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**New Lecturer Development Programmes: A Case Study of Scottish Higher Education Institutions**

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**Abstract**

This paper examines key issues in lecturer development programmes (LDPs) in Scottish higher education institutions, within the context of the national standards established recently for those who teach in UK higher education (HE). Many of the LDPs were developed in response to the Dearing Committee recommendations that university lecturers should receive training in teaching and learning and that this should be delivered through accredited programmes. The paper presents four different programme models that emerged within the sector in terms of programme structure and delivery, participant support, and institutional factors, and explains the wide variety of provision in terms of cultural factors and the nature of the national framework for HE teacher development. The paper will be of interest to those who are involved in the policy and practice of lecturer development, in the challenges posed in the implementation of LDPs, and the future of such initiatives. Although the research was carried out in Scotland, consultation with educational developers in England revealed similar trends there. Given similar lecturer development initiatives in other countries (eg Sweden, Norway and Australia), the application of the research goes beyond the geographical area described.
Introduction

This paper addresses three key questions:

1. What are the patterns of LDP provision in Scottish HE?
2. Why are there differences in provision? And
3. What is the significance of this for those who are involved with lecturer development?

The paper outlines the findings of an empirical study of lecturer development programmes in the Scottish HE sector, under the three main aspects of programme structure and delivery, participant support, and institutional factors. The differences in provision across the sector are then categorized into a four-part model. Finally, there is an analysis of the socio-cultural factors which led to that variety. An appreciation of these factors may allow us to predict the outcomes of future policy initiatives of this type. It is timely to ask these questions at this point, as new national standards have been produced under the auspices of the Higher Education Academy, and those involved in mapping their provision onto the updated standards might find it helpful to take stock of the provision which evolved in response to the national standards set out in 1998. First, the historical lead-up to lecturer development provides the backdrop for the empirical study, and the framework around which the LDPs were shaped.

Background to Lecturer Development Programmes

Lecturer development had been advocated in the UK since the Robbins (1963) and Hale (1964) reports into higher education (HE) highlighted the need for training. However, the Hale and Robbins recommendations had little effect (Bamber, 2002), and the lack of focused professional development in teaching and learning continued to be discussed during the 1980s and 1990s. The non-interventionist stance of government until the early 1980s meant that universities were not pushed to formally develop their academic staff (Bleiklie, 1998), and most did not opt to introduce substantial development programmes of their own accord.

With the 1997 Dearing Report, government took the lead on a number of key policy moves within HE. One of these policies was that university lecturers should receive professional development, in order to improve teaching quality and student learning:

*It should become the norm for all permanent staff with teaching responsibilities to be trained on an accredited course (NCIHE, 1997: para 70).*

The report then went on to state that institutions of higher education should:
begin immediately to develop or seek access to programmes of teacher training for their staff if they do not have them, and that all institutions seek national recognition of such programmes from the Institute for Learning and Teaching for Higher Education (NCIHE, 1997: Recommendation 13).

The ILTHE Framework

In its recommendations, the Dearing Committee had laid down not only the requirement for training, but also the mechanism for accrediting that training, through the Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education (ILTBE)\textsuperscript{iii}. The ILTHE was established with the intention of promoting the enhancement of learning and teaching, moving towards parity with research, and furthermore, the professionalisation of university teaching and teachers. As such, it became a key component of national HE policy (Gibbs, 2003). The birth of the ILTHE initiated the launch of a massive staff development programme within the HE sector (Evans, 2002), the product of a careful balancing act between central mandate and institutional autonomy. This balancing act involved representatives from across the HE sector participating in the planning for the ILTHE, and the incarnation of the institute as a member-based professional organisation. The framework for accreditation which the planning groups formulated required accredited programmes to show that they were engendering ILTHE-defined knowledge, values and capability in five areas of professional activity, namely:

i. teaching and/or supporting learning in HE

ii. contribution to the design and planning of learning activities and/or programmes of study

iii. provision of feedback and assessment of students' learning

iv. contribution to the development of effective learning environments and student support systems

v. reflection on personal practice in teaching and learning and work to improve the teaching process.

As well as showing capability in these five areas, ILTHE members had to demonstrate that they possessed knowledge of the subject material taught; appropriate methods of teaching and learning in the subject area and at the level of the academic programme; models of how students learn, both generically and in their subject; the use of learning technologies appropriate to the teaching context; methods for monitoring and evaluating their own teaching; and the implications of quality assurance for practice.

LDPs accredited by the ILTHE were also expected to demonstrate how their provision was underpinned by the following professional values:

- a commitment to scholarship in teaching, both generally and in the discipline;
- a respect for individual learners and for their development and empowerment;
- a commitment to collegiality;
- a commitment to ensuring equality of educational opportunity;
- a commitment to continued reflection and consequent improvements to practice (ILTPG, 1998: 14).

This framework, composed of professional activities, knowledge and values, was interpreted by the sector as the recommended components of lecturer development programmes. So, despite criticism from some commentators, such as Martin Trow (1997) who criticised the Dearing Report for its failure to reflect 'the structure of values or common responses of ordinary teachers', LDPs were developed across the sector in line with ILTHE accreditation requirements. Fears that ILTHE accreditation and the top-down nature of the lecturer development initiative would constrain universities’ discretion over their different approaches to developing their staff were rebutted by the ILTHE’s (1999) reassurance that the areas of professional activity were to be ‘interpreted flexibly’, and would not constrain diversity. Although the predominant lecturer development model which developed from 1997 onwards largely conformed to what became the ILTHE expectation of size of provision (the 60 credit postgraduate certificate\(^3\)) with a curriculum which followed the ILTHE areas of professional activity, a wide range of provision within that framework developed, as demonstrated by the survey carried out as part of this research.

