

**ACADEMIC STAFF DEVELOPMENT IN HIGHER
EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS: A CASE STUDY OF
ZIMBABWE STATE UNIVERSITIES**

By

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DECLARATION

Student Number: **510712**

I declare that **Academic Staff Development in Higher Education Institutions: A Case Study of Zimbabwe State Universities** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

SIGNATURE
(Mr)

DATE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am for ever indebted to the Lord Almighty for not only giving me the vision to embark on this research project but for giving me good health and sustained determination to complete the thesis.

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DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to my wife Professor Owence Chabaya and children as well as my late mother Sharai and Brother Adam Chabaya who saw me through my education during my primary and secondary education. They are my source of inspiration.

ABSTRACT

This study investigated how institutional conditions and cultures enabled or impeded the development and implementation of academic professional development programmes in Zimbabwe State universities. The study was prompted by undervaluing of academic professional development in Zimbabwe State universities manifested by its absence in half of the institutions. Literature suggests that factors that enable or impede implementation of academic staff development programmes include irrelevant academic professional programmes and influence of departmental cultures.

The critical theory paradigm guided this study because the intention was to change and transform teaching practices by gaining insights on academics' perspectives on conditions that influence implementation of academic staff development programmes.

A qualitative study was employed where interviews, focus group discussions, documents and questionnaires were used. Two state universities were conveniently sampled from which sixteen academics, four deans, two Directors of the Teaching and Learning Centres and two Vice Chancellors were purposively selected to participate in the study.

The research produced findings reflecting that disciplines have huge influence on the development and implementation of academic professional development in higher education institutions. The scholarship of research constrained the scholarship of teaching in higher education practice. It was realised that academics' research interests subordinate teaching interests and by implication academic professional development programmes. This influences academics to have negative attitudes towards academic professional development programmes resulting in poor uptake of the programmes. It also emerged from the findings that promotion policies favour research over teaching resulting in academics marginalising teaching in their academic roles. It also emerged clearly as well that good researchers are not necessarily good teachers and that holding a PhD does not translate an academic to be a good teacher.

However, it also emerged that departmental cultures can be used to promote interdisciplinary research which academic professional development might embrace in its practice.

The research experienced limitations in terms of time and threat to confidentiality but their effects were countered through control measures effected by the researcher.

The study recommends that State universities should set up teaching and learning centres that will lead in the development of a culture that values teaching and learning in faculties in which academic professional development programmes will professionalize university teaching. The study also recommends that academic professional development should address needs of academics for them to be relevant and that their approach should include formal courses such as Post Graduate Diploma in Higher Education in which teaching in higher education is valued.

Keywords

Academic staff development, higher education, academic development, communities of practice, academic tribes, academic developer, faculty development, scholarship of teaching and learning, curriculum development, educational development

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ABBREVIATIONS

APD	Academic Professional Development
CHE	Council for Higher Education
DoE	Department of Education
HEA	Higher Education Academy
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
NCIHE	National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
NTFS	National Fellowship Scheme
SAQA	South African Qualifications Framework
SARUA	Southern African Regional Universities Association
SoTL	Scholarship of Teaching and Learning
(UK) PSF	United Kingdom Professional Standards Framework
ZIMCHE	Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education

CHAPTER 1

RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The study examines academic professional development and its practice in Zimbabwe State Universities. Specifically, the study focuses on exploring the experiences of academics on institutional factors that enable or impede successful implementation of academic professional development programmes. Accordingly, this chapter provides the background to the development of academic professional development as an institutional strategy designed to promote the quality of university teaching in Zimbabwe State Universities. The background of the study, the research problem, key research questions, significance of the study, delimitations and limitations of the study are also presented in this chapter.

However, the title of the research is A Study of Institutional conditions that influence implementation of Academic Staff Development in Higher Education Institutions: A Case Study of Zimbabwe State Universities.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Since independence in 1980, the government of Zimbabwe has considered education as an instrument which would spur national development. The developmental agenda of the country meant to transform the quality of life to be enjoyed universally by its people. The following characteristics are envisaged: economic well being, freedom and social justice, peace and security (Southern African Regional Universities Association) (SARUA, 2009:4). Studies have demonstrated that, in developing countries, higher education can play an accelerating role towards a country's production potential (Bloom, Caming and Chan, 2006). University education was seen as a "vehicle of producing the human power of the country which would offer research based solutions to the economic and social developmental challenges of a newly independent state" (Abeli, 2010:6; Hill, 1995: 16).

A revitalized higher education is considered to be a critical factor in supporting plans promoting sustainable development in Zimbabwe. To this end, 10 state universities were established through a deliberate policy of higher education and devolution that dominated the 1990s. The expansion demonstrates the confidence government has in higher education to offer solutions to the economic problems of the country. Recent studies have demonstrated that higher education can play a key “catch-up” role in “accelerating the rate of growth towards a country’s productivity” (Abeli, 2010:4-5; Bloom, Canning and Chan, 2006). Higher education institutions (HEIs) are well positioned to play this role because of their nature and status. They have unique academic freedom as well as critical mass and diversity of skills to develop new ideas and to engage in bold disputations (Elder and MacGregor, 2008:2). Universities can offer space for contestation of ideas. Accordingly, without adequate higher education providing a critical mass of skilled and educated people, no developing country, Zimbabwe included, can achieve sustainable development.

However, the potential which higher education can contribute to development is threatened by low quality high education. Kotecha (2015) comments on the issue by noting that universities in Southern Africa face challenges arising from democratising higher education that enables greater numbers of students from socially or economically marginalized groups access to higher education while maintaining or improving the standards of quality and the relevance of courses. African higher education institutions are expected to address the issues of quality if they are to meet the expectations of stakeholders (Abel, 2010:3; Baijnath, 2010: 14-15; Materu, 2007). Given the high investment in universities, expectations are high. On one hand, the government and the nation expect universities to offer solutions to issues of development. On the other hand parents and students expect good quality university education particularly in view of the introduced cost-sharing policy. “Due to poor quality teaching some students felt that they were not receiving their money’s worth” (Abel 2010: 3-6; Atkinson, 1994). According to SARUA (2009), Zimbabwe State Universities experience quality challenges resulting from: unfavorable student lecturer and student computer ratios, shortage of reference materials and severe brain drain leading to the juniorisation of staff (2009:118-120). These impediments constrain higher education to deliver quality high education in Zimbabwe.

If Zimbabwe needs to make higher education effective it has to undertake reforms to raise the quality of education and training through changes in content and pedagogy. Many scholars argue that “democratization of higher education would be limited” (Boughey, 2012:134) without “granting students epistemological access (Quinn, 2006:115) to the knowledge processes of the university. Quinn (2012) encourages academic developers to convince academics that education is never neutral but is always underpinned by a political agenda. Academics need to apply their minds collectively and individually to what it means to ‘decolonise’ higher education in general and in specific disciplines. The position arises from the argument that social advancement can only occur on the basis of acquired knowledge, skills and competencies which higher education offers. The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education’s 2010 Vision guarantees Zimbabwe:

To become a regional leader in the use of new and existing knowledge, skills, attitudes and resources through the mobilization and provision of quality higher and tertiary education (Vision, 2010:1).

The question of quality higher education is taken seriously in higher education institutions. In pursuit of this goal, the Zimbabwe Council of Higher Education (ZIMCHE) was established through an act of parliament in 1990 as a National Quality Assurance Agency in Higher Education. One of its major functions is “maintenance of appropriate standards with regard to teaching and course instruction” (ZIMCHE ACT, 2006:33). Through this national structure the value of teaching in higher education receives the attention it deserves.

Higher education needs to be transformed in order to meet its challenges. At a minimum it requires strategic thinking. High quality professional development is “viewed as essential to increase educators’ knowledge skills, attitudes and beliefs” (Lewis, 2009:6) to enable students to learn at high levels. Members of the university community need to be conscientized on important development issues which affect higher education effectiveness (Candy, 1996:6) through professional development. Attempts to promote the capacity of academics in teaching have been undertaken in many countries and universities. The German Foundation for International Development (DSE) organized a series of workshops entitled “Towards Academic and

Professional Excellence in Higher Education” between 1989 and 1991 in an attempt to empower university lecturers in selected African countries with teaching skills. Zimbabwe was a participant of this programme including Malawi, Tanzania, Uganda, Kenya and Ethiopia. DSE wanted to support partner universities in the empowerment of their academic staff. It was hoped that participants would be encouraged to stimulate within their institutions attention to the “role of lecturers as teachers and to make a contribution to the process of institutionalizing the professional development of staff.” (Materu, 1995:4). Some of the state universities in Zimbabwe have established Teaching and Learning Centres (T&LCs) meant to promote professional staff development of academics. These centres are expected to promote the scholarship of teaching. The scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) not only promotes the development of expertise in one’s field but enhances the scholarship of teaching as a pedagogical expertise (Mckinney, 2004). Teaching and learning centres (T&LCs) are expected to develop “the diversified role of the professoriate as recognized and advocated for by Boyer (1990:21)”. The scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) has relevance since it allows the development of a pedagogy which is responsive to a diversified student population – a product of massification of higher education. In promoting the SoTL, established centers will encourage “evidence based critical reflection on practice by lecturers aimed at improving practice” (Oltman and Boughey, 2012: 335) and Prosser (2008:2). Like in the Carnegie Foundation lectures will pose problems on issues of teaching and learning, study of the problem through appropriate methods to the discipline’s epistemologies and application of permits to practice (Cambridge 2001). These activities are characteristics of the SoTL which is associated with the improvement of student learning. T&LCs which are being established in Zimbabwe state universities will hopefully restore the status and value of teaching in higher education through research on scholarship of teaching. A lot of investment has been made in terms of human as well as financial resources in setting up these T&LCs.

It is frequently argued that professional development has the potential to empower university academics with the necessary pedagogical skills for them to cope with educational challenges encountered in higher education. Litchfield and Spear (1999) considered the impact of diverse staff development activities in their project. The project outcome demonstrated clearly that well funded and managed professional development increase staff’s knowledge and skills competencies about learning and

teaching. Martin and Barlow (1996) conducted a similar study in which they investigated the challenges associated with staff development of higher education teachers offered through a university's centre for learning and teaching. The University of Western Australia adopted a comprehensive approach to staff development in order to address the expanding role and changing demands on the academic (Grant, Dollery and van der Westhuizen (2012: 90-91); Nelson, Clarke, Lift and Creagh 2011; Goody, 1999; Hicks, 1999; Mahmoud and Kanwara 2015:358). In Africa academic staff development has also been viewed as an institutional strategy which builds capacity of university lecturers to cope with changes in higher education (Abeli, 2010:3; Association of African Universities and World Bank 1997). An article by Whitcomb et al. (2009) emphasizes the role of staff development in unlocking and developing talent within the lecturing force and its positive impact on improving teacher quality. Quinn (2012) challenges academics to create spaces for genuine and critical dialogue with students about knowledge, course design, teaching methods, assessment and ways of engaging with new generation of students. A consensus has emerged from literature that points out that professional development can impact positively on teacher knowledge and skills which will result in student achievement if delivered in conducive and supportive settings (Brazer and Bauer 2013:680; Buczynski and Hansein 2010:601; Ertner and Otteinbreit-Leftwich 2010:281; Gareth et al. 2001; Guskey, 2003; Keichner 2010:93-94). However, Baijnath (2010:14) describes professional development available to staff as woefully inadequate and marginal. In South Africa it is acknowledged that academics in the higher education sector are constrained (ill equipped) to implement the curriculum in order to meet national needs (Bougey 2010). "Professional development is seen as an intervention strategy which could capacitate the higher education sector for it to meet graduate output" (Scott, 2007:59). Some professionalization of teaching is increasingly expected where all academic staff should become specialists in the SoTL (Kreber, 2002).

Notwithstanding the recognition accorded to professional development activities, there has been debate about its effectiveness. Questions are being raised about the effectiveness of all forms of professional development in higher education institutions. Also with these questions have come increased demands for demonstrable and conclusive results. Education researchers want to know whether professional development programmes really make a difference on student achievement (Putman

and Barko, 2000; Suporitz, 2001). Reviewing the evidence on how teacher professional development affects student achievement, Yoon et al. (2007:1) comment that the “link is perhaps intuitive” attesting to the paucity of vigorous studies that directly examine the link.

Keeping this discourse in mind, professional developers and indeed other scholars have pointed out that the impact of cultural, political, ethical and institutional context and policies which might influence the establishment of professional development practices in higher education remain unexplored (O’Neil and MacLabhram, 2004; Trowler and Cooper, 2002). The study specifically aimed at discovering conditions which influence the establishment of academic professional development (APD) programmes in state universities. It is critical to explore the issue because the effect of professional development can be measured in a situation where one has been established. The researcher has first-hand experience in promoting professional development among lecturers in the university as Director of a University Centre. Efforts to establish professional development programmes have not received enthusiastic uptake yet professional development is considered to be an institutional strategy which brings about curriculum change so imperative in higher education. The research topic has been well thought out and considered to be an important area which warrants investigation to identify institutional structures, policies and conditions which enable or constrain establishment of professional development in state universities. Hence, this study intends to investigate institutional conditions that affect the development and implementation of academic professional development (APD) in Zimbabwe state universities.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Professional development was neglected in spite of its potential to transform higher education and promote quality learning and teaching. The conspicuous absence of T&LCs in 50% of state universities was clear testimony of neglected APD. Given this trend one gets the impression that induction of new lecturers and continuous improvement among experienced lecturers who needed help with their scholarship of teaching were not getting expected support. Lecturers needed to be empowered to deal with the demanding challenges of teaching in higher education and yet professional

development was not institutionalized in state universities. The purpose of the study was to investigate and analyse institutional conditions which enabled or constrained (impeded) development and implementation of APD in state universities in Zimbabwe in order to promote quality teaching and learning. The statement of the problem can be stated thus:

How can institutional conditions, structures and cultures enable or impede implementation of APD in Zimbabwe State Universities?

1.3.1 Sub questions

- How does support given by university senior management influence implementation of staff development programmes?
- In what way does academic perception of ASD affect its implementation?
- To what extent does university culture have a bearing on implementation of academic staff development programmes in universities?
- How does attitude of academics impact implementation of ASD programmes?
- What is the conditioning influence of a PhD qualification on the professionalization of the academic role?

1.4 THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to establish enabling or constraining conditions that affect the development and implementation of academic staff development (ASD) in Zimbabwe State Universities. The study would establish the status of teaching in universities in the eyes of academics and how staff attitude is affecting academic professional development (APD) implementation. Ultimately, the study would be able to do the following:

- Determine academics' perception of ASD and its influence on ASD implementation.
- Establish institutional conditions that affect the development and implementation of ASD programmes.
- Find out the status of teaching in universities and its conditioning influence on implementation of ASD programmes.

- Determine and analyse the attitude of academics towards ASD and its effect on ASD implementation.
- Establish whether state universities have staff development policies that promote professionalization of teaching.
- Establish from academics whether a PhD qualification has a conditioning influence on implementation of ASD.
- Establish whether university senior management gives the status and necessary support to professional staff development programmes for ASD.
- Recommend ways that can be used to reduce the effect of institutional conditions that constrain successful implementation of ASD in state universities in Zimbabwe.

1.5 ASSUMPTIONS

The researcher embarked on the study with the assumption that:

- University management would support the researcher to access university documents that relate to academic staff development in faculties and departments.
- Directors of Teaching and Learning Centres (T&LCs) would avail to the researcher all the relevant documents related to Academic Professional Development (APD) programmes.
- Strong disciplinary and academic cultural practices influence the development and implementation of Academic Professional Development (APD) in faculties.
- Teaching and Learning Centres (T&LCs) are viewed as support and administrative units by academics.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Insights gained in this study are likely to contribute towards the development of intervention strategies that would promote successful implementation of academic staff development programmes in state universities in Zimbabwe. In the short term research findings could be used to spark debate and institutional conversations about the role and status of APD in institutional development, particularly improving the quality of

learning and teaching. Results generated are also likely to highlight constraining factors that influence development and growth of APD practice in higher education institutions. Additionally, the findings are likely to contribute towards knowledge about the SoTL as a form of APD.

It is also hoped that findings might contribute towards the development of a knowledge base for academic staff to improve the quality of teaching and learning in higher education.

1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study focuses on identification and analysis of factors that enable or constrain the development and implementation of ASD in state universities in Zimbabwe. The scope of the study is confined to state universities in Zimbabwe. The population of the study comprised university Vice Chancellors, Deans of faculties, Chairpersons of departments, professors, lecturers and Directors of Teaching and Learning Centres (T&LCs).

1.8 METHOD OF RESEARCH

1.8.1 Population, sample and sampling method

The population studied was that of academics, deans, directors and vice chancellors who have participated in APD programmes. In the main non-probability sampling method was used. The researcher used purposive sampling for Vice Chancellors and Deans while convenience sampling was used to select academic participants. 18 participants were sampled from each case study institution giving a total of 36 participants out of the two case study institutions.

1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Limiting factors associated with this study were as follows:

- Due to financial constraints and limited time, the researcher confined the investigation to two state universities only.

- Some of the lecturers knew the researcher as a colleague from a sister university and, therefore, the researcher had to reassure the participants about the confidentiality and anonymity of data.
- Likelihood existed of lack of depth and breadth of findings arising from exclusions of universities without T&LCs from the sample.

1.10 RESEARCH DESIGN

The researcher employed the case study as the research method. The case study is described as a systematic inquiry into an event or a set of related events which aim to describe and explain the phenomena in its context, thereby creating realistic chances of getting the truth out of them (Bromley, 1990; Denzin and Lincoln, 2005; Thomas and Nelson, 2001). The study sought academics' perspectives on academic professional development practice in the two case study institutions. Consequently, a post positivist paradigm that underlies qualitative data collection methods was chosen. The case study approach is also constructivist in nature which could be used for interpretive research (Mertens, 1998:2-7).

In this case study the qualitative method was the main data gathering method. However, the quantitative method was also employed to supplement data.

1.11 DATA COLLECTING INSTRUMENTS

The researcher employed recorded structured interviews on academics, deans, directors of Teaching and Learning Centres (T&LCs) and Vice Chancellors. An interview holds one of the effective ways of finding out about a phenomenon if people involved are asked (Tuckman, 1994). Focus group discussion was also used. The research was also supported by the use of four sets of questionnaires. The four sets of questionnaires were for the groups listed below:

- Academics
- Deans
- Directors of Teaching and Learning Centres
- Vice Chancellors

1.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Both case study institutions and participants gave their informed consent to take part in the research. Negotiation meetings were concluded by each participating case study institution providing their consent by signing a letter of agreement. Participants also signed informed consent forms after issues of privacy, anonymity and confidentiality were guaranteed. The “principle of the sensitivity to the rights of the researched” (Cohen et al. 2000:156) was safe guarded. Also formal committee approval to proceed within the guidelines of the ethical research policy of the University of South Africa was granted on 11 November 2013. Details on ethical measures taken are discussed in section 3.10 (pp138-142).

1.13 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Multiple methods including interviews, focus group discussions, questionnaires and documents were used as sources of data. In order to enhance validity, triangulation (Mouton 2005:277) was used as a measure to enhance legitimacy and rigour of the research including reduction of bias resulting from any one of the multiple methods used in this study. A detailed discussion of measures taken to ensure trustworthiness of the findings is in section 3.14 that covers data analysis.

1.14 DATA ANALYSIS

In this study, constant comparative data analysis was employed (Benton, 1991, Morgan 1993). Interview transcripts and additional notes from the field journal were coded. Codes represented an idea or theme with which each part of the data was associated. Once coding was completed, the codes that needed common elements were merged to form categories. The categories were then clustered around each research question which they contributed to addressing. Data analysis was completed once all the research questions had been allotted input from the categories. A comprehensive discussion covering data analysis is dealt with in section 3.12 (pp 148-153) and section 4.3.2 (pp166-168).

1.15 ABBREVIATIONS AND DEFINITION OF TERMS

1.15.1 Abbreviations

APD	Academic Professional Development
CHE	Council for Higher Education
DoE	Department of Education
HEA	Higher Education Academy
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
NCIHE	National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
NTFS	National Fellowship Scheme
SAQA	South African Qualifications Framework
SARUA	Southern African Regional Universities Association
SoTL	Scholarship of Teaching and Learning
(UK) PSF	United Kingdom Professional Standards Framework
ZIMCHE	Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education

1.15.2 Definition of Terms

The terms defined below are not comprehensively and exhaustively defined. The definitions are only meant to briefly explain what the terms mean. The terms and expressions apply in the context of this research. Detailed definitions of the terms are provided in Chapter 2 of this research report (2.2.1 pp14-16; 2.2.2 pp16-18; 2.2.3 pp19-20).

Academic development

Academic development is a broader term concerned with the development and improvement of the quality of learning and teaching in higher education (Gosling, 2001:68). According to Bradley (1998), critical engagement and inquiry into curriculum issues related to higher education is the dominant approach of academic development that informs the practice.

Academic professional development

In a broader sense the term academic professional development refers to the development of being his or her professional role by an academic (Seyoum, 2011:1). It keeps academics up to date to current educational trends and theories (Ganser, 2000).

Academic staff development

Academic staff development refers to programmes designed to improve the quality of teaching and learning through the professionalization of university teaching (Seyoum2011:380). It might also involve leadership training of those in university management such as heads of departments and deans. It is meant to develop a culture of teaching the discipline through short courses, seminars and workshops. In some instances a formal course like Post Graduate Diploma in Higher and Tertiary Education can be offered.

Communities of practice

Communities of practice can be defined as a closely interacting group of practitioners within which contextualized situated learning is always happening and is legitimized (Lave and Wenger, 1991:98, Knight and Trowler (2001:9). In higher education academic departments and subject disciplines can be treated as communities of practice (Brew, 2003:12) that provide the context in which academics are enculturated and form their academic identities.

Scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL)

Elton (2009:253) claims that the concept of scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) includes research into teaching and learning but also includes disciplinary research as well. It is a new professionalism of teachers of higher education based on Boyer's (1990) work.

1.16 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The thesis comprises five chapters. In chapter one, the background information on poor development and implementation of APD practice in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Zimbabwe State Universities is discussed. The statement of the problem, the

objectives of the study and the significance of the study among others are presented and discussed.

Chapter two covers the presentation and discussion of relevant literature. Literature concerning discourses that influence the development of Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) as a form of academic professional development (APD) is discussed. The chapter also discusses the theoretical framework that informs this study about APD as a transformation strategy that can be used in HEIs.

Chapter three discusses the research design, methodology and instrumentation used in the study. The population of the study and the sampling procedures are also discussed in this chapter. The data collected is presented and discussed in chapter 4. Data is presented and discussed through the comparative method to facilitate interpretation (understanding).

Chapter five discusses the findings of the research. In this section, the discussion includes comparison of the findings with data found in the literature. Areas for further study are also suggested in this chapter.

1.17 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the contextual background to the problem. It discussed the problem and its setting. Issues to do with purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, scope of the study, limitations and definition of terms among others were the focus of this chapter. The next chapter discusses review of related literature.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 provided background information on the problem of the study as well as relevant details that relate to the value of the study to higher education practice. Chapter 2 discusses critical related literature on ASD and factors that enable or constrain its development and implementation in HEIs. More importantly, institutional conditions, structures and cultures that enable or constrain the effectiveness and sustainability of ASD are studied. The following themes are extracted from literature for their broad relevance: trends in academic staff development in higher education, supporting conditions for effective staff development approaches, models for academic staff development and causes of ineffective staff development in HEIs.

In addition, special consideration is given to acquiring literature from a broad range of countries such as the UK, USA, Australia and South Africa to inform the study on how international trends have influenced ASD locally. Although conducted from a worldwide perspective these literature searches focuses on sources published since 2006. However, it is found to be insightful that issues raised in the 1900s has relevance even today. In such situations, their relevance is acknowledged and referred to. Definition of key terms is attempted first below.

2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.2.1 Academic development and educational development

The terms educational development and academic development are commonly used in professional development work in higher education institutions. An attempt to define these terms deserves attention to clear ambiguities associated with them if any attempts to define academic development or educational development has been made by various scholars (Bath and Smith, 2004; D'Andrea and Gosling, 2001; Gosling, 2001; McDonald, 2003; Volbrecht, 2003). What emerges from literature is that “educational

development is broader in conception” (D’Andrea and Gosling, 2001:65) to the extent that professional development of academic staff is “one of its six functions” (Gosling, 2001). Clearly educational development is not professional development of academic staff. A clearer definition is presented by Bath and Smith (2004) who view educational development as an activity that concerns itself with the improvement of teaching and learning as well as assessment within the broader context of higher education. Bradley (1998) and Gosling (2001) also define educational development as the improvement of teaching within the broader context of higher education. Strikingly, all scholars (Bath and Smith 2004; Bradley, 1998; Gosling, 2001) emphasise the centrality of investigation and inquiry into higher education particularly the SoTL which should inform higher education practice. This conceptualisation of educational development is consistent with Vobrecht’s definition which refers to educational development as: “learning and teaching in higher education, curriculum studies, staff development, assessment and evaluation, academic literacy, the role of ICT in higher education, postgraduate supervision and peer group learning” (2003:5).

However, the uncertainty about the role and function of educational development is commented on by McDonald (2003). He acknowledges that there is no dominant approach to educational development; rather its practice is influenced by institutional contexts, character and their traditions (2003:3).

Academic development is another term which is related (synonymous) with educational development. Literature analysis on higher education development shows that academic development plays a role in conscientising the academic community about many issues that might affect higher education (Candy, 1996:16). These issues might include curriculum issues in higher education, large or small class sizes, assessment, equity and quality issues in higher education. The role of academic development then will be engaging critically with these issues in an attempt to improve higher education practice. The inquiry paradigm associated with academic development is also emphasised by Spratt, Weaver, Moshill and Kish whose definition of academic development focuses on critical engagement and SoTL (2001:10).

Another distinctive feature of academic development is that it is an area of professional practice which is heavily influenced by the culture of the institution (Ryan, 2004). Both

educational development and academic development cover similar activities which are concerned with the development and improvement of the quality of learning and teaching whose practice is informed by pedagogic research. Although educational development is a broader term compared to academic development, they are synonymous in conceptualisation for the purpose of this study.

2.2.2 The term academic professional development

This is a term on which the thesis is based and as such deserves attention by way of definition. In order to facilitate conceptualisation of the term academic professional development it is appropriate to examine what the term professionalism constitutes. According to the UNIVERSITIES UK government consultation paper, professionalism is defined within a Higher Education context as an:

Individual's adherence to a set of standards, code of standard, or collection of qualities that characterise accepted practice within a particular area of activity (2004:1).

This suggests that university teachers have to adhere to standards and code of conduct associated with the profession. Usually autonomous organisations and institutions exercise standards to measure the performance of the profession or the individual professional.

Nordkvelle (2006:91) posits another view of professionalization of the role of the academic in higher education in the context of the four areas of "scholarship" stemming from the book by Boyer (1990). Boyer (1990) argues for a new professionalization of the academic's role which is broader, involving the four scholarships – discovery, integration, application and teaching. This concept is opposed to the traditional view which defined scholarship as advancement of knowledge in terms of discovery. Consequently the four concepts of scholarship have been hugely influential in discussions about a new professionalism of the teachers of higher education (Nordkvelle, 2006).

The above conceptualisation fits well with the definition of professional development made by Nixon et al. (2001) and Palinscar (1998). According to Palinscar, professional development of higher education practitioners is viewed as an “intellectual activity” where teachers “play a participatory role” and engage in “reflective practice” to gain insight on teaching problems in the classroom (1998:343). Goodson (2001:185) on the other hand emphasises that “reflection is at the heart of what it means to be a professional”. The professional paradigm advocated here involves reflective practice on the part of the academic based on critical engagement of teaching of the discipline. Seyoum (2011) extends the definition of professional development further by considering it to be growth and development of an academic resulting from planned and systematic interventions (Glatthorn, 1995 in Seyoum, 2011:9). He notes that the term professional development in a broader sense refers to the development of “being in his or her professional role” (Seyoum, 2011:1) suggesting that the individual teacher is prepared to occupy the teaching role and function through teacher development.

At a more specified level, teachers’ professional development is associated with professional growth which the teacher achieves by gaining increased experience and through self examination of one’s teaching (Glatthorn, 1995). The implication here is that gained experience and self-reflection on classroom experiences which result in professional development of the practitioner. Apart from this there is professional development associated with formal experiences and those which are qualifications based (Ganser, 2000:33). Formal workshop and programmes such as Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education are good examples.

Studies by Fritzmaurice (2008), Nixon (2001), Nixon, Marks, Rowland and Walker (2010) as well as Rowland (2002) have attempted to characterise the notion of professionalization in the context of changing demands experienced in the higher education setting. Interesting discourses around what constitutes professionalization have featured from their studies. A moral agenda as a basis for academics to claim their professionalism emerged as a discourse associated with the notion of professionalism. Fritzmaurice’s (2008:350) proposition of teaching in higher education as a moral practice demonstrated that academics engaged strongly with the values base of teaching as university teachers. Nixon (2010:181) challenges the academic community to reconsider academic freedom through the discourse of “freedom for all” that is

inclusive rather than “freedom for the individual academic.” Also Nixon, Marks, Rowland and Walker (2010:233-235) argue that moral purposefulness of the practice should be highlighted if academics are to lay any claim to professionalism.

Academics also reject the concept of professionalization which puts emphasis on teaching because they regard the conduct and publication of research as the employment par excellence of academics. The position arises from the view that discipline based research is the basis on which academics construct their professional identity (Becher, 1984; Becher and Trowler, 2001). Boyer’s (1990) four forms of scholarship confirm this. Given this perspective, professionalism in the view of the academic is discipline based and does exclude the broader role of the academic. On the above conceptualisation and debate, the conception of professional development is broader than staff development whose concept (definition) is discussed below.

