with teacher excellence to more general studies of expert/novice behaviour, and cited Sternberg and Horvath's (1995) conclusion that three basic domains - knowledge, efficiency and insight - were critical in teaching. Rather than meeting one single definition of teaching expertise, Hamachek thought that effective teachers shared a 'family' of characteristics, with four major clusters: personal, intellectual, interaction style and instructional approaches. Gibbs (2003) reached similar conclusions in a study of teachers' self-efficacy. He argued that: "Teaching is complex and demanding. Teachers require not only qualities such as passion and enthusiasm, but capacities for resilience, survival and innovation" (p. 1).

Studies of expertise thus have a number of implications for tertiary teacher development. Expertise develops in stages over time, linked to experiential learning in the workplace. Viskovic (2005a) found evidence of this in interviews with NZ tertiary teachers who reflected on their stages of development, and observed expert-level characteristics in the ways those experienced teachers spoke of their work. Eraut links the expertise of teachers to the nature of professional work. Hamachek and Gibbs point out that personal characteristics contribute to aspects of teacher expertise. Billett emphasises that expertise is both domain-specific and developed in socio-cultural settings. Because most tertiary teachers have gained their primary expertise in the domain of their discipline or occupation, becoming a teacher involves developing expertise in a new domain. Factors likely to support the development of workplace expertise therefore need to be considered in in-service tertiary teacher development and courses.

3.2 Professions, professionalism, education for professions

I will consider only briefly the nature of a profession and professional work, which have been discussed by a number of writers (e.g. Schein, 1972; Houle, 1980; Hoyle and John, 1995). While tertiary teaching may not meet all the features by which some writers define a profession, Downie (1990) described characteristics of a *professional* that are relevant to teaching. He also noted that the professional must be educated as distinct from merely trained. Issues commonly raised in the literature included education for professional work, and tertiary teachers as professionals, discussed below.

Education for professional work

Most of the literature on education for the professions is generic, not focussed on tertiary teaching itself as a profession (e.g. Bines and Watson, 1992; Curry, Wergin and Associates, 1993; Taylor, 1997; Gonczi, 2001). Many papers raised issues that are relevant to consider, however, in relation to tertiary teachers as professionals, such as pre-professional programmes, continuing professional development, and experiential learning that occurred outside formal programmes.

Baskett, Marsick and Cervero (1992) discussed approaches to professional education and proposed:

- Pre-professional programs that emphasise practical as well as theoretical knowledge;
- Legitimising practical knowledge, by helping professionals to articulate and share their repertoires of practical knowledge;

- Addressing contextual influences, such as working in diverse cultures.

While Baskett et al. (1992) assumed the existence of pre-professional programmes, there are few such programmes for tertiary teachers, except for some areas of further education. Baskett and Marsick (1992) acknowledged that much learning in professionals' careers took place outside formal programmes, and noted factors such as: self-directed and self-planned learning; emphasis on practical knowledge and reflection-in-action; the social context; and a cycle of learning over long periods of time. Farmer, Buckmaster and Le Grand Brandt (1992) suggested cognitive apprenticeship had value as an approach to continuing professional education. Cleminson and Bradford (1996) considered the relationship between academic (university-based) and experiential (work-based) learning for professionals. The value of the latter extended beyond immediate tasks to include the professional culture and workplace values and norms. Like Baskett et al. (1992) they concluded that both formal academic programmes and less formal workplace mentoring were essential: "It is not sufficient to allow learning through practice alone" (p. 257).

Eraut (1994) discussed differences between people's personal working knowledge, and the formal, public knowledge base of their profession. He proposed four principles for professional education that could be applied to tertiary teachers and are consistent with the studies cited in the paragraph above:

- A significant part of the initial qualification must be performance-based.
- Initial blocks of propositional knowledge should be kept as short as possible, unless there are opportunities to use that knowledge in practice.
- Process knowledge of all kinds should be accorded central importance.
- There should be a clearly articulated approach to professional learning and development, linked to a system of initial and further qualifications (1994, p. 121).

Eraut observed that much teaching was done in comparative isolation, rather than through collegial collaboration: "Most performing occupations offer considerable opportunity to observe master-performers at work both before and after initial training… Why then do teachers not get these kinds of opportunity?" (ibid., p. 38).

The work and influence of Schon (1983, 1987) should be noted in any discussion of professional education. Schon critiqued the notion of professionals as unchallengeable experts, and believed professional education should avoid being technicist or instrumental. He therefore recommended reflective practice as a significant part of ongoing professional development. His concept of the reflective practitioner has continued to be explored and extended, and sometimes critiqued, in many works relating to adult and tertiary education, for example: Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985); Handal and Lauvas (1987); Mezirow and Associates (1990); Osterman and Kottkamp (1993); Eraut (1994); Brookfield (1995); Smith (1995); Elliott (1997); Ferry and Ross-Gordon (1998); Boud and Walker (1998); Light and Cox (2001); Kane et al. (2004).

Some recent studies have linked reflection to educational development for tertiary teachers. Edwards and Nicoll (2006) explored the rhetoric of expertise, competence and reflection, and "strategies to persuade educators that particular discourses of professionalism are about and for them" (p. 115). Lyons (2006) discussed "the controversy surrounding reflective enquiry and its purported benefits for professional development, and the lack of research on what teachers learn from reflective enquiry and how that affects or changes their professional

practice" (p. 151). Reflection continued to be a focus in Cowan and Westwood's (2006) study of teachers' use of journals and facilitated collaborative reflection.

The concept of reflection in tertiary education links to works on transformative learning (e.g. Mezirow, 1991, 1997; Cranton, 1994a, 1994b, 1996); self-directed learning (e.g. Candy, 1991); experiential learning (e.g. Kolb, 1984; Weil and McGill, 1989; Boud, 1993; Brookfield, 1998); and intuition (Atkinson and Claxton, 2000). While acknowledging those works are relevant to and used by tertiary teachers and developers, I will not go further into those areas in this review.

Tertiary teachers as professionals

Most tertiary teachers are appointed on the basis of their prior occupational qualifications and/or disciplinary expertise and knowledge (Bok, 1991; Beaty, 1998; Knight, 2002), not because they are professional teachers. Johnston (1998) considered academics as 'learning professionals' and adopted Warren Piper's (1994) category of 'expert occupation'. While some professions emphasised formal on-going learning, requiring it for continued registration, that situation did not apply for university staff. Most undertook no formal preparation for the teaching role, and few engaged in formal professional learning opportunities. Johnston noted a "commonly held assumption that teaching is not something that one learns about" (1998, p. 5), and suggested reasons for that assumption included beliefs that only poor teachers had something to learn, or that subject expertise was sufficient. Boice (1992) similarly observed: "On the whole, academe subscribes, however unwittingly, to social Darwinism. We expect people with the right stuff to succeed and those without it to fail" (p. 190).

Hativa, Barak and Simhi (2001), in a study of exemplary university teachers' beliefs, found that many lacked a systematic preparation for their teaching role, and that this could lead to fragmented pedagogical knowledge and unfounded beliefs about what made teaching effective. Other writers who have considered the nature of university teaching, and some reasons for a lack of status or professionalism, include Malcolm and Zukas (2000). They observed that, in many UK universities, staff and educational development had come from a training rather than an educational tradition. That had "encouraged the idea that teaching is a separate and essentially different activity from research…" (p. 53).

Beaty (1998) referred to the "double professionalism" of higher education teachers, seeing discipline base and education as the two areas of professionalism. She emphasised that development through experience alone did not guarantee teaching quality or a professional approach, nor did one or two days of workshops: a more substantial programme leading to a form of accreditation was needed. Johnston (1998) proposed that factors needed in such a programme should include:

- Professional learning being seen as a normal part of the teaching role;
- An institutional context that supports learning associated with teaching;
- Bringing teachers together to consider teaching in collaborative settings;
- A programme of professional learning that was self-directed.

Those proposals complement the conclusions of Baskett et al. (1992) and Cleminson and Bradford (1996) on professional education, and Eraut's (1994) suggestions for professional education. They also provide an approach to addressing some of the concerns expressed about tertiary teachers' preparation. More recently Canning (2007) has discussed the emergence of pedagogy in HE as "an increasingly professionalised endeavour" (p. 393), but warned against a danger that seeing pedagogy as a discipline might divorce it from the classroom context.

McCallin (1993) provided a New Zealand study of socialisation into a second career as teacher. She interviewed polytechnic nursing tutors, who had learned to act like teachers by engaging with colleagues and doing the work of teaching - a very different process from both their training as nurses and their professional work in a clinical environment.

Studies of further education (FE) in the UK tended to take a different view of teacher professionalism. Elliott (1998) found most FE lecturers did not see themselves as belonging to a profession; but a looser use of the idea of "being professional" to indicate commitment, self-organisation and a certain status was evident in debates about working in further education. Hodkinson (1998) and Avis (1999) observed problems for FE teachers in seeing themselves as professionals when the nature of their work came under pressure from managerialist changes in their context. Hodkinson (1998) commented, however, that: "In many VET (vocational education and training) areas, too many staff have always lacked the breadth and insight as *educational* professionals to back up their 'subject' expertise" (p. 204, author's emphasis). Clow (2001) argued that: "a cohesive view of professionalism could create a less exploited workforce and lead to an improved quality of teaching in FE" (p. 407). Robson (1998, 2000) and Robson, Bailey and Larkin (2004) noted problems of professional identity, as most FE teachers had previously become qualified and experienced in some other occupation. That, coupled with a limited amount of teacher training/education, had a strong influence on their transition into and adoption of the role of 'professional' teacher. Robson (2002) found that experienced FE teachers believed that much of their professional knowledge about teaching was tacit. Spenceley (2006) examined the concept of professionalism in the context of "FE as a market-oriented servant of the economy" (p. 289). She suggested that "there is a 'new professionalism' emerging among those working within the sector based not on the traditional imperatives of subject expertise and professional knowledge, but on that of continuously updated transferable skills" (p. 289).

3.3 Excellent teaching, expertise in tertiary teaching

Many of the writers whose work is referenced in this sub-section have linked excellent teaching to academic staff development (see also section 5, below). Some discussed links with institutions' quality assurance processes and evaluation of teaching. Key issues discussed below are: identifying excellent teachers, and ways of fostering and rewarding excellent teaching/teachers.

Identifying excellent teachers

Most studies identified excellent or exemplary teachers either by seeking nominations from peers (e.g. Lowman, 1996; Centra, 1996; Ballantyne et al., 1999), or by focusing on those who had won teaching awards (e.g. Dunkin and Precians, 1992).

Dunkin and Precians (1992) compared award-winning university teachers with novice teachers. In a related paper Dunkin (1995) found that: "expert teachers differ from their less expert colleagues in the complexity and sophistication of their thoughts about teaching" (p. 23). He concluded that the differences between the novices and experts indicated developmental tasks to be achieved, and that such tasks could be used to give focus to staff development programmes. Johnston (1996a) also studied academics who had won awards; her conclusions challenged the assumption that externally imposed quality assurance measures would necessarily improve university teaching.

Andrews, Garrison and Magnusson (1996) asked colleagues to nominate excellent teachers for their study of teaching excellence in higher education. They concluded that excellent teachers:

- Seem to want to facilitate a deep approach to learning;
- Use instructional processes that are congruent with their preferred approach;
- Have values and beliefs (e.g. honesty, integrity, genuineness, respect for self and students) that are foundational to a meaning approach to learning.

Rewarding and fostering excellent teaching / teachers

Gibbs (1995b) identified problems in common practices designed to reward and promote excellent teachers. One problem was the lower status of teaching when compared with research in promotion processes. He summed up: "The crucial question is how the promotion of excellent teachers can be undertaken in a way which will maximise the promotion of excellent teaching" (p. 81). Ramsden and Martin (1996) similarly found that many staff thought research was appropriately valued, but teaching undervalued. They concluded: "Successful schemes will require visionary leadership. They will build on existing academic values and expectations, combining changes to organisational climates with changes to reward systems and employment practices" (p. 299). Elton's (1998) discussion of ways of recognising and rewarding excellent teaching concluded that a trained teaching profession was essential and that, as well as individual teaching excellence, there must also be excellence at departmental and institutional levels.

Several writers identified problems in the ways that teaching might be judged. McLean and Blackwell (1997) proposed that "excellence in teaching resides in a reflective, self-critical, theoretically informed approach" (p. 85). That led them to criticise the 'inspection' methodology used by Teaching Quality Assessment teams in the UK. Magin (1998) raised concerns about approaches to documenting evidence in the recognition and rewarding of good teaching. Trigwell (2001) emphasised that the criteria used to judge teaching must be consistent with the criteria being used to develop teaching (such as being scholarly and being focused on student learning). Nicoll and Harrison (2003) expressed concern that professional development for teachers that took a "technical" approach might use standards of competence to "normalise and fashion what it means to be a good teacher" (p. 23). Palmer and Collins (2006) explored challenges that arise if the scholarship of teaching is used as a model of teaching excellence when devising an approach to rewarding teachers: they concluded that the process needed to take account of motivation, and the need to have shared understandings of what constitutes excellence. Bluteau and Krumins (2008) linked creativity to the concepts of excellence and recognition, arguing that space to be creative in developing innovative teaching mattered more to the staff in their study than did financial rewards. Findlow (2008) found considerable tension between the two associated agendas of audit-driven accountability and academic innovation in HE.