**Methodology**

In order to determine the patterns in lecturer development which had developed across the sector, a three-stage research approach was adopted. Data was gathered and confirmed using a combination of questionnaires, follow-up interviews and focus group discussions.

In the first stage of the research, a questionnaire was designed following a focus group meeting with educational developers in which key aspects of new lecturer development programmes were explored. The pilot questionnaire was trialled for validity and reliability, using the modified validation method (Kunnan, 2000). Based on feedback received from the test group, the questionnaire was revised and a final version (Appendix 1) was sent to educational developers within each Scottish HEI, with thirteen responses out of twenty returned. Of the seven institutions which did not respond, four did not offer in-house lecturer development programmes, as they outsourced their initial professional development to other institutions. The responses received were a good reflection, therefore, of provision across the sector.

In the second stage, the survey data were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively, and three central aspects of the operationalisation of LDPs emerged. These were programme structure and delivery (including
assessment); participant support; and institutional arrangements, such as links to probation. The emerging pattern suggested that the differences between programmes were a function of how loose or tight the University’s approach to these three elements was, and so a loose-tight model of analysis was developed. This model will be discussed in the ‘Findings’ section below. Follow-up questionnaires were issued to fill in detail on the key aspects of programme provision (Appendix 2). Two workshops were then held with groups of educational developers, one in Scotland and one in England, to discuss the findings and the model which categorized the types of programme. All of the developers were able to plot their own LDPs against the loose-tight model, and to plot the probable future trajectory of their programmes.

The third stage of the research involved selecting four programmes which seemed to exemplify the four major types of provision. In depth interviews with the programme leaders fed into case studies around each of these types. In the next stage of this paper, the findings are presented.

The Findings

Description and Analysis of Data

All of the LDPs provided formalised initial development in aspects of HE learning and teaching, mainly for new, inexperienced lecturers. Some content, such as course design, assessment, evaluation, teaching techniques, quality assurance, reflective practice, etc, was common to most of the programmes, reflecting the areas highlighted by the ILTHE framework. However, these common themes masked deep differences in how the programmes were conceived and delivered, how participants were supported, and institutional arrangements within which the programmes were embedded. Fundamental differences in the three key areas of programme structure and delivery, participant support, and institutional factors amounted to different models of provision. These differences are now described.

Programme Structure and Delivery

Whilst most of the LDPs surveyed used a variety of delivery methods, three main modes of delivery were identified - face to face (7 programmes), distance learning (5 programmes) and a blended approach (1 programme). The predominance of the face-to-face mode of delivery supports the feeling expressed by several educational developers that one of the key benefits of the LDPs was the networking opportunity for members of staff from a variety of disciplines to meet to discuss and share ideas on learning, teaching and professional practice – one of the components of successful collaborative cultures (Peterson, 1994: 6). There was also a trend towards student-centred delivery approaches such as distance learning and web-based support, and a growing interest in approaches (such as work-based and enquiry-based learning)
which emphasized learning in ‘non-formal learning’ contexts (Eraut, 1995). Eraut (1985: 131) indicates that professional education needs “a broader view of what constitutes professional knowledge and know-how, more information about how professionals use and develop such knowledge, and a deeper consideration of how professionals learn”. These professionally-oriented approaches were increasingly being developed.

**Assessment Methods**

The survey established that a diversified and multi-modal approach was used in assessing participants’ learning, from activity-based tasks, narratives and individualised reflective reports, work summaries, and projects, through to portfolios of evidence. Even courses which were not explicitly work-based used assessment which was generally designed to support some degree of authentic, work-based learning and peer observation of teaching, therefore, was universally used. Online critique by peers was used as formative assessment in two of the programmes. The majority of the programmes surveyed employed a pass/fail system, rather than marks or grades, since it was not considered politic to grade colleagues.

Portfolio-based assessment, of two different types, was used by 92% of the programmes; some required behaviourist portfolios, with a focus on the systematic assessment of skill development, with feedback given until the skill was mastered. The second type of portfolio (more widely used) was constructivist portfolios, focusing on the learning of concepts and thinking processes aiming to give participants opportunities to engage in in-depth reflection that addressed fundamental issues of teaching and learning, and to analyse their thoughts and practices within the support of a systematic framework (Entwistle and Walker, 2000). Typically, the portfolios contained reflective statements or journaling which, as Snadden and Thomas (1998: 193, in Elton and Johnston, 2002) argue ‘provide more equitable and sensitive portraits of what students know, and are able to do, than do traditional assessments’.

**Participant Support**

The second major differentiating factor which emerged from analysis of the survey data was that of participant support. Support for new lecturers at this early stage of their careers was considered vital, but a range of modes of support was provided. The major mode of support was again face-to-face, mainly from within the programme team. Other forms of support included online; face to face support from outwith the programme team; peer support; and independent study resources, all with different aims. Some forms of support were designed to consciously contribute to the development of participants' knowledge of teaching and learning and acquisition of skills, e.g. in enquiry-based learning where support from tutors, mentors and peers facilitated situated learning, enabling participants to engage with and learn from a ‘community of practice’ (Wenger,
In other programmes, the intention was simply to provide new staff with a mentor who provided loose, ad hoc support if needed. In this case, the role of the mentor tended to be less well established and less purposeful. Peer support was perhaps surprisingly limited, considering the educational developers’ emphasis on the importance of networking opportunities within the LDPs. The trend in support was towards increasing use of online support and independent study resources.