It is generally accepted that staff development involves the enhancement of knowledge and skills of employees of an organisation which leads to adding value to the organisation (Morris, 2009:1). The implication is that the knowledge and skills should “facilitate change” (O’Leary, 1997) not at institutional level but at both personal and professional levels. Although staff development is defined in various ways, its primary purpose has been presented as the expansion of the educators’ awareness of the various tasks which contribute to the effective education of the students (Collett and Davison, 1999:37; Webb, 1996; Morris, 2009). Morris describes these tasks more specifically as: ‘teaching and learning, research and scholarship and professional updating’ (2009:103). Hunzicker (2010:4) suggests conditions for self-development and proposed that staff development should address teachers’ specific needs and concerns for it to be relevant, authentic and sustainable. Approaching the discourse of ASD from this perspective will ensure participants’ motivation as well as integration of the programmes into the academic culture of the institution in an effective way. What is also critical in the discourse of staff development is the promotion of teaching and learning on the basis of reflective practice that should inform the university teacher to see the connection between a learning experience and lecturers’ teaching actions (Schon, 1983). This conceptualisation of the task of ASD inquiry and reflection as well as growth and development of the individual which are also associated with academic professional

development should be promoted. Consequently the two terms are used interchangeably in this study.

2.2.3 The Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) as a form of continuing professional development

The scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) developed as part of continuing professional development which gained momentum during the 1980s and 1990s. The environment in higher education demanded that university teachers become professional by “engaging in critical reflexive pedagogy (Fleming et al. 2004:165).

Scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) derives from the revolutionary work of Boyer (1990) on his four scholarships. These four scholarships included: discovery, teaching, application and integration. The scholarship of discovery encompassed the traditional view of research in discovering new knowledge while the scholarship of teaching was about transforming and extending knowledge through the integration of the teacher’s understanding and student’s learning (Boyer, 1990 in Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999:25). The emerging implication is that the four scholarships are not distinct entities but overlapping qualities of academic work.

According to Boyer, higher education must move beyond the tired old “teaching versus research debate” and give the familiar and honourable term scholarship “a broader more capacious meaning” (1990:16). Before Boyer, Humbolt had developed a Humboltian principle of a university as a community of scholars in which he viewed university activities (including teaching) being underpinned in scholarship (Elton, 2009:1-2). As part of this agenda, Boyer (1990) positions teaching as an integral rather than an isolated part of an academic’s work. The argument being that teaching is as important as research and research into teaching is as important as research in the disciplines. SoTL as a form APD should be developed into a course reflective of a field of study with its own field (scholarship of teaching) leading to an award of a formal qualification in the form of a Master’s degree (Elton, 2009:3).

The question that should be examined, should relate to the form APD should take. Elton suggests that “development is clearly additional to development in the discipline

but should be of equivalent weight” (2009:6). Arguments should be presented before academics that problems arising from their practice need to be researched and reflected upon in order to promote the quality of student learning experiences.

In order to use that approach one must view teaching “problems” in the same way as research problems – as the starting points of inquiry, rather than as a ‘bad’ teaching that needs to be fixed (Bass, 1998 cited by Hutchings and Schulman, 1998). Academics need to be convinced that university teaching is a problematic and researchable activity just as good as disciplinary research. Continuing professional development based on SoTL should professionalise university teachers. McLoughlin and Samuels (2002) describe one way in which this can be acquired. They suggest:

A programme that serves the scholarship of teaching while at the same time providing academics the scope and time to develop professional interest, and a portfolio, critical reflection on curriculum design, assessment approaches and evaluation projects of higher education seems to be a useful type of intervention to foster university teaching and learning (2002:455).

The scholarship of teaching would be promoted by providing a course founded in continuing professional development which takes critical reflective practice as an element of training. Ramsden (2003) and other researchers (Astel, et al. 2011:3; Boud, 1999; Braxton, Luckey and Hellan, 2002; Jankonski and Slotnick, 2015; Prosser and Barrie and Prosser, 2000) identify value of reflection as the foundation for scholarly inquiry into enhancing learning and teaching.

However, APD should be self initiated and autonomous and should not be prescribed from outside, if it has to have high take up rate among academics as a programme. Discussion of this section would be incomplete without pointing out that conceptualisation of professional development is sometimes misconstrued as wholly comprised of workshops empowering staff with competence skills. This arises from the practice of ASD programmes that have significantly been workshop based. The section below examines conditions which affect staff development in HEIs.

2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

ASD has been adopted in HEIs as a strategy that enhances lecturer quality. It is the researcher's belief that education quality in any institution is dependent on lecturer quality. ASD should have reflective practice as its model through which university teachers improve their practice. It is the researcher's argument that lecturers should be encouraged to explore the ontological and epistemological underpinnings of their disciplines through critical reflection. In addition ASD should develop lecturers' capacities to examine their philosophical assumptions of their theories about teaching and learning.

2.3.1 Critical theory

The study is premised in critical pedagogy which draws from critical theory. Critical theory concerns itself with critiques of contemporary society and with proposals for improved social conditions of modern societies (Apple, 2004; Giroux, 1988 and Habermas, 1989). These societies are marked by conditions which are unfair to some while privileging others.

According to Apple (1996) and Giroux (1997) and Habermas (1989), modern societies must be 'self reflective' with a view to understanding these unjust, unequal and unfair practices. Ultimately this self-reflective practice of social conditions will lead to their correction. The primary concern of critical education, therefore, is with social injustice and how to transform inequitable, undemocratic or oppressive institutions and social relations. Harbermas (1998) cited in Higher Education Exchange (2009) confirms this role by articulating the education of academic teachers using critical theory. It is observed that university goals might contribute to solving problems in contemporary society (what Harbermas calls 'the greatest moral political liabilities of our time') (Higher Education Exchange, 2009:25 drawing from Harbermas, 1989). He goes further to argue that teaching attends to the 'communicative reason of students defined as their "capacity to think and to argue about matters of value to society" (Ibid). This is consistent with the traditional holistic 'ideas' of a university: "the pursuit of knowledge and truth for the betterment of society" (Kraak, 2000:33). Consequently the university has come to see itself as a site of critical reason and a vehicle of enlightenment.

Strengthening this idea, Harbermas presents the argument that the university can play a part in bringing about ‘emancipatory change’ because it allows people to discuss social conditions “rationally and reach agreement” in institutional conditions which are free from constraints and power relations” (Harbermas, 1989 in Higher Education Exchange, 2009:24).

The implication for the content of university education is that it should be ‘critical’ and focus to produce graduates who are analytic, critical and divergent thinkers capable of being actors in modern society.

Critical pedagogy espoused by people like Giroux (1994); Freire (1972) and Shor (1996) is associated with democracy which, according to Barneet (2000:50), promotes ‘justice and citizenship’. These concepts have implication for higher education in that they promote ideas of access, inclusion, equity rather than closed access, exclusion and inequalities (Shizha and Kariwo, 2011:136-137; Tagoe, 2011:601). Critical university education has consequently become less elite and is characterised by open access to higher education to previously disadvantaged communities. The result has been massification of higher education, a much debated concept. It has been debated because massification has resulted in a diversity of students in terms of social, cultural, economic and political backgrounds. The challenge for academic professional development is to empower academics in higher education with critical pedagogical knowledge to deal and support students whose major characteristic is diversity.

However, the existence of the unequal world likely to be perpetuated by the dominant values of the elites passed on through cultural socialisation of the school as an agency is likely to be a threat to the egalitarian goal of higher education (Carrington and Selva 2010:52-53). In this unequal world, the dominant values of the elites in terms of language and worldview are packaged to form classroom experiences and conveyed by teachers as accepted knowledge. According to Apple and Giroux (1996) and McLaren (2003), the starting point is that critical pedagogy improves people’s social conditions based on social class by unblocking and eliminating inequalities which make them fulfil their potential and abilities. There are implications for academic staff development. Clearly it is challenged to equip academic teachers with requisite pedagogic knowledge and disposition which motivate students to realise their full

academic potential (Rocha-Schmid 2010:356). Harbermas (1989), for example, challenges academic staff development to develop academic teachers' 'communicative reason' in relation to their teaching role. Since the health of both any democracies and universities depends on "critical argumentation and communication" it is critical that students' communicative reason is developed in the context of discipline or professional fields for them to make a difference in society through discussion and agreements (McLaren, 2008 in Higher Education Academy, 2009:25). The suggestion here is that academic teachers need to develop communicative reason about pedagogic matters.

However, in order to develop communicative reason, academics need to develop what Brookfield (1999) calls 'critical rationale'. This is a set of values, beliefs and convictions about the essential forms and purposes of teaching. These values are essential in fighting resistant dominant cultures of the elites found in classroom experiences. Both academics and students guided by these values are likely to make a difference in the teaching and learning activity.

In this section of the discussion it is relevant to question whether lecturers are concerned about bringing the best out of their students. Another issue that warrants attention is whether academic staff development has an effect on development of teaching among lecturers. Some scholars and studies have attempted to address the issue critically (Browne, et al. 2010; Calonge, et al. 2011:63; Campbell, et al. 2014; Gibbs, 2011:154; McLaren, 2008; Ramsden, 1992; Kessing – Styles, 2003). According to McLaren, lecturers reject edicts about how to teach arguing that efforts to improve "university teaching are based on a shallow intellectual base" (2008:50). In their view, teaching experience and principles of their disciplines can guide them better than pedagogic research based training where effect on teaching effectiveness has not been conclusively proven (Ibid). A contradiction is noted here that while academics adopt theory in their own disciplines they reject it in relation to teaching. This is consistent with claims made by Ramsden (1992) about the attitude of university lecturers towards the care and respect they give to students.

In higher education, students are traditionally responsible for their own studies with some limited support from lecturers (Bamwesiga, Fejes and Dahlgren 2013:339). The

responsibility by the lecturer is to assist students in knowledge construction in the discipline in which one is an expert. Ramsden puts the point so well by observing that “concern and care for students by academics are uncommon attitudes to be found among them” (1992:97). Critical pedagogy can be used in academic staff development to empower lecturers with strategies to bring about change among students (Carrington and Selva 2010).

Habermas’ (1989) ‘communicative reason’ associated with critical argumentation and communication can be used in challenging “curriculum practices which are canons of the dominant elite” (Giroux, 1997:71) in order to promote critical consciousness of students. According to Habermas, that critical consciousness can be enhanced by creating a restraint free and “democratic university environment which facilitates critical argumentation” (1998:25). In order to achieve critical consciousness among students, academics need to be transformative intellectuals (Giroux and McLaren, 1996; Sondel, 2015:310-311) who use democratic and participatory methods to question the status quo through research (Schon, 1996). Critical pedagogy can make a contribution to university teacher development programmes through reflective practice associated with the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) (Rocha-Schmid 2010:348). McLaren justifies use of critical pedagogy in university academic staff development programmes by arguing that reflective practice provides a “framework for explaining classroom teaching” as well as restraining academics from “each other’s ill-founded views about teaching and student learning” (2008:32).

Given the challenges associated with massification of higher education characterised by a diversity of students in terms of literacy levels, disposition, large class groups, home and school backgrounds, academic professional development drawing from critical pedagogy can bring about expected change in terms of the quality of the student’s learning experience.

In order to achieve this, the study should establish the enabling or constraining conditions for the establishment and development of academic professional development in higher education. This is critical if academics are expected to contribute positively to immense demands and pressure made on higher education today.

2.3.2 Critical theory and academic professional development

In this section of the thesis, the researcher seeks to answer the question: ‘What contributions could critical theory make to professional development in higher education transformation?’

Indeed universities are challenged to change. These calls are made by governments, industry and society at large. At the centre of the call is the critical issue of quality in higher education. However, higher education is expected to address other historical human issues to do with power, oppression, class privileges and other iniquities. For example, it is a reality in today’s society that schools do not treat all students equally well. Many students who come from cultural, linguistic, geographic and socioeconomic backgrounds that are ascribed lower status than considered the norm are treated differently. These examples illustrate the clear differences in power, status and prestige among certain types of knowledge, experiences and ways of being that affect interactions between students, lecturers and communities. Levinson and Theisen-Horner (2015:3) warn academics to avoid the ideology of idealising social ontologies and institutions and as a consequence ignoring or even suppressing consideration of persuasive inequalities domination and oppression.

In the light of this, academics need a theoretically grounded understanding of ways that access to “best education” is denied or facilitated. The researcher argues that academic professional development must be understood and developed within the framework of a theory that is historically and socially contextualised. The researcher has found that professional development is underpinned by values espoused by critical theory such as empowerment, emancipation and democratic participation. These values are foundational to academic professional development and are inherent in all “social activities including lifelong learning and continual professional development” (Sallen, 2007:3).

Arguably, critical theory is relevant to APD. It does promote change and transformation which is the objective of academic staff development. Critical theory challenges and rejects social injustice and other forms of discrimination in schools and society and affirms and accepts diversity in students and communities (DeValenzuela,

2000:116). Thus when conceptualising the academic professional development of academics who confront issues of diversity and quality in higher education on a daily basis it is important to consider the potential of critical theory. Darder (2009) aptly wrote:

The theoretical foundations of any educational practice must be understood by educators in order to develop fully the ability to evaluate their practice, confront the contradictions and transform their classroom into democratic environments where they can genuinely address the actual needs of their student – needs that result from an engagement with the real world (2009:75).

The argument emerging is that pedagogy is recognised as a political construct. In other words, one cannot talk about educational transformation without talking about human conditions. Consequently, critical realists contend that APD should be embedded in values of critical theory because it is a theory at the forefront of social justice and redress of historical inequities (Freire, 1993; Popkewitz, 1999). Taking the argument further, Brookfield (2005), Giroux (1994) and Hubermas (1997) suggest that critical theory is foundational to institutional reform and, therefore, suggest that it could provide a valuable dimension to the theoretical framework for professional development in higher education. Emerging from this is the position that APD should have an “emancipator dimension” (Servage, 2008:67) which is committed to the imperativeness of transforming the “social order in the interest of justice, equality, democracy and human freedom” (Biesta, 1998:499). Consequently, professional development can be embedded in transformative pedagogy which empowers academics as critical agency. School improvement literature speaks of transformation which is directed at the teacher as the agency. Why? Because school improvement literature (discourse) defines teachers’ learning as a lynchpin of any potential progress (Guskey, 2000; Joyce and Showers, 2000; Louis, Marks and Kruse (2006). APD should cause individual academics as agency to come to a new understanding resulting from questioning old assumptions. The implication is that APD should aim to empower academics to be critical and independent thinkers who will engage in critical inquiry which question higher education curriculum “in terms of selection of knowledge that is

taught, methods used and the structures which support students in universities” (McLaren, 2008:53).

APD will raise critical consciousness about the futility of using “common sense teaching methods” (Knights, 2009:56) which might not meet the learning needs of a diversified student body. Lack of consciousness on the part of academics might lead to the status quo. APD can be used to conscientise academics through its reflective practice paradigm. For example, the “intellectual currency” (Hennings, 2004:21) of teaching should be comparable if not equivalent to that of research. Accordingly, APD should assist academics to contest traditional dominant assumptions about university teaching that is meant for the best and talented student at the expense of the below average student through reflective practice. The argument is that since critical theory affords people the opportunity to engineer their future through action and critical reflection, similarly, academic development should equally empower academics “to engineer their practice through action and critical reflection” (Henning, 2004:26).

Reflective practice as part of critical theory is accepted as a key component of professional development and training. According to Clouder (2010:211), reflective practice promotes professional development through critical analysis of contextual issues of “power and inequality, diversity and inclusion” which manifest themselves in higher education (Karban and Smith, 2010:3). The question of “other professions” such as education and indigenous languages compared to mathematics and medicine considered ‘courses of power’ (Karban and Smith, 2010:6) need to be explored through critical analysis. Donaghy and Moss (2010), for example, propose a framework of critical inquiry and reflection which is embedded in professional development to examine such beliefs, stereotypes and attitudes. A strategy like this will result in the development of “critical consciousness” (Freire, 1972; Foucault, 1980) which will enable practitioners to respond to the transformation of traditional ways of thinking and assumptions.

Apart from the emancipator dimension of academic staff development, the empowerment dimension is also related to it. The hallmark of academic professional development is empowerment and without it there is no transformation in higher education to talk about. These are powerful concepts consistent with the critical theory

paradigm. The question that deserves the answer is ‘what interests are served more in professional development programmes?’ The answer lies in the academics’ political and decision making roles in the discourse of academic professional development. Professional development’s empowerment should make academics reclaim their identity as decision makers in their professional practices (Forde et al. 2006; Maynard, 2007). Accordingly use of such terms as ‘agenda’, ‘voice’, ‘political role’, ‘taking initiative’ and ‘the will to learn’ (Shullen, 2007:1) should characterise the academic’s decision making process. In his evaluation of professional development, Lester (2008) observed that teachers want their voices heard. In terms of knowledge creation within the discourse of professional development, Cohram – Smith and Lytle (1996) brought to light the absence or lack of input of teachers’ ‘voice’ in the planning and organisation of professional development programmes. They claim that:

What is missing from the knowledge base for teaching are the voices of teachers themselves, the questions teachers ask, the ways teachers use writing and intentional talk in their work lives, and the interpretive frames teachers use to understand and impose their own classroom practice (1996:93).

Academics’ input should be sought in the planning of staff development programmes, in order to help make professional development efforts more applicable to their contexts (Guskey, 2000) and encourage their commitment (Fiszher, 2004). In other words, academics should determine the shape and course of their own development. Achievement of this through professional development is total empowerment.

However, empowerment without human freedom is limited. So the discourse of professional development should be embedded in values such as democracy and freedom. The implication is that academic professional development should not be implemented through coercion or imposition. Using the language of critical theory, academics cannot be controlled and manipulated to be involved in APD programmes. “Coerced learning contradicts the values of human freedom and empowerment” (Sallen, 2007:3) and runs against the notion of teacher learning itself. APD should essentially seek to extend the democratic way of life.

As social sites, universities are prone to conflict notwithstanding acknowledging the existence of the democratic way of life. Conflict is a concept which cannot be divorced from the critical theory paradigm particularly where empowerment, emancipation and democratic participation drive transformation or change. Conflict is inherent in any community, particularly a university as a social site, is made up of learning communities (Servage, 2008:63) “which are areas of possible dissent, diversity and discussion” (Sallen, 2007:5). Departmental boundaries termed ‘discipline tribes’ (Karban and Smith, 2010:8) across faculties could be sources of conflict when academic developers attempt to introduce academic professional development programmes. What is crucial is how conflict is managed. Collegiality and collaboration are important conditions for enabling ASD (Achinstein, 2002). How members embrace each other’s differences would make a difference in a learning community’s potential for professional development. It is suggested that values for democratic participation should be embedded in staff development programmes. This concurs with Brookfield’s (2005) critical theory of adult learning which suggests that democratic participation is the eventual outcome of adult learning. In order to manage conflict academic staff development could adopt values of democratic participation in which collegiality and academic peership will be imbedded.

In this study, the institutional context and conditions that enable professional development underpinned by values espoused by critical theory such as empowerment, emancipation and democratic participation in higher education transformation are being investigated. A debate and discussion on the purpose of a university will probably place the study in context.

2.4 THE PURPOSE OF A UNIVERSITY

There has been a great deal of debate and discussion recently about the role of a University (Bowen and Schwartz, 2005; Farrell, 2011; Menad, 2010; Newma, 2008; Readings, 1999.) In their existence of over 900 years, universities have always reformed in response to the politics, ideological, cultural and economic demands which dictated a particular period. Traditionally the university served the purpose of enlightenment (McNeely, 2009:61). Its purpose was to pursue the truth and justice. Scholars of the traditional university encouraged students to reason and think

(Kermode, 2011). The grand narrative of the University “centred on the production of a liberal, reasoning subject” (Readings, 1999:8) However, the purpose of the university has shifted. Additional purposes of the university have emerged apart from promotion of universal reason. Knowledge cannot be pursued for “its own ends” but should have ‘utilitarian value’ (Barnett, 2008:16-18). Instead universities should be responsive to the needs of the economy and global markets. More recently, Hazelkon (2015: xi) noted that globalisation and pressures associated with being an internationally competitive knowledge-intensive economy with the accompanying forces of modernization, marketization and accountability are impacting on higher education. Consumerist ideology has forced the university to abandon its traditional function. So a contemporary university is challenged to produce knowledge through research and consultancy which can have impact upon the world (government, industry and people) because of its value (Imenda, 2006). Additionally, “the university no longer is a site that seeks to develop a unified theory but rather it is a conduit for diverse conversations about the nature of a particular problem” (Tierney, 2001:361). It is also noted that “academic drift” and initiative, competition for being ranked among world class universities prevail” (Ulrich, 2010:158).

Increasingly, the university has evolved as a site of “human resource development” for the market place rather than of “national culture” (Readings, 1999:62). Clearly the overall nature of the university has become corporate rather than cultural whose function is to produce graduates who serve global capital. Kraak (2000) characterises this trend as the marketisation of higher education. He points to a:

Conception of the university in the service of the market, where intellectual labour has become commercialised, serving primarily the innovation demands of the new global knowledge economy (2000:33).

This discourse is a major challenge to the traditional liberal arts, knowledge for its own sake idea (discourse) of the university. Traditionally “the university flew the flag of reason” (Westling, 2010:1). By contrast, a contemporary university is challenged to play a wider social role in society in response to the vast social changes and technological advancements that have revolutionised society today. Accordingly, the

nature of the university has become “corporate” rather than “cultural whose function is to produce graduates” who should serve global capital (Readings, 1999:153). In the new globalised economy, knowledge is being “commodified” and students are seen as “customers” rather than members of the university community (Beasley-Murray, 2007:13). Consequently, the controversy surrounding the debate about the purpose of a university centres around the market discourse and the knowledge discourse. On the one hand, there is “the marketised view of universities” (Ulrich, 2010:163) as equipping people to earn their living and on the other hand, a traditional view that universities are about pure learning. These events have influenced the status and future direction of higher education. The contemporary shifts in the university function as an institution has caused concern among some scholars particularly Readings. Readings (1999) presents insightful arguments about the ‘collapse of an intellectual traditional university’ (Harvey, 1999:3) in the face of global capital and markets. He argues that the research university had ceased to act as a beacon of ‘national culture,’ the mission traditionally entrusted to it 200 years ago in favour of pursuing an entirely new ideal of Excellence borrowed from the university’s new overlords in the corporate world (McNeely, 2009:10). According to Reading, the transformation has seen the university changing from the university of ideas (Kant) the university of culture (Humboldt) to the university of excellence (based on measuring quality) (Readings, 1999:153). Reading’s fear is that the university has become a business and ‘excellence’ is now being defined in business rather than in intellectual terms. By excellence, Readings is not referring to a new ideology of “national culture” but to a bundle “of managerial and accounting techniques devoid of all substantive intellectual content” and are instead derived from corporate bureaucracies (McNeely, 2009:3). According to Readings, the language in which “global discussions are conducted is not that of cultural conflict but of economic management” (Beasley-Murray, 2007:30). However, contemporary universities must be understood as institutions which serve economies which are driven by global capitalism. Additionally, Readings fails to consider the following issues that have shaped higher education: the growth in student population and the changes in student demographics, as well as equality of opportunity (the belief that all should go to college for professional advancement) (Menard, 2010). Ortega (2009) offers a broader purpose of the university discourse. Ortega (2009:3-5) acknowledges that the **missions** of the university are many and often competing. She sought to answer two essential questions: what is the knowledge worth knowing by all students and what is the

function of the university in a modern democracy? Ortega defines four primary functions:

The teaching of the learned professions, the fostering of scientific research, training for political leadership, and finally the creation of cultural persons with the ability to make intellectual interpretations of the world (2009:1).

These issues can be made contemporary for the modern students facing the challenges and uncertainties of the twenty-first century. In my view, a university should empower students to take up their roles in society as responsible and productive citizens with the capacity to critically analyze issues affecting affairs of the state without shunning responsibility and leadership. Indeed the “advancement of knowledge through research”, in my view, cannot be downplayed in the university discourse since it is “key to solving and adapting to contemporary societal problems” (Bowen and Schwartz, 2010:468).

The discussion so far has shown that the university has come to see itself as a site of critical reason and an institution which contributes towards human power development to serve economies. In addition to these, the promotion and advancement of social democracy, particularly giving a voice to the previously marginalised, especially women and children, has taken centre stage as one of the purposes of a contemporary university today. Agendas of human rights and equal opportunities are present in a university today (Anderson, 2011:3). Consequently creating opportunities and space for these groups to benefit in higher education programmes should be prioritized. Through this ideological paradigm shift, higher education would rid itself of elitism and embrace equality of educational opportunity for all citizens that will empower all with the knowledge and skills to make a meaningful contribution to national transformation. Indeed a contemporary university is well placed to play this role because of the critical mass found in it as critical players who can develop that critical consciousness meant to improve the social conditions of the marginalised and underprivileged (Freire, 1973; Giroux, 2004; Hubermas, 1999; Michael, 2000). Accordingly, a university should consider the advancement of social democracy as one of its functions. Through this function, the university will not only exist for “enlightenment” (McNeely, 2009) but

will address social inequalities through empowerment of knowledge and skills relevant to serve capitalised economies. So a university should create opportunities for social advancement on the basis of acquired knowledge.

Teaching students to engage in constant critical self reflection brings us to the question of pedagogy of universities. According to Reading (1999:158), the aim of pedagogy should not be to produce “autonomous subjects who are supposedly made free by the information they learn, which is the “Enlightenment narrative”. He argues that teaching is a question of justice. So students should be encouraged to question unjust higher education curriculum practices that prevail, with a view to creating democratic educational practices that benefit all (Giroux, 2004:39). The challenge, therefore, is to make academic staff developers develop an awareness among academics of the need to have such democratic values and expectations that guide their pedagogic decisions and actions in their higher education practice. Freire (1999:48) expands the argument by suggesting that a theory of pedagogy should be developed that makes students understand their educational experiences in ideological, economic and political terms in relation to their interests. So it is one of the purposes of a university to promote equality through provision of democratic education.

Arguably the purposes of a university have become multifaceted including the traditional one that is the development of reason, production of knowledge (research) and production of skilled graduates to serve commerce and the promotion of equality among citizens through social democracy. Academic staff development is part of the strategy meant to make the university achieve its purpose. An examination of trends in higher education discussed below might provide some insights.

2.5 TRENDS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Academic development, as an initiative to support the improvement of quality teaching and learning, has emerged as a recognisable area of work in many higher education institutions. Given the importance and scholarship associated with its role in higher education, the trends of its development, history and its nature are traced and analysed. Literature review in this section will attempt to illuminate the evolution of ASD against the background of the problematic nature of teaching in higher education.

2.5.1 A compelling case for academic staff development

The transformation agenda arising out of democracy has opened access to higher education leading to its massification. According to the UNESCO Report (1994), this is a major feature of the African University of the new millennium. Higher education is no longer a preserve for the privileged elite but opens access to the previously disadvantaged students (Birmingham, 2011:563; Brancto, 2008; Katz and Henry, 2003:2; Leach, 2013:273). This reflects an understanding similar to the “critical pedagogy” espoused by people like Paul Freire (1972) and Henry Giroux (1994). In critical education, educators have the responsibility to offer education that is fair to all students. The new order makes new demands on the scholarship of teaching of the academic. Traditional teaching approaches have shortcomings in terms of providing quality learning experiences to a homogenous student body brought about through democratization of higher education (Quinn, 2012). Similar findings were made in their studies by Owston, York, and Murtha (2013:45) in which students found blended courses more engaging than traditional face to face approach. A World Bank Report (1993) echoed similar concern but added a quality dimension to it thus:

A high-quality and well motivated teaching staff and a supportive professional culture are essential in meeting the challenges experienced in higher education today (World Bank Report, 1993:38).

A strong and relevant APD programme is considered as a strategy which can play a role in promoting the scholarship of teaching as well as developing pedagogical skills required to promote quality. Given the huge investment in higher education, huge returns are expected in relation to graduates that have requisite skills of communication, problem solving, technology and creativity (de la Harpe and Radloff, 2008 ; Holmer, et al. 2010:3; Ramsden, 2003 in Scott and Scott, 2005:1; Powell, 2012:101). According to Kimeny (2010:41-42) and Tera (2010:38), the emergence of “the knowledge society has led to the development of a paradigm shift” where new skills are demanded from graduating students entering working life. So a contemporary university is expected to provide for the needs of the millennium learner.

Literature in higher education is also abound with international trends which have put pressure on universities to change (Brancto, 2008; Blanton and Stylianon, 2009; Green 2010; Mundy et al. 2012). In Australia, the UK and the US, pressure on universities has come from government and business, internationalisation of higher education, the quality management ideology, Information and Communication Technology (ICTs), and the desire by universities to be competitive to attract students for admission (Luckeckeyj and Badger, 2004; Kimeny, 2011:39-43; Scott and Scott, 2005). These pressures lead universities to focus on teaching and learning as an equally important activity like research. Walters and Diezman contend that:

If universities are to remain relevant in a knowledge society, they must not just be sites of knowledge production but also be effective knowledge disseminators through their service and teaching activities (2005:1).

An analysis of this claim indicates that there is a need to raise the profile of teaching in universities for them to offer quality students' learning experiences. Greenburg takes the argument further by stating that universities have to take ownership of their own renewal in terms of "people, its property and its productivity in business terms" (2004:15).