Many institutions have introduced internal excellent teacher awards, and wider schemes have also emerged. Skelton's (2004) evaluation of the National Teaching Fellowships Scheme in the UK found there had been little debate about alternative interpretations of teaching excellence, and no strategy to date to use the scheme as a development mechanism. In New Zealand, National Tertiary Teaching Excellence Awards were instituted in 2002, resulting in annual publications profiling the winners of awards (e.g. NZQA, 2002; NZQA 2008), but no review of the effects of that scheme has been published yet.

Teaching as a form of scholarship

Boyer's (1990) work on the scholarship of teaching provided another perspective on recognition of university teaching, and ways of increasing its theoretical grounding and status. Later writers built on that work, particularly Glassick, Huber and Maeroff (1997), who proposed standards for evaluating the scholarship of teaching that paralleled those for other forms of scholarship. Badley (2003) suggested that the 'scholarship of teaching' framework was useful not only in evaluation, but also in providing guidelines for the practice of teaching. Trigwell and Shale (2004) proposed a scholarship of teaching model that focused on "a reflective and informed act engaging students and teachers in learning" (p. 523). Ronkowski (1993) also discussed ways of fostering scholarly teaching, especially among new faculty members. Ronkowski echoed many others in observing that much knowledge about teaching was tacit, developed over the years by trial and error, hindsight, intuition, and years of discovering which practices worked best. "Because teaching has not been recognised as a form of scholarship, accompanied by appropriate rewards and resources, faculty have traditionally practiced the teaching profession as bricoleurs (do-it-yourselfers)…" (pp. 80-81).

Taylor and Grace (2006) observed that changes in public funding for teaching in Australia indicated a shift from encouraging innovation towards rewarding performance. This led them to explore the literature on the scholarship of learning and teaching to develop an evidence-base for effective pedagogy in HE.

3.4 Implications for the education and development of tertiary teachers

Much of the discussion of excellent or expert teaching has been concerned more with ways of recognising it than with ways of developing it. Concerns were expressed that excellence in teaching was perceived by many university academics as being less important than their disciplinary expertise and excellence in research. Such views were generally already held in the communities that new teachers joined, and likely to be transmitted and kept alive through the process of social enculturation. Studies also suggested that many staff did not perceive their teaching as a 'professional' activity.

The literature on expertise, such as Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) and Glaser and Chi (1988), fitted well with the literature on professions and professional education, such as Eraut (1994, 2000); and together they could be applied to thinking about teaching as a professional activity. I see clear links between such studies and the issues of workplace learning that are discussed below in section 4, especially when related to teachers as members of a professional community of practice.

Some studies (e.g. Eraut, 1994; Johnston, 1998) included proposals that formal education and development programmes should be provided to support tertiary teachers in learning their profession. Those proposals link clearly to educational development and courses on teaching (sections 5 and 6, below).

As a professional occupation, tertiary teaching has lacked some of the depth of preparation required by other professions. While teachers may have substantial knowledge, expertise and experience in their subject-area domain, there has been little expectation of a similar level of preparation for the teaching domain, except in some areas of further education. Baskett et al. (1992) and Eraut (1994) have argued that formal propositional learning needs to be matched by informal learning in the workplace. In tertiary teaching, however, the emphasis has arguably been mainly on the latter, with little agreement on the value of the former, or how

and when it will be achieved. In effect, most tertiary teachers have received their 'teacher education' through forms of activity that would be considered 'professional development' in other professions, such as short courses, conferences, professional interactions, networking and learning by doing (Becher, 1996).

These findings from studies surveyed here can contribute to educational development and/or courses on tertiary teaching:

- Recognition that expertise is domain-specific – expertise in teaching is different from expertise in one's discipline, research or prior occupation;
- Tertiary teaching needs to be seen as a professional occupation, requiring professional education that relates to skills, knowledge and attitudes for that domain of expertise;
- Tertiary teachers can be expected to develop expertise in teaching over a period of time, moving through a series of stages from novice to expert, influenced by both formal propositional knowledge and informal workplace learning;
- Formal courses and workshops are needed to complement people's informal workplace learning – their sequence and structure can draw on the findings of studies such as Eraut (1994), Johnston (1998);
- Developers and heads of departments (HODs) can contribute to reducing the potential isolation of teachers by promoting collegial activities such as mentoring, peer observation and feedback, reflective groups, team-building;
- Individual teachers also need to identify learning opportunities for their continuing professional development, whether in EDU / formal courses / own department / or through work experiences; portfolios offer a mechanism for recording and reflecting on professional learning;
- Institutions need to have ways of recognising and supporting excellence in teaching;
- The scholarship of teaching and learning can inform both the potential content of courses, and a sense of professionalism and collegiality in teaching.

4. Workplace learning and communities of practice

Unlike most schoolteachers, few tertiary teachers undertake a substantial pre-service training or education for teaching: they therefore learn mainly on-the-job, after their appointment (Ramsden, Margetson, Martin and Clarke, 1995; Smith, 1995; Johnston, 1998; Robson, 1998; Laurillard, 2002; Viskovic, 2005a). Depending on their institution's practice, they may engage in various off-job courses and professional development activities related to their teaching. Most tertiary teachers work in a series of overlapping contexts or communities, such as their institution, discipline or profession, department, programme or teaching team, and classes.

Thus both workplace learning and teachers' social contexts or communities should be of interest, but until recently they have not been a major focus for research on tertiary teaching. Many of the key writings on workplace learning and community of practice come from non-education contexts, but their ideas are relevant to consider in relation to tertiary teachers' workplace learning.

4.1 Community of practice

The concept of *community of practice* has been referred to in some of the studies cited above (Billett, 1998a; Zukas and Malcolm, 1999; Knight and Trowler, 2001). However, although

they referenced Lave and Wenger (1991) and/or Wenger (1998), community of practice was not their central subject: it has been more fully discussed in the studies I consider in this present section.

My main interest here is in the concept of *community of practice* as discussed by Wenger (1998, 2000), because much of the focus of those two studies was on learning in organisational communities, and so can be related to tertiary educational institutions.

Legitimate peripheral participation and situated learning

Lave and Wenger (1991) studied forms of apprenticeship learning, which they linked to the concept of *situated learning*, and developed the related concepts of *legitimate peripheral participation* and *community of practice. Community of practice* they defined as "a set of relations among persons, activity and the world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities" (p. 98). *Legitimate peripheral participation* meant that newcomers to a community of practitioners were legitimately part of that community, gradually moving into full participation as they learned and contributed to the community's culture and practices. The concept also included the learning of old-timers, both from each other and from newcomers:

> Legitimate peripheral participation refers to both the development of knowledgeably skilled identities in practice and to the reproduction and transformation of communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991, p. 55).

Lave and Wenger saw the learning of members of a community as *situated*, meaning that members were all learning by being part of a social context of real practice, involving much more than just 'learning by doing'. *Situated* did not refer just to the location of people's thoughts and actions in space and time, or just to people 'receiving' a body of skills or factual knowledge about the world; rather it involved an emphasis on "activity in and with the world; and on the view that agent, activity and the world mutually constitute each other" (ibid., p. 33). That view of situated learning was consistent with the earlier work of Brown, Collins and Duguid (1989), who contrasted decontextualised school learning with the informal situated learning of craft apprentices and concluded that authentic activity was needed as part of the process of enculturation into a community of practitioners.

Other studies that have considered situated learning include Lave (1993), Brown and Duguid (1993) and Billett (1996). Lave (1993) discussed practice, learning and context as situated activity, emphasising social engagement as a key element: "People in activity are skilled at, and are more often than not engaged in, helping each other to participate in changing ways in a changing world" (p. 5). Brown and Duguid (1993) emphasised that "Situation is not simply the physical context - it has social connotations" (p. 13). Billett (1996) defined situated learning as: "… learning through goal-directed activity situated in circumstances which are authentic, in terms of the intended application of the learnt knowledge" (p. 263). He emphasised the importance of socio-cultural as well as cognitive factors in the development of knowledge and expertise.

A synthesis of those positions means we can use *situated learning* to refer to the workplace learning of tertiary teachers, gained through participating in social groups (communities of practice) in authentic settings, resulting in the acquisition and sharing of skills, knowledge, attitudes and values that are relevant to and applied in those settings (i.e. in tertiary institutions).

Cognitive apprenticeship

While Lave and Wenger's (1991) work developed from studies of traditional craft apprenticeship, several other studies have focused more on the concept of *cognitive apprenticeship*. Brown et al. (1989) discussed comparisons between traditional and cognitive apprenticeship. Farmer et al. (1992), cited above (page 22), related cognitive apprenticeship to continuing professional education. LeGrand Brandt, Farmer and Buckmaster (1993) linked cognitive apprenticeship to helping adults, as a supplement to traditional types of instruction and self-directed learning experiences. Referring to people needing to learn to deal with "ill-defined, complex and risky problems", they said: "Cognitive apprenticeship provides access to knowledge that traditional forms of instruction cannot offer. This is knowledge normally held tacitly about how to perform in the real world" (p. 167).

Bonk and Kim (1998) referred to cognitive apprenticeship in a discussion of socio-cultural theory in relation to adult learning. They noted that "In focusing on the context or activity, rather than the individual, socio-cultural theorists highlight the social aspect of learning and cognition" (p. 69). They listed a range of teaching methods suited to cognitive apprenticeship (modeling, coaching, scaffolding and fading, articulation, reflection and exploration) and noted that adult learning experts such as Apps (1991), Brookfield (1990) and Jarvis (1995) already espoused such teaching approaches for adult learners. Guile and Young (2001) also discussed apprenticeship as a social theory of learning, concluding that an advantage of that focus was that it "does not rely on behaviourist and individualistic assumptions about the learner or on a transmission model of teaching" (p. 62).

Cognitive apprenticeship can thus be seen as complementing traditional craft apprenticeship in providing another approach to workplace learning, including learning within professional occupations. Associating it with socio-cultural aspects of learning and performing in the real world also links it to situated learning and community of practice.

Concepts associated with community of practice

Wenger (1998) elaborated on the concept of community of practice that had been introduced in Lave and Wenger (1991), arguing for it to be seen as a social theory of learning with four interconnected components: meaning, practice, community and identity. *Meaning* referred to people's ability to experience the world and life as meaningful; *practice* to the shared frameworks and resources that support action; *community* to the social configurations in which enterprises are defined as worth pursuing; and *identity* to the way learning changes who people are within the context of their communities. While he referred (pp. 100-101) to the concepts of peripherality, legitimacy and situated learning developed in Lave and Wenger (1991), they were not a major concern of this work, but he continued to refer to 'newcomers' and 'old-timers'.

Wenger talked about communities of practice thus:

> We all belong to communities of practice. At home, at work, at school, in our hobbies – we belong to several communities of practice at any given time. And the communities of practice to which we belong change over the course of our lives… They are so informal and so pervasive that they rarely come into explicit focus, but for the same reasons they are also quite familiar (Wenger,pp. 6-7).

For Wenger, indicators of a community of practice were things like knowing who belongs; shared ways of doing things; sustained mutual relationships (which might be harmonious or conflictual); rapid flow of information and propagation of innovation; knowing what others know and can do; jargon, shortcuts, local stories and inside jokes; ability to assess what is appropriate in a situation; shared discourse reflecting a certain perspective on the world.

Wenger distinguished between large organisations and communities of practice within them, and argued that placing the focus on participation had broad implications for what it takes to understand and support learning in communities of practice:

- For *individuals*, it means that learning is an issue of engaging in and contributing to the practices of their communities
- For *communities*, it means that learning is an issue of refining their practice and ensuring new generations of members
- For *organisations*, it means that learning is an issue of sustaining the interconnected communities of practice through which an organisation knows what it knows… (ibid., pp. 7-8).

Learning in practice involved several processes for communities and their members:

- evolving forms of mutual engagement;
- understanding and tuning a sense of joint enterprise; and
- developing their repertoire, styles and discourses (ibid., p. 95).

In considering the relationship between individuals and their communities, Wenger used the notion of *trajectories* to discuss people's change and movement over time and location. He saw practices in a community evolving as *shared histories of learning*, a combination of personal and collective experiences reified and intertwined over time. The development of *identity* over time was critical: "We are always simultaneously dealing with specific situations, participating in the histories of certain practices, and involved in becoming certain persons" (ibid, p. 155). Encounters between different generations of participants (*newcomers* and *old-timers*) brought together different perspectives that contributed to the experience of the community.

Organisations as social learning systems

Following Wenger (1998), several studies have focused on communities in large organisations. Brown and Duguid (1998) discussed the organisation of knowledge in firms, seeing it as the accumulated knowledge held in a community of practice. Wenger (2000) considered what organisations needed to do to "design themselves as social learning systems" (p. 225). Three constitutive elements of a social learning system were *communities of practice* (within a larger organisation); *boundary processes* among those communities (movement of members and exchange of ideas between communities); and *identities* as shaped by individuals' participation in the systems. Wenger acknowledged that some communities could become insular and defensive; that boundaries could create divisions as well as positive exchanges; and that traditional management systems did not always foster the collegiality, reciprocity and negotiated learning that were the currency of a social learning system (p. 243).