Institutional Factors

The most significant institutional factor which emerged was linkage between the LDP and probationary requirements, signalling the seriousness with which the programme was regarded within the university. Dearing recommended that "over the medium term" institutions should make it a normal requirement that “full-time academic staff with teaching responsibility are required to achieve at least associate membership of the ILTHE, for the successful completion of probation” (NCIHE, 1997: Recommendation 48). “For the successful completion of probation” might, at face value, appear transparent, but the reality was that it covered a wide variety of arrangements in different institutions, as illustrated in Table I:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of link</th>
<th>No. of programmes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No link between LDP and probationary period</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Successful completion of LDP required</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial completion (e.g. 2-3 out of 4 modules) required</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance, but not successful completion, required</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probationary staff required to register for the LDP but neither attend nor complete successfully</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probationary lecturers required to be eligible for ILTHE membership by the end of the probationary period (successful completion of the LDP being the 'preferred mechanism')</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Not all institutions enforced their probationary requirements with every probationer, although one ancient institution indicated that “individuals who have failed to complete the LDP are not confirmed in post until they complete”. The trend across the sector seemed to be in the direction of tightening arrangements, for example by coordinating educational development efforts more closely with Human Resources. One respondent commented that this “requires good communication loops within the university, and school follow-up”. As an interesting case example, probationers in another university were required to register for their LDP, and to complete it, but not to attend the course. In that university, probationary requirements had not, until recently, been enforced, but arrangements had now been put in place to enforce them.

Since the replacement of the ILTHE by the Higher Education Academy, the Academy has consulted the sector on a national standards framework for teaching and supporting learning in HE (Higher Education Academy, 2005). One of the recommendations which the sector suggested was that the updated framework should be capable of integration with other institutional systems, such as those existing for probation and other human resource policies. This may mean that the next generation of LDPs will be synchronised more closely with other institutional arrangements.

Key Issues, Challenges and Opportunities

Respondents highlighted a range of challenges within their institutions in the operationalisation of their LDP. These issues largely related to time pressures, and the associated topics of attendance and course completion; tensions between teaching and research were also present.

The major issue was participants’ time: five respondents indicated that time pressures were a problem, as new lecturers balanced the demands of their different activities - teaching duties, developing new research projects, administration and committee work, departmental roles and their studies on the LDP. Allocation of time for completing the programme was, therefore, important.

A linked issue was the variation in attitudes to attendance: five respondents indicated that attitudes of attendees were largely positive (“keen and enthusiastic”), while six others said that they were “mixed”, “from compliance to keen”. While the course might be seen as “an encumbrance” at the beginning, one institution said that “within 2-3 months, 90-95% of the participants are won over, and generally very satisfied”. In some cases, the change in attitude had materialised over the life of the programme, with some resistance in the early years, followed later by more positive, voluntary participation. Links to probationary requirements were also a factor.
Completion of the programme was problematic in three cases out of thirteen, partly due to the aforementioned time pressures. In one institution, the “lack of quality and ring-fenced time for participants to undertake the course” was blamed, as was the lack of incentives for hard-pressed staff to dedicate the time required for study. This situation was exacerbated by the increase in participant numbers, causing staffing and timetabling problems. Adherence to the programme can also be hampered by what Trowler and Cooper (2002) refer to as the misalignment of participants’ Teaching and Learning Regimes (TLRs) with the TLR implicit in the LDP. For instance, the “enduring constellation of rules, assumptions, practices and relationships related to teaching and learning issues” (Trowler and Cooper, 2002: 221) which new staff bring to the programme may conflict with those of the programme tutors, who are likely to be operating with different sets of assumptions, stemming from their own subject discipline and background experiences.

The tension between teaching and research was explicitly mentioned as an issue in five cases, especially by the more research-intensive institutions. Gibbs and Coffey (2000) were amongst those agreeing with the Dearing desire to redress the balance between teaching and research, in order to give more value to teaching and establish positive attitudes towards it. However, research is where most academics seek (and find) their rewards (Martin, 1999: 112; Ramsden, 1998: 351). Similarly, MacDonald (2001) found that in her institution academic staff felt that professional development was ‘a good thing’, but had worries about the opportunity cost for research. Trowler and Cooper (2002) noted that in research-oriented institutions, a deficit model can be attached to those who take an interest in educational development, the implication being that the person is either a poor teacher and needs help, or is a poor researcher who is turning to teaching as second best.

Other problems mentioned were the generic/discipline balance (demand pulling towards the discipline specialisation); buy-in from departments and faculties; and resistance from some scientific disciplines. There was also some anxiety about the effect of external changes, given strong national drivers (eg in the UK Government White Paper (2004) and the 2003 Cooke Report). Another issue was the adequacy of resources for running the programme.