The emerging trend is that teaching academics are challenged to expand their range of skills and strategies (Ramsden, 2003) which will enable their institutions to meet national and international competitiveness as well as increasing student satisfaction with learning experiences (Arim, et al. 2011:78-79). So professional development drives change for quality in children's learning experiences. In emphasising the need to optimize the cultural capital of all students, Scott (2006) articulates what programmes should focus on as:

The quality of every student's experience and not only to gain but to retain students morally, in order to develop the total social, intellectual, and cultural capital optimizing the chances of those who are first in their family to attend a university (2006:iv).

Analysis of the above indicates that professional development has a moral obligation and ethical responsibility to teach in a manner that promotes open and equal access to knowledge by students. However, the traditional teaching approaches fall far short to satisfy the “new generation” of students. Greenburg identifies students’ perceptions of the university as a:

Means to an end, and less apt to buy into academic beliefs regarding knowledge for its own sake, and other romantic traditions (2004:3).

The new generation of students want a different relationship with the university. They are computer literate and career focused (Lao and Gunzales, 2005). Levine and Sun (2004) take the argument further when they observe that:

They [students] are bringing with them learner attitudes to higher education and seek convenience, service, high quality and low cost. The quality of the students’ learning experience attracts attention (2004:4).

The quality agenda has also led to increased academic development activity across universities. Ramsden (2003) strongly believes that the emphasis on academic development is reflective of a government agenda of quality, value for money and enhanced participation. DEST in a paper entitled “STRIVING FOR QUALITY: Learning, Teaching and Scholarship, a discussion paper arising from an Australian Government review into higher education” states that teaching needs to be given much greater status in higher education as teaching quality is central to learning (DEST, 2002). It argues that “a renewed focus on scholarship in teaching and a professionalization of teaching practice are required” (DEST, 2002: v).

Apart from quality, Brady and Bates (2015) and Holtzhausen and Venter (2010:58) add issues of institutional accountability and tight financial constraints as other higher education developments which have raised the profile of teaching and academic staff development in universities. Likewise, Leach (2013:280-281) further argues that the competition for international students and high achieving school leavers has led the

traditional research – intensive universities to give greater consideration to teaching and learning.

Last but not least, government and employers around the world expect university graduates to have relevant knowledge and more importantly professional skills developed as a result of their university education (Business Education Round Table, 2001, 2003; Huisman, de Boer and Botas, 2012:359; Rany, Zain and Jamil, 2012:116).

The rising profile of teaching witnessed in universities is a result of the changes universities have experienced. There is pressure to produce human power which has knowledge and professional skills. This aim of higher education can be met through quality learning and teaching. APD is viewed as a strategy which can bring about the quality of university learning and teaching. It is necessary to be proactive and provide continual professional development embedded in lifelong learning in order to institutionalise it as a culture (Mundy et al. 2012:7). Indeed it is imperative to examine the nature of university teaching in order to discuss challenges of establishing APD from an informed position.

2.5.2 The problematic nature of university teaching

University teaching tends to be problematic as most academics are discipline experts without any formal teaching qualifications. Academics have never taken a “course involving pedagogy and andragogy” (Mundy et al.2012:1).University academics “are not expected to train as teachers and neither do they have to produce evidence that they are proficient teachers” (Marsh, 2011:168). Therefore they tend to teach the way they were taught regardless of differences of institutional context, student diversity and numbers. Academics increasingly tend “to rely on pedagogies constructed through the apprenticeship of observation” (Blanton and Stylianon 2009:84) and because of inadequate grounding the professor is at a disadvantage. Most teaching approaches tend to be inappropriate and outdated leading to low quality learning experiences (Scott and Scott 2005:1). Ramsden (1998) indicates that university teaching is characterised by unclear expectations, poor alignment between course and their outcomes, learning activities and assessment. University assessment practices tend to be limited and

unsound with the consequence of failing to unlock students' deeper understanding as well as independent learning and reflection (Scott and Scott 2005). The teaching mode is largely lecturing which is associated with non engagement of students into interactive dialogue (Darling-Harmmond (2010:323) and Ramsden, 2003).

The prevalence of lecturing has also increased due to high student to instructor ratios (Knaper 2010). However a challenge exists to raise the quality of teaching in a university. According to Boud (1992:2) "teaching weaknesses are not subject to inspection by another academic" whose consequence could be perpetuation of the status quo. Peer and students reviews and evaluations are the closest forms of 'inspection' that can be considered to address teaching weaknesses of an academic. This is characteristic of the nature of university teaching. Related to this discourse, Luzecky and Badger (2007:18) note that universities lack "permanent" managers to supervise a department. Each member is a potential manager through rotation or election in a department. The nature of university teaching is subtly affected by this arrangement (discourse) which is not found in the corporate world.

APD should be used as a strategy to create consciousness among academics for the need to offer quality learning experiences in a highly complex and challenged higher education environment. The potential to improve quality exists among academics because of "a commitment to their discipline and students" (Ramsden, 2003:291). APD should exploit this potential. Given the importance of improving the quality of students' learning experience it is relevant to examine what constitutes an effective ASD.

2.6 CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE ACADEMIC STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

Literature from the adult learning domain (Merriam, 2001; Wlodkowski, 2004) indicates that, for professional development to be successful, it must encompass a level of control and autonomy in choice of topic and process of engagement. Merriam (2001) takes the argument further which advocates that effective professional development programmes should take into account and validate adult personal and professional

experiences. Academic development practitioners need to make participants appreciate the value of the content and learning experiences within the programmes they develop.

Academic development can be most effective by intrinsically motivating adults (participants) by making up activities with “real life problem solving (classroom based) situations which engage adults in continuous learning” (Kowles, Halton III and Swanson, 2005:72). Apart from motivation, it is suggested that a professional development programme should focus on the needs of faculty members. More recently Howson (2012:11) argues that academic staff development programmes should be structured in a way that recognises the different professional needs among academics if the programme has to be effective and sustainable. For example, faculty development initiatives should help academics to “reflect on their teaching and make stronger connections between teaching strategies and their disciplinary knowledge and skills” (Brancto, 2008:62). These connections between teaching strategies and disciplinary knowledge raised above can take place effectively if programmes are well planned. According to Brancto (2008), faculty development initiatives that are strategically planned, implemented and sustainable over time are likely to encourage a perspective on teaching as a lifelong endeavour which promotes continuous learning by faculty” (2008:62). On the other hand, Tynan and Lee (2009:89) describe the effect of unplanned programmes as “highly reactive, nonflexible, piecemeal and poorly targeted.” The implication emerging is that faculty development should treat faculty members as adult learners and employ adult learning strategies to foster their development. According to adult learning theory (Nicholls, 2005:613), “experience of adults can be used in training since it has relevance and application to adult life”. Here, personal learning and experience of learning can play a crucial role. Adults are capable of using experience in learning. By implication an effective professional development programme is not a passive process, rather it is an active engagement with the learner’s environment. An effective programme should provide content with adequate and purposeful opportunities for adult participants to experience learning that assists them to conceptualise teaching and research as of equal importance. However, Nicholl and Harrison (2003:23) warn that staff development should not perceive teaching as “a technical activity defined as competence in a particular domain of practice but scholarship of teaching”. So, professional development should treat faculty members as adult learners by providing them with opportunities to learn about students,

curriculum and teaching strategies. It is imperative, therefore, that practices needed to support faculty learning are analogous to those needed for student learning.

Negative student feedback has also acted as a demotivator for academics to engage in learning and teaching development programmes (Dixon and Scott, 2008; Wlod and Kowki 2004). Such negative feedback impacts negatively on academics' satisfaction with teaching, levels of self-esteem and self efficacy (Gatraith, 2004). An effective APD should make use of positive student feedback for it has not only a positive self esteem effect but has a motivating impact on staff. Scott, Issa and Issa (2008) explain the need for an effective professional development program to have:

Psychological space and safety whereby academics can discuss, reflect upon their teaching, share ideas and resources and feel empowered to try different teaching and assessment strategies. Such a professional program will be highly effective in changing practice and dramatically increasing student satisfaction (2008:161).

An analysis of Scott, Issa and Issa (2008) claim, indicates that an APD should be characterised by sharing of ideas and interactivity of participants for it to be effective. Wenger and Snyder promote the same view when they advocate for “communities of practice” (2000:139). They posit that this communities approach promotes the development of professional skills, drives strategy, problem solving and the production of best practice (Wenger 1998). These communities of practice enable individuals to “galvanise knowledge sharing, learning” and facilitate “change” (Wenger and Snyder 2000:139).

Scott and Scott (2005) acknowledge the heavy workload which academics experience and its impact on their interest in APD. Apart from research and teaching functions, academics are burdened with administrative and community service engagements. Professional development needs to be convenient and relevant if it has to counter the pressure of workload. Ramsden (2003) expands the issue by recommending that academics should have opportunities to engage with colleagues on matters of teaching to develop strategies for enhancement of scholarship. Ramsden puts the point so well thus:

Good academic professional development engages in the excitement of discovery and makes learning about teaching as exhilarating as doing research. These [accomplished] teachers do not segregate practice and theory. On the contrary, they seek “productive relations” between them to establish better ways of helping their students learn. The key to professionalism is learning how to fuse theory and practice. For most lecturers it will make staff development a practice driven by stimulating inquiry (2003:245).

An analysis of the above indicates that effective professional development should integrate theory and practice in ways which make inquiry an exciting intellectual activity. Professionalism being advocated in this study would be realised among academics if teaching can be understood through pedagogic research. A discussion covering the history of academic development would be appropriate in order to understand trends in history which influenced professional development.

2.7 APPROACHES (MODELS) FOR ACADEMIC PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

2.7.1 Departmental discipline based on communities of practice as sites of professional development and learning

While it has been noted that the success and impact of professional development is partly dependent on enabling cultural and structural conditions that are found in institutions of higher education (Boud, 1999; DAndrea and Gosling, 2005; Quinn, 2006). It is equally important to discuss the role of models of staff development as a factor which might influence the success of academic development.

History of professional development in the past fifteen years shows that staff development was traditionally centralised to “provide support and instruction about teaching, learning and assessment” (Knapper, 2010 in Scott and Scott, 2005:1). It was

offered to selected participants (“overtly conscientious, novice, poor performing and insecure instructors’) (Dixon and Scott, 2008:136) and not to the majority and it consisted of courses or workshops rather than a critical engagement with the role and practice of the academic. Gosling, commenting about educational development in the UK, argues:

The limitation of an event – based strategy is well known to only those who attend and hear the message and only a fraction of them implement the innovation and because of these reasons, total reliance on the workshops as the main way of embedding change is now rare (2001:85).

Clearly the traditional central approach found itself “limited” in meeting the demands of institutions of higher education. The evidence exists which point to the lack of success of these traditional centralised models in facilitating whole–faculty engagement and “continuous improvement in learning and teaching across university faculties” (Scott and Dixon, 2009:78).

The argument for disciplinary approach to professional development appears strong considering the shortcomings of the centralised approach. The challenge, therefore, is for professional development to seek models that support long term change in a “climate where faculties and departments are reluctant to support centrally based services” (Deborah and Guilding, 2007:3). It became imperative for ASD to embrace a more holistic and coherent approach to enhancing academic work (Goody and Ingram, 2001; Tyron, Frigo and O’Kelly 2010:73). It is argued that programmes which situate professional development activities within academics’ teaching sites are likely to transform the teaching and learning within the university.

An attempt is made to examine the departmental disciplined approach through the lens of the community of practice paradigm. The basis of the argument is that communities of practice theory regard learning as ‘socialisation’ where “increasing levels of participation within a community are the key to both how learning occurs and identity formation of participants within it” (Lisewski, 2005:8). This has relevance to university

organisations which might be viewed as “systems of practices existing in the world of tacit knowledge” (Maccinnis, 2010:148).

This has relevance to university organisations where contemporary academic teaching practice is what Gherradi (2000:215) refers to as the ‘product of specific historical conditions resulting from previous practice and transformed into the present practice’. This is the context in which professional development should take place. It cannot be divorced from the context of practice. According to Browne, et al. (2010:13) and Lisewski (2005:7), development of teachers is “enhanced when the importance of the working environment is considered”. The argument for this position is that the university environment provides the teaching practice contexts, which have multiple cultural settings which are always shifting (Alvesson 2002). Accordingly, the communities of practice paradigm are predicated on situated learning which evolves from the notion that ‘situations co-produce knowledge through activity’ (Jewski, 2005:8). Hence knowledge is situated and results from the activity context and culture in which it is developed (Eraut, 2000:131).

This is a setting which Blanton and Stylianon (2009:83), Lisewski (2005:5) and Lave and Wenger (1991:98) describe “as a community of practice”. In this community of practice, learning arises through ‘legitimate peripheral participation’ which Lave and Wenger (1991:29) view as an enculturalisation process whereby newcomers (new lecturers) become part of a community of practice. The more ‘newcomers participate in and contribute to the set of practices, the more they become legitimate members of the community. However, in a context such as academia, which often lacks a strong culture of professional development, the challenge can be cultivating a group of old timers who can bring newcomers “into the socio cultural practices of a discipline-specific teaching community” (Blanton and Sylianon, 2009:185). Thus, an essential practice is the existence of old timers and new comers. Old timers become the seed for enculturating new participants into the socio cultural practices of the community. Ideally, a community of practice should provide a context that nurtures learning and professional development through individuals’ increasing participation in the activities of the community. Here education is conceived as the opening of identities and ‘modes of belonging’ rather than the acquisition of generic skills and information (Lisewski, 2005:9). Another community of practice that is an ally of APD is the student learnig

community. Student learning communities often emphasize the integration of ideas across disciplines (Love, 2012:9) aiming to help students develop a sense of coherence and community that cuts across disciplines. According to Montesinos, Cassidy and Millard (2013:118) benefits of participating in learning communities include enhanced higher order learning outcomes, such as critical thinking, complex problem solving and communication.

In the light of the above argument, academic departments, subject disciplines and professional development networks within higher education can be treated as communities of practice (Brew, 2003:12). Accordingly, university departments are identified as the central loci in implementing changes in recurrent teaching practice because “learning and knowing are situated and contexted within the daily operations of activity systems as community practice” (Knight and Trowler, 2011:147).

Consequently, it is argued that university departments are the most appropriate ‘sites’ of professional development rather than the traditionally dominant centrally provided professional staff development programmes.

In literature review, Ryan, Hanrahan and Duncan found that:

Professional development that is supported at the local level by staff with the appropriate background in terms of discipline knowledge is likely to be more relevant and productive than a centralised decontextualised approach (2000:2).

An analysis of the above claim shows that if development is to be embedded into regular practices of academics it needs to take place in sites of academic practice. The claim emerging here is that it is naive to plan for staff development by thinking in terms of individual faculty members alone. The other implication is that the department is the most salient system in the working lives of ordinary academic staff. The above claims are confirmed in studies cited by Knight (2000):

Our study of new academics has shown that departmental cultures and management are far more influential on academics’ working

lives than their subject disciplines or the institution within which they work (2000:251).

So, a model of professional development needs to embrace the departmental aspect of work and learning. Additionally the following departmental aspects deserve close consideration. The first aspect is that professional development should be mindful of the fact that “knowledge, feelings and actions are influenced by situationally specific factors” (Ibid). The claim here is that knowing is manifest in systems of language and is constantly changing since it depends on specific contexts. Writing as a theorist of organizations and concentrating specifically on knowledge, Blacker (2009) summarises this perspective thus:

Knowledge is not something individuals or organizations have but it is mediated, situated (located in time and space and specific to particular contexts) and is provisional since it is constantly changing (2009:1030).

The implication is that all learning has a strong contextual dimension. Accordingly, if the department is a salient work place context, it follows, therefore, that learning should be related to the departmental setting.

There is evidence from literature that point to the reasons why departments are preferred ‘sites’ for organising ASD. Jawitz (2009:243) notes that the department is the micro level at which the academic field is defined. Brew (2003) expands the argument further by contending that departments have huge influence on academics’ conception of teaching and research. So the relationship between teaching and research will be enhanced if it is based on the notion of academic communities of practice that is departmentally based. Following on this, Becher and Trowler (2000: xiv) as well as Boud (1999:1) concur that ASD should be conducted in departments which are sites in which academics “inhabit and cultivate disciplinary knowledge.” Henkel (2002) also notes that: “many academic values were embedded in concepts of the discipline and often expressed in language shared by members of the discipline (2002:142). According to Knight and Trowler:

Learning and knowing are situated and contextualised within communities of practice and because of that university departments become sites in which teaching practice is undertaken (2001:147).

The argument develops that university departments are most ideal 'sites' of professional development rather than the traditionally dominant centrally organised professional development programs. The departmental approach is described as a 'home for identity' by Menger, McDrumont and Synder (2002) thus:

Welcome home for identity where practitioners can comment across organisational and geographic boundaries focus on professional development rather than merely the application of expertise to meet a specific goal (2002:20).

Clearly, communities of practice provide professional development with a context in which individual academics participate. What is significant about this discourse is that advances in the scholarship of teaching will occur more readily if they are closely aligned to the conceptual structure and epistemology of the discipline. Models which associate academic professional development with the scholarship of teaching will advance their success and impact.

However, there are challenges associated with academic development viewed as local practice situated in an academic site. Not all contexts are conducive to such approaches. Boud for example, argues that development initiatives become a "victim" of resistance from academic traditions and practices which exert a formidable influence on programmes" (1999:4). A good example of the strength of academic cultural practices of departments is that it may not value research on teaching and learning in favour of disciplinary research. However, this is a limited view of academic work. Pursuing narrow "departmental interests at the expense of university wide interests has been identified as a dilemma" (Tynan and Lee, 2009:90). What is best for the department might not be best for the university. Another weakness associated with the disciplinary approach is the question of power relations found in departments. Laver and Wenger caution that "new novices might suffer in terms of participation in departmental communities of practice at the hands of more experienced academics" (1991:98).

Choice of facilitators might be heavily influenced by vested interests of the ‘old guard’ rather than issues that promote staff development. In order to counter this, educational developers are challenged to come up with strategies which promote collegiality among academics. Apart from disciplinary approach associated with communities of practice, cross disciplinary approach has equally been found to be preferred in organizing professional development. This approach is examined below.

2.7.2 Cross – disciplinary approach to staff development

Research studies indicate that there is no superior model which outperforms the others (Deborah and Gilding, 2007; Reid, 2003; Scott and Scott, 2005). Instead calls have been made to bring together centralised and local activities in order to “counter the criticism of each and mutually inform and strengthen both forms” (Leask et al. 2005:1). While disciplinary differences are important and should be acknowledged, there is need to note the advantages of inter–disciplinary learning. The argument is that a combined approach can enhance learning (Rowland, 2000; Grace, et al. 2004:68) since participants will share ideas from the diversity of these groups. However, Hicks (1999:48-49) points out that the cross–disciplinary model “suffers a major weakness of lack of coordination and has potential for duplication”. By comparison, the disciplinary approach (communities of practice) dominates the bases on which professional development is organized.

2.7.3 Student – focused multidimensional approach to professional development

Compared to the communities’ approach, which promotes best practice and facilitate change, the student focused multi dimensional approach encourages faculty members to examine the efficacy of learning and teaching practices through reflective enquiry. This is limited to the reflective practitioner cycle whereby student feedback acts as valuable data to support academic inquiry. Although some researchers have reservations about students’ competency to make “judgements” about teaching quality (Richardson 2005:407; Marsh 1987; Ramsden 1991), research endorses the validity of these data as useful in informing teaching.

In affirming the validity of student feedback, Marsh (1987:257) defends its use as he considers it to be “uncontaminated by many variables often seen as sources of potential bias.” This student feedback will be used as the basis of SoTL. This approach which gives professional development strength through scholarship of learning and teaching will probably have success. Publications of the findings of the lecturers’ action research within the university classroom will be a good indicator of the success of professional development which uses the student focused multi-dimensional approach.

The discussion demonstrates that many staff development approaches exist (D’Andrea and Gosling, 2005; Henkel, 2000; Becher and Trowler, 2001; Bond, 1999; Davidson, 2004; Scott and Scott, 2005). It suggests that the best approach is that which takes into consideration the cultural and structural context of individual institutions of higher learning. It is also important to acknowledge the different historical context, mission and purposes of each university as factors which influence choice of an approach to use in professional development. Spratt, Weaver, Mashill and Kish (2001:6) put it so well when they argue for approaches to “academic staff development initiatives that are proactive and innovative and are informed by the complexities and educational problems that arise in practice”. Indeed, models do influence the success of a professional development programme but the question of the academic developer’s calibre and its influence on APD deserves some attention.

2.8 ENABLING OR CONSTRAINING CONDITIONS WHICH AFFECT ACADEMIC PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Trends in higher education have shown that APD has gradually grown to be a strategy which plays a role in higher education reform, particularly in promoting the quality of students’ learning experiences. However, like any innovation, its success depends on certain conditions. Conditions which might enable or constrain ASD effectiveness are extensively analysed in this section of literature review.

2.8.1 Academics' based conditions

2.8.1.1 Lack of awareness for the need for staff development by academics

The success of any programme depends on the need for it by the participant for whom it is designed. A programme which meets the training needs of the participants will be associated with “high levels of motivation and attendance which are both a measure of success and sustainability of a programme” (Gosling, 2008:16).

According to some scholars (Bond, 1999; Rowland, 2002; Knight and Trowles, 2000; Viskovic, 2006), ASD might satisfy all the conditions for successful implementation of a programme in terms of supporting policies and structures, appropriate approaches and models as well as credible academic development practitioners but if lecturers do not appreciate the need on their part for training, the activities planned will not have impact in higher education. Investment in ASD will turn out to be an ineffective higher education curriculum strategy that does not bring about expected changes in higher education in terms of quality learning and teaching.

One of the reasons why lecturers feel no desire to be trained could be linked to the low value associated with teaching. Some discourses around research and teaching are attributable to this perspective. The discourse that construct teaching as a ‘common sense activity’ (Gramnschi, 1917) in which teaching is viewed as naturally given, is one such discourse associated with undervaluing teaching (Quinn, 2012:33). The second one relates to research because of its power to attract recognition and rewards such as promotion (Donnelly, 2006:213; Tynan and Garbett, 2007:418). These discourses do contribute towards lack of interest by academics in initiatives that promote the status of teaching. Nicholls’ (2005) study about the status of teaching is more revealing. Results of the study demonstrate that “new lecturers do not equate teaching with scholarship (discipline based research) despite the increasing attention being given to teaching excellence and teaching awards” (2005:622). It can be deduced that ‘teaching for learning’ may be a missing construct among new

lecturers and hence should be a significant element for professional development.

Literature supports this claim by noting that “academics see themselves first and foremost as researchers rather than teachers” (Coates, Dobson, Edwards and Friedman, 2009:63). For many years, academics view generation of knowledge as their core business. Holding a PhD is not only a passport for one to be hired as a university teacher, but a guarantee to be a good teacher at that. Some studies in higher education notably by Mangematin (2000) highlight this perception thus:

In academia, holding a PhD and intensity of publication is a stronger criteria in recruitment of university teachers since it has high probability of increased faculty quality in terms of quality of dissertations produced by students (Mangematin, 2000:749).

This suggests that university lecturers have no motivation to take up ASD programmes seriously because teaching is taken for granted. Volbrecht confirmed the same position in her research findings when she noted that “good research automatically leads to good teaching which is why some of them have expressed open hostility to being interfered with by ASD specialists” (2003:185). Notwithstanding this viewpoint, some scholars of higher education, notably Boughey (2005), Gosling (2007; 2009), and Ramsden (2003) have championed the APD movement in HEIs by challenging academics to participate in the professionalisation of university teaching to improve the quality of teaching. However, the challenge has been for APD to be presented as scholarly inquiry into teaching of the discipline in order for academics to change their construction of what teaching of the discipline entails. A discussion of conceptualisation of academic development from literature below might assist in placing the challenge in perspective.

2.8.1.2 Academics misconceptualisation of academic staff development

Literature (Boud, 1999; Luzecky and Badger, 2007) shows that misconceptualisation of ASD is partly at the root of the negative attitude of academics towards it. This msiconceptualisation needs to be addressed if academic staff development has to be a successful programme with status in higher education. The misconception arises from the wrong assumption that ASD is not based in a discipline of its own and lacks legitimacy in terms of practice, literature, standards and language of its own as is found in a discipline (Kogan, 2000:210). This viewpoint results in ASD being viewed as a ‘generic practical and instrumental activity’ (Rowland, 2002:66) that is divorced from situated disciplinary contexts. Given the fact that academic cultures are characterised by discipline based traits (Becher, 1989; Becher and Trowler, 1997:24), ASD would be a victim of these academic cultures because of its lack of disciplinary identity. Academics became sceptical about the identity of both ASD and academic development practitioners (Quinn, 2006:216). The consequence has been that ASD has not been integrated into university wide culture and its traditions because academics lack confidence in the practice of ASD.

In attempts to counter lack of legitimacy of ASD, Rowland (2002:53-54), basing on Boyer’s (1990) four forms of scholarship, proposed that ASD should be presented as an inquiry comparable to a discipline in its own right. Lecturers need to appreciate the “link between their disciplinary research and their teaching with research having a positive effect on the latter” (Kreber, 2000:163). A relationship between learning about the discipline and learning about teaching the discipline should be developed through ASD. Gosling also defends the existence of a “clear canon of text which has been developed over the past two decades strengthened by publications in journals of Academic Development in Higher Education” (2008:180). This canon of knowledge and publications will equally compete with what constitutes as discipline and inquiry based knowledge. On the basis of this, Anderson (2000:28-29) has contended that the scholarship of teaching should be viewed as the discipline of academic staff development. However, Haig (2007) contests this canon of

knowledge discourse associated with ASD as not being bona fide, arguing that pedagogic literature of ASD (cannon of knowledge) lacked credibility because it was based on attempts to “codify common sense into complex jargon-riddled terminology” (Haig, 2007 in Higher Education Exchange, 2009:44).

However, many scholars of higher education including Bowden and Marton (1998:282) and Kreber (2000) argue that scholarly inquiry into teaching is on par with any research achievement. On this discourse, Kreber acknowledged that:

When people advance or develop a scholarship of teaching, they engage in a learning process involving various kinds of reflection or research-based and experience-based knowledge about teaching. This process of acquiring knowledge should be rewarded in addition to the resulting product by way of qualification (Kreber, 2000:64).

There is positive change about lecturers’ conceptions about ASD internationally. In the USA, the DELTA programme has been adopted by the Centre for Integration of Research into Teaching and Learning to promote inquiry based teaching (Pleschova et al. 2010:11). In Australia, the Australian Teaching Services Commission (Rice, 2003) and the Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency (Pleschova et al. 2010:10) also focus on enhancing the quality of teaching through analysis and evaluation. In the UK, the Higher Education Academy UK (PSF) enhances the quality of student learning experiences by emphasizing the SoTL as reflective practice (D’Andrea and Gosling, 2005). In South Africa there are encouraging efforts to train academic practitioners in ASD as a discipline in its own right (Boughey, 2005; Mckenna and Boughey, 2014; Scott, 1998; Quinn, 2012). This movement and efforts lead to a paradigm shift that will give ASD a distinctive and unquestionable legitimacy of its own, in the eyes of both senior academics and university management. Strategies to present ASD as a discipline in its own right have the potential to have it mainstreamed into academic cultures and traditions of the institution. However, the challenge is to ensure that academics view it as a

scholarly activity for it to have their buy in. Literature that examines the strength of academic culture and its influence on ASD development is discussed below.

2.8.2 Discipline based conditions

2.8.2.1 Influence of academic culture on academic staff development

A significant observation to make is that academics will always become encultured into an institution.

In higher education, academics earn their identity through disciplines they have trained in. Literature (Luzecky and Badger, 2007:14; Stauforth and Harland, 2006:136; and Henkel, 2002:142) reveal that “academic traditions and practices found in disciplines and traditions exert a formidable influence on academic staff development initiatives”. Departmental cultures have a huge influence on how teaching is viewed. Mathias (2005), Trowler and Knight (2000) as well as Viskovic (2006) strongly recommend the establishment of ‘communities of practice’ as a strategy to break down departmental cultures. The argument is that communities of practice remove academic isolation and instead promote peer collegiality which supports sharing of common ideas across departments (Barlov and Antonian, 2007); Postareff et al. 2007). It is also suggested that “assigning a departmental coordinator to support staff who have undergone academic staff development activities could be an effective measure to minimise the influence of departmental cultures” (Luzecky and Badger, 2007:14).

Academic traditions and cultures that dominate higher education practices tend to affect the development of APD practice negatively. At the centre of negative impact is lack of credibility of practitioners and by implication staff development initiatives themselves. Historically ASD has been associated with student support (Boud. 1999:6 and Scott, 1998) which is a misconceptualisation of the notion of academic staff development. Instead the notion of ASD should be associated with SoTL as a scholarship in its own right (Jawitz and Perez,

2014:21; Rowland, 2002:54). Gosling (2009:30) and Jawitz and Perez (2014:20-21) have blamed lack of identity of practitioners as sources of lack of credibility that has negatively influenced integration of ASD into higher education institutions as a bona fide discipline and practice in its own right. In Australia, Gosling (2009:21) found out that practitioners who took up a career in ASD had no promotion prospects because their functions were considered to be non-academic in relation to departmental roles. Clegg (2009:413) also highlights that ASD is associated with ambivalence stemming from identity crisis of the field. Such academic attitudes have the consequence of affecting lecturers' interest in ASD less positively. Arguably the impact of ASD on higher education improvement will be less effective resulting in poor quality teaching and absence of institutional change. Disciplinary identity discussed below has relevance as an institutional condition for a successful academic professional programme.