Wenger, McDermott and Snyder (2002) discussed the 'cultivation' of communities of practice and their stages of development. They distinguished between communities of practice (evolving and ending organically, with fuzzy boundaries) and other workplace groups such as departments and project teams (with formal functions and clear boundaries). "Because

communities of practice are organic, designing them is more a matter of shepherding their evolution than designing them from scratch" (p. 51).

Tertiary education institutions are organisations that have organic communities of practice within them, as discussed here and as shown by some of the literature on tertiary institutions (e.g. Martin, 1999; McNay, 2000; Kogan, 2000; Knight and Trowler, 2001; Knight, 2002; Astin, 2003). It is also possible for some formally established units, such as faculties and departments, to be perceived by their members as being communities of practice.

Educators' views of situated learning and community of practice

Gonczi (2001) took a positive approach to the concepts of community of practice and apprenticeship in education for the professions:

> … the best way to prepare people for professional practice is through some form of apprenticeship - an educational process in which the exercise of judgement and the ability to act in the (professional) world would emerge out of the complex interactions to be found in a community of practice… (p. 2).

Eraut (2002) accepted Lave and Wenger's (1991) argument that participation in a community of practice was a good way to learn, but he questioned their proposition that it was the only way to learn. Laurillard (2002) concluded that 'authentic activity' was valuable, but she questioned the value of informal, situated knowledge on its own, if not complemented by some more academic, theoretical learning.

Thus, while situated learning in a community of practice was recognised in several studies, it was not necessarily sufficient as the only form of learning, and its efficacy could depend on a range of factors in the work context. Some learning situations offer exposure to only a limited range of the skills or knowledge that could be relevant, and 'learning to cope' may not lead people to seek fuller explanations for their practice or alternative ways of understanding.

Community of practice in academic communities

Studies of academic communities that specifically referred to 'community of practice' began to emerge from about 2000 onward. Early examples included Malcolm and Zukas (2000), Trowler and Knight (2000), MacDonald (2001), Avis, Bathmaker and Parsons (2002), and Bathmaker and Avis (2005).

Malcolm and Zukas (2000) discussed academics' multiple identities as members of several communities within the university, such as their disciplines, departments or research groups. They noted that the work of Lave and Wenger, while encountered in some higher education discourse, and in practices such as mentoring, had not been widely explored in terms of implications for the learning of university teachers.

Trowler and Knight (2000) studied the experiences of new academic appointees in Canadian and English universities, and concluded that activity system theory (Engestrom, 1990) and the concept of community of practice contributed to a fuller understanding of their findings. Some implications for practice included:

- The rational-cognitive model of learning needs to be supplemented by a situated learning model, making induction a departmental/team concern;
- Tacit knowledge cannot simply be transmitted, constructivist learning needs support.

Viskovic and Robson (2001) found that Wenger's ideas of identity and community related well to the development and professional identity of lecturers in FE colleges (UK) and New Zealand polytechnics. In the United States, the concept of Faculty Learning Communities has been promoted at Miami University (Cox, 2001) and explored more fully in Cox and Richlin. Viskovic (2005b, 2006) used the concept of community of practice to analyse research findings on tertiary teachers' development in three different types of institution, leading to a proposal for using a community of practice framework for supporting teachers' workplace learning. The framework (see Appendix A) recognised multiple communities of practice within an institution, and included formal courses, less formal educational development, and ways of supporting informal learning in a teacher's immediate context, thus addressing the need for both academic and workplace learning.

Studies of aspects of community of practice in academic contexts have continued. Wisker et al. (2005) explored the processes of an ongoing community of practice involving colleagues in action research. Avis and Fisher (2006), from an FE context, said "Engagement in communities of practice has increasingly come to be seen as an important aspect of adult learning and continuous professional development" (p. 141) and linked this to online learning and virtual communities. Mittendorff et al. (2006) analysed three case studies of learning processes in different communities (a teaching department, an expert group, and a work team), to understand the characteristics of communities of practice and build a framework for judging their effectiveness. Warhurst (2006) examined the pedagogic learning of a group of new lecturers participating in a formal teaching development programme: he observed differences and relationships between practice associated with the teaching development community and the evolution of practice situated in departmental communities. Laksov et al. (2008) reported on a case study of a developer invited to work as consultant / broker / facilitator with a community of teachers in a department. The rationale for that approach was that:

> It is neither easy to change teacher thinking, nor is it easy to change teaching practice by handing teachers the tools to do this in a course… The process of influencing teachers' thinking should include working with the communities within which they practise. One way of doing this is to apply the theory of communities of practice to the academic department (p. 121).

Community of practice has thus been shown to be relevant to academic communities and their development, and is starting to be explored in those contexts. Situated learning has been less often referred to, however.

4.2 Studies of academic communities or cultures

This section includes studies of academic contexts and cultures; discussion of people's perceptions of collegiality or isolation; and examples of ways by which teachers and teaching can be supported in their academic communities. These studies have referred to 'communities', but not to Wenger's concept of 'community of practice'.

Studies of communities in academic contexts

Many issues can become a focus for identifying a community of interest, and groups and cultures may overlap. Examples of studies from further and higher education in the UK and Australia include: Ainley and Bailey (1997), Hodkinson (1998), Avis (1999), Adams (1998), Trowler (1998), Martin (1999), Taylor (1999), McNay (2000), Becher and Trowler (2002),

Silver (2003). Examples from the USA include Austin (1990), Angelo (1997), Baker (1999), Astin (2003), and Shulman (1993, 2004). Examples from New Zealand include: Fitzsimons (1997), Sutherland (1999), Perry (2000), Gilbert and Cameron (2002), and Taurima and Cash (2000). Common themes have been changes in institutional contexts and the ways that groups, as well as individuals within them, have responded.

Perceptions of collegiality in academic communities

Other writers have examined aspects of collegiality, both positive and negative, as perceived in modern academic life. Blunden (1996) identified possible conflicts between academics' loyalties to discipline, students, colleagues, employing institution, and society, and therefore the potential for ethical dilemmas. Massy and Wilger (1994) discussed "hollowed" collegiality, suggesting that fragmented communication patterns can isolate individuals, tight resources can strain faculty relationships, and prevailing methods of evaluation and reward can undermine efforts to create more faculty interaction. O'Neill and Meek (1994) examined academic professionalism and the self-regulation of performance, and found tension between quality assurance systems and individuals' professional values. Kogan (2000) studied higher education communities and academic identity, commenting that the use of the term "community" was "slippery" (p.207) and needed to be better defined.

Findings of conflict, negativity and tension in such studies are consistent with Brown and Duguid's (1993) observation that communities can be diffuse, fragmented and contentious, not necessarily warm and welcoming, and Wenger's (1998) comment that relationships in a community may be conflictual rather than harmonious.

Promoting or supporting change in academic communities

While the writers above raised concerns about some characteristics of academic communities, others have focused on a need for culture change to support teaching and teachers. For example, Shelton and DeZure (1993) discussed a wide range of issues for college teaching in the USA, and concluded:

> Improving college teaching and elevating its status will require changes in the prevailing culture of the academy, a culture that has become rigidly entrenched and resistant to efforts to change it. Long-term answers involve systemic changes in our institutional culture - not singular solutions limited to a Teacher of the Year Award or appointment of a low-budget Office of Instructional Effectiveness (p. 28).

The "solitude of teaching" was a focus for Hutchings (1994), who concluded that a change in campus culture was needed for faculty to become "professional colleagues to each other in teaching as they are in research" (p. 20). Willcoxson and Walker (1995) discussed valuing teaching as a strategy for changing the organisational culture of an academic department, but recognised that fundamental change in values and assumptions would occur only slowly.

Johnston (1997b) noted that academic work was often "a complex, individual and private activity" (p. 257), which needed to be acknowledged in professional development provision. Kraft (2000) echoed Massy and Wilger (1994) in talking of the isolation of faculty life in colleges in the USA, but found faculty who did want to connect. By contrast, sustained collegial development of a community culture over time can be seen in the example of Alverno College since the late 1970s (Mentkowski and Associates, 2002).

Several writers have observed that change may be more readily achievable at a departmental rather than institutional level. For example, Bishop and Graham (1997), in a study of the implementation of Treaty of Waitangi goals in a New Zealand university, found that running workshops with departmental groups was effective. Knight and Trowler (2000) explored the influences of departmental culture and leadership, and concluded that exhortations for better teaching or learning would have little impact unless departmental cultures were conducive to better teaching. Cranton and Carusetta (2002) studied a newly-formed group of teachers implementing an integrated, cross-faculty curriculum, and found that: "Faculty who were discouraged by the traditional university culture found a place to belong, a place where teaching was valued and discussed" (p. 176). Major and Palmer (2006) studied faculty members participating in a campus-wide problem-based learning initiative, focusing on the process of transforming faculty pedagogical content knowledge.

Overall, many of the writers on higher education communities or cultures have seen academics' disciplines or departments as their communities, but few referred to a strong community sense of a *teaching* culture. Recognition of the effects of long-standing assumptions, the slowness of cultural change, and a need to strengthen community attitudes towards teaching were common themes.

4.3 Studies of workplace learning

The studies referred to above on community of practice led me to a further exploration of learning in workplace settings. Most writers in this category had not investigated tertiary institutions as sites of workplace learning for their own staff.

Since the early 1990s there have been many studies relating to workplace learning. Examples include: Billett (1995, 1996, 1998a, 1998b, 2004) on socio-cultural theories of workplace learning; Boud (1998), Garrick (1998) and Boud and Garrick (1999) on informal learning and current issues in workplace learning; Evans, Hodkinson and Unwin, (2002) and Rainbird, Fuller and Munro (2004) on trends in the UK and on workplace learning in context. Eraut has written about tacit knowledge in professional work (2000), learning community (2002) and informal workplace learning (2004). Beckett and Hager (2002) discussed a postmodern view of learning, practice and judgement, and Hager (2004) examined conceptions of learning related to work. Fuller, Hodkinson, Hodkinson, and Unwin (2005) revisited the notion of legitimate peripheral participation. Workplace learning in the "spaces and time where social and work overlap, such as breaks in tearooms" have been studied by Solomon, Boud and Rooney (2006, p. 3). Typical issues discussed in those studies included: the effects of changing work contexts; effects of culture, gender and the politics of equity; apprenticeship; experience, expertise and tacit knowledge; lifelong learning; individual vs. social learning; know-how and the development of practical judgement. Some examples particularly relevant to this study are identified below.

Definitions of formal and informal learning

Marsick and Watkins (1990, 2001) differentiated between formal, informal and incidental learning. They saw *formal* learning as classroom-based and highly structured, though not necessarily assessed or leading to qualifications; *informal* learning was not classroom-based, but intentional and learner-controlled; and *incidental* learning was a subset of informal, arising as a by-product of some other activity. Examples of informal learning include self-directed learning, networking, coaching, mentoring; incidental learning could arise from task accomplishment, interpersonal interaction, sensing the organisational culture, trial-and-error

experimentation, or even during formal learning. Marsick and Watkins' (1990) meanings for *formal, informal* and *incidental* learning were used in the case studies in Viskovic (2005a).

Eraut (2004) discussed *informal* learning in the workplace in similar terms, saying it provided a contrast to *formal* learning (which was highly structured and often led to qualifications), took place in a wider range of settings, and recognised the social significance of learning with and from other people. He also noted that informal learning was often invisible, taken for granted or not recognised: the resultant knowledge was either tacit or regarded as part of a person's capability, rather than learned. Discourse about learning was dominated by codified, propositional knowledge, and so people often found it difficult to describe expertise and personal knowledge arising from informal learning. Hager (2004) considered that much writing on workplace learning had tended to take the notion of learning as unproblematic, shaped by people's understandings of learning in formal educational situations. As a result, views of learning as a product rather than process had distorted attempts at understanding, and tacit learning tended to be regarded with suspicion.

Apprenticeship and factors influencing workplace learning

Traditional apprenticeships for skilled tradespeople have involved three key dimensions: a contractual framework, socialisation into workplaces and roles, and associated formal and informal on- and off-job learning experiences. Lave (1996) challenged the conventional perception of apprenticeship as "impoverished simple non-creative task learning" (p. 154), arguing that situated learning was not inferior to the decontextualised learning that takes place in formal study. Billett (1995) supported apprentice-type learning as seen in trade training or the internship of novice doctors; but he acknowledged factors that could limit its efficacy, such as the reluctance of experts to provide mentoring or coaching, absence of expertise in some instances, and limited access to some workplace activities. Other writers who have linked the notion of apprenticeship to professional occupations include Gonczi (2001), cited earlier, and Beckett and Hager (2002) (see following subsection).

Billett (1998b) discussed factors to be taken account of in adult workplace learning, including findings that:

- Individuals' construction of knowledge appears to be based on their idiosyncratic personal histories;
- Engagement in particular activities is likely to result in the construction of particular forms of knowledge;
- The types of activities that individuals engage in, and the particular circumstances, influence learning and transfer (pp. 269-270).

Tennant (2000) identified skills and attitudes required for learning from experience in the workplace, which included the ability to: analyse workplace experiences; learn from others; act without all the facts available; choose among multiple courses of action; learn about organisational culture; and understand the competing and varied interests in the shaping of one's work or professional identity.