Not all comments in this section were negative, however. One university commented that “the course has been developed on the basis of feedback from participants, and is working well”, while another noted that they were proud of their provision, which received good feedback and uptake from other HE providers. LDPs were sometimes felt to provide useful opportunities, for example in engaging experienced staff from across the university in educational development activities, in support of the programme. Several institutions noted their intention to use more academic staff to deliver their LDP.
In analyzing these data, it became evident that, while initial discussion with the educational developers had identified a number of elements of LDP provision that were common across institutions, as might be expected of courses which had ILTHER accreditation, this commonality often masked clear differences and raised challenging issues for the notion of national standards, such as the meaning of ‘probationary requirement’, the concept of ‘portfolio’ and what was entailed within ‘support’. In the next section these different interpretations and orientations are mapped onto a model which categorizes the different approaches.

Models of Provision

Institutions had developed different approaches within the framework of the ILTHER’s framework, giving a distinctive flavour to the three key aspects of provision: programme structure and delivery, participant support, and institutional arrangements. Analysis of these differences and discussion with programme leaders led to the formulation of a model with two axes along which each programme was placed. The first axis was for mode of delivery, from Face to Face at one end to Distance Learning at the other. The second axis indicated the locus of discretion and control for what was covered on the course, and Weick’s (1976) loose-tight metaphor was used to depict this. Along this Loose - Tight axis were courses whose ‘Tight’ curriculum was largely defined and ‘delivered’ by the LDP course team; a traditional, workshop-based course with clearly defined outcomes was an example of this type of LDP. At the ‘Loose’ end were courses in which participants took, for example, an action research or enquiry-based learning approach, and had a great deal of discretion as to the focus of their studies. There was little formal input from the LDP course team in this case.

Having defined these parameters, the thirteen LDPs under consideration were plotted onto the two axes, and could largely be categorized into three types of course, which all fell into the ‘Face to Face and Tight’, or ‘Distance Learning and Loose’ quadrants. The remaining courses fell at the intersection of the axes and were Hybrid programmes. Table II (below) shows how the different programmes were categorized, while Figure 1 plots them on the model.
### Table II - Models of LDP Provision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Mode of Delivery</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traditional workshop-based model</td>
<td>Tending to tight / face-to-face</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance learning model</td>
<td>Tending to loose / distance learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enquiry-led model</td>
<td>Tending to loose / distance, work-based or independent learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hybrid model</td>
<td>Mix in middle of axes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1 - The Four Models of LDP Provision

TIGHT CURRICULUM
Content, syllabus, delivery orientation

Workshop-based programme

Face-to-Face

Hybrid programme

Distance learning programme

Enquiry-led programme

LOOSE CURRICULUM
Enquiry-based, Work-Based Learning, Action research orientation

Distance Learning
In the two workshops which were held to test and discuss the model with groups of educational developers, they agreed with the analysis and suggested that trends were increasingly towards more flexible forms of provision, such as distance and enquiry-based learning, ie towards the bottom right hand quadrant in Figure 1. This will have repercussions for the educational developers who run LDPs, as they may find that their existing skill and knowledge sets need significant adjustments for such differently run courses. In the next section, the four types of programme identified in Figure 1 are illustrated by case examples from specific institutions. After the case examples, an analysis is undertaken of the factors which led to these variations in provision.

Case Studies of Practice

The four main categories of programme are presented here as case studies of practice. The case studies exemplify the main trends in Scottish LDP provision, demonstrating the degree of variety in the programmes. The first case exemplifies a traditional, workshop-based approach to lecturer development. The second is a distance learning programme. The third LDP is enquiry-based, while the fourth is a hybrid of several different approaches. All are 60 credit postgraduate certificate programmes, normally run part-time over two years.

Case Study 1 - Workshop-based Model

This course is a new version of a previous LDP, structured around two modules. Given the ILTHE emphasis on reflection which was found in most programmes, the first, taught module exemplified the provision which was found in many courses: contact-based provision backed up by reflection on individual practice. The focus was on a research-informed approach, which was helpful for achieving compatibility between the ‘teaching and learning regimes’ of the course (Trowler and Cooper, 2002), and the ethos of this research-led institution.

The defining element in this course was that the first module ‘Academic Practice In HE’ was offered as a series of what might be considered traditional 3 hour workshops, including sessions with which most educational developers will be familiar, such as managing small groups, assessment, evaluation and supervising postgraduate students. However, in a recent update to the course two units in the module had been offered online, to allow participants more flexibility and to offer first hand experience of e-learning. All units aimed to support work-based learning and required some self-directed study. This was a good example of the increasing trend away from traditional approaches towards ‘looser’ arrangements.
The second module ‘Developing a Portfolio of Academic Practice’ involved production of a portfolio of evidence of teaching development, so that participants had a vehicle for considering the learning they achieved during Module 1. The portfolio process was supported through peer support groups, mentored by a member of educational development staff. Participants also had a departmental mentor who focused on research as well as general advice and support. The first part of the portfolio was a reflective account of the participant’s approach, practice and future plans as a university teacher, while the second part of the portfolio provided evidence to support these claims, such as diary pages, lesson plans, handouts and student feedback. The portfolio was assessed on a pass/fail basis.

One of the issues for this programme was that it covered academic practice, not just learning and teaching. This required greater integration of reflection on learning and teaching, research and administrative duties. Needless to say, there were issues in this research-led institution about the weight given to teaching. However, the course was being taken seriously, and the portfolio is now used in promotion procedures.

Regarding its location on the model (Figure 1), this course is in the ‘Face to Face and Tight’ quadrant, although there were signs that the tightness of control was diminishing, with an increasing trend towards student-centred learning.