2.8.2.2 Disciplinary identity and its impact on academic staff development

The perception of academics towards ASD has been largely influenced by their disciplines. Faculty members enter academia with the status of expert and one's area of expertise defines his or her professional identity. According to Blanton and Stylianon (2009:84), this status might turn out to be a challenge since "one might come as a participant to departmental professional development with a stronger identity of content expert" than teaching scholar. An understanding of lecturers' constructs of learning, teaching and research is heavily influenced by one's discipline. Weller (2011) put the argument so well thus:

Lecturers are compelled to retain their current identities as scholars in their disciplines and resist new identities as academics with wider obligations as higher educators (2011:104).

The implication emerging is that academics construct their identity through their disciplinary identity rather than through teaching. The consequence of this

construct might be a constraint to developing a culture of professional development in a sustainable way. There are reasons for this conceptualisation.

Disciplines constitute the primary source for academic identities (Henkel 2000 and Mackenna, 2004). Also, recognition and promotion are based on research and publications in one's discipline.

Gosling (2009:6) acknowledges that ASD is "a field that has no strong boundaries" and might run the risk of being labelled as a non scientific field that qualifies to be researched. Light and Cox (2001:14) categorized ASD as a non academic activity which is reflective of its lack of discipline based inquiry into the teaching and learning of a discipline. Although Bernstein (2000:54-55) argues that ASD has its "new region of knowledge, its new identity" is a misfit that makes it unlikely to be embedded in academic traditions and cultures found in departments. The challenge is to correct misunderstanding about the remit of ASD and the need to carry out pedagogical research in this area. The SoTL has to be presented as a scholarship in its own right (D'Andrea and Gosling, 2005:148). Expanding the same argument, Rowland (2002:66) highlights that lecturers should understand their discipline through the scholarship of research (discipline based research) and the SoTL (research into the teaching of a discipline).

Boyer's (1990) notion of the scholarship of teaching is the one being advocated for to counter the negative perceptions of academics towards academic development of staff. It is critical reflective practice in the scholarship of teaching in one's discipline (Scott and Scott, 2005:10). Rowland (1996) cites research conducted at British Universities where heads of departments found that active and critical involvement in research of their disciplines improved the quality of their teaching. Gosling (2008) has defended the disciplinary standing of ASD by presenting a canon of text which reflect the development of the movement from mere workshops on teaching and learning to a movement towards the scholarship of teaching.

In his argument Gosling (2008) cites the following as canon of texts which reflect ASD as scholarship of teaching:

Briggs Teaching for Quality learning at university, and Ramsden's Learning to Teach on Higher Education, Ramsden's Learning to Lead, Lenrillard's Rethinking University Teaching and Posser and Trigwell's Understanding Learning and Teaching. Journals in Higher Education Studies also contribute to the cannon of knowledge on academic staff development (2008:153).

A distinctive cannon of knowledge resulting from inquiry on SoTL needed to be presented to correct misconceptions about academic staff development. Positive impact on higher education in terms of improved quality learning and teaching can be expected to occur. The tension between research and teaching and its effect on implementation of professional programmes is an equally critical issue which deserves to be discussed.

2.8.2.3 Competition between research and teaching and its effect on academic staff development

According to the literature, the issue of ensuring that ASD positively affect teaching and learning outcomes appear to be influenced by the competition between research and teaching (Elton, 2009; Nicholl, 2005; Marsh, 2011; Weller, 2011). The rationale for the existence of a university "is based on the assumption that a positive relationship exists between teaching and research to the extent that one contributes to the other" (Marsh, 2011:166). Humbolt, for example, was equally concerned with both research and teaching (Elton, 2009:1). In contrast to this position, a quite different dichotomy between research and teaching emerged. Cavalli and Moscati (2010:35) encourage that "the difference between teaching and research functions should be considered". Marsh (2011:163) found that "the correlation between teaching and research effectiveness was almost zero" and that good researchers were no more or "less likely to be good teachers and conversely good teachers were no more or less likely to be good researchers". Arguably, the most regrettable feature "of the dichotomy between research and teaching is that it has led to a skewed value

system with research being considered significantly more prestigious than teaching” (Elton, 2009:9).

Hardy and Smith (2006) raised criticism about increasing importance of teaching based on value traditionally given to research. They argue that as research is often a criterion for promotion it is privileged over teaching. Scholars like (Horta, Huisman and Heitor, 2008:155; Martin, 2012:548; Ramsden and Moses, 1992:274) contend that research policies in universities do not motivate academics to engage in APD programmes. Instead, the policies reward research output of academics. The influence of disciplinary research and its attraction of recognition particularly promotion to professorship has the effect of marginalising teaching. Teaching would be on the margins of the academic’s role while research will be prioritized (Kogan, 2000:210). These developments take place in spite of the call to raise the quality of teaching in HEIs by both governments and industry.

D’Andrea and Gosling eloquently capture the tension experienced by lecturers:

In practice we have a tension between the rhetoric of valuing teaching, enhancing the status of teaching and rewarding excellent teachers, and the reality which continues to suggest teaching is very much a lower priority subservient to research and income generating activities (2005:16).

The dichotomy between research and teaching has affected academics less positively in that their commitment to the academic role of teaching will not be given the attention it deserves. This arises from lack of a reward system associated with teaching that has a bearing on its low status accorded to it by academics. Tynan and Garbet (2007) emphasise the point when they argue that research is perceived to be more important because it is related to promotion. These arguments are supported by comments by Hunt (2007) who advocates that training courses in how to teach are problematic in institutions where teaching has a lower status than research. She indicates that “even universities

that claim to give greater recognition to teaching lecturers deem it a “career hazard” not to prioritise research” (2007:773).

Evidence of this pressure experienced by lecturers appears in many promotion policies found in universities. In South Africa, criteria designed for institutional Audits in HEIs reflect the privileged status of research over teaching (CHE, 2004:9). In addition, the shift towards teaching focused scholarship is evident in some of the comprehensive higher education institutions. Scholars like Boughey (2013:36-38), Mckenna (2013:48) and Pisto (2013) acknowledge that scholarship of teaching and learning has become reality in South African comprehensive universities. These scholars argue that, through research student-centred approaches student performance is now understood to stem from not only student based characteristics but from the socially constructed nature of universities and the practices within them. This demonstrates a recent shift towards teaching focused scholarship. In Zimbabwe, the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education Promotion Criteria makes research the only criterion to be satisfied to the exclusion of teaching for an academic to be promoted (ZMCHE, 2006:10). Internationally, these research policies also impact on academic staff development in a negative way. In the UK Gosling (2001) cites the effect of the Research Assessment Exercise (REA) on teaching. According to Gosling (2001:77), REA “favoured increased funding for discipline based research leading to the marginalisation of teaching”. Arguably, research policies discourage academics to prioritize teaching and by implication APD programmes which might promote the quality of teaching.

Appointment of a Dean of Research in a university set up further strengthens the value and status given to research. Absence of an equivalent position for teaching and learning in the university hierarchy is indicative of the low value given to teaching. However, there are some scholars who advocate for the scholarly nature of teaching as a rigorous and robust activity comparable to disciplinary research. Boyer’s (1990) definition of various forms of scholarship has assisted to present the notion of teaching as a rigorous and scholarly activity comparable to disciplinary research. Anderson (2000) expands the argument by

suggesting that the scholarly nature of teaching can be applied to the discipline of the academic developer:

Developer's scholarship lies in the qualities of mind and hand, and the intellectual and moral integrity that they bring to their own study. I am arguing that there is nothing intrinsically about teaching development that excludes it from being a site of scholarly practice and its cultivation, and that there is an enormous amount about it and gives opportunity for scholarship to be cultivated and expressed. Development practice differs not at all from teaching and research in this respect (2000:26 – 28).

Academic development is being treated as a site of scholarly practice and the academic developer's intellectual capacity is acknowledged. Kreber (2000) advocates for rewards for achievement made in advancing the scholarship of teaching:

In the scholarship of teaching they engage in a learning process involving various kinds of reflection or research based and experience based knowledge about teaching. This process of acquiring knowledge should be rewarded in addition to the resulting product (2000:64).

The implication is that ASD should be used as a strategy that promotes the link between research and teaching for promoting the value of the quality of students' learning experiences instead of perpetuating the competition between the two discourses. Such measures are likely to reduce the stress and conflict among academics on whether they should place their academic commitment between research and teaching. Academic motivations are influenced by rewards and as such professional development should promote this missing construct which is teaching for learning (Nicholls, 2005:621). Attempts should be made to make lecturers change their conceptions of teaching. The question of

credibility of educational practitioners in higher education is another discourse examined below that is associated with some tension.

2.8.2.4 Credibility of educational practitioners and its influence on development of staff on academic staff development

Any programme or innovation needs to be planned, designed, implemented and evaluated by qualified personnel if it is expected to have desired impact. Similarly, “academic staff development practitioners need to be specialists in higher education studies if they have to claim any credibility in the eyes of academics” (Taylor, 2005:35). Academic development is described as nebulous by academics (Makura and Tino, 2014:86) in spite of Lee, et al. (2010) viewing it as a “new region of knowledge” because from the perspective of academics it lacks a discipline of its own. There is no shared body of knowledge of academic development as is consistent with other academic disciplines. From the point of view of mainstream academics, academic development needs to demonstrate scholarship that can be evaluated and shared publicly among peers (Shulman, 1998:8). Quinn (2012) notes that academic practitioners need credibility with fellow academics. While their disciplinary home may be different from the academics with whom they work, they need to be recognised as fellow academics with shared concerns (Ibid:24). The trend by which academic developers are recruited from different disciplines undermines their credibility and acceptance by academics. Developing on this discourse, Manathunga (2007:25) describes academic developers as “discipline migrants” while Lee et al. (2010:316) view them as “family of strangers.” These are discourses that are reflective of the view that practitioners are not specialists in academic development and, therefore, lack legitimacy. The status of practitioners can have a less positive effect on academic development practice if it is not addressed. The question of treating scholarly teaching as an intellectual activity is one approach that should be practised to give academic development credibility (Makura, Martinson, Cundy-Luyh and Toni, (2014:11).

The approach will institutionalise the SoTL in HEIs thereby making academic development practice a bona fide field in a university. Secondly, offering a

formal course and training for academic developers in the area of academic development can empower them to become specialists in the scholarship of teaching. Literature in academic development points to the need for formal qualification in the area. Baume (2002:109) calls for:

Acceptance of the need for appropriate training and qualifications for academic developers and lecturers and requiring their work to be undertaken on the basis of knowledge and evidence and understanding on a sound academic and scholarly base arrived from and contributing to research.

The implication is that courses in APD should be developed to empower academic developers with the knowledge which makes their practices underpinned on scholarship to give them legitimacy and credibility.

Apart from academic background, Boud (1999) highlights additional personnel qualities to be considered in selecting developers for successful implementation of academic development. He explains on these qualities thus:

A deep commitment to the development of one's less experienced colleagues and a robustness of ego which allows their success to be celebrated are needed as well as expertise in promoting peer learning (1999:8).

Personal qualities which demonstrate unquestionable energy and zeal are ideal apart from a background in academic development. Academic development practitioners need to have the capacity to motivate lecturers and the energy to sustain academic staff development initiatives.

There are case studies which show that lack of credibility on the part of academic development practitioners has a negative effect on staff development initiatives. In South Africa, Scott's evaluation report on educational

development in one university points out on the lack of credibility by developers thus:

Involvement of academic staff development by under qualified practitioners came in for substantial criticism. Reservations about the capacity of current EDU resources was raised. Also rejection of the EDU's vision of staff development and its credibility in this area was a borne of contention. (1998:2).

In Australia Gosling comments that “practitioners lacked academic identity or lacked career paths” in a university set up because “recognition and promotion were dependent on specific qualifications and certain levels of research output” (2008:3-4). In his survey of Academic development in Australian Universities, Gosling observes the lack of academic development background of Directors of Teaching and Learning centres thus:

Many directors (12 out of this sample of 22) have experience outside Higher Education before becoming directors. This may reinforce the sense that Academic Development [AD] is not a bone fide academic practice. The majority of these Directors lacked formal learning about academic development. They prepared themselves through informal processes—learning from colleagues, peer networks, personal reading attendance at conferences and simply relying on “self” or ‘experimental’ learning (2008:4-5).

Faculty developers also face critical challenges at institutional level. One of the dilemmas for faculty developers is the challenge to engage an institution which does not share the view that its educational practice is not adequate. In order to address such a challenge, Blanton and Stylianon (2009:85) suggest that the challenge could be attended to by faculty developers “proposing offering the best educational practices”. However, while there might be a perception that teaching matters at a particular institution where it is practised, the question

remains as to how that perception translates into systematic reward of teaching excellence. Another dilemma faced by faculty developers is the question of engaging professors into professional development. The dilemma was well described by Saroyen et al. (2004:60) who explained that the central challenge of faculty developers is “finding ways to engage professors in a process whereby their views and assumptions about teaching are considered”. That is faculty members who can move away from periphery participation and become fully enculturated members of teaching community practice. The challenge, therefore, is to find professors who can enculturate new lecturers into teaching.

The challenge is to offer ASD practitioners opportunities for them to take up postgraduate studies in higher education in an effort to develop identity which is discipline based. It is efforts like this which will give academic staff developers recognition and legitimacy in the eyes of mainstream academics. The result would be positive impact and success of ASD initiatives.

2.8.3 Institutional based conditions

2.8.3.1 Management support and its effect on academic staff development

Policy alone is not sufficient to drive change in any education system. The literature on management regularly sees the quality of leadership as crucial to an organization’s well being (Blanton and Stylianon, 2009:82; Knight, 2000:248; Sin, McGuigan and Cheng, 2011:83). Senior management support for educational practitioners in the system is essential for staff development policies to become a reality. Unfortunately institutional or departmental leadership “is defective in mentoring faculty members for teaching excellence in a sustainable way because heads of departments lack leadership training” (Knight, 2000:252). Good leaders are required who can encourage faculty members in the belief that improvement is possible and worthwhile and that it could be achieved through one’s initiative. Leadership of a high order, described by Knight (2000:258) as “one which imbues trust, values and support, is required”. More recently, Davim and Leal-Filho (2015) argues that in order to promote sustainability effectively a functionally interactive organizational structure is recommended so

as to avoid decision making delays in relation to the delivery of the project. This also aligns with Punta et al. (2015) who contend that one of the factors which positively impacted their project was the senior management that championed the project.

Baud (1999) notes that the need for institutional leadership is imperative since there has been no tradition of thinking systematically about academic development in universities. An enabling environment for ASD practitioners can only be created with the support of management. Studies by Gosling (2006; 2008) as well as D'Andrea and Gosling (2005) show that involvement of Vice Chancellors and Deans of Faculties in academic development work has positive influence on academics' interest in professional development programmes. A buy-in by senior management for example, will ensure that the programmes will not only derive their power and influence from the highest office in the institution but will be availed resources to capacitate them. Requirements such as office space and appointments which are necessary for effective implementation of a programme will be prioritised. Quinn (2012) emphasised the importance of the relationship between university management and academic staff developers by highlighting that it opened doors for APD activities to succeed. Staff development can only be mainstreamed and not marginalised if senior management provides the necessary support within the culture of the university.

The importance of senior management in creating enabling conditions for staff development was eloquently presented by the Council for Higher Education of South Africa thus:

Changes in teaching and learning cannot occur simply through the imposition of policy frameworks. If services and substantive curriculum reform is to be achieved then enabling conditions should be created by those in management (CHE 2004:99).

Institutional policies will require conspicuous acts of leadership to embed such thinking and support into practice to ensure adoption and implementation of the programme.

The Vice Chancellor's Teaching Award is another signal of support given to academic staff development (McEwen, Hill and Walsh, (2006) in Higher Education Exchange, 2009). The objective of the award is to raise the importance of teaching among academics. In some instances it challenges academics to display a range of skills which go beyond mere teaching skills but demands evidence of pedagogical development and reflection – the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) (Lyons et al. 2002:93). Reflective practice which questions choices made by an individual in his teaching of a discipline is documented and possibly published.

However, Teaching Awards have attracted scepticism among academics. Skelton (2009:109) studied the perception of academics towards the National Teaching Fellowship Scheme and found that its awards attracted negative comments from members of the academic community and that recipients felt alienated (2004:461). Senior management can raise the relevance of academic development by supporting a programme evaluation framework for academic development units. Gosling (2008) warns in a survey that there is no clear performance or evaluation framework for practitioners involved in academic development. Gosling warns that performance targets “take the form of size of participants, frequency of workshops and communications posited” (2008:17). Whitcomb (2009) argues for a more objective and robust form of assessment such as impact of a programme/course in a department or faculty. Senior management support in programme evaluation and performance framework for practitioners will challenge practitioners to “plan their activities rather than have ad hoc workshops” (Biggs, 1999:63) which can initiate and sustain academic development activities.

In the context of change in higher education, “departments are identified on the organizational structure as central loci of change where improvements in teaching and learning can take place” (Knight and Trowler, 2000; Sin,

McGuigan and Cheny, 2011:82). However, cognisance need to be given to the militating factor which departmental cultures might have against institutionalization of professional development. Sin, McGuigan and Cheny (2011:88) call for the need for “interactional leadership” which focuses on “developing the conditions and context where individual faculty members operate.” So the department is better managed through interactional leadership because it is noted for its sensitivity to current practices and discourses of teaching by staff.

At departmental level, there are ways which heads of departments can support new academics. Heads can for example, encourage ASD by giving time and space to members to engage in discussion and debate on pedagogical issues in higher education. The arrangement can be extended and strengthened by assigning mentors or facilitators who promote professionalization and the scholarship of teaching in departments. In the case of SoTL efforts by heads of departments which include giving guidance on where to publish, attendance at conferences or membership of Academic Development Association could lead to successful academic development work (Scott and Scott 2005).

There are cases, however, where new academics who have undergone professionalization can be encouraged to abandon new practices they would have learnt in T&LCs. Such lack of “commitment by administrators” (Chan, 2000:11) might undermine the establishment and sustainability of staff development in higher education. The question of institutional environment needs to be managed to ensure success of an academic professional programme.

2.8.3.2 Institutional environment and its effect on academic professional development

Academic development needs to understand the environment in which academics work. The environment can create a facilitating atmosphere in which academic developers can operate and achieve success.

Reid (2003), for example, warns that the environment in which academics work needs to be understood since the nature of academic work is set within a perception of negativity. Academic work is associated with pressure to publish, long working hours and high student ratios. Knight and Trowler (2000) characterise these critical and negative elements that affect teaching in HEIs. They indicate that there is a “notion of ‘hard managerialism’ where academics feel the need to account for activities, keep meticulous records and documentation” (2000:71). A demanding environment like this puts pressure on academics to focus on what the institution requires rather than the quality of student’s learning. The academic developer should understand the existence of academics’ perception as it can affect the ways in which academics will avail themselves to be assisted.

This negativity is also reported by Reid and Marshall (2009). They observe that most of the teachers’ time is taken by “learning new technologies, revising curriculum research, a large amount of student contact and multi-disciplinary teaching” (2009:151). Elements like these result in the development of a negative learning environment for academics to engage in academic development. Awareness of the negative environment by academic developers is important because it can lead them to come up with strategies which can counter the effect of the negative environment.

Apart from a positive environment, an institution of higher education should have facilitating infrastructure such as an academic centre of excellence and a Teaching and Learning Centre which gives academic development activities a supporting home.

The conclusions of a commonwealth secretariat study by Mukherjee and Singh on the subject notes that: “evidence points to institutional effectiveness where academic staff development is housed in a facilitating infrastructure such as a teaching and learning centre” (1993:60).

A facilitating infrastructure specifically for ASD gives the unit visibility and a place from which academic development practitioners can work from. In a way,

an infrastructure within a university dedicated for academic development work gives academic development work status comparable to that given to faculty infrastructure. An exploration of these enhancing and impeding factors to professional development is further examined below on the basis of the work of Caffarella and Zinn (1999). The work focused on key factors supporting and impeding teacher leadership in public schools.

2.8.3.3 People and interpersonal relationship

According to Caffarella and Zinn (1999:221), this domain notes that people and interpersonal relationships both within and outside work environment strongly influence leadership and its environment. In the realm of higher education, this appears to be the case. It is argued that academics feel strengthened and highly motivated when a positive working relationship with members of other units exists. In higher education, supporting factors include personal support systems, positive working relationships with chairpersons and other administrators in the institution.

On the other hand, barriers include among others tense relationships with colleagues, passive or active opposition to subordinates, work by chairpersons and other faculty leaders.

A comprehensive list of the supports and barriers for the people and Interpersonal domain is provided in Table 1.

Table 2.1 List of enabling and impeding factors in the people and interpersonal domain

Enabling factors	Impeding Factors
Personal support at the work site	Lack of personal support system at the worksite
Positive working relationships with department chair and other university administrators	Passive or active opposition by department chair, other administrative, and faculty
Mentoring or modelling by respected colleagues which is freely given	Little if any, colleague support and work-related interaction
Department or division faculty who work together and team in teaching, research and service	Most faculty work individually and rarely collaborate on any projects
Faculty respect each other as colleagues, despite differences in personal philosophies and ways of working	Faculty interactions characterised by infighting, lack of professional respect and “one-up-manship”
Recognition provided for your work by colleagues at local, state, national and international level	Work recognised only at the campus or perhaps the state level

Adapted from Caffarella and Zinn (1999:246)

2.8.3.4 Institutional structures

The domain of institutional structures (see Table 2) affects faculty members’ professional development in one way or another. Institutional imperatives such as shortage of resources institutional politics and limited support can be a threat to the success of professional development. Staff development initiatives, for example, might suffer a ‘dilemma constraint’ if institutional directions cause lack of support of resources. Tynan and Lee (2009:5) contend that institutional politics have a bearing on “sustainability and scalability of professional development” which lack of resources can lead to stagnant growth.

The existence of policies and systems that dictate what academics can and cannot do is yet another institutional imperative with constraining effect on staff development. For example, whilst quality assurance policies are necessary, they can introduce bureaucracy that slows and stifles innovation and change. On the other hand, decentralised policies on funding in departments might lead to dilemmas in which narrow departmental interests are pursued at the expense of university wide interests.

Good examples of supports include provision of resources, supporting policies and time. Dean support for professional development in a faculty is critical. Barriers include work overload, unwritten procedures as well as climate of competition.

A more complete list of the supports and barriers in the institutional structures domain is provided in Table 2 below.

Table 2.2 List of enabling and impeding factors in the institutional structure

Enabling factors	Impeding factors
Provision of necessary resources (eg, funding, personal, the technology for professional development	Lack of resources or access to resources for professional development
Varsity of opportunities for professional development both on and off campus	Poorly coordinated or sporadic opportunities for professional development on campus
Recognition through official policy statement of different forums of professional development (i.e self directed, formal programmes, organisational development)	Policy statements which recognise only formal professional development
Time allotted for professional development within the framework of your work life as a faculty member	Insufficient time provided for professional development, given high time and energy demands of your faculty role
Climate of the department division and or college which fosters collaboration and collegiality	Climate of competition, fostering a ‘dog-eat-dog’ atmosphere, between individuals and groups within the department, division and or college
Written and unwritten procedures and operating norms of the unit which encourage professional development for all faculty and which allow for differing definitions of success	Written and unwritten procedures and operating norms encouraging professional development only for a select few top performers (primarily in the area of research).

Adopted from Cafarella and Zinn (1999:250)

2.8.3.5 Intellectual and personal factors

The domain of intellectual and personal factors encompass academics’ internal motivation and perceptions of academics as scholars and teachers. The enabling or support include factors such “as strong beliefs and values that demand

excellence” in one’s work and perceptions that academics can “make a difference in the lives of students as well as other educators” (Caffarella and Zinn, 1999:247). It is argued that many academics enter the professoriate with firm beliefs in the importance of teaching and research (Knight, Tait and Yorke, 2006; Green, 2010). The assumption is that the belief systems support academics so that they could seek professional growth. The growth can take place for example through “constantly updating course materials or through ensuring that scholarship addresses substantive issues of teaching and learning” (Chenny, 2011:181). Apart from structures such as faculty departments, the circumstance of the individual academic needs to be considered if ASD is to be sustained. So, faculty members need to be understood as individuals if professional development is to be appropriately conceived.

A number of key influences impact academics’ working lines and might affect the success of professional development. One of the key influences is juggling with priorities. Frequently there is a chain of priorities between the faculty member’s values and priorities and what the organisation compels them to do. According to Knight, professional development might be marginalised where the academic philosophy was that “publication record was the performance indicator that mattered” (2000:252).

Implicit in the problem of juggling is intensification (Knight, 2000:252). Intensification refers to academic workloads. In a contemporary university, these have grown especially in ‘greedy departments’ (Knight, 2000:256).

The main objective causes of intensification are ‘publish or perish’ cultures, growing student numbers, compounded by external demands, reduced staff numbers and greater bureaucratic accountability (Knight, 2000:28). Intensification is not only about long working periods. It also refers to job fragmentation in greater pressures. The implications of professional development are less positive. Activities normally associated with informal professional development such as reflection, free reading and updating as well as conversation will be adversely affected. In the circumstance, intensification is likely not to be conducive to professional development.

On the other hand, barriers include feelings of discouragement or frustration, discomfort or burn out in one's faculty roles, and resistance to let go of comfortable routines when change is imperative in the way faculty members do business. Resistance to use technology as the major method of delivery in distance education, is a good example. Several countries have experienced the need for higher education reform. Some international experiences have been examined below.

2.8.3.6 Academic staff development policies and their effect on academic development

Academic staff development needs to be supported by policies which create an enabling and supportive environment for it to be successfully implemented. Boughey (2005) supports this view by arguing that there is need to develop policies which not only guide staff development practice but also build capacity for academic development practitioners in order to enhance APD programmes. Gosling also advocates for both national and institutional policies which support academic development by providing for the establishment of Teaching and Learning Centres, appointment of Directors of Centres in the hierarchy of HEIs, appropriate staff requirements and their promotion criteria" (2008:3-4).

Anderson, Boud and Sampson (1996) as well as Boud (1999) strengthen the same argument by proposing that institutional policies should be in existence which provide and give guidance as to the right qualification requirements and quality of personnel to be appointed in staff development units. Enabling policy requirements like these will "capacitate teaching and learning centres found in higher education institutions" (Gosling, 2008:6). It is policies like these which are likely to give staff development units and their practitioners visibility and legitimacy. Quinn's (2006) argument is that such policies will "promote mainstreaming of academic staff development rather than have it standing on the sidelines" because in the absence of supporting policies it carries a non-academic perception in the eyes of academics.

In Australia, literature shows that supporting educational development policies are credited with creating enabling conditions for the development of successful ASD programmes. Lizecky and Lorraine (2007) make reference to the Government Policy Paper namely STRIVING FOR QUALITY: LEARNING TEACHING AND SCHOLARSHIP. The policy paper has “contributed towards the establishment of the CARRICK INSTITUTE” (2007:4). The project has raised the importance and “profile of teaching and learning by providing funding exclusively for lecturers who distinguished themselves in the scholarship of teaching and learning.” (DEST 2002:x).

T&LCs have had impact if policy formulation was a measure of performance. Land (2004:7) has referred to this as “the domesticating role, principally concerned with originating teaching and learning policy, policies relating to student assessment, curriculum design and evaluating teaching”. Rowland (2006) acknowledges the close ties of academic development and the needs of the institution in providing policies while Gosling (2008:7) confirms the strategic significance of “Academic Development Centres in policy development as a shift which gives the centres importance”. Such success and impact is possible if there are national and institutional policies in existence which create enabling institutional environments for academic staff development to succeed.

However, there are case studies which show that existence of unclear policies for academic staff development cannot only contribute towards the limited impact of academic development but might lead to its misconceptualisation. In South Africa, for example, Volbrecht’s analysis of policy documents in higher education concludes that the matter “receives narrow treatment and inconsistency exists in the way it is treated and has clearly affected academic development” (2003:15). South African higher education system is guided by policy documents such as NATIONAL PLAN (RSA DOE 2001) and A NEW ACADEMIC POLICY FOR PROGRAMMES AND QUALIFICATIONS (RSA MOE 2002). In these documents, academic development is characteristically defined as student development with emphasis on extended foundation programs for previously disadvantaged students. The Council for Higher

Education (CHE) also articulates the same perception of “academic development as covering foundation courses for disadvantaged students” (2004:101). Given the fact that South African universities have different contexts influenced by varied histories and missions, lack of clear academic staff development policies has contributed to a lack of “enabling model structures for a coherent model of academic development” (Quinn, 2006:153).

It is also important to note that there are policies which might constrain the success of ASD. Quality assurance and performance appraisal policies might contribute to the erosion and success of ASD. This happens if ASD is integrated with quality assurance and performance appraisal units. The latter are associated with threats to academic freedom and autonomy. Inadvertently academics can associate ASD with the negative perception created and embedded in quality assurance. Gosling (2008:8) and Hardy and Smith (2006:339) call for a “balancing of strategy in handling these policies” to ensure the positive effect of quality assurance and performance appraisal policies towards the quality of learning and teaching.

It is also noted that policy alone is not sufficient to drive change in a higher education system. People in the system and support given to them are equally essential. Literature review turns to this aspect.

2.8.3.7 The effect of quality assurance on academic staff development

ASD is viewed as a strategy for improving the quality of teaching and students’ learning experiences (Reid, 2003:3). Senior management of HEIs have tended to use ASD for meeting institutional needs and goals which are externally driven by governments. A good example is the quality assurance agenda. Internationally, Higher Education Councils and Quality Assurance Audits make certain demands on universities and expect institutional compliance in terms of programme alignment, curriculum design and assessment.