Where people in a professional occupation such as tertiary teaching are learning in a workplace setting, then an apprenticeship-type arrangement could be an appropriate form of support at an early stage in their new appointment, and experiential learning skills developed in previous workplaces may well be drawn upon.

Balancing informal and formal learning

Beckett and Hager (2002) discussed know-how, practice and practical judgement in the work of professionals. They argued that much academic writing in the past, by ignoring apprenticeship as a mode of adult learning, had rendered learning-by-doing “invisible” (p. 14). They proposed a model of vocational formation “in which well-supported mixtures of formal and informal learning contribute to the development of productive, postmodern practitioners” (p. 191).

Fuller and Unwin (2002) also recommended formal studies to complement informal workplace learning, citing Engestrom for support: “…most of everyday learning consists of conditioning, imitation and trial and error. Investigative deep level learning is relatively rare without instruction…” (Engestrom, 1994, p. 48). Fuller and Unwin identified five broad models of pedagogy for the workplace: transmission; competence-based learning and assessment; informal acquisition of tacit skills; learning through participation in a community of practice; and a model based on Engestrom’s activity theory.

Those two studies thus complement earlier work (Baskett et al., 1992; Eraut, 1994; Cleminson and Bradford, 1996; Johnston, 1998) that recommended that both informal workplace learning and formal programmes were needed in the education of professionals.

Individual agency and power relations in workplaces

Eraut (2002) concluded that learning from other people and through overcoming the challenges posed by the work itself were inter-related, and depended on factors such as the frequency and nature of interpersonal encounters, and the nature and structure of work. In a dysfunctional community, the role of individual agency might be ignored. Rainbird, Fuller and Munro (2004) emphasised that: “In the workplace, the nature and focus of strategic decisions, power relations and the employment relationship are central to understanding the opportunities and constraints on learning” (p. 2). Rainbird, Munro and Holly (2004) acknowledged the value of social learning through participation in work, but critiqued Lave and Wenger’s theory of situated learning for its lack of analysis of the power relationships that underpinned workplace practices.

Billett (2004) also drew attention to individual agency, arguing that participation in workplace learning depended on two related factors: the extent to which individuals had the opportunity to participate in activities and interact with co-workers, and the extent to which individuals chose to engage in the opportunities that were available. Measures to protect continuity of the workplace or the interests of particular groups often underpinned the structuring of both opportunities and barriers to learning.

4.4 Implications for the education and development of tertiary teachers

The ideas discussed in this section of the review, especially those relating to communities of practice and workplace learning, are relevant to understanding the learning of tertiary teachers, both new and more experienced. The informal learning of newer tertiary teachers could well be described as a form of unstructured professional apprenticeship. A tertiary teacher’s ‘apprenticeship’ involves not only gaining knowledge about education and teaching, but also social enculturation, and development of skilled practice and a workplace identity. The nature and influence of the groups in which tertiary teachers work need to be considered, and also the ways by which meanings and practices are transmitted, maintained and contributed to in their workplaces. Related concepts to consider include cognitive

apprenticeship, identity formation, trajectories and boundary-crossing (Wenger, 1998). Tertiary teachers' membership of multiple communities (such as institution, department, work group, discipline, or profession) is also an issue to consider, as they may find differing views on teaching within those communities.

Few papers in the other sections of this survey have applied the concepts of community of practice and workplace learning to the learning of tertiary teachers. Other terms that studies in the other sections rarely used include: authentic activity, enculturation, apprenticeship, socio-cultural practice, informal and incidental learning, know-how, practical judgement, and learning organisation. Some terms did arise in the wider literature, such as self-directed and experiential learning, reflection, mentoring, competence, expertise, collegiality, culture of an academic department or institution.

Studies of workplace learning or organisational learning contribute to developing our understanding of tertiary teachers who are learning to teach in institutional settings. The work of writers such as Beckett and Hager (2002) or Fuller and Unwin (2002) emphasises that, while informal workplace learning is important, it should be balanced by some more formal learning. Communities of practice can be positive settings for workplace learning, sources of opportunities for social learning and the acquisition of tacit knowledge, but the effects of power structures and issues of individual agency also need to be considered. Lack of role models for teaching expertise may also be a factor for some new teachers in specialist areas.

In the literature of this section I recognised concepts that intuitively 'made sense of' many of my own experiences as a tertiary teacher and as an educational developer. I am surprised that some of these ideas have not been more widely taken up as a basis for examining the support given to tertiary teachers, especially newcomers to a community. Perhaps it is a matter of identifying and re-visiting tacit assumptions about 'the way we do things here' in tertiary institutions: these may not have been given high priority during a period of major changes and external pressures. I also note that a number of the publications that most interested me have appeared from about 2000 onwards, suggesting comparatively recent growth in awareness of such issues.

These findings from studies surveyed here can contribute to educational development and/or courses on tertiary teaching:

- Teachers' own working environments are strong sources of informal learning about teaching – through experiential learning, situated learning, authentic activity;
- It is important to develop collegial processes to make tacit knowledge explicit, shared and continued in a community of practice;
- Research on apprenticeship-type processes suggests they can provide a valuable support for teachers' development within their immediate work groups – forms of supported workplace learning include cognitive apprenticeship, probation, mentoring and being mentored, reflection, peer observation and feedback;
- Developers and HODs who are providing support to newer staff need to take into account social enculturation and the development of workplace identity, within teachers' communities of practice: it can be useful to include specific learning about the characteristics of communities of practice;
- Institutions, developers and HODs need to consider, when planning workshops or courses for staff, ways of achieving a balance of formal and informal learning opportunities (Becket and Hager, 2002, Fuller and Unwin, 2002);

- Wenger's work on communities of practice provides a rationale for conscious efforts by faculties, departments and educational development units to develop a sense of teaching community, through sharing of knowhow and skills, mutual engagement, continuity and growth in knowledge and practice;
- Teachers' membership of multiple communities provides opportunities for learning and sharing learning through border crossing;
- Research shows that problems in workplace learning can be associated with power issues, or a lack of expertise, mentors, work opportunities, etc, in a given workplace.

5. Educational Development for Tertiary Teachers

In this section the term *educational development* is used to mean in-service development focussed on the teaching area of academics' work (also referred to in the literature as academic development, education development, professional development or staff development). I use *Educational Development Unit* (EDU) as a generic term for the centres, units or departments that provide such development. Courses or programmes that lead to formal qualifications, although frequently based in EDUs and delivered by EDU staff, are discussed separately in section 6, following. Section 5 includes a number of issues that are relevant to educational development in New Zealand institutions.

5.1 The nature of educational development

Directions in Staff Development (Brew, 1995) provided an overview whose contents were typical of the range found in publications on educational development in tertiary education. Brew's introduction set the scene:

> Staff developers are essentially pragmatists, concentrating on the next meeting or the next course or consultation. The best of this work is informed by theories about the nature of human learning and curriculum, and by values about what a university is. More often than not these ideas are not articulated. (pp. 1-2).

Brew acknowledged contextual influences on teaching and learning, and the many roles that developers undertook. Other chapters addressed topics such as action research, courses on teaching, staff projects, student feedback, or quality assurance: they focused more on practice than on underpinning theory, except for a final chapter on areas of challenge (Boud, 1995). Boud identified two conceptions of staff development (his term): first as the "conscience of learning and teaching" (p. 204) in the university, and second as a key institutional and personnel function. He summarised developments in learning theory that had implications for staff development - several relating to contextual learning in organisations had rarely appeared in the literature on tertiary teaching before that time:

- Learning occurs whether there is formal instruction or not
- Learning is relational
- Learning that occurs away from the workplace may be necessary, but is intrinsically limited
- Learning in organisations is typically problem-oriented
- Learning in the workplace is a social activity that is influenced by the norms and values of the workplace
- Learners' expectations are a function of their prior experience
- Learning from experience requires attention to reflection and processing of experience (Boud, 1995, p. 209).

Weimer's (1996) introductory chapter in Menges and Weimer (1996) provided a theoretical underpinning for the rest of that book, emphasising the scholarship of teaching (Boyer, 1990). Other chapters, however, focused more on practical issues of college teaching in the US, thus echoing the pattern found in Brew (1995). A practical focus is also seen in Johnston and Adams' (1996) description of an EDU at an Australian university, whose work would be typical of many EDUs:

> … a very busy programme of activities, such as workshops, seminars, the introduction of a student feedback service, individual consultations, collaborative projects with faculties and other groups, and input to policies and procedures through membership of committees. A regular newsletter informed about forthcoming activities and provided ideas related to teaching. Several resource booklets were produced to provide useful, accessible advice… (p. 22).

When Johnston (1996b, 1997b) studied how teaching-related professional development was prioritised and fitted into the busy working lives of university lecturers, she found that staff tended to respond reactively to occasional activities (if they had time), rather than pre-planning their professional development or engaging in longer formal courses.

A theme noted in several studies was the varied needs of academics that EDUs were expected to support. For example, Brew and Boud (1996) observed a growing need to support university teachers "being appointed from a greater range of backgrounds and types of experience and performing an increasingly diverse range of roles" (p. 17). They concluded that staff development needed to recognise the individualistic, autonomous nature of most academic work, and academic values held by established staff but not necessarily shared by newcomers. Thompson (1998) also linked professional development needs to the changing roles of academics. Stefani (1999) noted the diversity of backgrounds of the developers themselves, but observed that, while academic development was a diverse and complex profession, it was not highly valued at institutional or departmental levels. Pill (2005) identified four models for educational development for new tertiary teachers (reflective practice, action research, novice to expert, and metacognitive) but found a lack of shared language and explicit knowledge about such models.

Gosling (2001) reviewed the situation of EDUs in the UK, five years after an earlier study (Gosling, 1996). He had originally listed their basic functions as some or all of:

- improvement of teaching,
- professional development of staff,
- organisational and policy development, and
- learning development of students.

Gosling argued there was a need for more contestation of the notion of development (citing the influence of Webb, 1996a, 1996b) and a growing interest in the scholarship of teaching (citing Boyer, 1990, and Hutchings and Shulman, 1999). He therefore added two more EDU functions:

- informed debate about learning, teaching and the goals of education; and
- promotion of the scholarship of teaching and research into higher education.

Writers who have linked university staff development to the concept of organisational learning include Candy (1996), James (1997) and Knight (2006). Candy (1996) argued that academic development in a learning organisation should be:

- Anticipatory rather than reactive;

- Research-based and theoretically rigorous;
- Exemplary in terms of modelling best practice in teaching/learning;
- Embedded in the institutional culture and context;
- Reflective, and encourage reflective awareness of practice; and
- Geared towards lifelong personal / professional development (p. 11).

James (1997) emphasised principles of organisational learning theory as a basis for staff development:

> The concept derives from a principally democratic view of organisation, placing faith in flexible structures and dispersed learning rather than hierarchical structures. The broad idea, therefore, is of an organisation able to change through the learning of its individual members (p. 36).

Knight (2006) linked educational professional development to the enhancement of teaching quality, and discussed systemic implications for organisational quality enhancement practices.

Two books by Macdonald and Wisdom (2002) and Kahn and Baume (2004), and a special issue of the *International Journal for Academic Development* (Vol. 8, 2003), discussed continuing trends in educational development, including more research and scholarly work by the developers themselves. Macdonald and Wisdom focused on the contribution of academic development to research and to changing teaching practices within subjects, departments and institutions. Kahn and Baume provided a more general overview of educational development practices, and can be seen as an update on Brew (1995). Stefani (in Kahn and Baume, 2004) observed that the move by most EDUs in the UK to offer qualifications in teaching for new staff meant that developers were "adopting a scholarly rather than a training focus" (p. 17).

There have been many journal articles (e.g. in *Higher Education Research and Development* or the *International Journal for Academic Development)* and conference papers (e.g. from HERDSA conferences) that address specific educational development activities, mainly in universities. There are far too many to include, and so I represent them here by just two examples: Sandretto, Kane and Heath (2002) reported research evaluating a Teaching Intervention Programme offered for novice academics by the EDU of a NZ university, using videotapes as a basis for stimulated recall to help make tacit theories about teaching and learning more explicit. Kember et al. (2008) described a workshop activity to demonstrate that learning approaches are influenced by the teaching and learning environment.

Articles about educational development in further education have been fewer, and are more likely to appear in journals such as *Research in Post-Compulsory Education* (e.g. Avis, 2002); *Journal of Vocational Education and Training* (e.g. Bailey and Robson, 2002); or *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Vocational Education Research* (e.g. Robson, 2002). A typical example is Harris et al. (2001), on the changing role of staff development for teachers and trainers in Australian vocational education and training, which found factors similar to those affecting polytechnics and PTEs in New Zealand: training and development provisions for permanent staff were better than those for casual or part-time staff; and time, access, lack of funding and lack of information were significant barriers to development for non-permanent staff. Brown et al. (2008) critiqued a nationally funded programme of continuous professional development for the FE system in the UK, concluding that, "transformation had been achieved in the areas of subject pedagogy and individual professional identity. Transformation across whole organisations proved harder to achieve" (p. 427).