Case Study 2 - Distance Learning Model

This LDP was the first step in a programme which included diploma and masters levels. The postgraduate certificate was structured around four modules which covered Principles of Teaching, Learning and Assessment; Teaching and Learning Methods; Assessment Methods and Reflective Practice. Once again, the five areas of ILTHE professional activity were reflected in the course content. However, unlike the Workshop-based course (above), this programme allowed considerable personal negotiation between participant and tutor. Access to the programme was highly flexible and could be achieved either by conventional open and distance learning, by portfolio-based Accreditation of Prior Learning, or online via the institution’s virtual learning environment. The programme placed strong emphasis on practical application.

Support is key to successful learning for participants studying ‘at a distance’ and this support was provided through a subject specialist local mentor, individual tutorials, workbooks, online activities and discussion, and a course tutor. As Nicholls (2002) argues, ‘professional learning requires systematic conversation and dialogue about the actions of teaching and learning’ and the ability to share the outcomes and experience of that action can offer a variety of powerful
learning opportunities for distance learners. As advocated by Black and Holford, (2002), contact with tutors, formative feedback, and communication with other learners were key elements, as were mentor support, tutorial meetings and peer discussion. Assessment was multi-modal, including observation of teaching practice and a portfolio.

Regarding challenges, those involved in running this programme continue to face the challenges of lack of engagement by participants and an element of non-completion which may be magnified by delivery at a distance. The positive side is that course participants had great discretion as to how and when they completed the programme. This LDP fits into the ‘Loose / Distance Learning’ quadrant of Figure 1.

**Case Study 3 – Enquiry-led Model**

This was a relatively new programme, structured around two learning goals (‘The Theme’), which were individually defined by each candidate. The goals were Reflective Practice and Planning (10 credits), and Professional Context, Values and Practice (50 credits), covering student needs, legal and ethical issues, and the HE/institutional context for learning.

The University’s previous LDP suffered from progression and completion problems, and the new course was designed around flexible, work-based learning, to overcome these issues. The philosophy was to allow flexibility in learning activities and assessment criteria for individual candidates against a specified set of common outcomes, reflecting a continuous professional development approach, as opposed to initial training. There were no formal ‘modules’, since participants negotiated their own learning contract and plan for these goals within their work-based learning programme.

The approach of this course is rooted in an extensive literature, tapping a variety of notions and theories, including the notion of informed and self-directed learning, in which course participants recognise their starting point, evaluate the options for development and decide whether or not to ‘reconstruct’ their ideas about learning and teaching (Gunstone and Northfield, 1994). The course’s philosophy was firmly based in situated learning, so that course participants became practitioners, learning “in the practices and communities in which knowledge takes on significance” (Seely Brown and Duguid, 1996: 69) rather than ‘learning about practice’. This meant that participants integrated and applied knowledge which was mostly learned on the job (Kogan et al, 1994). Another underpinning concept was the idea that the evolution of expertise in teaching is a complex process which requires ‘experimentation, practice, feedback and time’ (McAlpine and Weston, 2000: 377).

The programme was located under the university’s Learning Contracts Framework, and was mainly delivered and developed by academic secondees to
the central educational development unit. Delivery took the form of personalised, self-defined, work-based learning, with flexibility in both learning activities and assessment criteria for each individual, against specified common outcomes. In a study elsewhere by Stefani and Elton (2002), this flexibility of assessment criteria led to standards of work above what might have been expected.

Support was a key feature of the programme, via meetings with goal supervisors (located in the central unit), and workplace mentors (the only attendance requirement). Both participants and their Dean signed a contract, outlining their commitment to the programme.

Assessment was by portfolio, covering experience, reflection and evidence, and how these mapped onto the individual’s learning goals. Participants were given a broad definition of what ‘portfolio’ meant, along with an outline structure and guidance, but they could then adapt the portfolio to their own purposes. The programme team saw this course as an exciting, if potentially challenging, departure from ‘traditional’ workshop-based provision of continuing professional development, and placed the LDP in the ‘Loose / Distance Learning’ quadrant of the model. In this case, Distance referred to distance from the LDP course team, rather than distance from the institution.

Case Study 4 – Hybrid Model

This LDP was developed to meet the needs of nurse lecturers and practice educators as well as to provide certification for teaching staff. The programme comprised three modules, of which one was core, with others drawn from a range of options, providing opportunities for specialisation in areas of interest.

Delivery was based on a mixed mode approach of flexible delivery using the institution’s virtual learning environment, with intermittent face-to-face sessions, in a total of five days’ attendance per module. Support was provided via the virtual learning environment, plus personal academic support from a course tutor and optional mentor support.

Assessment was carried out via a combination of methods. The core module was assessed by a reflective teaching portfolio, the curriculum development by a group activity-based task, and the work-based learning module by an individualised task-based report. In addition, all participants were assessed on their teaching skills via observation of teaching, with performance graded A – F.

The major challenge highlighted by the course team was that the course was not mandatory. Those who decided to enrol were not provided with ring-fenced time nor given reduced workloads to support their studies. Despite this, the increased uptake of the programme has been significant enough to lead to resourcing and staffing pressures. A further issue related to the administration of the course,
which was jointly administered by the educational development unit and an academic faculty. While this was potentially positive for inter-disciplinary collaboration, it required better than usual communication between the units.