Some academics are deficient in these areas since they lack training. ASD centres and practitioners will have “relevance and value as academics will seek their support” (Leask et al. 2005:44).

However, studies have not conclusively shown that quality assurance schemes adopted in HEIs resulted in value addition to the students’ capability, knowledge and skills (Amaral, 2009:3). Instead, university quality assurance systems appear not to have resisted the shift in emphasis from improvement in students’ learning experiences to accountability with the consequence of compromising the efficiency of teaching endeavours. In addition quality assurance has also been associated with ideological structures which are politically motivated that might have no relevance to the improvement of the learning of the learning process. In emphasizing this discourse, Havery and Newman (2006) eloquently considered that:

Quality assurance process is a bureaucratic process quite removed from either the student learning or the creative research process, which it is argued lies at the heart of quality in higher education (Ibid: 226).

This suggests that the quality assurance ideology destructs the academy which is supposed to improve the students’ knowledge. Consequently, associating ASD with quality management creates resistance among academics since they associate it with “managerialism” which “interferes with their academic autonomy and the way they do their business” (Boud, 1999:4).

Academic communities are impacted less positively by quality assurance management systems because of the demands created in relation to document requirements that must be complied to. According to Clark (1998:146), the pursuit of managerialism is associated with stress resulting from “intensification”—work overload. This discourse bureaucratizes higher education which would be at variance with academic norms and values of intellectual freedom (Baud, et al. 1993:3; Jawitz, 2009:13). This causes

resentment of quality assurance schemes and by implication APD among academics on account of it sacrificing research interests.

In a related study, Quinn comments on academic resentment towards quality assurance thus:

The committee found that increased external reporting requirements were largely responsible for the perception of a “managerialism” ethos but also found ample evidence of the threat to collegialism which has always been one of the cornerstones of higher education (2006:25).

The quality assurance movement is viewed as having a negative impact not only on ASD but on academic peership (collegiality) which is central in an academy. Clearly ASD imbedded in quality assurance will not be associated with the advancement and development of teaching in some academics’ view but will instead be committed to the advancement of the corporate agenda of the institution (Deborah and Gilding, 2007). Quality assurance then compromises the impact of ASD initiatives meant to promote quality teaching.

Ramsden (1992:126) also warns against the practice of using “academic development practitioners in conducting performance appraisals. “Negative performance appraisals adversely affect the self-image of academics as well as their individual satisfaction with teaching” (Galberith, 2004 in Scott and Scott 2005:3). Associating ASD with performance appraisals will draw resentment towards the programme. Clearly associating ASD with performance appraisals – a corporate issue – is likely to create a negative perception among academics. The effect will be limited effectiveness or impact of APD programmes.

Progressive educators warn against use of quality assurance standards by elites as a scheme to perpetuate exclusion of the underprivileged from benefitting from higher education in the name of upholding educational standards (Giroux, 2004:36). High student to lecturer ratios associated with opening access to higher education is associated with lowering of standards in the sector. The

argument being that large student to lecturer ratio is associated with poor quality teaching. Critical realists like Giroux (2004) advocate for a balance between educational equity and the call for higher education standards in order to ensure that the gains associated with the democratic movement in the sector are not diminished.

However, (Boud, 1999:4) encourages the view that quality assurance should be conceptualised with the advancement of teaching and learning rather than the 'corporate agenda' which limits its effectiveness. More recently, Quinn (2012:37) notes that quality assurance and academic development structures have worked in opposition to one another. They have either resulted in either unquestioning compliance with quality assurance requirements or resentment against the academic development unit. The implication for ASD would be that it should present quality assurance as a strategy associated with the promotion of the quality of learning and teaching in higher education. An approach such as this strengthened by supporting policies will enhance the success of a programme.

2.8.3.8 Institutional strategic plans and their effect on academic professional development

It is imperative to include academic development as a prioritised activity in strategic plans. The danger of strategic plans stressing new initiatives rather than sustain 'normal' work such as teaching will be countered. Another clear advantage of linking academic development in strategic plans is that flow of resources will be guaranteed (Boud, 1999:10).

Institutional conditions and ethos captured in the mission, vision and values of the strategic plan will also influence implementation of ASD programmes. This blend will probably ensure successful implementation of the programme. Scholars like Gosling (2008) and Rowland (2006) argue that academic development has been successful when it has drawn in a deep understanding of the ethos of HEIs, their cultural practices and the discourse of academia.

Consequently, including academic development in strategic plans will ensure that challenges resulting from institutional conditions can be minimised.

Arguments for prioritising teaching and learning through strategic plans are eloquently highlighted by Boud (1999). For a start, Boud (1999) notes that a strategic plan will make teaching and learning as a strategic goal of the institution. The commitment to teaching and learning expressed in the strategic goal will give learning and teaching prominence and profile which it might lack in the absence of a strategic plan. Invariably, a strategic plan will articulate how a university will contribute to the development of pedagogy and higher education teaching.

Players involved in playing a major role in implementing strategic plans will be consulted thereby revising the question of status and accountability among educational development practitioners. The question of “illegitimacy often suffered” by developers will be countered. Gosling (2008) argues that the question of high “quality teaching in higher education as a priority which needs to be supported in financial and human terms will be ensured” (2008:18).

Including learning and teaching into strategic plans might also promote accountability among faculty deans in terms of professional development programmes organised in departments. At this level, strategic plans will not only call for evaluation reports but might trigger debate on the contribution and status of teaching and learning and the role of professional development in faculties. Since strategic plans are often accompanied with reviews and evaluations, its inclusion will ensure academic professional development features in executive committee meetings of the institution. Such reviews will increase the visibility and profile of teaching and learning, a situation which might not occur in the absence of strategic plan reviews. Tylor (20005:40) puts the point so well thus “a strategic plan gets us from where we are to where we want to be and how we are going to finance it.” Perhaps the status of professional development might grow towards one which is comparable to research. Certainly, budgets for research into teaching and emphasis on

Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education as well as conference fees will be assured.

The influence on impact is usually observed as academic development units make a contribution at institutional policy level (Gosling, 2008). Indeed, the opposite is true if teaching and learning is not placed in university strategic plans. Higher education teaching will not be prioritised leading to the status quo. Management will not demand accountability from faculty deans in respect of professional development, in the absence of institutional policy documents. APD will be left to “the enthusiasm of individual volunteers” (Boud, 1999:2) rather than make it an institutional strategic goal which might have a bearing on enhancing the quality of the educators in higher education (Sparatt et al, 2001).

It is argued that a strategic plan will provide an institution of higher learning with a vigorous basis for demonstrating “leadership and professionalism in supporting academic professional development” (Boud, 1999:3). Including APD in strategic plans will promote its implementation by making it a strategic goal which will ensure executive support and a supportive institutional environment.

2.9 INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL ACADEMIC PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES AND TRENDS

The following section of the study examines educational staff development initiatives which have been experienced internationally in other countries. Countries such as the UK, USA and Australia have been considered because their experiences appear to demonstrate that the initiatives and innovations on academic development are evolving in strength and effectiveness in spite of the presence of constraining institutional conditions and cultures. The South African experience in academic development has been considered because South Africa’s higher education system is fairly well established compared to that of Zimbabwe. More importantly, higher education in South Africa is responding to the challenges of the transformation agenda, a challenge which Zimbabwe’s higher education sector is equally mandated to address.

2.9.1 INTERNATIONAL TRENDS

2.9.1.1 Trends in academic professional development in the United Kingdom (UK)

In this section of the study, literature was consulted to inform the discussion on pressures which influenced higher education in the UK to concern itself with the need to promote university teacher development. National and institutional structures and organizations which were established to promote professionalization of teaching in higher education in the UK will also receive extensive attention before focusing on factors which influence the success of professional development in higher education.

In the UK, academics found in higher education institutions experience a lot of pressure both internal and external. External challenges arise from quality assurance and audit agencies as well as government and employment agencies. Internally, factors such as huge increase in student numbers, high student staff ratio and the widespread use of information and communication technology in teaching and research have presented challenges that affect the delivery of higher education.

In the UK, like elsewhere, academic staff development provides the opportunity to expand the role of academics in meeting these challenges. It is imperative from this argument that academics need to be empowered through knowledge and skills development in order to cope with the challenges.

The National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education produced the 1997 Dearing Report. The Report made wide range recommendations for Higher Education Reform.

Recommendation (8), for example, recommended for the development implementation and delivery of learning and teaching strategies focusing on the promotion of students learning. Other recommendations were: Recommendation (16) which provided for a review of programmes of study; Recommendation (21) provided for the creation of programme specification to make learning outcomes more explicit; Recommendation (25) provided for the establishment of a national qualification framework and

Recommendation (20) which provided for the development of a progress file for students. (Dearing Report, 1997:1060.)

The recommendations have relevance for the promotion of academic professional development. An analysis of the recommendations makes it clear that the Dearing Report “made the case for teacher development which promoted student learning” (Carr, 2001:5). In response to the Dearing Report, numerous frameworks and approaches to staff development including Investors In People (IIP) 2004; the European Foundation for Quality Management 2003; and the UK’s Higher Education Academy (2004) were set up.

It is acknowledged that the establishment of the Higher Education Academy (HEA) marked the professionalization of teaching in higher education in the UK (Carr, 2001). Kilfoil (2012) acknowledges that university teacher development is promoted by the HEA. The HEA plays a crucial role in promoting teaching development through accreditation of the Post Graduate Certificate in Teaching and Learning in Higher Education. Additionally, the HEA offers a lot of support to newly recruited lecturers through four fellowships namely: the Associate Fellow, Senior Fellow and Principal Fellow (Kilfiol, 2012:18). A total of one hundred and fifteen UK based higher education institutions have nationally accredited professional development courses (UUK/SOP, 2004 in D’Andrea and Gosling, 2005).

Apart from the HEA as a national structure which created an enabling environment for the development of staff professional development in higher education institutions, the UK PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS FRAMEWORK (PSF) is yet another structure which strengthened teacher professional development. The UK (PSF) launched in February 2006 was a product of the 2003 White Paper which called for standards for teaching in higher education to be promoted. Essentially, the PSF recognises and benchmarks the teaching and learning support roles within higher education. One of the major characteristics of this standards framework is that it is research informed and is a result of extensive consultation across higher education in order to secure “buy-in” and validity to the claim of being sector owned. Another distinctive feature of the PSF is that it defines professional development – learning and teaching – in terms of “the scholarly nature of subject inquiry and knowledge creation, and scholarly approach to

pedagogy” (Thomas, 2006 in Higher Education Academy, 2009:20) rather than mere teaching skills or competencies acquisition. Clearly the UK (PSF) has added and ensured the promotion of SoTL as well as reflective practice in the professionalization of teaching in higher education in the UK. The value of the UK (PSF) lies in its enhancement of professionalization in teaching in higher education. It provides the HEA with the basis for accreditation of programmes in HEIs. It contains descriptors for standards for good teaching in higher education.

At the discipline level, Thomas (2006) in Higher Education Academy (2009:19) explains that the HEA is provided by the PSF with a rich source of “discipline specific pedagogy which supports the under pinning core knowledge, appropriate methods for teaching and learning in the subject area and of how students learn generally.” Clearly the PSF provides the higher education sector with a robust standards framework which demands staff to demonstrate their understanding of student learning experiences and the ability to use research, scholarship and professional practice into their lecturing endeavours.

The challenge, however, lies in its embeddedness in institutions of higher learning. Ramsden (2009:21) warns that there is “lack of knowledge of the UK (PSF) among lecturers and students in some institutions.” This does not, however, constitute evidence of the inadequacy or inappropriateness of the framework, in the researcher’s view, it rather reflects the work which must be done to conscientise staff about the standards framework.

The professional impact of the UK (PSF) has been discussed competently by Kell (2005). Among other professional values, Kell notes that engagement with PSF helps academics to “notice students in the classroom and their peculiar needs as individuals” (2005:236). He goes further to argue that the professional value embedded in the UK (PSF) descriptors contain value statements such as “caring and nurturing of the learner” which are powerful tools in the staff development process (Ibid).

The UK (PSF) is also strengthened by the Continuous Professional Development Framework. This model adapts the HEA framework in promoting academic development. Its strength in professional development lies in its activities, knowledge

and professional values (Hughes and More, 2007). In the area of “activities”, it provides for integration of scholarship, research and professional activities with teaching and learning while for professional values it is committed to the “development of learning communities”(Hughes and More, 2007:17-18).

The UK (PSF) and the CPDF are both national structures which have been established to promote academic professional development in the UK. Apart from these two structures, there are national organizations which promote professional development. Examples are: Staff and Educational Development Association which oversees the accreditation of lecturers through the UK (PSF); network of Heads of Educational Development across UK 1995 which was formed for heads of units of development to promote teacher development in universities; Universities and Colleges Staff Development Agency which was set up to enhance staff development in higher education and the Association of University Teachers which advocates the “rising importance of teaching through the notion of professionalizing teaching.” (Carr, 2001:26). These organizations are an indication of the support given to academic staff development in the UK.

Considering the support given through the national structures such as the HEA, UK (PSF), CPD and the national associations as well as institutional structures discussed above, it is appropriate to assess the possible impact of these national structures. The discussion turns to the impact or success of professional development in the UK. Some studies have been made to explore the effectiveness of university teachers in the UK as a follow up to these initiatives. Gibbs and Coffey (2004:98) report that departmental level cultures had negative influences on training which could be counter balanced through centralised training. The centralised, planned and formal process paradigm of professional practice development is considered to be individual, private, cumulative, permanent and context independent (Trowler and Knight, 2003:36).

One of the concerns is that professional development of higher education practitioners should not take a view of teaching as learning the technical skills of effective teaching in line with a standards framework; rather it should process on teaching as an intellectual activity where teachers play a participatory role in the creation and use of knowledge (Lisewski, 2005:4).

Another criticism of the HEA accreditation requirements has been that the UK professional development model proceeds “uniformity and comparability outcome above quality and creativity of process” (Nicholls, 2001:74). Rowland (2002:53) raises fundamental issues about what it is to be an academic in terms of HEA conception of teaching whose notion viewed it in terms of ‘competence and practice’. According to Rowland (2002:54), academic practitioners within the varied context of Higher Education context and roles need to grapple with this ‘contestation’ and “struggle to create or at least shape their identities, rather than simply be shaped by external forces” such as centralised professional development accreditation. Rowland argues that higher education teaching should not be viewed as a generic, practical and instrumental activity divorced from situated disciplinary contexts (2002:66). Factors which influence success or failure are critical in the discussion.

Apart from national structures like the HEA, CPDF and the UK (PSF) which support professionalization of teaching in higher education institutions, academic development organizations have also been formed. Good examples of these are the International Community of Educational Development (1993) which contributes to the educational development community through conferences and publications of the International Journal of Educational Development. Additionally, various professional organisations have been set up to raise the status of learning and teaching. In literature, the strength of academic culture and traditions such as university autonomy, research strength over teaching, discipline based approaches, calibre of staff developers, academic leadership, institutional structures and policies just to mention a few have been cited as factors which might enable or constrain academic professional development.

Many higher education institutions have taken measures to promote teaching among academics through the HEA Fellowship Programme. Learning and Teaching Centres have been set up in universities to promote training in Learning and Teaching in higher education. Bath, Dundee, Bristol, St Andrews and Oxford Universities have set up Learning and Teaching Centres (Higher Education Exchange, 2009:20-51). Oxford University, for example, has the Oxford Learning Institute which offers post graduate certificate programmes accredited by HEA. However, in spite of all these measures to promote the status of teaching through HEA and its Associate Fellowship, “Oxford University employs lecturers without a teaching qualification” (Kilfoil, 2012:13).

Possession of a Masters and a PhD are the specified requirements. This paradox is consistent with the strength of research traditions and culture evident in strong research based universities over teaching academic cultures. Similar comments have been made by Halstead (2012). Commenting on the Dearing Report (1997) and its impact on lecturers who have engaged proactively in the scholarship of teaching, Halstead (2012) makes a sad observation thus:

Sadly pedagogical research has never gained the equivalent status to subject based research even though the importance of this type of research was being recognized nearly twenty years ago (Boyer, 1990 in Halstead, 2012:17).

In fact Boyer's work is considered to be the prime motivator for the UK drive towards raising the status of lecturers recognising the importance of learning and teaching research. According to Boyer, higher education "must move beyond the tired old" teaching versus research debate" and give the familiar and honourable term "scholarship" which is a broader and more encompassing meaning (1990:16). As part of this agenda, he positions teaching as an integral rather than an isolated part of an academic's work. In spite of this advocacy strong research based universities continue to undervalue teaching. Lecturers who distinguish themselves in teaching related activities go unrecognized for their achievement. Shelton's study on the National Fellowship Scheme in the UK articulated this observation so well thus:

Winners in the research intensive institutions felt that receiving an award for teaching was problematic. The NTFS was a poisoned chalice. Additionally other winners commented that NTFS awards invited scorn from fellow academics. Recipients felt marginalized instead of earning acceptance and status (2004:461).

It is these experiences of recipients of "AWARDS for Teaching Excellence which are scorned at in spite of the difference they make to students' learning" (McEwen, Hill and Walsh, 2007:36) which continue to make the status of teaching in HEIs to remain low. Measures to advance teacher development through postgraduate programmes have been to professionalize teaching in higher education in the UK. The discussion below

attempted to explore how the postgraduate programmes were perceived and experienced by the participants. Assessment of the benefits of the Accredited Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education (PGCHE) has received special attention.

Case studies indicate that there is divided opinion on the impact and value of the programmes. At Cardiff University, Haig who had emigrated from Australia where PGCHE qualifications are not a requirement for academic appointment had the following experiences about the course. She found the programme beneficial. According to her, the PGCHE programme was helpful since it presented opportunities “to interrogate critically the teaching practices” that she “had taken for granted” (Haig, 2007 in Higher Education Exchange, 2009:44). Carret (2006), Head of Academic Staff Development, Learning and Teaching Enhancement, University of Bath, confirms the value of Postgraduate Certificates by acknowledging that they “provide staff new to teaching in higher education an opportunity to engage with the UK professional standards framework” (Carret, 2006 in Higher Education Exchange, 2009:6).

However, some less positive comments have been made about the PGCHE programmes. Halstead has made the following assessment of the benefit and success of the programme:

Interestingly, these courses are not always perceived as being beneficial to all academic staff members that are new to an institution. More experienced staff disappointingly sometimes considers they have nothing to learn (2012:17).

Haig (2007), in strengthening the above claim, commented that her colleagues associated the programme with “cynicism” because of perceived competing demands of the course and lecturing demands such as marking. She further blames “pedagogic literature of lacking its own credibility by attempting to codify common sense into complex jargon – riddled terminology” (Haig, 2007 in Higher Education Exchange, 2009:44).

These negative perceptions about the PGCHE programme are unfortunate considering the number and diversity of students getting into universities coupled with the

challenges of using technology. Although the impact of professional development programmes on students' learning is beyond the scope of this study, Halstead (2012:18) calls for a "clear link between the scholarship of learning and teaching and classroom research questions" for the benefits of the programme are to be appreciated. The discussion below turns to institutional and structural conditions as enabling or constraining factors to professional development in the UK.

Ashton University in the UK provides an interesting case study of how institutional and structural conditions have created an enabling environment for successful staff development. Between 2001 and 2007 Ashton University ran a post graduate certificate in teaching and learning which was led by a central staff development unit. The impact and success of the programme was below expectation in its first phase. The programme uptake was low, support from the schools was variable and completion rate from 2001 to 2007 was below 50% since 86 gained the award out of 207 who had enrolled (Higher Education Exchange, 2009:18). However, the Ashton University case study provides revealing lessons for successful APD development and implementation. Following the unsuccessful programme of the 2001 – 2007 plan, the university launched a new Strategic Plan (2008 – 2012) which launched new Learning and Teaching Strategy (Halstead, 2008) with the overall aim of creating a centre of excellence in learning and teaching by 2012. The lesson learnt here is the central role of placing teaching and learning activities in a strategic plan which will not only assure it of visibility and mainstreaming into academic culture but will be prioritized in terms of resources and incentives (Kilfoil, 2012).

Ashton University created a Centre for Learning Innovation and Professional Practice. The centre was central in embedding and sustaining professional development activities. Elton (2001), Yoke (2000) and D'Andrea and Gosling (2005) all claim that the majority of HEIs in the UK have established T&LCs to promote teaching development. At Ashton, the (2001 – 2007) plan the university did not have such a centre. In the (2008 – 2012) strategic plan, Ramsden (2009:18) claims the programme at Ashton succeeded because at "the core of the centre's philosophy is research informed practice."

The Centre for Learning Innovation and Professional Practice successfully lead implementation of the programme because of strategic support it received from academic leadership. According to Halstead (2012), it was agreed by the University executive to appoint learning and teaching champions for the respective academic schools in the university. Led by a senior manager in each school, the champions worked closely with the developers in the centre for Learning, Innovation and professional Practice. A clear lesson here is that new Learning and Teaching Strategy of the Ashton University Strategic Plan (2008 – 2012) worked because of the leadership support it received right from the executives of the university to Heads of Schools.

Equally important is the issue of institutional support. Post holders in educational development units need support and encouragement from the institution. Comber and Walsh note that:

Little support or encouragement is provided for post holders particularly within institutions .They need support that goes beyond posting expectations of their roles on a website (2007:28).

In discussion they argued that the success of a programme depended on the “tenacity” of the individual that kept the role alive rather than institutional support (Ibid). Another disturbing trend in the UK is the marginal use of educational development units by faculty members. Stanton and Morris warn that: “educational development units were seen as store houses with potential useful knowledge but are frequently not used as strategically as they might be by higher education institutions” (2000:130).

Models and approaches to academic professional development have influenced the organization of staff development programmes. These models are a factor in determining the success of a programme. In the UK, where institutional structures such as the Academic Subject Centres exist in universities, the temptation to organize staff development on the basis of the disciplinary approach is greater. An investigation was undertaken by the Scottish Higher Education Enhancement Research (SHEER) in 2006 to study perceptions of staff concerning the degree to which educational development opportunities offered through post graduate certificate programmes in higher education Learning and Teaching (or equivalent) should utilise discipline specific pedagogies to

enhance the development for new lecturers. Doreen and Walsh's (2007) findings suggested that senior staff in the participating HEIs supported postgraduate certificate programmes that enhanced a discipline – specific focus of some aspects of learning and teaching. Although “some preconceptions about the notion of generic programmes held by senior staff based on second hand information and hearsay rather than direct engagement were noted” some value for cross disciplinary opportunities were appreciated (Comber and Walsh, 2007:28). Pedagogic benefits such as discussing topics of common interest and concern and learning from those outside one's immediate discipline associated with the cross disciplinary approach were valued (Ibid).

Similar findings were observed by Wareing (2005). In reviewing a range of Academy Subject Centre websites and publications, she argues that “no evidence of disciplinary difference exists in teaching, principles of curriculum design and assessment” (2005:32). Claims of difference among different disciplines, in her view, exceed actual differences. However, Wareing warns that the perception of discipline relevance or irrelevance should not be down played as it has huge influence “in shaping the attitude of participants and those of heads of department that support professional development activities” (2005:30).

Staff members taking on these staff development roles are crucial to the successful implementation and embedding of the work of the Educational Development Centre. Kell notes on the academic profiles of the learning and teaching champions at Cardiff University that:

The appointed champions are all mainstream members of staff based in their own schools, and have credibility in the area of innovative curriculum and learner development, pedagogical research and effective use of technology to support learning (2005:13).

Similar observations were made by Gosling (2001) on appointments made in educational development units. In his view, appointments “indicate a shift in thinking about the status and the nature of the work being undertaken” (2001:136). In the UK

appointments reflect a research focus to academic professional development as opposed to the “traditional conceptions of staff development” which emphasised acquisition of skills competencies in teaching (Ibid).

Additionally, Comber and Walsh (2007) emphasise the importance of effective relationships between educational developers and lecturers on an individual basis for professional development to have impact. They further highlight the critical effect of “clear communication and clarity concerning the connections between key institutional players” in implementing educational development and the impact it might have (2007:28-29).

Models of academic professional development are a factor in determining the success of a programme. In the UK, where institutional Academic subject centres exist in universities, the temptation to organise staff development on the basis of the disciplinary approach is greater. An investigation was undertaken by the Scottish Higher Education Enhancement Research in 2006 to study perceptions of staff concerning the degree to which educational development opportunities offered through postgraduate certificate programmes in higher education Learning and Teaching (or equivalent) should utilise discipline-specific pedagogies to enhance the development for new lecturers. Doreen and Walsh’s (2007) overall findings suggested that senior staff in the participating Higher Education Institutions supported postgraduate certificate programmes that enhanced a discipline-specific focus of some aspects of learning and teaching. Although “some preconceptions about the notion of generic programmes held by senior staff based on second hand information and hearsay rather than direct engagement were noted” and some value for cross disciplinary opportunities were appreciated (Comber and Walsh, 2007:28). Pedagogic benefits such as discussing topics of common interest and concern as well as learning from those outside one’s immediate discipline associated with the cross disciplinary approach were valued (Ibid).

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among different disciplines exceed actual differences. However, Wareing (2005) warns that the perception of discipline relevance or irrelevance should not be down played as it “has huge influence in shaping the attitude of participants and those of heads of departments that support professional development activities” (2005:30).

Literature on APD experiences in the UK has been revealing. It is clear that in spite of supporting efforts of government (Recommendations of the Dearing Report), the HEA and UK (PSF) as well as supporting professional organizations such as Staff and Educational Development Association, Heads of Education Development and Universities and Colleges Staff Development Agency the value of higher education teaching has remained low. Research into the teaching of the discipline has been subordinated to research of the discipline confirming the strength of disciplinary cultures.

2.9.1.2 Trends in academic professional development in the USA

In the USA the role of professional development in enhancing higher education quality is strongly supported. Americans subscribe to the belief that education quality is dependent on educator quality (Camin, 2012; Rice et al. 2004). The Obama education Plan (2009) puts national transformation at its focus with teacher quality as a focal point of the plan’s agenda (Whitcomb, 2009:207). Under the theme “Powerful Professional Development Models and Practices”, the plan acknowledges the key role professional development plays in improving teacher quality (Ibid). “Gains in students’ performance are disturbingly low” that students are too often “academically adrift” (Brady, 2013:94).

In response, various initiatives have been undertaken. Apart from Burbules and Callister (2000) and Noble (2001), Nordkvelle makes a clear call on profiling the status of teaching in the US thus:

The claim is that it might further the status of teaching in the academic profession. There is need in the US for improving

teaching as a professional virtue of the academic profession
(2006:94).

An analysis of the above shows that there is a deliberate effort to raise the profile of teaching through pedagogical professionalization.

However, Nicholls (2001) warns that a programme for professional development should be based on certain conditions if it is expected to have success and impact. These conditions are; “the need for supporting structure, the need to see the connection between the development of experience as well as new staff, an enabling environment (exchange visits) and an organisation that allows academics to reflect on their thinking and actions” (Nicholls, 2001:12). The question of an enabling institutional environment and structure are being raised as critical conditions for the establishment and implementation of pedagogical professionalization in the American higher education sector.

Given the above, it is of interest to examine the extent to which higher education in the USA has supporting policies and structures. Volbrecht (2003) provides a summary of the status of ASD in the USA thus:

The USA does not have integrative national higher education policies to the same extent as countries such as UK and Australia. However, it does have agencies such as the American Association for Higher Education contributing to the development of higher education (2003:101 – 105).

Clearly the USA higher education system lacks a nationally coordinated policy on academic professional development. Policy is left to individual states and universities. This is in keeping with democratic traditions embedded in the American education system (Hunt, 2008) which gives individual states the freedom and responsibility to shape the development of their higher education. The trend in the USA seems to make it conditional for lecturers to undergo professional development training that is offered prior to commencement of full-time teaching (D’Andrea and Gosling, 2005). This prior training is critical

given a rapid growth in the employment of both part-time and non-tenured lecturers in the US. According to Rice, Finkelstein, Hall and Schuster (2004), about half of the faculty members in the US are now part-time. This trend emphasises the need for academic staff development. This has resulted in faculty development initiatives in colleges and universities in the USA. These educational development measures are critical in promoting institutional excellence. Recent research on faculty developers in the USA by Sorabelli, Austin and Beach (2006) in Sovenson (2006) confirms this:

The findings of this study validate our belief that educational development is a critically important lever for ensuring institutional excellence (2006:21).

A framework describing expectations for teaching are contained in the core propositions for K – 12 (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, Hunt et al., 2008:15-16). Many US universities have competency based graduate teaching assistant programmes apart from formal courses that include: Graduate Certificate in Higher education, and Master of Higher Education and Master of Learning and Teaching in Higher Education. These would have numerous benefits in raising the professional profile of teaching and learning in US's higher education. Boyer's concept of the "scholarships of higher education" (Boyer, 1990), which sought a new approach to the traditional research US teaching debate, has been strongly influential in the US. Coupled with Schon's work on "reflective practice" (Schon 1987), it has helped fuel the acceptance of teaching portfolios as a means of training teachers and documenting practice.

Given the massive financial investments given to the development of professional development (McLaren, 2005) and the profile given to teaching through Boyer's reconstruction of scholarship at Carguie Foundation Princeton, the discussion turns to examine factors that influence or contribute to its success or failure. For a start, professional staff development in the US enjoys the support of various national associations. Elder and MacGrager (2008) list these as the American Association of Community Colleges, American Association of

Staff Colleges and Universities and American Council of Education. All these are mainstream higher education associations which include professional development as part of their agenda. Celebration which marks “Excellence in Teaching” in higher education (Heyland, 2002) is one of the activities undertaken by some of these associations in an effort to promote teaching.