Some studies of educational development in New Zealand

Viskovic (2005a) found that in most New Zealand institutions educational development was available, but concluded that the engagement of teachers with EDU staff and activities was often sporadic and inconsistent, and EDUs had limited influence on institutional attitudes to valuing teaching. A community of practice framework was therefore proposed that incorporated both professional development and experiential learning (see Appendix A). In another NZ study, Sutherland (2006) studied short introduction to university learning and teaching (IULT) programmes offered by EDUs, comparing common areas of content, objectives, and areas where they matched aspects of the UK Higher Education Academy (HEA) Framework of Standards (see Appendix B). Sutherland discussed the potential for a draft NZ framework for IULT, to be theory-driven, research-led, contextually responsive, and developed collaboratively. Gossman (2008) proposed a structure for professional development that integrated the Dreyfus and Dreyfus developmental stages with Haigh's (2005) 3 Rs model – rules, reflection and research. His discussion addressed conceptions-of-teaching theories, and the ways they impact on teachers' progression from novice to expert.

Individual support for academics

While workshops and seminars are common forms of educational development for groups, more individually focused approaches are also used. Mentoring support has been discussed in papers such as Mathias (2005), Barkham (2005), and Miller, Wadkins and Davis (2008). Mathias noted that mentoring is common in initial teaching programmes, but the mentor tends to be a critical friend, with little formal influence in the programme. Barkham reviewed the experience of being mentored as a new teacher in HE over a year, and saw the process of mentoring as an investment in staff and institutional evolution. Miller at al included observation and feedback on teaching in the mentoring process, and concluded that, "Mentoring is a process that allows us to not only educate and train new additions to faculty, but to nurture them as well" (p. 142). Teaching observation by educational developers, combined with critical reflection, was discussed by Hatzipanagos and Lygo-Baker (2006). Cowan and Westwood (2006) reported on collaborative reflection, based on journal writing, used as professional development by experienced university teachers. Cooper and Stevens (2006) also looked at journal keeping, for personal review as well as record-keeping. Portfolios have become a popular topic, used for assessment and accreditation (in teaching programmes), for personal development and critical reflection, and sometimes for promotion applications. Studies of portfolio use include Harland (2005), Klenowski et al. (2006), and Heinrich (2008). Klenowski et al. noted that the use of portfolios for summative assessment of teaching and reflection dominated the literature: they looked instead for insights into portfolio use to develop understanding of one's learning and practice. Heinich's paper discussed the use of electronic portfolios.

Not all those studies involve educational developers, as such approaches can also be used in teachers' own teaching contexts with peers. Similarly, induction programmes are not necessarily handled by an EDU, and may be more the responsibility of heads of department (Staniforth and Harland, 2006). Prebble et al. (2004) identified five main forms of academic development, three of which are focused on mainly individual support: professional development within the work group; peer assessment and guidance; and use of student evaluation of teaching (the other two forms are short courses and intensive study). They observed that, "…working with individual members of staff in a consulting or mentoring role is an effective if relatively expensive use of the development resource" (p. 49).

Providing for part-time staff development

Part-time (also called adjunct, tutorial, or sessional) teachers are often not well catered for by institutions' educational development provisions, despite their being used for significant amounts of teaching in both higher and further education. In the USA, short courses are often provided for university teaching assistants (TAs), before they reach full academic appointments. Nyquist, Abbott and Wulff, (1989) discussed the training of TAs, but noted the lack of adequate training and the complexity of the contexts in which they worked (p. 1). Ten years later Nyquist et al. (1999) found similar concerns still remained to be addressed. An AUTC project that investigated the work of sessional teachers has developed good practice guidelines (Australian Universities Teaching Committee, 2003). Bryson (2006) reviewed research to date for the HEA in the UK, which was establishing a Part-Time Teachers' Network. Knight, Baume et al. (2006) reported on a qualitative study of part-time Open University teachers, concluding that requiring individual teachers to attend courses and development events was not enough, and an ecological process of professional apprenticeship was also needed. They also noted (p. 12):

> There are radical implications for educational developers if the importance of situated, non-formal learning is recognised. Such learning does not imply an absence of formal provision. For example, Dearn and colleagues (2002) [3] make an extended case for more systematic formal provision in the light of their review of professional development for university teaching in Australia.

Other recent articles addressing part-time teachers include Fagen-Wilen et al. (2006); Ryan and Sheridan (2007); Kofod et al. (2008); Jameson and Hillier (2008); and Landrum (2008). However, despite this growing research interest, little widespread change in practice for supporting part-time teaching staff has been reported to date.

Books about teaching and learning

There is a substantial literature in book form that could be said to complement the work of educational development units – indeed, Weimer has referred to "a virtual library of tomes, (some comparatively well known, most obscure) that are part of higher education's pedagogy" (1996, p. 1). Such books commonly address topics such as teaching techniques, course planning, assessment, supervision, evaluation, reflection, action research and so on; more recent examples add e-learning. Many, such as the SEDA series published by Kogan Page, have been written by educational developers (e.g. Brown and Race, 1995). These books can be used as references by developers when planning workshops, as texts in formal courses on teaching, or as 'self-help manuals' by individual teachers. Typical examples from higher education include: Ramsden (1992); Biggs (1999); Prosser and Trigwell (1999); Light and Cox (2001). Typical examples from adult and further education include: Ashcroft and Foreman-Peck (1994); Rogers (1996); Wallace (2001); Jarvis (2002); Armitage et al. (2003); Zepke, Nugent and Leach (2003).

More recent additions include Corder (2008) and Gravells (2008), the latter linked to the 'lifelong learning sector' terminology now in use in the UK. A growing concern for supporting student retention is typified by Crosling et al. (2008). A recent compilation by Illeris (2009) brings together current views on learning theories that are likely to influence

[3] Dearn et al (2002) is referred to more fully below, page 41.

both the content of development courses and teachers' practice. A check on the Macmillan/Routledge list of publications displayed at the HERDSA 2008 Conference shows that about one third of the titles were on teaching, assessment, student support or e-learning – so new works still keep coming. E-learning publications (journals as well as books) have been proliferating since the turn of the century: recent typical examples include Beetham and Sharpe (2007) on rethinking pedagogy for a digital age; Mason and Rennie (2008) with an e-learning handbook; Savin-Baden (2008) on problem-based online learning; or Sutherland-Smith (2008) on the Internet and plagiarism.

The literature outlined in this subsection indicates that EDUs have become an established part of most tertiary education institutions, and that most EDUs fulfil a range of functions as called for by their context. Some of those functions depend on their location (central or departmental), which is considered in the next section. What the literature did not reveal, however, was how many academics use the services of their institution's EDU at various stages in their careers; and how many make use of the books and journals about teaching and learning as well as, or instead of, going to their EDU for help or ideas.

5.2 The location of educational development

There has been considerable debate over whether educational development should be provided by a central institutional unit or distributed through departments, and whether it should be located in academic units, or in departments such as human resources, or varying combinations of those. Land (2001) suggested that developers could also be located theoretically "in terms of their tendency towards emancipatory purposes (critique) or domesticating purposes (institutional policy)" (p. 4). The following paragraphs indicate the types of issues that have been discussed.

Gibbs (1996) observed that most educational development in universities was organised in centrally funded and staffed units; but departments and disciplines were also given considerable independence. Central EDU provision tended to focus on individuals attending workshops or seminars, and few events reached more than a small proportion of academics. Training in generic skills was also unlikely to address context-specific problems. Gibbs therefore proposed centrally-funded but departmentally-oriented educational development. Jenkins (1996) also argued for discipline-based educational development, "to have a significant impact on the broad mass of staff" (p. 50) and to address specialist pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986, 1987).

Studies in the US literature have similarly emphasised activities that are best carried out within a department, such as Quinlan's (1996) discussion of using mentoring, coaching, portfolios and teaching circles for involving faculty in peer evaluation and improvement of teaching. Richardson and Sylvester (1998), from a New Zealand polytechnic, proposed a strong central unit, to have critical mass in the institution, but decentralised provision. They agreed with Johnston (1997a) that there was a tension for staff in EDUs who were trying to balance individualised consultancy for academics against working to influence the wider institution. Issues of scale also influenced provision in a smaller institution such as a polytechnic.

Hicks (1999) analysed academic development in Australian universities using a framework with a central/local dimension and a generic/discipline-specific dimension. He concluded that the dominant form of education development still lay in central units' generic programmes, although he advocated an integrated model offering both local and central provision. The

local/central balancing act was a difficult one, raising issues such as: whether central/generic activities provided more open access; whether local initiatives would give sufficiently comprehensive coverage; whether a local/discipline focus might subordinate teaching issues to the content of the discipline (p. 49).

Some discussions of departmental-level development made little mention of the involvement of an EDU. Boud (1999) suggested that, while much informal academic development took place in academics' immediate professional settings, more formal approaches could also be adopted there, because "… it is in these sites that academic identity is formed and is most powerfully influenced" (p. 3). Knight and Trowler (2001), discussing departmental leadership, also advocated continuing professional development (CPD) within departments. They saw learning as "situated and contexted… located in the daily operations of activity systems or communities of practice" (p. 147). They challenged the dominant centralised model, saying: "Central staff development provision can easily be ignored by the disengaged… The community of practice approach to CPD is about trying to distribute expertise among team members" (p. 150).

Ferman (2002) found that academics favoured collaborative, workplace-embedded forms of professional development, linking this to academics' limited time for engaging in development and to theories of situated cognition and learning in a professional practice context. Stefani and Elton (2002) supported development in disciplinary contexts that made a link to teachers' research interests. They concluded that convincing university staff that teaching was a problematic and therefore researchable activity might best be achieved through teachers reflecting on problems in their own teaching, and then attempting to solve them in accordance with the culture of their discipline.

Radloff (2005) described a model of decentralised education development within a faculty. Its focus was on building staff capability, with links to the university's quality assurance framework. Institutional restructuring meant location was still an issue, however, and so "Some combination of centralised and decentralised approaches will be the most likely outcome… A good decision depends very much on how well the senior leadership understand the kinds of capabilities staff need to support quality teaching and learning and operate as self-managing professionals…" (p. 87). Harwood and Clarke (2006) have also argued that developing a team-based approach provides a basis for building commitment and continuous professional development.

Some criticisms of the location of EDUs have related to their placement in administrative or personnel departments in some institutions. Malcolm and Zukas (2001) commented on the effects of this and suggested stronger links with education faculties were needed to avoid a technicist training focus. Rowland (2001) argued that academic development would be enhanced if expertise were brought together from both EDUs and education faculties, noting a lack of academic credibility in institutions where development units had a 'support' positioning.

Overall, while there has been discussion of the merits of decentralised vs. centralised educational development, there has been little evaluation done that compares the effects of each (Hicks, 1999, p. 50). Arguments have been presented in favour of educational development based in disciplinary groups or departments, but little has been said about the strength of the teaching culture needed in such communities to sustain such development. Most arguments for decentralisation have come from university contexts, and may be less

easily applied in smaller institutions. It appears that most institutions still have centralised units (Hicks, 1999), although their staff may increasingly be working in a decentralised way with departments, not just with individual staff members. Most writers who proposed change favoured more dispersed, discipline-based development within a community such as a department.

A more recent study by Knight, Tait and Yorke (2006) stressed the significance of informal learning, and the ways it can be promoted and enhanced in the activity systems within which teachers in HE work. They identified 12 implications for educational professional development (EDP), including:

- The focus for EPD should be on activity systems rather than on individuals –such as working with departmental teams;
- Give priority to supporting the formation of learning departments and teams;
- A priority for EPD specialists is working with team leaders and heads of departments to develop a climate for EPD on a day-to-day basis;
- Give teachers tools to analyse, appraise and improve practices that contribute to the quality of the student experience;
- Reflection can be an engine of intentional non-formal professional learning;
- There is a need for ongoing development, not 'one-shot' courses, at key career transition points, reinforced with coaching or mentoring – and so HR specialists need to appreciate the *educational* facet of their developmental role.

5.3 Theories and critiques of educational development

Many of the studies of teaching and learning reviewed in section 2 above have contributed to the work of educational development units and their staff, and some have become texts used in courses on tertiary teaching. Up until about 2000, however, there were few studies that addressed theories or philosophies of educational development for tertiary teachers. Tight (2004) found a similar situation in the wider field of articles on higher education: "In the majority of cases, any theoretical perspective is only implicit, and broader engagement with theory is absent" (p. 395).

Those writers who have taken a more critical or analytical view of educational development have discussed a number of concerns or issues, such as the emphasis of developers on practice and their lack of explicit theorising (Webb, 1996c; Boud, 1999); a perceived 'surface' or 'training' focus on teaching skills and a lack of connection with wider educational and social values (Rowland, 2001; Malcolm and Zukas, 2001); the need for a scholarship of academic development (Badley, 2001; Eggins and Macdonald, 2003; Gosling, 2003; Knapper, 2003); and whether developers are members of a profession or discipline or 'academic tribe' (Knapper, 2003; Bath and Smith, 2004). Thus since about 2000 there has been growing interest in looking beyond the pragmatic aspects of educational development. Some key ideas that are emerging are noted below.