The four case studies outlined briefly above show the range of provision which exists across the Scottish sector, but also the patterns which some courses have in common. In the next section, the second question asked in this paper, of why there are differences in provision, is addressed.

**National Standards in Practice: Factors in Diversity**

A number of factors can explain the range of outcomes which the ILTHE framework for lecturer development produced. These aspects were contextual and mainly due to the rich diversity of institutional mission, stemming from factors such as the social nature of organisations, the involvement of stakeholders, each university’s history, its academic standing, the relationship between research and teaching, and the culture which makes the institution distinctive. Given the negotiated, contested nature of university decision-making in this complex environment (Trowler, 2002), any policy recommendation which is handed down to institutions for implementation at the local level is necessarily adapted and ‘domesticated’ within the specific institutional context. Within this complex environment, LDPs have been developed across the sector within a ‘zone of complexity’ (Figure 2, below: Fullan, 1999; Jackson, 2002), where a combination of factors mean that a policy such as that on lecturer development is unlikely to manifest itself in the same form across the sector. Instead, the process of implementing the policy gives the policy outcome – in this case LDPs – a different shape within each institution. In this section, the factors which contributed to that diversity are considered.
Figure 2: Operating within Complexity (Jackson, 2002)

Zone of technical, rational and political decision-making

Zone of complexity, the ‘edge of chaos’. Outcomes emerge through process

Zone of chaos and anarchy

Degree of Certainty →
The Nature of the Accreditation Framework

The sectoral complexity mentioned above was compounded, in the case of LDP policy implementation, by the nature of the ILTHE accreditation framework. Great efforts were made by the ILTHE to provide an accreditation framework which would create “a single, national standard for the initial and continuous professional development of all higher education staff with responsibilities for teaching and the support of learning” (ILTPG, February 1999: 15) and which had, therefore, some national comparability, but which also acknowledged institutional diversity. The three constituent elements of professional activity, knowledge and values were left broad enough for institutions to put their own interpretation and shape on them. This was a strength of the framework, but inevitably meant that outcomes would vary.

The looseness of the ILTHE parameters could be contrasted, for example, with Ho’s (1998: 3) model for lecturer development, in which underpinning principles and theories were closely threaded through provision. Ho designed a staff development programme, albeit shorter than UK LDPs, which had the explicit aim of changing lecturers’ conceptions of learning and teaching. The programme was designed around several three sets of theories of change: Argyris and Schon’s (1974) theory of transition between theories-of-action; Posner, Strike and Hewson’s (1982) theory of conceptual change; Lewin’s theory of social change (1974;1976); and Shaw, David, Sidani-Tabbaa and McCarty’s (1990) perspective of the psychological commitment of teaching (Ho, 1998: 3). Based on these theories, Ho’s programme aimed to produce changes in the participants’ conceptions of teaching towards conceptions which were considered more conducive to student learning (1998: 7). The strength of this approach is the strong theoretical base, the explicit acknowledgement of specific aims and values, and a debate between the programme team and participants which lead to a more shared understanding of what these aims and values meant in practice.

In the ILTHE framework, the absence of a well-expressed theory of change and of clear articulation of the role of values meant that adherence to the ILTHE values was unlikely, in many institutions, to go beyond lip service. The implicit nature of values, the tacit nature of much knowledge and the difficulty of agreeing on a common set of values (Eraut, 1985: 123), means that knowledge and values cannot be imposed in a rationalistic fashion (Knight and Trowler, 2001: 19). The only way in which values could have been more closely prescribed would have been if they had been theorized into a rationale for a specific approach to lecturer development. Similarly, the notion of the ‘reflective practitioner’ was treated as unproblematic, while the many possible interpretations and understandings of this notion meant that it was likely to be dealt with quite differently in different settings. In effect, the values, mission and history of each university and of some departments within institutions exerted more powerful influence than those espoused by the ILTHE.
It is clear that the ILTHE accreditation framework had great strengths, in that it recognized the political need for allowing diverse institutional approaches to LDPs. The mid-1990s US standards for staff development (Gusky and Sparks, 1996: 2) proposed a similar model: that the framework should contain content characteristics (the ‘what’ of lecturer development); process variables (the ‘how’ of development; and context characteristics. These context characteristics include how adaptable the framework is to the local context, including sensitivity to local values, norms and structures. The ILTHE framework allowed for this local contextualization. We would contend, however, that a weakness of the framework was that the lack of theorization and debate at the national level of ambiguous notions around values (eg “respect for individual learners”) and underpinning principles meant that these professional values and behaviours lacked real meaning. Any aspiration to ILTHE-accredited courses being part of a recognizable national standard, with lecturers adhering to shared professional values and behaviours, was, therefore, unlikely.

According to Bamber (2002), other key factors which can account for such variety in policy outcomes include differences between pre-92 and post-92 institutions; multiple cultures within institutions; resistance by academics to educational development; resistance to top-down policy-making; probationary requirements; and educational developers’ goals. The influence of each of these factors is now considered in turn.