In spite of the support of these associations and teaching awards given for outstanding achievement in teaching, the status of teaching has remained low in the US. Nordkvelle (2006) puts the point so well thus:

Ever since the Renaissance anyone in the university suggesting that pedagogical considerations could be in place have taken the risk of being neglected (2006:99).

In their study, Burbules and Callister (2000) also observe that attempts at promoting pedagogical professionalization in universities in the USA have experienced “less positive joyful dimensions” (2000:275) among faculties. The reason advanced for this trend is that awarding of grants, prizes, promotion and tenure is strongly tied to the research outcome and not teaching whose status is less appreciated. So, little stimulates the professional identity of university teachers or develop their teaching expertise (Coate et al. 2001:161).

In the USA, some academics subscribe to the belief that good researchers are good teachers discourse. Whether this is a truthful or problematic idea can be viewed against a quote from Brew and Boud (1995):

Investigations of the link between teaching and research of which there has been a large number have failed to establish the nature of connection between the two or indeed whether there is any (1995:261).

However, a qualitative study of students’ opinion of their teachers in the US, Lindsay, Breen and Jenkins (2002) argue that lecturers who perform research motivate their students better, demonstrate more competence, spread enthusiasm

and make more convincing relations to knowledge currency and credibility than lecturers who do not do research. It would appear then that attempts to elevate teaching professionalism among university faculties in the USA suffer a set back because of the low status accorded to teaching.

Apart from the low status of teaching as having less positive effect on professional development, studies also cite lack of information and developmental needs as factors which adversely affect uptake of faculty development initiatives (Baldwin and Blackburn, 1981). Based on experience at Virginia University the researcher concluded that “the factor most predictive of success in faculty development is depth of knowledge of faculty” (Hunt, Wright and Gordon, 2008:16).

In other words, information about major faculty characteristics such as motivations, deficiencies and talents is fundamental to an effective programme of professional growth.

Other studies have made valuable recommendations covering the content and organisation of programmes as factors which influence success and sustainability of professional programmes. For example, a study by Little (2002) shows that professional staff development experiences are particularly effective when situated in a collegial learning environment where lecturers work collaboratively to inquire and reflect on their teaching. In the USA then, professional development programmes designed along disciplines in faculties attract faculty wide participation. Stein, Smith and Silver (1999) present central features associated with effective high-quality professional development. Their study shows that professional staff development situated in practice and embedded in professional communities is likely to be successful (1999:163).

The questions of programme flexibility and institutional context consideration were also addressed as critical relevant factors which influence the impact programmes would have. Given the recognition accorded to individual differences in the democratic American education system, Haggis (2003) and McLaughlin and Mitra (2001:318) argue for the flexibility of professional staff

development programmes to accommodate differences found in professors as well as institutional contexts as conditions which are essential to sustain programmes.

In conclusion, an examination of trends of professional staff development in the US has revealed insightful developments. The non existence of a national and integrated professional development policy is quite distinct (Volbrecht, 2003; Whitcomb, 2009). However, the existence of a framework of expectation K-12 (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards) on which competency based assistant programmes are developed by individual institutions is unique (Hunt et al. 2008:15-16) in that it is a requirement to have new recruits trained before they can teach in universities. The democratic nature of American education has immense influence on the design, organisation and implementation of professional staff development. First, each state is responsible for the organisation of its staff development programmes and the individual development needs of professors as well as institutional context they teach in will be major considerations in designing programmes. Finally studies showed that cultural conditions such as research value versus teaching, disciplines and communities of practice as well as management support are also important factors which influence the success and sustainability of programmes in HEIs in the US.

2.9.1.3 Australia's experiences in academic professional development

This section examines the trends which academic development in Australia has taken. In spite of some challenges, Australia appears to have made significant progress in the area of staff development (Deborah and Gilding, 2007; Goody and Ingram, 2001; Gosling, 2008; Reid, 2003; Volbrecht, 2003). Particular attention will be given to conditions, policies, institutional structures and academic cultures and traditions which support or constrain academic development in Australia.

Like elsewhere in the world, it was imperative for the Australian higher education sector to adopt “academic development as a strategy to improve the

quality of teaching and learning experiences” (Spratt et al., 2001:1). Australian universities had to square up to the challenge of escalating pressure to demonstrate and develop quality in response to “government agenda of quality and value for money” (Ramsden, 2003:233) and the “use of information technology and communication and internationalization of higher education” (Reid, 2003:1).

From literature, history shows that academic development focused on the quality of student learning (Quinn, 2006 and Gosling, 2008). What is significant in the Australian higher education experience is the existence of both national and institutional structures which enabled APD to thrive. The proliferation of institutional policies and specialized units is evidence of the strength and importance given to the issue of APD.

According to Anderson (2000:28), the Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australia, the Committee for University Teaching and Staff Development and the Australian Learning and Teaching Council are examples of supporting organisations which promote academic staff development. Valuable lessons can be drawn from the contributions made by these organisations.

A distinctive feature of educational development in Australia is that there is evidence of ASD projects that promote the scholarship of teaching (Kreber, 2002:16) in contrast to other countries (case studies) where ASD is conceptualized as empowering academics with teaching skills (Quinn, 2006). The committee for University Teaching and Staff Development is mandated to drive projects on scholarship of teaching. At national level the CARRICK INSTITUTE provides the Learning and Teaching Performance Fund which promotes teaching in institutions (Gosling, 2008:23). Both HERDSA and CUTSD support activities of the CARRICK INSTITUTE by identifying lecturers who distinguish themselves in teaching.

The Australian Learning and Teaching Council is another structure which supports efforts which promote teaching through its projects. McDonald (2006)

in Knights (2009) cites the success and impact made by ALTC in training “sessional teachers through national training by Directors of Academic Development and academic developers in their traditional roles” (2009:43). The ALTC supports the Council of Australian Directors of Academic Development by pulling scarce expertise and resources to support the development of sessional teachers through exploration of good practice. Academic developers are supported in preparing new academics to teach in their faculties. More importantly, academic developers contribute towards the professionalization of teaching roles of academics by offering a postgraduate certificate in education (Scott and Scott, 2005). The need for formal development is seen as an important strategy to the challenge posed by the internationalisation of higher education in Australia in order to enhance its competitiveness. Through the postgraduate certificate, academics articulate their professional development into formal qualification.

Although enabling conditions and structures exist which promote ASD in Australia, concerns for promoting teaching in universities have been expressed. DEST (2002) commissioned an investigation into professional development for University Teaching in Australia. It investigated the attitude of key university stakeholders towards the professionalization of the teaching role of academics. 32 universities were sampled for the study. Findings indicated that 8 (25%) universities did not conduct any initial teaching preparation programme. 21 universities offered formal awards for teaching in higher education. However, enrolment for the teaching courses were characterised by low uptake (DEST, 2002:136-141). The above trend is consistent with findings made by Holdsworth et al. (2008) in his study of websites of 36 Australian Universities. Holdsworth et al.’s (2008) study of the websites showed that in attempts to professionalise teaching roles of academics through some in house institutional courses, some critical issues related to teaching received very low attention. For example, “out of 36 universities, 3 offered in house courses on assessment, 4 offered courses on scholarship of teaching and reflective practice, 13 offered e-learning courses while 12 offered curriculum development and implementation courses” (Holdsworth et al., 2008:76).

The study demonstrates that while ASD is regarded as a solution to enhancing teaching quality, institutions place low attention to courses which promote it. Additionally, postgraduate programmes are characterised by “low uptake to the extent that the programme is jointly offered by a group of universities” (McDonald, 2006 in Knight, 2009:52). The observation that in Australia it is not a prerequisite to have a formal qualification in tertiary teaching unlike in the UK is a contributory factor (Ibid). Clearly, this has contributed to the low status given to teaching and low enrolment in postgraduate courses Australian universities.

Some studies have revealed interesting reasons for low enrolment in professional development programmes. “Heavy workload” has been cited as one of the reasons (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999:9). McInnis confirmed this in his cross – sectional study of academic self-reported workload where he found that “half of the group of academics felt that their workload had increased” (1996:41). Another significant change in pattern of workload which emerged in McInnis study was the increase in non-core work caused by external demands resulting from government policies of accountability and quality assurance (Ibid). These studies show that a combination of external demands and the burden of work overload have caused dissatisfaction among academics which has impacted negatively on the success of professional education in Australian universities. Reid (2003) acknowledges that academic perceptions of these external forces can exert huge pressure on individual and academic departments. The status of academic practitioners and their directors in Australian universities is a contested issue. In his survey, Gosling (2008) noted that the majority of the developers not only lacked research background but that they were not given any formal training, instead they prepared themselves “informally through colleagues, conferences, reading and research, professional bodies and meetings” (Gosling, 2008:18) This may reinforce the perception that “academic development is not a bona fide academic practice” (Grant 2007:36). Lack of training indicates lack of specialisation or cannon of knowledge which might contribute to lack of legitimacy in the eyes of mainstream academics. It is negative perceptions such as these which constrain the potential and development of academic practice in Australia.

Another related constraint is shortage of academic developers. The situation has arisen because of the unattractiveness of a career in academic development practice. In Australia, Gosling notes that mainstream academics “do not pursue or take positions in Academic Development Centres because of a lack of clear path and status for academic developers” (2008:8). As a consequence, absence of staff in a project or innovation leads to unsuccessful implementation.

Another challenge referred to in the study is the “unstable” nature of academic development centres as part of an institutional structure. According to Gosling (2008), these centres are easy targets when there is pressure to restructure in an institution. Gosling (2008) notes that:

Directors would be turned into political animals quick to respond to changes in structures and active in defending their turf thereby diverting energy on non core issues related to academic development (2008:2).

Clearly, consequences of restructuring are not that positive. Not only do they distract developers from their core business in an environment associated with stress and uncertainty but it will also lead to disruption of academic development programs through dislocation of resources and key staff to other units.

Finally, Gosling (2008) identifies the question of the ideal approach or model to adopt for successful ASD. Gosling highlights the failure by academic developers to “get more buy-in from faculty schools on the preferred model” (2008:23). In the survey, the majority – 13 out of 18 Teaching and Learning Committees preferred faculty or school based academic staff development. This finding is consistent with recommendations made by Deborah and Gilding who recommended that academic development units had to adopt “decentralised models which meet the needs of the academics” (2007:2). Similarly, Goody and Ingram (2001) confirm that such holistic and coherent approaches provided sustainable and durable professional development activities which could counter

challenges presented by internationalization of higher education and information, technology and communication (ICT).

Notwithstanding these challenges, academic development centres have had impact if contribution to institutional policy formulation is considered as a measure of performance. Gosling notes that:

A number of centres reported that they originated a teaching and learning policy, policies relating to student assessment, web-management and evaluation of teaching (2008:20).

The strategic significance of the contribution of Academic Development Centres to policy formulation is a paradigm shift which gives the centres importance over other institutional structures such as faculties or schools.

The influence of research on the value of teaching has been observed to have negative impact on sustaining ASD. Findings by Kolfoil (2012) show that research enjoys superior status in Australian universities compared to teaching. He notes that:

There is no commensurate rigour in preparation for teaching compared to research. There is strong PhD training interest which prepares lecturers for research (2012:36).

Their trend is reflective of the fact that most Australian universities are high research institutions. Dedicated funding for research has also contributed to the shift. Research scheme funds such as the Australian Research Council, Commonwealth Higher Education, Research Scheme Funds, Cooperative Research Centres and the Research Quantum Scheme, allocated on the basis of research output and publications, have contributed to the growth of research over teaching (Land, 2004; Rowland, 2006). By contrast, resources for teaching have been reduced on a per student basis (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999:19). The Australian Government Policy on funding also favours the promotion of research. Through this policy, government expected universities to implement

“policies of selectivity and concentration in allocating resources for research” (Kemp 1999:10). The justification for the policy is for Australia to be competitive in a global knowledge economy and to achieve that it “must be at world standard in every field” (Ibid). An analysis of government research funding policy shows that it drove a wedge between research and teaching rather than promote its integration as advocated by Ramsden (1998). The research counts discourse prevailed at the university of Buidlorat and RMT in Australia which had incorporated Boyer’s scholarships into institutional policies because academics remained convinced that “research record counted for promotion and recognition” (Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999). The argument is that research output is “measurable through peer review while peer review of teaching remains patchy and left largely to the motivation of the individual” (Hughes and Moore, 2007:101).

Finally the Australian experience has shown that the future of academic professional development has a lot of potential. National and institutional conditions and structures exist which support the growth and sustainability of ASD. Although concern for the status of teaching is evident, conceptualisation of APD as SoTL is uncontested in Australia’s Teaching and Learning Research Councils. Constraining factors have been identified as follows: credibility of developers, volatility of academic development centres, the question of models and the research and teaching nexus. Studies are being undertaken to address them as constraints which should be worked on to ensure the growth, sustainability and durability of APD in Australia. Literature review has examined trends of professional development in the UK, USA and Australia. However, these are developed countries. The study considered South Africa’s experiences in ASD in higher education to have relevance as a SADC country experiencing similar challenges arising from democratization of higher education.

2.9.2 Southern African Development Community (SADC) academic professional development trends

2.9.2.1 South Africa's experiences of academic professional development in higher education

Literature has been consulted to inform the discussion of this section of the thesis. Trends in ASD in South Africa are largely influenced by its unique history and government policies responding to the new democratic order. Although development and implementation of staff development are largely dependent on institutional context, in South African universities the factors outlined above will be traced in literature to determine their impact on ASD.

Historically, South African higher education landscape had two types of universities. Measures to support black students who had been admitted into some white universities in the early 70s laid the foundation for the development of academic professional development work in higher education in South Africa (Lostsekha, 2013:46). Black students were found to be underprepared for tertiary studies. They were found to lack the language, independent study skills and critical thinking for them to engage in university studies (DoE, National Curriculum Statement, 2005). According to Jansen (1999), high failure rates caused immense concern. The intervention took the form of “special classes covering language and study skills” (Yulting, 2000:36) to upgrade the ‘deficit’ identified and associated with inability to cope with university studies (Quinn, 2006:213). The Educational Skills Programme was introduced to champion student support.

This historical background to academic development had immense implication to the conceptualization of ASD in South Africa as time progressed. However, with the advent of democracy in 1994, South African universities had to respond to the transformation agenda. The agenda had crucial implications for the higher education sector. Transformational education, which promotes equal access to education, witnessed massification of higher education in South Africa. Students who were previously denied access were offered the

opportunity (Morrow, 1994:45). A new generation of students appeared in universities whose characteristic was diversified in all respects; culturally, socially and economically. The challenge for academics was to offer an education that promoted equality of opportunity in terms of epistemological access premised on critical pedagogy (Fataar, 2003:32-33).

This is an education which is open, equal and elitist free in terms of its value. The teachings of Giroux (1994), Harbermas (1989) and Freire (1993) gave educational developments some influence. “Teaching uncritically” (Gramsci, 1971) was no longer as effective and began to be questioned. Lecturers became the agency of this transformational education – critical pedagogy. This is an education which could transform the former inequalities and unjust social relations which existed. It is argued that maintaining the status quo in South Africa’s higher education would be ‘denying’ learners the epistemological access associated with the new democratic dispensation (Burbules and Berk, 1997:63).

The challenge of offering quality education became greater. Highlighting the need for organized and planned staff development programmes in response to the higher education challenge of dealing with a diversified student base, Mbali (2003) recommended that:

If we are serious about trying to improve the quality of teaching especially in order to respond to all imperatives of government policy to open up higher education to a greater percentage of the population and hitherto disadvantaged and to grow the economy then staff development strategies need to be carefully planned and resourced (2003:98).

Unlike the ‘old generation’ of students the ‘new generation’ demands that lecturers be staff developed with pedagogical skills and competencies that can deal with a diversified student body that is a result of a democratized higher education system. The Educational Development Programme of 1993 was developed to promote staff development. The programme integrated educational

development work into institution wide academic activities (Amos and Quinn, 1997). The foundation for APD began to take shape. However, the notion of educational development was misconceptualized as student development instead of academic development because the Educational Skills Programme associated with up skilling the underprepared student heavily influenced its conception.

Academics had mixed responses to this educational transformation in South Africa's higher education system. A group of progressive educators emerged that supported democratization of higher education. However, a conservative group resisted educational transformation arguing that opening access to higher education had the consequence of lowering standards. In the view of the elitist educator, opening access to higher education became "the altar on which standards were sacrificed" (Fataar 2012:63). By contrast, progressive educators supported the transformation agenda arguing that promoting quality at the expense of equity was likely to reverse the benefits brought about by the 1994 democratic dispensation. Instead, they advocated for a change in approach in curriculum implementation. This development made the introduction of APD in HEIs more imperative in South Africa. Academics had to be made aware that educator input had a bearing on learner output. However, mainstream academics tend not to associate the quality of higher education experience with the lecturer's instructional efforts. Academics believe that students should take responsibility for their studies (Ramsden 2003:121). The argument being that those students who cannot cope with university studies have no place in it. This is reflective of the elitist paradigm that subscribes to the intellectually gifted few.

However, democratization of higher education presented challenges to academics in terms of meeting the diversified needs of the new generation of students. Critical pedagogy was part of the solution in response to the transformation agenda and higher education practitioners had to be developed in their teaching. This saw the emerging of some policies and organisations which supported academic development among academics in South African universities. National organizations such as the COUNCIL FOR HIGHER EDUCATION (CHE) established in 2004, SOUTH AFRICAN

QUALIFICATION AUTHORITY (SAQA) AND THE NATIONAL QUALIFICATION FRAMEWORK (NQF) made professionalization of higher education teaching imperative. Academics' teaching skills and competencies needed to be enhanced through ASD. However, the development and growth of ASD in South African universities has experienced challenges.

Educational development in South Africa has been affected by policies that are not well coordinated. Studies by Volbrecht (2003) confirm that educational development has not been supported well on grounds of policies that are uncoordinated and fragmented. Secondly, the history of educational development which associated it with extended programmes meant to support the previously disadvantaged students had the consequence of it being misconceptualized amongst academics Policy documents such as New Academic Policy for Programme and Qualifications (RSA MOE 2002) whose focus is student development influenced academics not to view academic development as a programme for them but for students particularly the disadvantaged. This has affected APD less positively. Academic development centres have been marginalized and ASD practitioners have had their roles misunderstood. A clear outcome of this situation is that ASD has not been given the priority and status it deserves in most South African HEIs (D'Andrea, Gosling, Scott and Tyeku, 2002; Gosling, 2008).

In spite of the limited initiatives to develop supporting policies, some attempts to professionalize teaching in higher education in South Africa have been made (CHE 2004d: 10). A good example is the Improving Teaching and Learning Project. The project promoted the improvement of students' learning experiences together with the professionalization of teaching in higher education (CHE2004d:12).

Another initiative with promise is the launch of the Higher Education Staff Development Initiative supported by the Education Training and Development Sectoral Education Training Authority (CHE2004d). Like the Improving Teaching and Learning project, Higher Education Staff Development Initiative

was launched to promote professionalization of the teaching role of the academic in higher education.

The above developments demonstrate that existence of supporting policies and organizations are critical in creating an environment conducive for educational development to take place.

In academic development practice, the question of staff appointed in academic development units is also a factor in successfully contributing to the development of academic work. According to Scott (1998), academic development practitioners have been found to be ill qualified with the majority of them being honours degree holders. However, the Post Graduate Diploma in Higher Education (PGDHE) has been introduced in an attempt to empower educational development practitioners with relevant higher qualifications (Kifoil, 2012). This formal course (PGDHE) gave lecturers recognition as qualified higher education teachers. Such efforts tend to give academic development practitioners credibility and status.

In tracing the trends of ASD in South Africa's higher education system it is relevant to assess how academics responded to the initiatives and the impact it has caused on its success. The literature review turns its attention to this issue.

Studies show that reactions of academics to staff development initiatives were divided (Scott, 1998); Volbrecht, 2003). Scott's (1998) evaluation report highlights some of the reasons why academics did not support ASD.

One of the emerging reasons from the study was that T&LCs lacked capacity to deliver academic development programmes resulting in the programmes being viewed lowly by senior academics. Deans also questioned the credibility of these centres to offer staff development programmes which could be valued by academics (Scott, 1998:12).

Another reason was based on differences on conceptualization of the role of educational development. Mainstream academics held a traditional view of the

80's which focused on supplementary support given to disadvantaged students (Kifoil, 2012:12). Academic staff developers understood their role to be developmental with emphasis on addressing the quality of teaching and learning.

Scott (1998) also notes that conditions created at institutional level constrained staff development initiatives. "University culture and structures marginalized educational development initiatives" (Scott, 1998:5). Policies and institutional conditions such as funding, staffing levels and positions of directors of centres and developers in the university structure are good examples which might constrain academic staff development.

The growth and establishment of staff development has also been affected by the negative attitude of academics towards staff development. This is a consequence of the "research counts discourse" in higher education in South Africa. According to findings by Gosling, "academics valued research over teaching because their identity was based on it apart from gaining recognition, tenure and promotion" (2009:27). Investing one's efforts in developing one's teaching is not associated with tangible dividends. However, some universities have charged their T&LCs with responsibility of awarding academics who distinguish themselves in teaching with Vice Chancellor's Teaching Excellence Awards. Unfortunately these awards are not "quite prized" and are not associated with academic recognition as that given to research (Kifoil, 2012). The relationship between disciplinary research and teaching based research is not appreciated. In South Africa, holding a PhD meant to some that they were automatically "good teachers" (Volbrecht, 2003:185).

Lack of involvement of staff at various levels of the institution was yet another factor. Levels "associated with power and influence" such as deans and senior management left it to junior levels (Scott, 1998:6). An innovation or programme left to juniors becomes a victim of poor implementation because it would lack expected attention, time as well as value in the institution. It is observed that South African educational development trends in the early 2000 lacked impact because of institutional conditions which were unsupportive (Quinn, 2006:216-

217). A good example of these conditions is the status accorded to staff development practitioners. According to Cleggy (2005), the status of educational staff development practitioners is considered “inferior” compared to that accorded to academics. They were treated as “second class teachers” (Cleggy, 2005:149). Given this status the developers lacked influence and a good reputation to bring to bear positive influence on staff development programmes. Volbrecht makes the following comment on the matter:

I am concerned that South African educational development practitioners based in higher education institutions are usually marginalised (2005:589).

The consequence of this marginalization of academic staff developers is likely to be poor development of academic development work in higher education institutions in South Africa.

The literature review on South Africa’s experiences on academic staff development has shown that although the potential for the development of academic professional development exists, there are conditions and factors which constrain the potential. The question of unsupportive and fragmented policies had been identified as a contributory factor, in addition to issues to do with capacity limitations, the research and teaching tension as well as conceptualization of academic staff development among others. These conditions have had a negative impact on the professionalization of teaching in higher education institutions in South Africa.

2.9.2.2 Namibia’s experiences of academic professional development trends

Namibia attained independence on 21 March 1990. Its higher education landscape witnessed the establishment of two universities in a short period of 4 years. The University of Namibia started in 1992 while Polytechnic of Namibia was established in 1994. Both universities faced quality challenges and adopted staff development programmes to address the issue. According to Naris and Ukpere (2010:1081) the Polytechnic of Namibia runs a mentoring programme

for junior academics. This is a formal programme that enables academics to acquire skill associated with values and traditions of academics and effectively managing a productive career in academia. (Ibid:354). The Polytechnic has no central coordinating unit for the mentoring programme. It is done by individual departments. By contrast the University of Namibia has a Teaching and Learning Improvement Unit headed by a Director. The Unit's role is support teaching and learning activities. In addition to academic support the unit partners with other institutions in sharing knowledge, skills and resources. This is also done through scholarly exchange visits. There is potential for APD to have impact in higher education institutions in Namibia. However, there is need to profile it through development of T and LCs that drive scholarship of teaching. That way teaching focused scholarship and university careers will be established.

2.9.2.3 Botswana's experiences of academic professional developments trends

The University of Botswana has developed the Centre for Academic Development. The mandate of the centre is to promote and facilitate the overall development of academic staff and students in the university, thereby improving the academic quality, effectiveness and efficiency of the institution. The Centre Academic Development established the communication and study skills section in 2000 designed to provide students with key competencies for academic and professional life. The communication and study skills course also enhances students' education by promoting critical thinking and skills for lifelong learning. Academic development and support at the university is heavily tilted in favour of student support as opposed to academic support (University U' Botswana, 2007). The lecturer factor as a variable that impacts on student success or failure needs to be put on the agenda of improving quality. The Academic Development Unit should make professional development of academics a priority in order to improve quality teaching and learning in the university.

In summary, the review has highlighted key issues and ideas which provide useful insights on trends of academic professional development in higher education institutions.

First it emerged that academic staff development is viewed as an institutional strategy which can be employed to assist institutions to promote the quality of the student's learning experiences. The teaching academic of the past is increasingly becoming untenable in coping with the diversity of students, greater public accountability and institutional transformation. It is emerging from literature that academic staff development is beginning to develop a greater legitimacy within higher education with its own knowledge and scholarship founded on reflective practice.

In spite of this promise, it emerged that academic professional development suffers from misconceptualization by academics leading to its marginalization in university structures. Literature also addressed the problems (case studies) experienced in establishing academic staff development projects. Academic traditions and practices found in disciplines and departments exert formidable influence on educational staff development initiatives. The research is what counts discourse is a good example which has contributed to the low position given to teaching in universities. As a result, academic professional development has suffered from non recognition leading to poor implementation of programmes. In some instances it contributed to lack of clear career paths for academic practitioners making it an unattractive profession.

It was also apparent from the literature that issues of institutional structures, policies, the institutional environment, leadership and culture can constrain or enable the success of a staff development programme in a higher education environment.

Internationally, trends of academic staff development are similar in spite of different geographical, economic or cultural situations. Unlike the USA, Australia and South Africa it is a requirement in the UK for one to hold a formal postgraduate training to be recruited to teach in a university. Literature shows that possession of a PhD meets recruitment requirements for one to teach in Australia, USA and South Africa.

According to literature this research, culture has resulted in constraining academic staff development in a manner which is not sustainable. In all countries, funding formulas for research and promotion requirements favour research over teaching with the consequence of academics perceiving academic staff development activities as periphery activities. Compared to the USA and South Africa, Australia and the UK appear to have well established academic professional programmes because of the supporting national and institutional policies, structures and associations found in higher education. These are crucial to create enabling conditions for academic development to take place in sustainable manner.

2.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In conclusion, chapter 2 has explored the literature that has informed the questions and investigation going to be undertaken in this thesis. Broadly, the analysis of the literature has considered the institutional conditions, culture and structures which constrain or enable successful implementation of academic staff development programmes in higher education. Arguably, literature provides evidence of the formidable influence exerted on academic staff development initiatives by academic traditions and cultures such as disciplinary research.

International trends extracted from literature have all treated academic staff development as an institutional strategy which can be employed to enhance quality teaching in higher education in a sustainable way.

Chapter 3 deals with the methodologies employed in the data collection and interpretation. Arguments to support and justify choice of research methodologies will also be central to the discussion. This is discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter seeks to highlight the research design selected for the thesis. A clear and concise description of how the study was carried is given. The research design inclusive of philosophical orientation and sampling, data collection methods, research instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis procedures are discussed. The question of trustworthiness as well as ethical considerations of the research enquiry was described in this chapter. The interpretivist paradigm was chosen for this research.

3.2 PHILOSOPHICAL ORIENTATION OF THE RESEARCH

Every research procedure or tool is inextricably embedded “in commitments to particular versions of the world and ways of knowing that the world is made by researchers” (Corbetta 2003:12). The discussion that follows extensively illuminated positions that were going to inform decisions about investigations into academic staff development in higher education institutions in Zimbabwe.

Various research paradigms or traditions exist. However, these are distinguished from one another by contrasting ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions. Terre Blanche and Derrheim (1993) describe paradigms as background knowledge that tells us what exists, how to understand it and most concretely how to study it. Expanding the same argument, Denzin and Lincoln (2005:376) point out that “paradigms dictate, with varying degrees of freedom, the design of the research investigation”.

The implication arising being that different paradigms call for different approaches to research.

Three dimensions make up a paradigm. Terre Blanche and Derrheim describe these succinctly as follows:

Ontology specifies the nature of reality that is to be studied and what is to be known; epistemology specifies the nature of the relation between the researcher (knower) and what can be known and methodology specifies how the researcher may go about practically studying whatever he or she believes can be known (1993:23).

Babbie (1995) expands the debate by arguing that the three dimensions of a paradigm explained above influence one another. In other words, the nature of reality that one wants to study influences the relationship between the researcher and the researched and, in turn, the methods of data collection to be employed. The two main philosophical paradigms in social research, “positivism” and “post-positivism” (Corbetta 2003:12), are complementary. The complementarity of these paradigms can be understood through the argument advanced by Ponterotto (2005). He has written about qualitative and quantitative research using four category system that distinguishes among positivist, post-positivist, constructivist, interpretivist and critical ideological paradigms. According to Ponterotto (2005), the positivist and post positivist paradigms most often underpin quantitative research interests while constructivist-interpretivist and critical ideological paradigms often form the foundation for qualitative research. However, these distinctions are not completely water tight. The post-positivist paradigm can typify the work of some qualitative as well as quantitative researches.

Similarly specific qualitative approaches such as non-positivist, naturalist or interpretivist paradigms (critical theory, constructivism and participatory action research) may incorporate different forms of quantitative data appropriate to the goals of a study. So positivist and post-positivist research paradigms are complementary rather than opposing paradigms (Heppner and Heppner, 2004). Paton describes positivist tradition as follows:

Positivist paradigm relies on pre-defined variables from tightly defined populations, attempting to fit individual experiences and perspectives into predetermined response categories, allowing no room for research objects or variables to help define the direction of the research (1990:14).