Webb (1996c) took the position that "… 'development' is a site for contestation – it is not a unitary concept which we will one day provide a model for" (p. 32). He argued that staff development had needed to prove its essential and immediate practicality to its market, and so the practical had been valued over the theoretical, and especially the philosophical. In his experience, both 'practitioners' (tertiary teachers) and developers wanted answers rather than further questions. Webb went on to discuss staff development from a range of perspectives: he saw postmodernism, for example, as acknowledging multiple claims to understanding, and challenging staff developers to move out of their comfort zones of reflective practice, action

research or phenomenography. Boud (1999) provided a summary of changing perspectives on educational development over the last 50 years or more, and, like Webb, noted the lack of explicit theorising during much of that time. Coming to the 1990s, he observed that the certainties of earlier times had been challenged, as academic work became more complex, differentiated and fragmented.

Rowland et al. (1998), Jenkins (1999) and Andresen (2000) debated the nature of educational development in a series of articles. Issues of teachers' primary disciplinary focus, engagement with students, the content and focus of central EDU courses, and the scholarship of teaching were raised. Rowland (2001) continued to challenge what he called "surface learning about teaching" (p. 162), and suggested that much that was written about teaching in higher education reflected a lack of connection with wider social values and purposes. Malcolm and Zukas (2001) linked recent growth in the literature of TLHE to the growth of staff development in British universities. They noted, however, that much of that literature was dominated by "psychological versions (particularly cognitive and humanistic) of the learner and teacher" (p. 35). Like Webb and Rowland, they found a lack of competing discourses, such as the sociological understandings they found in the adult education literature, or in critical writing on higher education as a social, political and economic institution.

Land (2001) explored notions of change that underpinned the ways in which academic developers (his term) in the UK practised in organisational contexts and cultures. From his analysis he developed a model of academic development that interwove developers' orientations, organisational factors and perspectives from the research literature. Land (2003) discussed the 12 orientations in more detail, and related developers' practice to Wenger's (1998) concept of "negotiation of meaning" in their organisational communities.

Some studies have linked the concept of a scholarship of educational development with questions about whether developers are members of a profession or discipline of educational development. A scholarship of academic development was promoted by Badley (2001), who argued for "an eclectic and pragmatic model". Echoing Rowland and Webb, he said:

> … if academic developers wish to be regarded as full members of the academic community, as active participants in that conversation, then they must take themselves seriously as scholars and not operate as relatively unreflective practitioners (p. 162).

Eggins and Macdonald (2003) gathered a range of views on the scholarship of academic development and related research. A chapter by Gosling (2003) discussed philosophical approaches to development, challenging some of the assumptions underlying concepts such as 'scholarship of teaching and learning' and 'evidence-based practice'. Discussion has continued on whether academic development has a sufficient theoretical base to be considered a profession, with Knapper (2003) concluding: "…the work of developers may become more firmly grounded in research on teaching and learning in higher education (what might be termed evidence-based educational development)" (p. 8). Bath and Smith (2004) saw developers as an 'academic tribe' (echoing Becher and Trowler, 2002) and defended the proposition "…that the discipline that academic development is part of, namely the discipline of *higher education*, is a legitimate academic discipline in its own right (p. 9).

Overall, while much of the day-to-day work of EDUs may still be 'practical', increasing attention is being paid by developers (mainly in universities) to research, to offering formal

academic programmes, to a sense of scholarship and collegiality among developers, and to the wider social and political context of tertiary education. The existence of well-established journals and professional associations supports the notion that there is now a community or 'tribe' of developers across English-speaking countries, especially in universities. That provides a basis for developers to be recognised as peers by other academics, and more opportunity for them have an emancipatory role (Land, 2001) in their institutions, or to be the "conscience of learning and teaching" (Boud, 1995, p. 204). On the other hand, Weimer (2007) has noted that, although over nearly 30 years faculty development has made a difference in the lives and teaching of many individual teachers, and hence benefitted students, "collectively, overall, the impact has been nil. Instructional practices have not changed significantly…Teaching is still not valued" (p. 6). She suggests that "lack of clarity about role and identity for individuals [developers] reflects the struggle with identity, role, purpose and position that continues to be experienced by academic development as a field" (ibid, p. 6).

Studies of the effects of educational development

The most significant studies of the effects of educational development - Gibbs and Coffey (2004); Prebble et al. (2004); Hanbury et al. (2008) - have focussed more on formal courses on teaching that are delivered by educational development units. Discussion of these has therefore been placed in section 6.3, below. Evaluations of other developmental activities tend to be in-house, and not reported as research studies, or else small-scale studies of particular approaches, such as Sandretto, Kane and Heath (2002), cited above.

5.4 Implications for the education and development of tertiary teachers

This section of the review has shown that educational development functions have been established in most tertiary education institutions, generally associated with some sort of central unit, and that those units are likely to provide a range of commonly accepted activities and services. Such provision is usually linked to the practical needs of an institution and its staff, and any theoretical underpinning has tended to be tacit (based on the teaching and learning literature) rather than explicitly stated. There has been discussion of matters such as the forms of practical support offered to teachers and departments; the location (central or dispersed) of development units and effects of this; the generic rather than subject-specific teaching focus of many EDU workshops and activities; and educational development as a discipline or profession. Writers such as Webb, Rowland, Land and Gosling have raised wider issues, but on the whole much of the literature has had a practical or pragmatic tone, suggesting that the work of many developers is more 'domesticating' than 'emancipating' (Land, 2001). Recent trends indicate a more scholarly approach to educational development is emerging, often associated with increased provision of more formal courses for teachers.

Once again the literature has been largely based in university contexts and outside New Zealand. The Prebble et al. (2004) review of the literature found, however, that while there had been little research to date on the impact of educational development, key approaches relevant to New Zealand institutions could be identified (see section 6.3). The impact for EDUs of some NZ research on teacher development was discussed in Viskovic (2006).

These findings from studies surveyed here can contribute to educational development and/or courses on tertiary teaching:

- Identification of factors to consider relating to the location (central, departmental or mixed) of educational development and/or EDUs in different institutions, and also their relationship with HR departments;
- Identification of the range of functions and services that EDUs and developers may be called upon to provide in different institutions;
- There is potential for cooperation between EDUs and departments to provide a balance between generic and subject-specific teaching skills and knowledge in workshops and courses;
- Institutions may need to consider whether EDU resources are better used in supporting individual teachers (through workshops, courses, consultation, mentoring) or in supporting departments to do more of this work (by offering training for mentors and team leaders and support for projects) – the optimum balance of these functions is likely to vary, depending on an institution's strategic priorities;
- There is potential for EDU staff to contribute to research, promote the scholarship of teaching and learning, and act as educational leaders;
- Liaison between EDUs and education departments or faculties may help to raise the academic profile of EDU workshops and courses on tertiary education;
- Teachers engaging with EDU activities join a community of practice that is likely to have a different focus from their departmental community, and as border-crossers they can take ideas and skills in both directions to share.

6. Formal courses and qualifications for tertiary teaching

As well as providing initial and continuing development for tertiary teachers through short introductory courses, workshops and seminars, many institutions have also moved to develop formal qualifications for tertiary teachers. While these are basically in-house qualifications, taught by the staff of the EDU, they are usually also open to other students. In some cases, university education faculties deliver such programmes: for example, the CertEd and PGCertEd courses for FE teachers in the UK; Massey's BEd(AdultEd) and MEd(AdultEd) (originally developed by Wellington Polytechnic) in NZ; or courses for TAFE teachers such as the BVocEd offered by the University of Technology, Sydney (UTS). The literature indicates that in many institutions only a small proportion of university staff have participated in such courses, but in further education participation may be required by legislation or collective employment agreements. Participation in UK accredited courses in universities is also rising. Courses are typically in-service and part-time, though some offer a full-time, pre-service option.

This section of the paper discusses the types of courses available, in universities and in further education, and some studies of the effects of such courses for tertiary teachers. 'Course' or 'programme' is used in this section to refer to formal, structured courses of study that are assessed and lead to a qualification, as distinct from unassessed short courses, workshops, seminars etc used for educational development activities.

6.1 Courses for university teachers

In the UK, the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA) established a Teacher Accreditation Scheme in the 1990s (Baume and Baume, 1996; Beaty, 1998). The SEDA scheme accredited programmes offered by universities in the UK, and had some influence in Australasia (Weeks, 1997; Wellington Polytechnic, 1998; Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia, 1997, 2002). The SEDA scheme also influenced the

processes and standards that were developed for membership of the Institution for Learning and Teaching (ILT), established in the UK in 1998, "to provide professional standing for teachers in higher education comparable to that in other professions" (ILT Planning Group, 1998, p. 1). Membership could be achieved by presentation of a portfolio (for existing teachers) or completion of an ILT-accredited course of study (for new teachers). ILT membership was voluntary and did not constitute a 'licence to practice'. In May 2004 the ILT was absorbed into the new Higher Education Academy (HEA), and the membership scheme has continued. In 2006 the HEA launched its National Professional Standards Framework for Teaching and Supporting Learning in Higher Education (Higher Education Academy, n.d.), which is now the basis for accreditation of university teachers and programmes for them.

The HEA standards are broad, describing three levels of attainment, to be applied to six areas of activity, six areas of core knowledge, and five professional values. These are then interpreted and incorporated in the curricula of institutions' qualifications that can be accredited by the HEA. (See Appendix B for the full Framework.)

Trowler and Bamber (2005) noted that a number of countries, including the UK and Sweden, were considering the introduction of compulsory teacher training for HE academics. They concluded that if this were a standalone policy not all its goals would be reached, because of a lack of coherence with other institutional policies and practices: "Widespread learning and teaching enhancements will occur only if institutions develop learning architectures and enhancement cultures" (p. 90). Contextual concerns were also raised in Fraser's (2005) discussion of post-graduate teaching programmes for university staff: she found that current programmes needed to take into account the growing research base on teaching in higher education, be accessible for academics at different stage of their careers, and acknowledge academics' disciplinary teaching contexts. Fraser concluded, however, that funding structures that favoured research in recruitment, pay and promotions meant that teaching as a profession was likely to remain under-valued in universities, and so participation in courses on teaching would remain low.

Typical examples of Australian post-graduate programmes for university staff have been discussed by Andresen (1995) and Brew and Barrie (1999). Brew and Barrie concluded that: "Courses which take the staff member away from their normal work context for the purposes of accreditation, need also to be relevant to the departments to which they return" (p. 42). Andresen noted positive participation and completion rates in a programme, but also that:

> Study can present a severe test of academic self-esteem as participants who have become expert scholars in their own discipline experience the ignominy of being mere beginners in a totally new disciplinary area of the social sciences… (p. 50).

Dearn, Fraser and Ryan (2002) reported on their investigation into the provision of professional development for university teaching in Australia. I have included this here, rather than in section 5, because its conclusions emphasised Graduate Certificates. Key recommendations included:

1. All staff new to university teaching should be required to complete either a formal preparation program in university teaching or a portfolio demonstrating their teaching competence as part of their probation requirements.
2. Given the requirements for (a) quality assurance, (b) the need for a form of recognition that is portable, and (c) the need to embed university teaching in a scholarly framework subject to peer review, preparation programs should form part of formal award

courses…

4. Graduate Certificates in Higher Education should incorporate assessment of learning outcomes related to both theoretical knowledge about student learning as well as practical skills in facilitating learning.
5. The structure of Graduate Certificate in Higher Education programs should be flexible enough to allow for the needs and characteristics of different institutions and disciplinary fields, both in terms of mode of delivery and of curriculum.
8. There should be an expectation that sessional staff undertake a minimal level of teaching preparation before being offered a contract for teaching.

I did not find recent NZ studies of courses for teachers in universities, other than Sutherland's (2006) paper on short initial courses. However, a check on NZ university websites (April 2009) shows that:

- All eight universities have some form of educational development unit;
- Seven universities offer a formal qualification in tertiary teaching, (ie not their short introductory courses);
- AUT has a 120-credit Graduate Certificate (reflecting the needs of external students as well as staff), and the others have 60-credit Post-graduate Certificates;
- Two institutions offer further study for a 120-credit Post-graduate Diploma.
- Five of the qualifications are taught by the institutions' EDUs, and two are taught by a college or school of education.

6.2 Courses for teachers in polytechnics, institutes of technology and further education

In England, CertEd(FE) and PGCertEd programmes have been available for many years through pre-service, full-time study (one year) or in-service, part-time study (Robson, Cox, Bailey and Humphreys, 1995). FE in England is very diverse, and most of the staff enter teaching as a second career, doing their teacher training in-service in their own college (Nasta, 2007). In the later 1990s changes were in the wind (Bathmaker, 1999), and from 2001 government regulations required all FE teachers in the to gain teaching qualifications that met the FENTO (Further Education National Training Organisation) teaching standards, at one of three levels depending whether they were full-time or part-time (Department for Education and Employment, 2000). Zukas and Malcolm (2001) discussed the development of the FENTO standards, observing that they paid more attention to social context and collegiality than did the ILT standards at that time. Bailey and Robson (2002) discussed related issues of registration bodies, 'qualified teacher status' and licence to practice, which to date had applied only in schools. Lucas (2004) concluded that while many recent developments in the 'FENTO Fandango' were welcome, there was a danger of over-regulating a sector that was "characterised by its diversity of learners and learning contexts" (p. 35). He also observed that the standards were regulatory rather than developmental. Teacher training courses to meet the FE standards were delivered by universities (mainly post-1992, ex-polytechnics) in partnership with the colleges of FE where teachers were employed.