**Differences between pre-92 and post-92 institutions**

While Becher and Kogan’s (1980) ‘organised anarchies’ of the past are, arguably, not now so prevalent in universities, the ‘inherent complexity’ of university systems and cultures is undeniable (Elton, 2002). This applies across the sector as much as within individual institutions, so that the history of different types of university is reflected in their current character. More than ten years after the removal of the binary divide between the UK ex-public sector and chartered/civic institutions, universities of each type continue to operate with different approaches. In the ex-public (post-92) sector, for example, a managerialist approach and centre-driven change are more easily accepted than in the older, pre-92, institutions. This is highlighted in McNay’s (1995) segmentation of control in university policy-making into four types (Table III).
### Table III – Segmentation of control in University policy making

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The collegium</th>
<th>Loose policy definition and control, powerful departments, consensual decision-making and permissive management style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The bureaucracy</td>
<td>Focus on rules and formal-rational, managerialist administration by powerful senior managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The corporation</td>
<td>Tight control of policy, focus on loyalty to the organisation and competitive ethos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The enterprise</td>
<td>Focus on competence, continuous learning, devolved leadership, and flexible decision-making based on professional expertise</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

These four types are often intermingled in different measure within and between institutions. In the older, pre-92 institutions, for example, many staff still aspire to the collegial model (Fulton, 1996: 160), while in the more managed post-92 sector, the latter three types of control are more visible. Attempts to introduce LDPs into the post-92 sector were likely to meet less resistance, therefore, than the same activity in the older institutions, so that universities with more limited provision tend to be older institutions in the pre-92 group, and the act of introducing LDPs in older universities may be challenged more strongly (Bamber, 2002). As well as the implementation of LDPs, this factor also affected the approach to LDP provision; for example, the challenge of linking LDP attendance to probationary requirements was felt by survey respondents to be greater in the older, less managerial, institutions.

Multiple cultures within institutions

Becher and Kogan (1980) alert us to the power of the individual academic, but also to the power of the ‘guilds' (Clark, 1983) or ‘tribes' (Becher and Trowler, 2001). Although this power is arguably less strong now, department and subject groupings are still a major force. Even central authorities making national recommendations have limited power vis a vis departments, ‘who are not readily persuaded to abandon their strongly established professional loyalties in favour of demands from above' (Becher and Kogan, 1980: 122). Any central recommendation for change must consider how this change will impact on departments, and how to engage these departments. In the process of introducing the change, compromises need to be reached, and institutional policy is likely to be reshaped by local interests. The inevitable consequence is that LDPs had different characters in different institutions with different departmental and disciplinary constituencies. There was also greater difficulty in engaging staff from certain discipline groups in the course, as in the case of the respondent who indicated that some staff from the sciences were exceptionally resistant.

Resistance by academics to educational development

In the last thirty years, university staff have been confronted by an ‘ubiquitous climate of change' (Taylor, 1995) in which neither established practices, cultural assumptions, nor purposes could be assumed to be permanent. Some institutions have changed only slightly, but most have changed dramatically, with change being inescapable at most levels of most institutions (Hannan and Silver, 2000). The most challenging changes are those which attempt to develop teaching and learning, because they require staff to adopt new knowledge, behaviours and, perhaps, modified beliefs and values. Changes to values and ways of thinking do not often progress beyond early implementation because, unsurprisingly, external pressure to develop may not be welcomed by staff (Hopkins, 2002), who are having to perform better in all aspects of academic
work, and with fewer resources (Ramsden, 1998). As well as the natural resistance found in many organisations, the special status of academic staff makes them less likely to accept externally imposed changes without protest. In a culture of autonomy, consensus is difficult to achieve. The introduction of LDPs, therefore, was welcomed by many but not all, and those against lecturer development exercised their perceived right to try to negotiate the appropriate level and type of LDP for their institution.

Resistance to top-down policy-making

It is clear from the above that change in universities is neither linear nor straightforward, so top-down initiation of plans must be balanced by bottom-up feedback and consultation, using both the carrot and the stick (Elton, 2002). In finding an acceptable approach to implementing LDPs, effective educational developers saw the process as moving the policy down what Reynolds and Saunders (1987) have described as an ‘implementation staircase’. The policy ‘ball’ does not simply bounce down the staircase: it bounces down and back up, and is adapted by those who catch it at different steps. This means that the proposed LDP is constructed from the points of view of the major stakeholders, who are both receivers and agents of change. Crucial in this is the fact that change involves shifting attitudes and this requires systemic, university-wide action, such as changes in reward structures to recognise teaching achievements. Educational developers who attempted to introduce an LDP without due attention to the views of staff and to systemic support found that their proposal was strongly contested, and compromises on level and type of provision had to be negotiated over time.

Probationary requirements

One key element in systemic, university-wide development for new lecturers is the link to probation. In institutions where course attendance is a probationary requirement, the institution is giving a clear signal about its commitment to development, increasing the likelihood that academic staff will take the requirement seriously. This has to be managed carefully, however, with respect for the levels of autonomy which staff expect. The findings section above has shown that this complex and difficult process led to a mix of recipes in different institutions. However, moves to ‘tighten up’ the link between LDPs and probation seem inevitable (Webb and Murphy, 2000), and the HE Academy’s consultation (2005) on national standards for those who support learning and teaching in the sector highlighted the need for other university systems to be aligned with lecturer development activities.

Educational developers’ goals
A study of developers of university teachers (Gibbs and Coffey, 2000) asked three basic questions: what they were trying to achieve; what they would consider a successful outcome; and what they would consider failure of their programme. Goals varied widely, including developing skills and competence; developing reflective practitioners; developing teachers’ conceptions of teaching; developing student learning; and developing teachers’ confidence to teach and to innovate. Every trainer had multiple goals, although one goal was often dominant, and a wide range of underlying beliefs, values and intentions regarding LDPs underpinned these goals. If these key players in the design and delivery of LDPs have such different approaches and goals (perhaps because educational developers come into the role from a rich diversity of epistemological backgrounds), then the LDP in each institution will, inevitably, have different characteristics.