An analysis of the paradigm showed that it was amenable to criticism in attempts to construct social reality. First the paradigm is so rigid to the extent that it does not allow researchers to put into consideration any eventualities which may come out from the study which were not pre-planned. Another criticism associated with the positivist paradigm is that it has a technicist element that seeks to control and predict relationships within and between variables and the view that knowledge is absolute with a singular view of reality that is “measurable” through “objective” and “value-free” scientific and qualitative methods (Henning, 2004:17). Accordingly, positivists view social reality as objective and existing independently from or outside of human behaviour and interpretation (Crossman, 2003). As noted earlier, this approach is too scientific and empiricist since it is of the view that reality is ‘measured’ and that casual relationships can be conceived in terms of the interaction of variables (Creswell, 1994:116). This approach would be inappropriate to investigate the research questions and purposes set out in this study since attempts to understand academics’ beliefs and feelings about academic professional development in universities are not within the scope of a positivist framework. According to Sayer (1992), critical realists strongly reject this approach. In contrast to the positivist paradigm, there is post-positivist paradigm which is described by Denzin and Lincoln thus:

In studies shaped by non-positivist paradigms such as critical theory, there will be less emphasis on formal grant proposals, well formulated hypothesis, tightly defined sampling frames, structured interview schedules and predetermined research strategies, methods and forms of analysis (2005:376).

The position emerging is that post-positivist cannot be determinist but is based on a world view which is holistic and that there is no single reality which exists. This arises from the argument that perception varies with the individual and as such many different meanings are possible. For this current research, where participants were expected to articulate their experiences and voice their perceptions in relation to academic professional development in higher education, the researcher chose to operate within one of the post-positivist paradigms namely critical theory. Therefore, the ontological, epistemological and methodological dimensions of critical theory influenced the processes undertaken in this research as described in subsequent sections of the study.

However, Lather (1999:11) cautions that paradigms “must be treated not as clearly defined real entities but only as loose frameworks for guiding research”. The section below discusses details of critical theory paradigm in which this research is underpinned.

3.3 CRITICAL THEORY PARADIGM

3.3.1 Critical theory paradigm in the context of qualitative research tradition

This research is located within the critical theory paradigm as described earlier in chapter 2. The researcher found it appropriate to employ the critical theory paradigm since the purpose of the study is to gain insights into academics’ perspectives on institutional conditions that cause unsuccessful implementation of academic professional development programmes in higher education institutions in Zimbabwe. Denzin and Lincoln (2005:194) states that “the ontology of critical theory is shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethical and gender variations” as well as transformation through the research process itself (Van Ransburg, 2001). In addition, Carr and Kemmis (1996:197) argue that a “critical approach strives to replace one distorted set of practices with another hopefully less distorted set of practices.”

Habermas in Hill-Collins (1990:7) calls this “a critical or emancipatory knowledge interest with reference to an intention to help others emancipate themselves from oppressive ideologies.” The need to pursue individual academics’ perceptions and experiences about academic staff development in higher education and its unsuccessful implementation influenced the researcher’s choice of the qualitative critical theory methodology. Contribution to change in the world may come in the form of awareness raising or recommendations arrived at from the voices of the research which is associated with critical theory. Denzin and Lincoln (2005:206) eloquently put the point so well that the general inquiry aim of critical theory is to “critique and transform, reconstitute and emancipate and training focuses on re-socialisation, empowerment and liberation”.

The transformation agenda in higher education meant to redress inequalities and empower all learners regardless of their varied economic or social status will count

down to nought if strategies are not taken to counter it. Critical theory as a paradigm is suitable for this study which assumes that learners should be developed into critical intellectuals. Given the diversified nature of the new generation of students getting admitted into universities, teaching uncritically using “common sense” notions (Gramsci, 1971) which was adequate for the old generation of students proves limited in terms of effectiveness. The most important dimension of critical theory is its emancipator interest, its purpose being to contribute to change in people’s understanding of themselves and their practices (Waghid, 2000:27). Academic staff development is viewed as an institutional strategy which can bring about empowerment and create consciousness of the inadequacies of the old Oxbridge approach.

In this study, critical theory will be compatible with the objective and purpose of this study. The purpose of critical theory research is to help bring about (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005:194) transformation. Ultimately, critical theory aims to empower academics to improve their situation. As Anderson (2003:6) put it, critical theory “is a theory of and for the subjects of study”. Similarly, from a critical theory perspective, it was expected to find out from academics’ views about institutional conditions and cultures behind the unsuccessful implementation of academic staff development programmes in state universities in Zimbabwe and to develop some possible remedies to the problem. However, critical theory has some limitations.

3.3.2 Limitations of critical theory in the context of qualitative research tradition

Critical theory is said to have some limitations of its own. Copper (1993) points out that since critical theory emphasises speech and words, it in a way eliminates persons of different cultures and those with deficient speech competence from participating. This limitation of critical theory does not affect the current study since all the participants are academics whose medium of instruction is the English Language.

Power relations are another limitation of critical theory. Van Ransburg (2001:8) observes that critical theory can be approached in naive ways and can ironically pursue “unequal power relations as researchers facilitating others’ empowerment against a mutual enemy to retain much power themselves.” The implication is that if a researcher

is not careful, actual interpretations of the researched might be “missed” as a result of researcher dominance.

In this study, such a situation was countered by reassuring respondents about the confidentiality of the data they gave to the researcher. In focus groups, the researcher talked as little as possible so that discussants were given more space to air their views and experiences.

3.4 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study was carried out within the qualitative tradition. The research methodology is based upon the contention that the qualitative approach enables credible investigation into “things in their natural settings attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena (in this case academic professional development) in terms of the meaning people bring to them” (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005:3).

Strauss and Corbin (1990:17) say, “by qualitative research we mean any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification”. In other words qualitative refers to any study which does not make use of numerical data. The information sought “concerns processes, activities, relations and episodes of events and explores relationships, interdependencies and experiences (Sayer, 1992:242). The emphasis is “upon words rather than item numbers and textual analyses predominant” (Morrison, 2002:20). However, Deem (2002:836) indicates that “conducting qualitative studies does not in any way preclude the researchers from counting aspects of their data.” To that extent Deem (2002) is defending the possibilities of using some numerical data in qualitative research.

A more comprehensive definition of qualitative research is presented by Denzin and Lincoln as follows:

A situated activity that locates the observer in the world and it consists of interpretative, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world

into a series of representations such as field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings and memos to the self. A qualitative researcher studies things in their natural settings attempting to make sense of or to interpret phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them (2003:4).

Denzin and Lincoln's (2005) definition is insightful because it characterizes major elements of qualitative research. The definition points out that an object or phenomenon is studied in its 'natural settings and that the researcher will be embedded in the research process in order to make sense and give meaning arising from interpretation of phenomena. The prime goal of studies using the qualitative approach is to describe and understand rather than explain human behaviour and "qualitative researchers attempt to study human action from the perspective of the social actors" (Mouton, 2005:270).

The study chose to work within the qualitative tradition because the aim was to get the data from the subjects themselves, that is, academics, professors, heads of departments, Deans and Directors of Teaching and Learning centres who voiced their experiences related to the persistent unsuccessful implementation of academic staff development in state universities in Zimbabwe. The study was premised on the fact that there was persistent unsuccessful implementation of academic staff professional development programmes in Zimbabwe's state universities and hence its purpose was to find out institutional conditions and cultures which cause it. By employing qualitative methodology, the study sought to expose the different views and perceptions concerning faculty and departmental cultures that constrain effectiveness of academic professional development activities.

The researcher's choice of this paradigm is further influenced by the ontological standing of qualitative approaches that emphasize the existence of multiple realities which require multiple methods to understand them (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003). Another factor which influenced the researcher's choice of the qualitative paradigm is the use of "in-depth descriptions" associated with it. Monton (2005) puts the point so well in describing the primary aim of qualitative researchers as: "to get in-depth (think) descriptions and understanding of actions and events with the aim to understand

social action in terms of its specific context (idiographic motive) rather than attempting to generalise to some theoretical population” (2005:27).

Since the qualitative paradigm is associated with ‘multiple realities’ which also depend on ‘multiple methods’ used to collect ‘in-depth descriptions’, it was found to be a compelling and compatible approach to use in this research project. The views, perceptions and experiences constructed by different groups of academics in different faculties involved in the study were elicited through personal interviews, group interviews, semi-structured questionnaires, and data collection instruments which are compatible with qualitative methodology. The methodology enabled the researcher to conduct in-depth discussions with participants about institutional conditions and culture that persistently constrain or affect successful implementation of academic professional development programmes. Academics were expected to open up and narrate their views, perceptions, experiences and opinions on how they felt the question of academic professional development was promoted in higher education in Zimbabwe’s state universities.

Face-to-face interactions with the participants was likely to make it possible to obtain detailed information on lecturers’ opinions, views and perceptions about factors which constrain them in taking up professional development activities with interest. This promotes Monton’s (2005:640-641) view of qualitative researchers which he describes as having interest in describing the actions of the research participants in great detail to understand phenomena in terms of the actors’ own beliefs, history and context, therefore, operating in the qualitative tradition will enable me to let academics as respondents have a voice, a factor emphasised by critical realists. Accordingly, academics’ context, beliefs and history and the extent to which these influence their perceptions on academic professional development as an innovation that should promote their teaching quality was of interest to the researcher.

The strength of qualitative research methodology in conducting this study lies also in possessing opportunities of building towards a complex and holistic picture. This characteristic of qualitative research methodology is described so well by Cresswell (1998) thus:

An enquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher analyses words, reports, detailed views of information and conducts the study in a natural setting (1998:115).

Given the institutional strategic importance given to academic staff development in higher education, a holistic picture on conditions that affect its successful implementation was expected to be built from analysed information that was collected. According to Patton (1990), it is generally accepted that the research tradition guides the methods researchers use and that decisions need to be made according to the “purpose of the inquiry, the questions being investigated and the resources available” (1990:16). In my view, the qualitative methodology will enable me to pursue both the purpose of the inquiry and the questions being investigated in this study. However, the quantitative method was used to supplement data. Questionnaires were used to collect data from academics. Johnson and Onnegbuzie (2004:3-4), Punch (2005) and Streib, et al. (2011:16) advocate for paradigmatic beliefs that capitalise on the strengths of qualitative and quantitative approaches and to compensate for the weaknesses of each. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000), questionnaire data can be employed in the context of qualitative paradigm to illuminate, confirm or deepen understanding of the narratives “voices” heard during interviews.

However, the vigour, validity and reliability of data collected and analysed using qualitative approaches is contested, particularly when contrasted or seen in opposition to quantitative positivist traditions (Hammersley, (2007b); Whittemore et al. 2001:533-534). Scott (2005) countered this criticism by proposing from a critical realist perspective that researchers must ensure coherence between epistemology, ontology and methodology to ensure validity and some vigour. Another criticism associated with the qualitative research methodology is the fact that research findings might not be value or bias free. The danger exists in which research findings might be coloured by the researcher’s own constructions and beliefs and those of academics that will be sampled for participation in the study. Cousin (2009:32) cautions that research can be “deeply influenced by the researcher’s own positionality”. For that reason, throughout the research, measures was taken to maximise research objectivity by ensuring clarity in relation to bias and value assumptions as well as openness to conflicting evidence.

3.5 CASE STUDY RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is described as a plan that guides the researcher in the process of collecting, analysing and interpreting data. Creswell (20007) describes a research design as a plan that guides the investigation in the process of collecting, analysing and interpreting observations. It is a “logical sequence that connects the empirical data to initial questions and ultimately to its conclusions. It is a logical plan from getting from here to there” (Yin, 2003:20). In short a research design is a plan that a researcher follows from the beginning to the end of the research process.

Bromley (1990:302) defines a case study as “a systematic inquiry into an event or a set of related events which aims to describe and explain the phenomena of interest”. However, a case study may be simple or complex. For example, it may be of a child or a classroom of children or an event of happening (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). In addition, the case study is described as a form of descriptor research that gathers a large amount of information about one or a few participants and thus investigates a few cases in considerable depth (Thomas and Nelson, 2001; Hammersley, Gamm and Fesher, 2000:246). Therefore, in this study, where the objective is to investigate (factors) conditions enabling/constraining conditions that affect the establishment and implementation of academic staff development in higher education two selected case study institutions were studied. The case study approach was employed to gain in-depth information about academic experiences in programmes of academic professional development. It was hoped that, through the use of the case study, considerable data was gathered from a few academics teaching in departments.

Use of a case study research design is compatible with the critical theory perspective because of a number of factors. Tellis (1997) believes that case studies “strive towards a holistic understanding of cultural systems of action”. It was hoped that the study will reflect this because the major objective was to find out from the participants institutional cultural conditions and structures which enable or constrain successful implementation of academic professional development in the two sampled state universities in Zimbabwe. Employing the case study strategy allowed the researcher to collect much data enabling the study to “satisfy the three tenets of qualitative methods namely, describing, understanding and explaining the phenomena of interest” (Tellis,

1997:3). The rich thick data that was collected through interviews, focus group discussions and questionnaires helped the researcher to establish conditions which contribute towards unsuccessful implementation of staff development activities in the two sampled state case study institutions.

Denzin and Lincoln (2005:445) identify three kinds of case studies. Firstly, there is the “intrinsic case study” which they describe as a study undertaken because, first and last, one wants a better understanding of the particular case. In other words, the study is undertaken because of the intrinsic interest of the case not for generalisation or theory formation. Secondly, there is the “instrumental case study” where a case is examined mainly to provide insight into an issue or to draw a generalisation. The case is of secondary interest and it facilitates understanding of something else. Then, thirdly, there is the “multiple or collective case study” where a number of cases are studied jointly in order to investigate a phenomenon, population or general condition. The cases may be similar or dissimilar. They are chosen because it is believed that understanding them would lead to better understanding and perhaps better theorising about a still larger collection of cases. This particular study falls within the intrinsic case study where the researcher believed studying a case that included academics in departments, Professors, Deans and Pro Vice Chancellors (Academic Affairs) was likely to establish conditions that contributed to poor implementation and uptake of academic staff development activities in the two selected state universities.

3.5.1 Advantages (Sustainability) of case studies

Case Studies have the advantage of allowing an intensive study of a single unit or a few units. Thomas and Nelson (2001:283) point out that the “case study’s ultimate worth may be that it provides insight and knowledge of a general nature for improved practice and through the in-depth study of a single case (or a few cases) a greater understanding about similar cases is achieved”. Gamm, Hammersley and Foster (2000) also pointed out that the case study is a form of inquiry which investigates few cases in considerable depth. The study took advantage of this fact and collected data through interviews, focus groups and questionnaires through which thick data was collected about conditions that enabled or constrained successful implementation of academic staff development programmes in the two selected state universities in Zimbabwe.

Crossley and Valliany (1984:197) identify one of the advantages of case study research as its sustainability for research on implementation of educational policies since it can establish the causes of successes and falters of the implementation processes. The case study strategy suits the study which seeks to establish causes of successes or failures in the implementation of academic staff development programmes. The struggle is to use academic staff development as a strategy in institutional transformation geared towards quality higher education for all the learners irrespective of their economic, social or cultural statuses. Hill Collins (1997:204) states that the struggle for institutional transformation “includes those efforts to change discriminatory policies and practice of government schools, the workplace, the media and other social institutions”.

Another advantage of the case study is that it “gives voice to the powerless and voiceless” (Tellis 1997:5). Too many researchers of higher education present studies based on views of Heads of Departments, Deans/professors and Vice Chancellors from the view of those in management, which in a way omit the views and experiences of new appointees and junior lecturers. In this research, through the case study design, junior lecturers in departments were given a voice to articulate their experiences on academic staff development in universities. In turn, the data collected in the process described the findings from the academic’s opinions, views and beliefs about higher education.

3.5.2 Limitations of case studies

However, investigation of a relatively small number of cases and sometimes of only one case so characteristic of case studies has invited criticism as to the rigour and generalizability of qualitative research (Tellis, 1997). Accordingly, Crossley and Vulliamy (1984) argue that the technique is accused of bias because of its lack of rigour in the data collection process and its small population. May and Pope (1995) summarise the most commonly heard criticisms of qualitative research as follows:

- That it is merely an assembly of anecdotal and personal impressions and strongly subjective to researcher bias.

- That it lacks reducibility in that the research is so personal to the researcher that there is no guarantee that a different researcher would come to the same conclusions.
- It lacks generalizability, although it tends to generalize large amounts of detailed information about a small number of settings.

By contrast, Hammersley and Foster (2000:240) argue that the “main concern of case study research is to understand the case studied in itself. It aims to capture cases in their uniqueness rather than to use them as a basis for wider generalizations or for theoretical inferences of some kind.” Accordingly, the objective was to identify, describe, and explain institutional conditions that cause unsuccessful implementation of academic staff development programmes at one or two state universities in Zimbabwe. In the same vein, the researcher was able to describe, understand and explain the reality regarding enabling and constraining conditions that affect successful implementation of staff development programmes, “as described by participants who derive its meaning from socially constructed interactions with their world” (Merriam, 2002).

An attempt has been made to justify use of the case study design by discussing its advantages and disadvantages. The case study approach and critical theory are compatible with a qualitative research tradition; the section below of the thesis makes a description of data collection methods.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

The focus of this study was to explore conditions which enabled or constrained effective implementation of academic professional development in higher education institutions in Zimbabwe State Universities. Collecting and describing academics’ experiences about these conditions was central to the study since it was premised in the critical theory paradigm which is also associated with “dialogical methodologies” (Khotari, 2009:99). The study used interviews (Appendix D), focus group discussion (Appendix 4) and questionnaires (Appendix 5). In terms of structure, interview questionnaire for lecturers (Appendix 1), has seven sections that include conceptualization of APD, attitude of academics towards APD and institutional conditions (context) that influence implementation of APD. These sections sought to gather academic voices with regards to the relevance of APD programmes to academics

and the influence of research on the value and status of teaching in faculties. The group interview questionnaire had seven questions to guide the group discussions. The questions sought to develop conversations among group discussants on academic understanding of APD, structures that support APD and attitudes of academics towards APD practitioners. The questionnaire Appendix 5 has three major sections. The first section covered biographical data; the second was a likert scale while the third provided spaces for write ups or comments. A critical discussion of each of the data collection methods used in this study is undertaken below.

3.6.1 Interview method

The interview method was used as the main data collection method. Schostall (2006:10) defines interviews as having the purpose of enabling knowledge to be gained about people's experiences, concerns, interests, beliefs, values, knowledge and ways of seeing, thinking and acting as such, they are considered to be an essential component of case study research. Some scholars such as Cousin (2009), French (1993), Henning (2004:30-31), Khotari (2009:63-71) and Patton (1990:173-174) have extensively discussed four types of interviews namely, the formal conversational interviews, the structured interview, the semi-structured interview and the unstructured interview. According to Patton (1990:206), the first type is the "formal conversational" interview which is suitable for gaining information from the immediate context by asking questions in the natural course of things. The second type is the structured interview approach (interview guide approach), where the topics and issues to be discussed are predetermined in advance and the interviewer decides the sequence and wording of the questions prior to the interview process (French, 1993:90; Khotari; 2009:97). The third type of interview is the semi-structured interview (Cousin 2009), where the interviewer "is free to alter the wording and ordering of the questions" (Khotari 2009:98) and participants are given considerable freedom to express themselves. Lastly, the fourth type of interview is the "closed quantitative interview" where the respondents are asked predetermined questions and choose their answers from predetermined fixed responses (Patton, 1990).

For this particular research, the researcher settled for the interview guide approach. A semi-structured interview guide was designed which was structured in a format that

reflected research aims and empirical elements of the literature review and the theoretical framework.

Research aims, empirical elements of the literature review and theoretical framework informed and guided the interview guide. The interview guide was structured in a format that gave scope for 'guided conversations' (Yin, 2003:89). Semi-structured interviews were conducted with lecturers, Directors of Teaching and Learning Centres, Deans and Vice Chancellors. Semi structured interviews are compatible with critical theory in that they offer participants the chance to speak out on the issues that concern them on academic professional development and to construct an agenda on matters of critical importance rather than to have researchers imposing their own views on them (Mahlase, 1997:28). The interview provided insight into how participants' perception about academic professional development or teaching and learning was constructed. Developing an understanding of participant's constructions was in keeping with the aim of the research which sought to explore academics' understanding of conceptual frameworks that influenced their attitudes towards academic professional development. Gibbs (2002) debates the importance of recognising the influence of different beliefs, perspectives and knowledge on how people respond and act towards a transformative innovation such as continuing professional development.

Interviews were conducted in February and part of March in 2013, after securing consent of academic participants. At agreement stage e-mails and cell numbers were exchanged to facilitate communication and appointments for interviews. Interviews were conducted by appointment a week before the interview. A day before the appointment day and time, confirmation of appointment was made by the researcher. Interviews were conducted in participants' offices. This was considered ideal for interviewees to express themselves more freely in privacy and familiar environment. Interviews took an hour and they were audio recorded. The researcher also took brief notes during interview. Precautions were taken not to disrupt the narrative and discourse nature of the interview. In Case Study Institution Y, it took a month to secure an interview date with the Vice Chancellor because of his busy schedule.

In interviews, it was important for the researcher to record as much detail as possible (Deem, 2002:840; Khotari, 2009:97). The key focus of the semi structured interviews

was to explore institutional context of both case study institutions. The semi-structured interviews were expected to develop understanding of institutional cultures and policies that enable or constrain academic professional development.

Researchers are warned about respondents who might provide a personal perspective on a case study. However, Morsick and Watkins (1990: 42) argue that higher education institutions have ‘life and existence because of the individual people which make them up so, ‘institutional norms’, culture and discourse need to recognise their influence as “agents who might change others in the way they think, act and learn”.

Therefore, in order to capture detailed sets of notes during interviews, an audio recording cassette was used. According to Cousin (2009) and Tuckman (1994:360-372), this ensures the accuracy and trustworthiness of the data that was collected.

3.6.1.1 Justification for the use of an interview as a data collecting method

A key justification of using the interview method is that it is one of the most effective means of getting in-depth information on any given phenomenon (Henning, 2004). Through the use of semi-structured interviews, respondents were able to express themselves freely since the aim of the study was to find out conditions which affect successful implementation of academic professional development in higher education institutions. In the process, the researcher was able to obtain very full, “rich, thick data” (French, 1994:92) and unique responses from the respondents and this was likely to increase the validity of the findings (Corbetta, 2003). Use of semi-structured interviews is compatible with critical theory which gives participants space and a voice, to express issues that concern them and to construct an agenda on matters of critical importance. Some of the respondents were likely to articulate the constraints through the experiences they encountered in faculty professional development programmes. The interview method gives the interviewer opportunities to get detailed understanding of the respondents’ experiences through asking questions to interviewees that clarify their responses on the spot. According to French (1993:101), the interview method enables participants to put forward their own

views without being constrained by the perspectives and agenda of the researcher.

Borg and Gall (1996:66) say that the semi-structured interview has the advantage of being reasonably objective while still permitting a more thorough understanding of the respondents' opinions and the reasons behind them than would be the case when using mailed questionnaires. Patton (1990) argues that the interview also enables one to 'see' in a person's mind in order to access the perspective of the interviewee on the topic of the interview. Cohen and Manion (1994) claim that the interview can also show that a person likes or dislikes something at the same time revealing how one thinks. However, this is not always easy, since people are sometimes good at hiding their true feelings in an interview. In order to counter this possibility and obtain detailed information from participants, an atmosphere of trust was created by creating an enabling interview environment. Rose (2004:22) argues that once rapport is established, general topics maybe approached in order to enable the participants to reveal their experiences and opinions while allowing individuals to direct the conversation along the pathways. Compared to questionnaires, non-response rate generally remains low because samples can be controlled more effectively as there arises no difficulty of the missing returns (Kothari, 2009:98). However, it has been argued by some scholars that although the interview method has some merits, it also has its own limitations. Some of these are going to be discussed below.

3.6.1.2 Limitations of the interview method

Interviews do have certain limitations. The possibility of "the bias of interviewer as well as that of the respondent" remains a weakness (Kothari, 2009:99). Rose (2001:2) points out that "if the researcher and the researched have too much in common there may be a temptation for the interviewer not to lease out attitudes and behaviours and reasons for them". The implication then is that being too familiar with respondents may tempt the researcher to fill in the gaps of information on her own without interviewing the respondents to clarify responses. On the other hand, the presence of the interviewer on the spot

may “over-stimulate the respondent, sometimes to the extent that imaginary information” (Khotari, 2009:100) just to make the interview interesting.

In order to minimise these limitations, measures taken included ensuring that participants did not feel intimidated. Participants are more likely to co-operate if they feel that the research is worthwhile and they are respected for their contribution. In this study, the bias of the researcher was kept to a minimum through experience gained from the pilot study. The pilot study assisted the researcher to have awareness on the need not to influence participants’ views through reflexion (Denzin and Lincoln 1998). Also the pilot study assisted the researcher to have interviewing skills that facilitated interviewer and interviewee relationship that did not influence data. Given these measures, the bias of the researcher had limited influence on data collected.

Having discussed the merits and demerits of the interview method of data collection, the discussion turns to the focus group interviews which were also used to collect data. The focus group interview method is discussed below.

3.6.2 Focus group interview

The focus group interview is one of the methods used to collect data from participants in this study. A focus group is one of the qualitative research techniques and involves interviews on specific topics with a small group of people. Masaded (2012) succinctly define a focus group as:

A group of interacting individuals having some common interests or characteristics, brought together by a moderator who uses the group and its interview as a way to gain information about a specific or focused issue (Masaded, 2012:66-67).

Focus group discussions were chosen for this research study because transformation of higher education encourages academics, as actors, to write their own experiences about institutional and structural conditions which affect transformation. Also, group

interviews provided opportunities for data to be collected from participants during a limited number of interviews.

Hancock (2002:10) puts the point so well thus “group interviews can be used when limited resources prevent more than a small number of interviews being undertaken.” Focus group interviews rely heavily upon systematic questioning of several individuals simultaneously in a formal or informal setting (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003). As with academic participants, focus group discussions included ‘those who might know’ (Pawson and Tilley 1997:159-160) in order to capture “voices” of those who are in the forefront of driving activities related to academic staff development activities. In case study institution X, five group discussants were identified comprising 3 chairpersons, a coordinator of postgraduate studies and a teaching development practitioner. In this group one was a woman and lecturing experience ranged between 5 years to 13 years.

In case study institution Y, all group discussants were chairpersons who were members of the university Teaching and Learning Committee. In this group, two were women and their lecturing experience ranged from 3 years to 15 years. In both case study institutions, discussants were identified on the basis of interest in the study apart from their responsibilities linked to academic staff development in departments.

The researcher placed participants for the focus group in formal settings. The method gave participants an opportunity to add their voice to the issue of academic professional development in higher education institutions in Zimbabwe. However, “the intent of focus groups is not to infer, but to determine the range, not to make statements about population but to provide insights about how people perceive a situation” (Masaded, 2012:64). In order to improve the dependability and trustworthiness of the data collected, “focus group interviews should be used with other data collection techniques (Thomas and Nelson, 2001:337).

In this study, data from focus groups were triangulated with data collected using personal interviews and semi-structured questionnaires.

3.6.2.1 Advantages of the group interview

Some advantages associated with the group interview have been identified by some scholars. Thomas and Nelson (2001:36) note that focus group discussion “can be an efficient data collection technique because the researcher can gather information about several people in one session”. Marczak and Sewell (2007:3) also noted that focus group interviews “provide data more quickly and at a lower cost than if individuals are interviewed separately”. Given limited funding, the use of focus group interviews might enable collection of adequate data economically. Focus groups also provide quality controls because participants tend to provide checks and balances on each other and can counter false or extreme views (Thomas and Nelson, 2001:337). Masaded (2007:66) on the other hand also point out that people naturally interact in focus group discussions and that helps to increase the pace of the data.

Focus group interviews also allow the researcher to interact with respondents and that allows for clarification; follow up questions and probing (Marczak and Sewell, 2007). In addition, focus group interviews allow the researcher to gain information from non-verbal responses to supplement or even contradict verbal responses. Use of focus group interviews is also emphasized by critical theorists because data is reflected in the respondents’ own words and deeper levels of meaning can be identified (Thomas and Nelson, 2001; Marczak and Sewell, 2007). In this study, focus group interviews were beneficial. Rich data was collected that corroborated or contradicted data collected through interviews and questionnaires. There is clear evidence of this in chapter 4. Given these advantages, collection of detailed rich data from group interviews in connection with conditions that affect implementation of academic professional development in higher education institutions was likely. However, there are some limitations associated with the focus group interview method. These limitations are raised below.

3.6.2.2 Disadvantages of a focus group interview

One limitation noted by Thomas and Nelson (2001) of the focus group interview is that “some may be reluctant to state their views in public or there

may be power struggles in the group and this may spoil the discussion (2001:337). Marczak and Sewell (2007) have summarised the limitations of focus group discussions as follows:

- Interviewer has less control of what information will be produced and this results in the production of chaotic data whose analysis is difficult.
- Moderator may knowingly or unknowingly bias results by providing cues about what types of responses are desirable.
- Small members and convenience sampling severely limit the ability to generalize to larger populations.
- Uncertainty about accuracy of what participants say and results may be biased by presence of a very dominant or opinioned member and more reserved members may be hesitant to talk (Marczak and Sewell, 2007:4).