Then in November 2004 a new English award, Qualified Teacher, Learning and Skills (QTLS), was announced: from September 2007 all new entrants to post-compulsory education and training (i.e. further education, training, adult education, but not HE) would be required to attain it within five years. "The new award is the equivalent of QTS (Qualified Teacher Status) in schools and will place all new entrants to teaching and training on the pathway to a

professional qualification" (Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills, n.d.). The new standards for QTLS were developed by Lifelong Learning UK. (See Appendix C for a summary of key areas of the standards)

Nasta (2007) argued that both sets of standards for FE implicitly assumed "that it is possible to capture in written statements - codified knowledge - the richness and complexities involved in the process of teaching" (p. 3); yet many aspects of a teacher's practice were based on tacit knowledge, shaped in application and context. Nasta noted also that both sets of standards "in themselves did not provide a clear and unambiguous blueprint for how regulations, qualifications and a curriculum for initial teacher training would be devised" (ibid, p. 8). Others who have critiqued the changes include Simmons and Thompson (2007), who were concerned with how university courses for FE teachers would be affected, and said "Within a discourse of the 'professionalisation' of teaching in the sector (ie FE), unprecedented control of the detailed structure and content of training courses has been established and is increasing in extent" (p. 171). Thompson and Robinson (2008) acknowledged that QTLS status "strengthened the move from a culture in which pedagogy came a poor second to one in which new entrants can develop a professional identity as teachers. The question is no longer *should* FE teachers be trained, but what form should their training take?" (p. 170). They also concluded, however, that "the effectiveness of these reforms is likely to be compromised by a combination of under-funding, poor integration of initial teacher training into human resource policies in colleges, and an over-prescriptive curriculum" (p. 161).

Brand (2007) analysed the history of professional development in both higher and further education (UK) over the last 20 years, commenting particularly on the standards associated with accreditation of teachers or qualifications for teachers. Significant differences included:

- the greater self-regulation the HE sector had had in developing practices and standards, compared with the legislated provisions that applied to FE teacher education;
- the different levels set for qualifications, with post-graduate awards (UK Level 7) usual in HE, in contrast with undergraduate awards for 'qualified teacher' status in FE (UK levels 3-4); and
- a lack of congruence across the sectors with regard to approaches, standards, and portability of teacher qualifications.

Australian provisions for training teachers in technical and further education (TAFE) have also changed considerably since the mid-1990s. In the early 1990s most vocational education and training (VET) teachers were employed by TAFE, with a core of full-timers plus part-timers who taught in addition to their regular jobs. Hall and Are (1991), Hall (1993) and Chappell and Melville (1995) discussed issues for TAFE teachers over this period when most participated in substantial teaching diploma or degree courses, mainly studying part-time and in-service. From the mid 1990s, however, changes in the nature of VET and in the employment conditions of TAFE lecturers reduced that participation (Brew, 2000). Smith (1999) documented the changes in teaching that resulted from the implementation of competency-based training in the sector. Chappell (2001) and Chappell, Solomon, Tennant and Yates (2002) noted the increase in the number of workplace sites for vocational education and training (VET), with TAFE no longer the major provider, and different types and levels of qualifications appearing for (VET) staff. Widespread use of industry-developed training packages also had an impact on teachers and trainers. Santoro (2003) noted that perceptions of a training / teaching divide among staff in VET could be "counter-productive to their forging new identities in a changed education context" (p. 211). Smith (2005) observed

changes in the perceived status of VET teaching as well as changes about to happen in qualifications for VET teachers.

The current minimum requirement (2009) for VET employment is Certificate IV in Training and Assessment, with a subsequent Diploma of Training and Assessment also available (NTIS, n.d.). Certificate IV contains eight units of competency: plan assessment; conduct assessment; review assessment; train small groups; plan and promote a training programme; plan a series of training sessions; deliver training sessions; review training. Smith (2005) noted that the competency units are very workplace training-oriented, and that "Research evidence shows that teachers who have only a Cert IV generally have a very different approach to teaching from those who have a degree-level qualification" (p. 345).

The university courses for TAFE teachers have embedded the Cert IV competencies into their more substantial programmes, but full-time TAFE teachers with a substantial teacher qualification (such as UTS's BVocEd) are no longer the norm in VET. Darwin (2007) commented that, "While expectations differ between the states on the need for vocational teachers in TAFE to have higher education teaching qualifications, such arrangements tend to apply to teachers employed long term" (p.62). Darwin argued that "With the rapidly transforming nature of vocational work, it is increasingly challenging for vocational teachers in institutional environments to develop learning that is relevant and sustainable" (p. 55). He critiqued the deprofessionalising effects on TAFE teaching of the employment of many part-time staff with no long-term commitment to teaching, and no qualification beyond the training-oriented Cert IV. Rising staff/student ratios, work pressures and extended hours created conditions that "militate against pedagogical innovation and change, inciting replication as a survival instinct for the contemporary vocational teacher" (Darwin, 2007, p. 63).

Changes have also occurred in NZ institutes of technology and polytechnics (ITPs). From 1973 all new full-time tutors were required to complete 12 weeks of in-service training, in blocks at the national Tutor Training Unit (TTU, later three regional centres), with all costs (e.g. relief staffing, travel, tuition) centrally funded by the government. In 1990 the ITPs became bulk-funded and responsible for their own teacher development. After 1990 teachers' access to training varied, depending partly on institutional funding priorities and partly on the employment contracts negotiated at different sites (Viskovic, 1993, 1995). Less provision tended to be available in smaller and provincial institutions than in larger city institutions. After 1993 many ITPs established local certificates and diplomas in tertiary teaching; one established BEd and MEd degrees (a second BEd did not survive for long); and adult education and training qualifications registered on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) also became available (Viskovic, 2000, 2001a). A later study that included polytechnic staff (Viskovic 2005a) found that expectations that full-time teachers would complete a teaching qualification varied even within an institution, and not all teachers were achieving a basic 40-credit Certificate in Adult Teaching (CAT), though some chose to go further to a diploma or degree.

A check on the websites of the ITPs shows that, in April 2009, the following qualifications were available for both staff and external enrolments:

- Of 20 ITPs, 12 offer a level 5 certificate (local programme) in adult/tertiary learning and teaching, varying from 40 to 120 credits in size (some of those incorporate the National Certificate in Adult Education and Training, Level 4 or 5).

- Of those 12, 6 offer the opportunity to go on to a diploma at level 6 or 7, usually adding a further 120 credits.
- That leaves 8 ITPs with no tertiary teaching qualification listed, though they may have similar in-house activities available in the form of staff development offerings. Four of them offer the National Certificate in Adult Literacy.
- ITP teachers may also take other paths such as the National Certificates in Adult Education and Training offered by other providers; the AUT Graduate Diploma in Tertiary Teaching (Level 7, 120 credits); Massey University's Certificate / Diploma / BEd(AdultEd) range; or the post-graduate certificates in tertiary teaching offered for university staff.

Overall, tertiary teacher courses available for ITPs teachers are much more varied in size, level, content and approach than the old compulsory TTU programme. Access to them is very variable, however, and anecdotally it appears that in many institutions completion is not required of new staff. The reduction in participation seems to be like the Australian TAFE situation reported in the literature, rather than the UK where qualifications are being emphasised and made compulsory. In NZ there does not appear to have been such a high loss of students to workplace training as the TAFE sector has experienced, to justify such a downturn in teacher development: the reasons are more likely to be the economics of providing local courses in comparatively small and scattered institutions.

6.3 Studies of the effects of courses on tertiary teaching

There have been few evaluations of the effects of courses on tertiary teaching, just as there have been few systematic studies of the impact of educational development activities. Comparative studies are difficult to achieve, because of the large range of variables in teaching/learning situations. Findings reported in the following examples suggest that attitudes, values and levels of support or commitment in teachers' institutional contexts also need to be considered - factors not strongly related to the content or conduct of the courses themselves.

Rust (2000) reported on two evaluative studies of an initial training course for teachers in higher education, and concluded that, "some claims can be made for the course's effectiveness" (p. 254). He noted that most of the limited research to date had studied educational development activities such as video feedback or mentoring, rather than looking at courses as a whole as this study did. Behavioural and attitudinal changes in the participants were noted, but the study did not include data about student outcomes.

Trowler and Cooper (2002) explored why some academics thrived on and benefited from programmes on teaching and learning, while others resisted or dropped out. Factors identified included people's expectations and perceptions, and the influence of practices and assumptions in teachers' home departments. Stefani and Elton (2002) evaluated a continuing professional development course, SEDA-accredited, which provided for individualised study through experiential, problem-based, open learning. They concluded that it suited academics "who wish to base their approach to learning and teaching on action research… but may well be too onerous for others" (p. 117).

Gibbs and Coffey (2004) reported a study involving academics from 22 universities in eight countries who participated in teacher training. The study included data gathered before and after the training, and comparison with a control group who did not receive training. They found "a range of positive changes in teachers in the training group, and in their students, and

a contrasting lack of change, or negative changes, in untrained teachers from the control group" (p. 87-8). This study has been frequently cited, for example by Prebble et al. (2004), and Hanbury et al. (2008).

Prebble et al. (2004), in a New Zealand review of international research on the impact of academic staff development on teaching and learning, found that many studies had linked teaching and student learning, and a few had linked academic development and its effects for teachers – but it was very difficult to link the outcomes of academic development through to effects on student learning. The most robust evidence they found linking teacher development and student learning outcomes was in Gibbs and Coffey (2004). They reported that few evaluations of development activities were done, except for participant self-reports (citing Weimer and Lenze, 1997). A move in the 1990s away from short courses and workshops towards longer and more intensive programmes (including formal qualifications) was seen as a response to calls for more accountability and quality. Six common models for the longer courses were noted: behavioural change, developmental, reflective practice, conceptual change, student learning, and hybrid. Prebble et al. synthesised from their best evidence review the following key points, which would be applicable to New Zealand tertiary teacher development:

- Short training courses tend to have limited impact on changing teacher behaviour. They tend to be most useful for disseminating information about policy and practice, or to train staff in discrete skills or techniques.
- The academic work group is generally the most effective setting for developing the complex knowledge and skills involved in teaching.
- Teachers can be assisted to improve their teaching through obtaining feedback, advice and support from a colleague or academic development consultant.
- Student assessments are among the most reliable and accessible indicators of the effectiveness of teaching: when used appropriately they are likely to lead to significant improvements in the quality of teaching.
- Teachers' conceptions about the nature of learning and teaching are the most important influences on how they teach. Intensive and comprehensive staff development programmes can be effective in transforming teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning and their teaching practice (p. 91).

While they found in-depth programmes were more promising than short courses, they concluded that compulsory participation not yet justified. The Prebble research was cited extensively in the report of the Teaching Matters Forum (Willis, 2005), which was forerunner to the establishment of Ako Aotearoa National Centre for Tertiary Teaching Excellence.

Some recent articles report on smaller studies of the effects of courses on teaching. Pickering (2006) researched case studies of four novice lecturers enrolled in a one-year university teaching development programme. She concluded that a development programme built round opportunities for private and shared reflection had the potential to influence pedagogic practice and student learning. Hardy and Smith (2006) studied academics' perceptions of the value of formal qualifications in university teaching: while some considered a qualification beneficial, some were cynical, which the researchers linked to the influence of the managerial, market-oriented work context. Donnelly (2006) explored lecturers' self-perception of change in teaching practice after completion of a PGCert in Learning and Teaching. The most significant changes were: increased reflection on practice, introduction of new teaching strategies, increased focus on design of courses, more work in course teams, increased confidence, and a more student-centred approach to teaching. Light and Calkins (2008)

reported on a study of US academics who experienced a year-long faculty development programme: they concluded that the programme "has begun to assist faculty to grasp what a deeper sense of conceptual change and understanding might be for their students, by asking them to draw upon their experiences of their own learning in their research or study" (p. 38).

A larger project (Knight, 2006a), investigated the effects of postgraduate certificates (PGC) in teaching and learning in HE in the UK. Conclusions of interest for this present survey, which again echo matters raised elsewhere, included:

- Professional formation as a teacher in higher education is substantially affected by simply doing the job, one's own experience as a student, non-formal workplace interactions with others, and staff development provision.
- People starting out on the PGC courses had high hopes. Towards the end of their course they were less positive.
- There are hints that the benefits of PGC courses may most strongly disclose themselves some time after completion, especially when graduates are in a position to design or substantially change modules or other aspects of provision.
- PGCs follow an approach to professional learning that has been significantly supplemented by research into professional formation… (p. 5).