The above list of influencing factors, combined with the untheorised and underdebated nature of the ILTHE’s framework, led to the diversity of provision which was found across the Scottish HE sector. In the next section, the future trajectory of LDP development is considered.

The Future of LDPs

What the findings of this research signify is that those involved in designing and delivering LDPs must do so with great sensitivity to the national agenda, the institutional context, and the constraints of individual academics and departments: quite a balancing act. In the UK, the demands of this balancing act are unlikely to diminish, since LDP provision is far from static, both at the national and institutional levels: institutionally, almost all of the respondents in this study claimed that their courses were either under development or that development was planned in the near future. The first phase of post-Dearing LDP provision and national standards is over, and course teams are taking stock of what they have been offering their lecturing staff, and reformulating their ideas. In general, the future was contemplated optimistically and ‘with interest’. This feeling will be heightened by the outcomes of the aforementioned national consultation on standards for those who support student learning in HE (HE Academy, 2005vi). At the time of writing, this consultation had reached its last stage, and the proposed framework did not differ greatly from the previous model, apart from greater emphasis on values and on scholarship. The HE Academy has reinforced its commitment to respecting institutional diversity, so the national standards framework will continue to be interpreted differently by different institutions. The other significant change is the proposed three-stage approach to lecturer development, which reflects Juwah’s (2003) strands of development:
These developments suggest that developers are about to enter a period of continuing reflection on the nature of their LDPs, and on how their institutional provision maps onto national standards.

**Conclusions**

This empirical study has looked at the provision of LDPs across the sector in one part of the United Kingdom. It has found that, in spite of their common origin in the Dearing recommendations and the ILTHE framework, the range of programmes provided is rich and diverse, and by no means static. While the Dearing policy may have initiated many of the LDPs, their development is part of an ongoing process in response to a variety of institutional and professional requirements. This diversity in approach looks set to continue, as LDP programme teams adapt to the evolving educational climate, responding to participant feedback and innovative methods for the development of student-centred, practice-driven, professionally-focused programmes. Now that LDPs have an established role within the HE sector, the challenge for course teams will be to continue updating their provision in the light of new national parameters.

Nationally, the ILTHE's core knowledge and professional values continue to underpin current LDPs. The new Higher Education Academy framework of professional standards for academic practice and continuing professional development has the potential to impact more strongly on teaching and learning practice than the previous framework, if the commitment to increased scholarship
and emphasis on values is successful in engaging staff more actively in the processes of their own professional development.
### Appendix I

**Courses for training / development of (new) lecturers: Outline Questions to Educational Developers**

1. University / name / email / role vis a vis course of respondent

2. Course title and No of participants

3. Where the course is coming from / roots / brief background

4. Where it is located in institution / Who teaches it

5. How is course funded, and is it charged to schools / departments?

6. Structure / outline of content / mode of delivery / modules

7. Weight / number of credits

8. Approach / methods

9. Assessment arrangements

10. Who is course aimed at? (eg new lecturers, GTAs, established lecturers, support staff …)

11. Who actually attends? (eg new lecturers, GTAs, established lecturers, support staff …)

12. Attendance requirements

13. What attitude do participants have to attending?

14. APL

15. Probationary status

16. Accreditation status (eg ILTM, ILTA)

17. Issues / challenges

18. How do you see the future?

19. Other items not covered above
Appendix 2

Scottish Universities: Lecturer Development Programmes

Follow-Up Questions for Phase 1

1. Please identify the titles of your programme modules or units (or provide a synopsis of module content if available).

2. What aspects of support are provided and encouraged on your programme e.g. mentors, academic tutors, peer support? Please identify and provide a brief comment.

3. If you are using portfolios for assessment purposes, please provide a definition of ‘portfolio’ within the context of your programme.

4. Is your assessment system based on pass/fail or a graded/linear scale?

5. Please comment on the articulation of your institutional system of probation with your programme. Are probationary lecturers required to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>COMMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>REGISTER FOR THE PROGRAMME</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTEND THE PROGRAMME</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUCCESSFULLY COMPLETE THE PROGRAMME</td>
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<tr>
<td>PARTIALLY COMPLETE THE PROGRAMME</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>ARE THESE REQUIREMENTS ENFORCED?</td>
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i i The Dearing Committee, the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (NCIHE) reported in 1997 on how the purposes, shape, structure, size and funding of UK higher education should develop over the next 20 years. Further information at [http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/ncihe](http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/ncihe)

ii Although the Dearing Report talked of staff ‘training’, this term has connotations of lower level skill acquisition; most educational developers prefer the term ‘development’, and this is the term used in this paper

iii The ILTHE was the professional institute for those who teach and support learning in higher education in the UK. In 2004 it was subsumed within the newly established Higher Education Academy: [http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/](http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/)

iv A 60 credit postgraduate certificate requires 600 hours of notional study time. For details of the Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework, see [http://www.scqf.org.uk](http://www.scqf.org.uk).

v Pre-92 universities received their charter before the expansion of the university sector in 1992.

vi [http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/professionalstandards.htm](http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/professionalstandards.htm)