Hanbury, Prosser and Rickinson (2008) studied the impact of HEA accredited teaching development programmes on academics' approaches to teaching in six UK universities. They used a mixed-methods study, gathering data from programme completers, programme leaders, heads of department and pro-vice-chancellors to explore the perceived impact on both participants and departments. They said the wider consultation added a new dimension in comparison to previous studies, which had tended to focus solely on the perceptions of programme participants. Their findings included:

- Participants perceived their teaching to be significantly more student-centred and less teacher-centred after completing a programme.
- Participants' confidence in teaching and planning had improved.
- Focus groups suggested that for some, the benefits would take time, experience and reflection to emerge.
- Senior staff at all six sites said that the accredited programmes helped to raise the profile of teaching generally… an awareness of pedagogy, that subject knowledge was no longer enough.
- Departmental benefits fell into four areas: developments in educational practice, enhanced profile for teaching and learning, inter-departmental links, and staff induction and mentoring.
- At most sites, there was not a strong connection between the programme and the institutional strategy/mission, but at some sites senior staff said that the programme had evolved to reflect key issues of strategic importance.
- Areas for future improvement included finding ways to make the programme workload more manageable for participants; consideration of the best balance between generic and discipline-specific support; and addressing varying departmental commitment to the programme.

Hanbury et al. concluded that their findings offered support for the effectiveness of programmes, as found in previous research such as Gibbs and Coffey (2004), Prebble et al. (2004) and Knight (2006b). To address the concerns about workload and the generic/discipline balance, they suggested:

> It may be that some aspects of the programmes could be delivered through a more in-situ based approach to training, or through mentoring and peer support to supplement the programmes and encourage learning on the job (p. 481).

Brew and Ginns (2008) studied the relationship between engagement in the scholarship of teaching and learning (SOTL) and students' course experiences at the University of Sydney. They identified four components of SOTL as being:

(1) discovery research on teaching and learning;
(2) excellence in teaching as evidenced by teaching awards or evaluations of teaching;
(3) reflection on and application of the work of educational researchers;
(4) reflection on practice and on research on teaching in the teacher's own discipline.

The study compared teacher data from a Scholarship Index over three years with student data from the Student Course Experience Questionnaire (SCEQ) over the same period. The paper showed that there was a significant relationship, at the faculty (teacher) level, between engaging in SOTL and changes in students' course experiences. They concluded that SOTL had become a useful concept in drawing attention to the need for teaching to develop, and an organising concept round which teaching developments could cluster.

Overall, while there are still not large numbers of studies reported, recent research evaluating aspects of tertiary teaching programmes does suggest that they contribute to teaching quality, and they can be linked to other studies that link quality teaching with positive student outcomes. A number of the findings suggest factors to be considered when designing the curriculum and delivery of courses on tertiary teaching.

6.4 Implications for the education and development of tertiary teachers

The literature shows that tertiary teaching courses are available internationally and in New Zealand, in both higher and further/ITP education. Most have been established for some time, and some have undergone significant changes over time, as in the FE sector in the UK. The reported level of participation by teachers is often low, especially in universities, but can be higher in some areas of further education. Teachers' choices to participate (and managers' decisions on staff participation) are mainly shaped by what is available and expected in their institutional or national context.

Gaining a qualification in teaching has remained voluntary for most teachers in universities, but may be required in some areas of further education. Certificates and diplomas (both undergraduate and post-graduate), or portfolios leading to some form of accreditation, are the most common forms of recognition, but rarely lead to professional registration.

The studies that evaluated the effectiveness of some courses provided evidence that such courses have direct benefits for teachers and teaching, and can therefore be expected to have subsequent benefits for student outcomes. Such studies are limited in number, as the area is difficult to research – partly because there are so many human variables and partly because the courses themselves can differ so much in size, level, objectives, content, delivery, and assessment.

These findings from studies surveyed in this section can contribute to educational development and/or courses on tertiary teaching:

- Research has shown that formal courses on tertiary teaching contribute to developing teachers' knowledge, attitudes and skills, and are therefore likely to contribute to improved student learning;
- Formal courses have been recommended as a necessary balance or complement to informal experiential workplace learning (as found also in earlier sections);
- Descriptions of courses/programmes in the literature show that a variety of structures, sizes and levels can be found: curricula are designed to respond to local or national expectations and objectives;
- The six areas of activity in the HEA Standards, and the six major domains of the Lifelong Learning Sector Standards for FE, reflect areas of basic content to be found in most formal courses – and for NZ teachers, attention to bicultural matters is also critical. Educational development workshops can also address those areas, but to less depth and usually without assessment.
- More substantial courses (ie longer and at higher levels) are able to take participants further into areas of reflection, applied projects and scholarship.
- There is a need to provide education for part-time or sessional staff as well as full-time staff, so that they can be part of the community of teaching practice.
- In institutions where teaching is perceived as under-valued, establishing a higher profile for people who achieve qualifications in teaching could be considered in addition to the use of excellence awards;
- There is a need for continuing evaluative research on the effects of courses on tertiary teaching, including linkages with student learning.

7. Conclusions

In continuing this literature survey since 1999 I have had the opportunity to connect ideas from many different sources and perspectives. As Nelson (1987) said, "Everything is deeply intertwingled" (p. DM31). Many of the writers and researchers whose work I cited have focused on a particular area of interest, while I have had the luxury of moving in many directions, exploring, reflecting and connecting ideas from different contexts and perspectives. As a learner I have been in 'travelling mode' – but eventually I have to stop and make sense of all these experiences. As a teacher I want to know what I will do when this journey is over: will I have made connections that will be useful in developing courses for tertiary teachers, or useful to departmental initiatives or educational development units in New Zealand tertiary institutions?

A number of studies suggested that many tertiary teachers have not received a substantial education for their teaching role, and that their teaching-related continuing professional development is also not extensive. Some factors identified as contributing to that situation include the perceived low status of teaching in some institutions, compared with people's expertise in their research or subject area. Other factors include varying levels of commitment to teacher education and development found in some institutional cultures. Those factors can be seen both overseas and in New Zealand. Yet good teaching is critical to promoting student success and meeting the government's strategic priorities.

However, the literature also offers plenty of ideas that can be considered when developing or re-developing curricula for professional development and for formal courses on tertiary teaching. Ideas from this literature survey that I consider are relevant for New Zealand

institutions and contexts have been listed at the end of each section. Considering them overall, we can conclude that:

- Tertiary teaching matters – modern societies need educated citizens, for social as well as economic reasons, and governments want to increase the numbers of people achieving higher qualifications.

- Tertiary teaching is a professional occupation, focused on promoting student learning and supported by a growing research base.

- Professional teachers need professional education, achieved through a well-supported mix of informal and formal learning.

- Research has shown the importance of tertiary teachers' workplace learning in their communities of teaching practice, and a need for systematic ways of supporting both the communities and the shared learning in those communities.

- While some basic skills and knowledge can be passed on during induction and in short workshops, deeper understanding and a wider repertoire of abilities need time, experience, and engagement with formal study courses to integrate theory and practice.

- Formal courses therefore need to make connections with teachers' own working practice, and vice versa: there is potential for activities in local communities of practice to be explicitly linked to courses of study (e.g. through recognition of experiential learning, mentoring, peer observation and feedback, use of student evaluations of teaching, reflective groups, team projects, action research activities).

- Courses and workshops need to include training for mentors, team leaders and educational researchers, to support departmental initiatives for teacher development in communities of practice.

- Where courses are focused on internal staff participants, and part-time staff, there may be practical constraints on the times (and amount of time) people are able to attend, which may necessitate blended delivery patterns; it is desirable, however, to include face-to-face activities and discussions, complemented by other materials and online facilities.

- A wide range of published material is available that offers ideas for the content and delivery of both educational development and formal programmes on teaching.

- Tertiary institutions have a responsibility to support the professional learning of people they appoint to be teachers, especially those who have had no prior teacher training or experience.

- Tertiary teachers have a personal and professional responsibility for engaging in informal learning with colleagues in their community of teaching practice, and participating in teaching-related development and courses of study, as well as maintaining discipline- or industry-related professional development and currency.

Fitting all this in with teaching, and research responsibilities for some, makes for a very busy professional life that educational researchers will continue to study!

- The findings of Prebble et al. (2004), listed on page 46 above, refer to the NZ context and support a number of the conclusions drawn here. The Viskovic *Community of Practice Framework* (Appendix A) and the Higher Education Academy's *Standards* (Appendix B) also support the approaches proposed above.

Appendix A:

Institutional Community of Practice	Local Community of Practice	Individual teacher
Establish climate and culture that value learning and teaching.	Promote explicit sense of community of practice, mutual engagement.	Develop identity as a teacher within the institution and COP. Recognise personal strengths.
Establish policies for teacher development and support. Framework of processes e.g. induction, probation, linked CPD planning and appraisal, promotion.	Implement institutional policies and processes such as induction. Cognitive apprenticeship for newcomers. Community planning and support for CPD.	Participate in institutional and community processes. Learn about the systems and values of the community. Plan and participate in continuing professional development.
Resource EDU to support (a) teachers (b) communities developing their teaching & (c) formal courses. Resource local community development, eg leadership training, team building.	Promote community activities that share teaching practice, make tacit knowledge explicit. Eg mentoring, team building, portfolio development, peer observation & feedback. border-crossing with other communities.	Learn through doing the work, from role models, from trial & error, collegial problem solving, team teaching, reflection, evaluation... Share informal, tacit learning. Participate in formal courses to complement informal learning.

Communities of practice framework for supporting tertiary teachers' workplace learning (Viskovic, 2005)

Informal workplace learning emerged from my PhD case studies as a major factor in becoming a tertiary teacher. The value of informal learning to the organisation as a whole, however, and to work groups or communities of practice within it, was not explicitly acknowledged at any of the institutions, although probably tacitly taken for granted. While the uptake of formal qualifications may increase over time in New Zealand (as seen in the UK), informal workplace learning will continue throughout teachers' careers, and so that is an area where I argued that more support should be considered. Wenger (1998) emphasised the importance of learning for individuals (by engaging in their communities), communities of practice (by refining practice and ensuring continuation) and organisations (by sustaining such communities). I therefore proposed this integrated framework, designed to link the three components. The framework shows an individual teacher located within a local community of practice (such as a department or programme team), which is located in turn within an institutional community. Strands of related policies and activities run across those three components, building a network of interactions. The framework thus provides settings for mutual engagement, a sense of joint enterprise, and the development of repertoire, styles and discourses (Wenger, 1998). Taking such an approach means that institutions could encourage change by working with 'what is already there' (good adult learning practice), because teachers are already learning informally through working in collegial groupings. But institutions should not rely on people's work groups or communities to be solely responsible for all learning about teaching: the institution itself and individual staff members also have professional responsibilities, and informal learning needs to be balanced by more formal professional studies (Beckett and Hager, 2002). The findings of the 2009 literature survey add weight to the need for formal courses and informal learning to complement each other.

Appendix B

The Higher Education Academy Standards (www.heacademy.ac.uk)

Standard descriptor	**Examples of staff groups**
1. Demonstrates an understanding of the student learning experience through engagement with at least 2 of the 6 areas of activity, appropriate core knowledge and professional values; the ability to engage in practices related to those areas of activity; the ability to incorporate research, scholarship and/or professional practice into those activities.	Postgraduate teaching assistants, staff new to higher education teaching with no prior qualification or experience, staff whose professional role includes a small range of teaching and learning support activity.
2. Demonstrates an understanding of the student learning experience through engagement with all areas of activity, core knowledge and professional values; the ability to engage in practices related to all areas of activity; the ability to incorporate research, scholarship and/or professional practice into those activities.	Staff who have a substantive role in learning and teaching to enhance the student experience.
3. Supports and promotes student learning in all areas of activity, core knowledge and professional values through mentoring and leading individuals and/or teams; incorporates research, scholarship and/or professional practice into those activities.	Experienced staff who have an established track record in promoting and mentoring colleagues in learning and teaching to enhance the student learning experience.

Areas of activity
1. Design and planning of learning activities and/or programmes of study 2. Teaching and/or supporting student learning 3. Assessment and giving feedback to learners 4. Developing effective environments and student support and guidance 5. Integration of scholarship, research and professional activities with teaching and supporting learning 6. Evaluation of practice and continuing professional development
Core knowledge
Knowledge and understanding of: 1. The subject material 2. Appropriate methods for teaching and learning in the subject area and at the level of the academic programme 3. How students learn, both generally and in the subject 4. The use of appropriate learning technologies 5. Methods for evaluating the effectiveness of teaching 6. The implications of quality assurance and enhancement for professional practice
Professional values
1. Respect for individual learners 2. Commitment to incorporating the process and outcomes of relevant research, scholarship and/or professional practice 3. Commitment to development of learning communities 4. Commitment to encouraging participation in higher education, acknowledging diversity and promoting equality of opportunity 5. Commitment to continuing professional development and evaluation of practice

Appendix C

Outline of the Lifelong Learning Sector Professional Standards

(www.lifelonglearninguk.org)

Six major domains are: A. Professional values and practice B. Learning and teaching C. Specialist learning and teaching D. Planning for learning E. Assessment for learning F. Access and progression
Each domain has associated: • Professional values • Professional knowledge and understanding • Professional practice.
These values in Domain A support and inform all the commitments, knowledge and practice set out in the other domains: **Teachers in the lifelong learning sector value:** AS1 All learners, their progress and development, their learning goals amd aspirations and the experience they bring to their learning AS2 Learning, its potential to benefit people emotionally, intellectually, socially and economically, and its contribution to community sustainability AS3 Equality, diversity and inclusion in relation to learners, the workforce and the community AS4 Reflection and evaluation of their own practice and their continuing professional development as teachers AS5 Collaboration with other individuals, groups and/or organisations with a legitimate interest in the progress and development of learners

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