In this study, group discussants in both case study institutions were free to express their views independently with a lot of interest. However, in case study institution X discussants portrayed superiority of their disciplines in the debates in some instances. However, the researcher was quick to moderate the discussion to remain on focus. Also in this study, the researcher had reasonable control of group discussion through guided questioning, a skill developed through pilot study. In order to minimise these limitations and to increase trustworthiness and dependability of the data collected through triangulation of data from focus groups with data collected through other data collection methods namely personal interviews and questionnaires. The questionnaire method is one of the data collection methods used in this study and discussed below.

3.6.3 Questionnaire method

The semi-structured questionnaire method is the survey method used to collect data. Semi-structured questionnaires are among the range of qualitative methods of data collection (Thomas and Nelson, 2001). French (1993:66) also highlights that “if you want to learn about people’s deepest thoughts on some topic a semi-structured

interview would almost certainly be more suitable.” Questionnaires are used to collect data from academics in the sample for this study. In this study, the response rate was 100% since participants completed the questionnaire in the presence of the researcher. However, interpretations of the responses were limited because there was no provision for follow up questions although write up space gave respondents opportunities to comment or explicate. Since the questionnaire method was employed to supplement data collected through the interview method as the main data collecting tool, the limitation has reduced influence on consequent data collected.

3.6.3.1 Advantages of questionnaire method

It is argued that the questionnaire is a relatively non-reactive technique. In other words, lack of face to face contact between the researcher and participants reduces psychological and social influences (French, 1993:88). The questionnaire method is also associated with a high response rate (Carbetta, 2003) and it provides explanations but not interpretations of the questions (Cousin, 2009).

3.6.3.2 Disadvantages of the questionnaire method

Questionnaires are known to have limitations where information gathered is rather superficial (French, 1993:88). In some instances, participants may not answer all questions. In order to minimise contamination of the responses to the questionnaire, respondents filled in the questionnaire there and then at the university. Such a measure also curbs sharing of information by respondents. According to French (1993:88), the questionnaire limits opportunities for clarification or rewording. This is a major limitation of the questionnaire method. To address the limitation, the questions were presented in such a way that the required detail was elicited from the participants.

3.6.4 Documentary data

Institutional documentation on academic staff development was planned in this study as one of the research tools to be employed. It is argued that documentary data creates a situation to be explored “from a material stand point” (Corbetta, 2003:234).

The objective of documentary data was to corroborate data collected through semi-structured interviews. The argument is that documentary data on academic professional development extracted from the institution will “illuminate people’s narratives” thereby “deepening meaning from the perspectives presented” (Musson, 1998:16). The composition of the documents that were consulted was made up of strategic plans, institutional policy documents and information archived in Teaching and Learning Centres. Securing of institutional documents on staff development was not a problem because permission was negotiated through contact persons such as Directors of Teaching and Learning Centres.

Although institutional documents are considered to be “without bias” because they are sources of information that experience researcher independence, their interpretation might suffer from researcher interpretation. Freebody (2003:182) put the argument so well thus “documents are written representations and as such are ‘linguistic and symbolic objects’ whose meaning is given by those who read and give interpretation to the document.

The discussion has attempted to describe various data collection instruments that were used in the study. The discussion below turns to the pilot study which is a trial and testing process meant to determine the accuracy of the questionnaires.

3.7 THE PILOT STUDY

A pilot study was undertaken as an exploratory stage to test data collection instruments namely questionnaires (Appendix 5) interview (Appendix 1) and focus group questionnaire (Appendix 5) as well as the research procedures.

The trial was meant to enhance the accuracy of the questionnaire (Appendix 5) as well as the logistics of the fieldwork which might have been overlooked in construction of

the questionnaire and the research process. Yin (2003:80) points out that “methodologically the work at the pilot sites can provide information about the relevant field questions and about the logistics of the field of enquiry.” Through encouraging participants to be critical on the “clarity” and “attractiveness” of the questionnaire (Appendix 5) (French1993:86), the resultant experience will improve the instruments’ accuracy prior to undertaking the study. Expanding on the same argument, Bennet, Glatter and Le‘Vlacic (1993:175) also highlight that “trying out an interview schedule (Appendix 1) on a sample of respondents with similar characteristics to those of the intended population may quickly reveal gaps in the logical sequence of questions or the incomprehensibility to the respondent of the wording.”

The researcher’s university was used for the pilot study. The university is one of the ‘new’ universities that have been established as a result of the higher education reform and expansion programmes of the 2000 and 2010 period.

The researcher’s institution has been chosen for pilot work because it is ‘convenient geographically’ but also respondents, as the researcher’s colleagues, were likely to be “cooperative and accessible” (Yin, 2003:79). Another reason for choosing the researcher’s university was that it had adopted academic professional development as a strategy which could empower lecturers in the transformation agenda of the institution. A centre for professional development headed by a Director has been opened. It has been in operation for the past two years. The director of the centre and 2 academics from across each of the 4 faculties were interviewed for purposes of the pilot study. The plan used a convenience sampling approach in selecting the 8 academic participants for the pilot study. The approach ensured that participation of those “who might know” (Pawson and Tilley, 1997:160) was selected. So piloting of the semi-structured interview questionnaires (Appendix 1) involved not only academics but those who have responsibility for the promotion of teaching and learning in the institution such as the Director of the Teaching and Learning Centre (Appendix 2).

3.8 SAMPLING STRATEGY

For purposes of this study, a multi-case study approach was applied. Adopting a multi-case study approach enabled the researcher to capture influence of the variables in

universities (Dean, Fraser and Ryan, 1998:48) on academic professional development. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2005), a cross case analysis illuminates through comparison the differences and common experiences that can be identified in the study.

Information contained in the Southern African Regional Universities Association (SARUA, 2011) shows that Zimbabwe has nine State Universities. Each university has a website. The researcher confirmed these websites with the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Website. Information on the websites was used to develop the research plan. Analysis of the information on the websites indicates that there are essentially three state universities which can be labelled old and established while the remainder (six) fall under new universities category.

The new universities were built in response to higher education policy reforms which responded to the transformation agenda (Bloom, Canning and Chan, 2006). However, all State universities face serious constraints: unfavourable student/lecturer ratio and student/computer ratios, shortage of teaching and learning resources and the juniorisation of academic staff due to the economic meltdown of 2007 to 2011 (SARUA, 2009: 43). Although state universities experience similar constraints it is acknowledged that transformation in higher education particularly academic professional development appears to occur in institutions with varied contexts in terms of their history, age, goals and vision. Achieving homogeneity in such circumstances is not easy (French, 1993:59).

For purposes of this study, the researcher selected two case study universities, one representing the 'old university group' and the other the 'new universities category'. A university from each category was chosen for the study. Convenience sampling was used to select participants from among academics each case study institution. The two institutions provided the context through which the conditions of each case would be defined (Cohen et al., 2000:282) and investigated for purposes of this study.

At this planning stage the influence of the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education on universities was borne in mind. The Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE) is responsible for quality assurance of higher education. In response to

ZIMCHE's influence on attitudes and approaches to professional development the researcher took cognisance of its possible influence in future research analysis.

An attempt is made to give some detail about each case study institution below.

3.8.1 Case study (X University)

X University is an institution which represents the traditional 'old' university." Three state universities fall under the "old" established universities group. These are universities opened between 1957 and 1975.

All the three universities were approached. The one which showed mutual cooperation and interest to participate was selected. So, factors such as earlier supportive written response to participate in the study influenced selection. Interest in sharing experiences in Academic Professional Development practice was also a key factor in sampling an "old established" university for participation. According to French (1993), respondents "uninterested may be unreliable or drop out" and those showing interest might be "more reliable than those not interested" (1993:60).

Once consent to conduct the study in one of the old university was secured, the following information using the University's Website and SARUA 2012 was used to describe the case study institution.

- Academic staffing data
- Number of faculties
- Information of the Teaching and Learning Centre

3.8.2 Case Study (Y University)

Y University belongs to the group of "new universities."

There are six new state universities in Zimbabwe. These were established through the Zimbabwe policy of higher education devolution between 1990 and 2005.

All the six new state universities were approached. The following factors were used in selecting the case study institution to represent new universities:

- early response to the request to participate in the research
- interest in sharing APD experiences.

According to French (1993), participants “uninterested may be unreliable or dropout” thereby compromising the research process. So those showing interest might be “more reliable”.

Once support and consent agreement was secured from the prospective participating case study institution, information from the University’s Website and SARUA (2012) was used to describe the case study institution. Among other issues the following will deserve attention:

- Information on the Teaching and Learning Centre
- Academic staffing data
- Number of Faculties

The sampled case study institution is called Y University in order not compromise its anonymity.

3.9 PARTICIPANTS

3.9.1 Academics, Directors of Teaching and Learning Centres and Deans

In this study participants were selected from academics. Academics considered best able to answer (French, 1993:57) or to provide information were selected including deans, chairpersons and directors of Teaching and Learning Centres. These are actors who are directly involved with the development of academic development practice.

Purposive sampling which belongs to the non probability sampling design was used. Given limitations of time, due to the researcher’s full time employment, as well as limited resources, the design is “considered cheaper and easier to use” (French, 1993:66). Fogelman (2002:98) makes the distinction between ‘probability sampling’ and ‘non probability sampling’. The distinction is that probability sampling is associated with researcher control which is systematic while non probability sampling has no researcher control and is less systematic. Through purposive sample it will be important to ensure that participation of those ‘who might know’ (Pawson and Tilley, 1997:160) is ensured rather than attempting “to reproduce the characteristics of the

population in full” (Corbetta, 2003:268). Consequently, each case study institution had participants obtained through purposive sampling. Also through the sampling process, the researcher achieved consistency and comparability through including a range of significant variables among participants. According to Ackrlind (2005:9), attending to key variables would ensure that a “range of meanings within the sample will be representative of the range of meanings within the population”. In this study the variables below were considered crucial in sampling:

- Gender
- Discipline of the academic
- Teaching experience
- Academic professional development experience

Inclusion of such key variables of the academic population ensures that the ‘voices from below’ (Rose, 2004:11) will be heard and accepted. However, it was not the researcher’s intention to replicate all the features of the academic population (Corbetta, 2003) in respect of the academic participants in this study.

However, French (1993:60) notes that “participants are always lost” through lack of interest or failure to turn up for an interview. In order to ensure participation of participants in each case study institution the researcher worked through heads of Teaching and Learning Centres as key contact persons of each case study institution.

A purpose sample of 6 interviews with academics and 2 deans from each case study institution was conducted. The Director of the Teaching and Learning Centre as well as the Vice Chancellor of each case study institution was selected since these are the key actors in the implementation of academic professional development. A combined total of 20 interviews from both case study institutions were made. Through this sample size, critical participant characteristics were covered in order to promote representativeness of the population under study.

Table 3.1 below shows participants that were sampled through purposive sampling in each case study institution. Case study institutions are referred to as University X (representing the “old university group”) and University Y (representing the “new university group”) to ensure anonymity of institutions. In university X academics who

showed interest in the subject and those who felt that the study had relevance to promoting quality were selected. Out of the six sampled academics, two were women. Disciplinary focus as a basis of sampling academics included two from science and mathematics, one from commerce and one each from agriculture and Education. Sample characteristics represented gender and teaching disciplines found in faculties. Similar procedures were followed in University Y although academics showed more interest in the subject. A formal course on HED run by the T&LC explains academics' interest. Participating deans from each case study institution were selected by negotiation after addressing all the Deans of Faculties, Directors of Teaching and Learning Centres as well as Vice Chancellors of both institutions formed part of the sample since they are key drivers of APD in their institutions.

Table 3.1 Sampled participants per case study institution

Participants	University X	University Y	Total
VC	1	1	2
Deans	2	2	4
Director Teaching and Learning Centre	1	1	2
Academics	8	8	16
Total	12	12	24

According to Corbetta (2003:267), it would merely be fanciful and unattainable to be more inclusive across the whole population.

In order to collect data from the interviews, the researcher tape recorded interviews. Two tapes were used in this study, one for each case study institution. Each academic participant including the Director of a T&LC and the Vice Chancellor of each case study had an hour of interview recording. Also group discussions had an equivalent time of interview time that was recorded. Before recording, the researcher explained to the participants that a tape record was going to be used and its significance in the data collection was explained. Most academic participants appreciated use of the tape because the majority of them are active researchers.

Tape recording the interview data ensures collected data will be credible and robust with no bias (Hoepfl, 1997:13-14). Cousin (2009:37) discusses the efficacy of the whole transcript approach, emphasizing note-taking from recordings as an alternative approach that is equally robust. Tape recording participants' stories raises the critical issue of ethical considerations and access. An attempt to discuss this aspect is made below.

3.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS AND ACCESS

Ethical considerations are issues of "a matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others" (Cohen et al., 2000:156). Encroaching into unwelcome questions may be experienced when the researcher seeks data relating to respondents' professional lives. Expanding on the discourse Scott (1996) recommends that in open democratic research, participants and institutions must give their informed consent to take part in the research.

Since two case study institutions were involved in collection of data, ethical consideration covered both case study institutions. There was the participation of case study institutions and participation of individuals. Given this context, the implication was that the researcher's position was that of a guest of two "related worlds."

In order to safe-guard the rights of the researched, in this particular study permission was sought from management of both case study institutions. The researcher negotiated access within a framework which has clarity on issues of confidentiality and anonymity. The purpose of the study and the procedures to be employed were explained to key informants such as academics, Directors of Teaching and Learning Centres and Deans. Scott (1996) argues that researchers are faced with the dilemma of the rights of both the researcher and the researched. The ethical clearance certificate (Appendix 13) was signed by the participants and counter signed by the researcher to signal consent. Consequently, the research's ethical concern is to ensure that academics experienced 'freedom from coercion' (William, 2005:345).

Each case study institution was visited to secure consent of agreement through negotiation. The purpose of the research and ethical considerations were presented.

According to Cohen et al. (2005:53), this stage of “access and acceptance” is significant since it affords the researcher ‘the best opportunity for researchers to present their credentials and establish their ethical position’. The negotiation meetings were concluded by each participating case study institution providing their consent by signing a letter of agreement. The privacy, anonymity and confidentiality of respondents must be guaranteed (Simons, 1984; Babbie, 1995). For anonymity’s sake, real names of case study institutions are not used. Instead pseudo names are used. Similarly, questionnaire respondents were not asked to write their names on questionnaires.

For ethical reasons, therefore, all interviews and participants including those for focus group discussions were provided with informed consent statements (for a copy see appendices C and Appendix D) that states clearly the purpose of the study, that their participation is supposed to be voluntary, that they can discontinue their participation at will and that their answers will be held in strictest confidence. This is consistent with the recommendation of Scott (1996:30) that “in an open and democratic research, participants and institutions must give their informed consent to take part in the research and individuals must be consulted and agree on what data are to be collected and included in the research”. Expanding the discourse, Flick (1999:42) observes that “one problem with informed consent is that participants may not be familiar with the terminology of the research”. It is envisaged that terminology ambiguity might be identified and corrected at pilot stage. However, since academics are the key participants who are involved in academic professional development, the question of unfamiliarity with terminology was expected to be limited.

The ethical consideration and processes discussed above received formal committee approval in order to proceed within the guidelines of the ethical research policy of the University of South Africa. Once ethical considerations have been taken care of, the issue of getting access takes its turn. It has its own demands. An attempt to discuss these is made below.

3.11 RESEARCH PROCESS

3.11.1 Negotiating access for data collection

Access and entry are sensitive aspects of qualitative research. In order to achieve these aspects a researcher must establish trust, rapport and authentic communication patterns with participants. The research process is an attempt to discuss the procedures that were undertaken through the substantive project.

At the first level, securing ethical approval by the University of South Africa's research ethical committee is a requirement that was satisfied before the research process was undertaken including the pilot study. The researcher approached all the nine state universities to facilitate with the research project. Two universities namely University X (representing old universities) and University Y (representing new universities) that expressed the most interest after a buy in of the study were chosen. Goodwill and interest in the project determined selection of the two case study institutions. Given the scope of the study, it would be unpractical to include all the nine state universities in the sample. Composition of state universities can be made up of two categories: the old established universities (with their rich historical experiences and cultures) and the new universities (with their transformational backgrounds and challenges). The research process selected one case study institution from each category in order to deepen understanding of academic professional development in state universities in a more holistic way. Selection of case study institutions was discussed in detail in section 3.8 of this chapter.

To succeed in qualitative research, some scholars suggest that an investigator must command certain skills such as being able to "ask good questions and interpret the answer" being a good listener and "not being trapped by one's own ideologies or perceptions" but being "adaptive and flexible so that newly encountered situations can be seen as opportunities not threats" and "being sensitive and responsive to contradicting evidence" (Yin, 2003:59) and (French 1993:68). Emphasising a related research process issue, Cohen et al. (2000:54) advance an argument on the significance of obtaining 'access and acceptance' through 'goodwill and cooperation'.

In order to establish access and acceptance, the researcher visited case study institutions with the purpose of identifying contact persons preferably a Director of Teaching and Learning Centre or anyone assigned by the university management. Through the contact person, visits to the institutions were arranged with the purpose of establishing a working research relationship that is positive and beneficial to conducting the study. This stage was important in order to establish a 'social situation' in which participants would "voluntarily give their time to help" (French, 1993:95). The other purpose of the visit was to discuss the aims of the research to ensure that the participating institution understood the overall objective of the study. Related critical issues such as access, research process including ethical considerations were discussed under the visit. These aspects have been discussed earlier in detail under relevant sections of this chapter (sections 3.8 and 3.10). The researcher also gained an understanding of the institutions' academic professional development priorities within the backgrounds of the participating universities.

Once agreements were secured, data collection in the two case study institutions commenced. In order to minimise variation, collection of data was done concurrently over forty five days between the two case study institutions. Through the contact person nominated by the participating institution, the researcher secured suitable venue for the interviews as well as time to collect data. The researcher was responsible for sampling participating academics from various faculties. A strategy of voluntary participation by participants was employed. Contact persons were not involved in sampling respondents since their choices could lead to bias. Cohen et al. (2000) emphasize the point so well by arguing that roles and perceptions of key participants might influence respondents leading to distortion.

Through the contact persons, Deans and Chairpersons were approached by the researcher to engage with individual academics to be involved in the study. The researcher was practically involved in the process of negotiating access and participation by academics in each case study institution. Such a practical arrangement gave the researcher an opportunity to explain the purpose of the project to academic participants. Also other significant factors that were considered in successful sampling of participants included gender that had to be addressed as a factor in coming up with a cohort of academics.

The researcher conducted interviews in venues associated with academic professional developments of the case study institutions. In order to drive to the optimum out of the interview process, the researcher created an interviewing environment that was conducive for the researcher to be immersed in the institutional environment of each case study institution for purpose of understanding educational development practice of each university (Khotari, 2009). Each interview was audio recorded with the full agreement of participating interviewees. As discussed earlier, the actual interview was preceded by a discussion in which the researcher explained the aims of the research, issues of confidentiality and other ethical considerations. A signed letter of agreement by the participants signalled consent. The critical question of data analysis procedure is discussed below.

3.12 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

This particular section explores data analysis techniques that were employed in the study. It is argued that qualitative research methods “produce a lot of data and the researcher has to impose some form of order onto the data if it is to make any sense and contribute to our understanding of the research problem” (Deem, 2002:846). This suggests that data collected using qualitative methods should be organised for it to make sense since it is “mixed up”. It is argued that making sense out of qualitative data is achieved through data analysis. A range of analytical strategies (Cohen et al., 2000: 294-295) was employed to ensure in depth insights through critical engagement with the emerging discourse. Miles and Huberman (1994) outline the common features of qualitative data analysis as coding of field notes, noting reflections of other remarks in margins, sorting and sifting through materials to identify similar phrases, relationships and common consequences, isolating patterns, and processes, commonalities and differences and taking them back to the field in the next round of data collection; gradually elaborating a small set of generalisations that cover consistencies discerned in the database and confronting those generalisations with a finalised body of knowledge in the form of constraints and theories. For purposes of analysing data in this study, these ideas were used to assist the researcher to code the raw data from interviews and focus group discussions in order to come up with data sets. For a start, data was scrutinised for “patterns of choice” which identify the frequency with the themes from the literature.

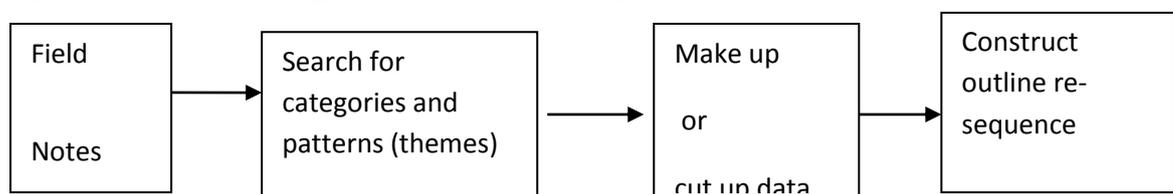
For the treatment of more elaborative narratives such as the data from interviews, focus groups and life histories, Johnson (1998) suggests a different approach since the data is more bulky and contains more essential details. In addition, the data lacks any order needed for analysis since participants may jump from one topic to another and vice-versa.

Analysis of data is inescapably a selective process (Miles and Huberman, 1994:55) with coding and classifying being the means by which such selection and data reduction can be effected. Consequently the data was ordered and reduced. Ordering was done in terms of the objectives and the research questions of the study (Ryan, 2003). In ordering and reducing data from elaborate narratives, the following steps suggested by Ryan (2003) were used:

1. Re-reading the research's objectives and research questions.
2. Carefully reading a number of interviews, focus group discussions or narratives that will be processed. Markers used to highlight particular remarks. Also margins to define topics will be used.
3. Key words that belong to a certain topic in the sub-categories that have been developed under and above will be listed, then all qualitative was data coded in this way (Ryan, 2003:6).

Data collected from focus groups and interviews were treated to this approach. A model suggested by Wainwright (1997) summarises a common approach to qualitative data analysis adopted in treating data in this study:

Figure 3.1 Wainwright's (1997) model to qualitative data analysis



(Adopted from Wainwright, 1997:12)

The above model practically demonstrates that discovering themes is at the heart of qualitative data analysis.

Ryan (2000) denotes themes as abstract, often fuzzy, constructs which investigators can identify before, during and after data collection (Ryan, 2000:2). On the other hand Johnson (1998) identified two sources of themes as deductive and inductive sources. Deductive codes are themes that are developed before examining the current data. These are referred to as “*priori codes*” (Johnson, 1998:36). In other words, the researcher decides to use a set of already existing codes or themes for his data. Sources of such themes are review of the literature, the characteristics of the topic, common sense constructs, or the researcher’s values, the theoretical orientation and personal experiences with the subject matter (Strauss and Quinn, 1997). In short, these are categories or themes that emerge from the theories or the literature one uses. The positivist research paradigms discussed earlier in this chapter (section 3.2) are compatible with the deductive codes.

On the other hand, inductive codes or themes, according to Johnson (1998:4), are “developed by the researcher through the direct examination of the data”. In the social sciences, researchers in the qualitative tradition infer themes from the data and describe it as “open coding” (Ryan, 2003:2). Emerging themes will be examined and compared to the theoretical framework. This approach, according to Cohen et al. (2000:295), “transcends the rather artificial boundaries which the items themselves imply”. Since the research project falls in the qualitative tradition it is compatible to inductively identify themes from the data.

According to Ryan (2003), a number of techniques exist which may be used in identifying themes in qualitative data. First there is the word based technique (such as noting word repetitions) which involves an analysis of key words in the text. It is less labour intensive and can be used with complex texts such as the words of Shakespeare or the Bible as well as with simple short answers to open ended questionnaires. Another technique is referred to by Ryan (2003) as the pawing through the data approach where investigators identify all text passages that are related to a major theme cut them out and sort them into sub thematic categories. This approach is highly recommended for identifying major themes.

Yet another technique identified by Ryan (2003) is the intentional analysis of linguistic features of the data. These may include metaphors, transitions or connectors. Last but

not least, there is the careful reading of larger blocks of text where the researcher may compare and contrast, look for social science queries or search for missing information.

Hills (2003:1) suggest a sequence to be followed in analysis of data. The first step he suggests is to prepare data for analysis. This implies identification of data which has been collected for each research question. The second step involves referring to the research questions. In other words, addressing the aims of the study as well as the issues involved. The third and final step refers to a review of literature. The question is who said what about the research questions and whose work is relevant, contradicting or matching will be explored. The table adopted from Hills (2003) furnished below reflects the sequence discussed above.

Table 3.2 Hills’ (2003) sequence of handling qualitative data analysis.

Table	Questions to guide the analysis process
Prepare data for analysis	What data has been collected for each research question or objective?
Go back to research questions	What did the study aim to do? What are the issues involved?
Go back to literature review	Who said what about your research focus? Whose work seems most important? Does your data seem to match/ contradict the work of others?

(Adapted from Hills 2003:1)

The above table again attempts to show the sequence that was followed in the analysis of data in discovering answers to different successive questions.

The above discussion has described treatment of data from elaborative narratives such as interviews and focus group discussions. Treatment of data from open-ended questions is attempted below.

According to Johnson (1998), there are several slightly different steps to be followed in the analysis of answers to open-ended questions as compared to the analysis of more elaborative narratives.

The first step in treating answers to open-ended questions is to list the answers as they are provided and then reading the answers carefully line by line remembering the purpose of the question. In the process of reading, rough categories of answers that seem to belong together is made and these are coded. As a second step, all the answers were listed again but that was per code so that the researcher got a short list. Themes were inferred from all the answers and these were finally cut and pasted according to identified themes. This study used constant comparative analysis (Carey 1995:491) Morgan 1993:116). Notes from the interview transcripts and additional notes from the field journal were coded. In this study coding process was done by going through the interview transcripts and attributing a code to sentences and paragraphs. These codes represented an idea or theme with which each part of the data was associated. These codes were then written next to the relevant section of the transcript. After coding the transcript, the document was then highlighted, cut and pasted. The name of the participant who was interviewed, the code pertained to and the line numbers from the transcript were included in each coded section. This approach assisted in locating information to the original to provide additional contextual details. The quality of data analysis depends on repeated, systematic searching of the data (Hammersley 1981). In attempt to achieve this, repeated coding was performed to receive interpretations, in the light of new data gathered, until no new insights were being gleaned (Riley 1990). In addition, member checking was done in each case study institution. Once coding is completed, the codes that need common elements were merged to form categories (Strauss and Corbin 1990). The categories were then clustered around each research question which the categories contributed to addressing or answering. A list was then compiled of categories that related to each research questions. Once all the research questions had been allotted input from the categories, the information pertaining to each question was examined and reviewed to compile a report.

However, there are challenges associated with the analysis of qualitative data. Hills (2003) outlines the following challenges: the volume of data, data collected may vary

in relevance; no simple facts and figures and last but not least the need to identify themes/ patterns in order to develop analysis.

While qualitative study approaches lead to findings which are limited in terms of generalizability, the case study does provide an opportunity to engage in a discourse about academic professional development in higher education. Academics were given the opportunity for their voices to be heard and in the process add to the increasing body of knowledge about educational development through further illumination and interpretation of collected data. Although qualitative data can be limited in terms of generalizability, its trustworthiness should be guarded through credible measures. The question of trustworthiness of findings is discussed below.

3.13 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Issues of validity and reliability concern qualitative researchers as they do with quantitative researchers. However, under qualitative research the question of validity takes on a different meaning. This arises since, through qualitative research knowledge and knowledge construction, involves the views of the researcher and that of the researched (Unisa Learning connection, 2003). In the reconceptualization of validity in qualitative research, researchers are challenged to demonstrate that they have been rigorous and ethical in conducting their research. In this study participants were requested to sign the ethical clearance certificate (Appendix13) to signal their consent. Lincoln and Guba (1985) point out that while positivists talk about validity and reliability, naturalist inquiry is concerned about trustworthiness which includes credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. In this study, some of the measures taken to enhance legitimacy and rigour have been discussed.

3.14 CREDIBILITY

Hoepfl (1997:13) points out that one way to heighten credibility in case studies involves “making segments of the raw data available for others to analyse and also use of “member checks” in which respondents are asked to corroborate findings. In order to facilitate corroboration, audio taped interviews and focus group interviews of the study as well as typed transcripts of raw data including sample of answered questionnaires

were presented for scrutiny to other readers and assessors. Lincoln and Guba (1985) also recommend the use of multiple methods for improving the credibility of findings and interpretations produced through naturalistic inquiry.

A distinctive feature of the case study is the use of multiple methods and different sources of evidence which is a major strength to establish validity (Keen and Packwood, 1995; Mouton, 2005; Yin, 2003:98). Use of multiple sources of data helps to deal with the problem of establishing the construct validity and reliability of case study evidence (Yin, 2003:89). The findings or conclusions in case studies are likely to be more convincing and accurate based on several different sources.

Triangulation is one form of multiple methods which the study used to minimise uncertainty. According to Mouton (2005), triangulation is generally considered to be one of the best ways to enhance validity in qualitative research. Mouton (2005:277) also points out that triangulation helps to achieve credibility in a study where “compatibility between the constructed realities that exist in the minds of the respondents and those that are attributed to them” are enhanced.

For purposes of this study, two types of triangulation suggested by Denzin (1989) were employed. First was data sources where academics and directors of teaching and learning centres were sources of thick and rich data. Second methodological triangulation where multiple methods to study the research problem employed interview, focus group method and semi-structured questionnaire method. Denzin (1989), however, suggests three outcomes that may result from triangulation, namely convergence, inconsistency and contradiction. This way triangulation reduces bias whatever the outcome.

In a similar note, Cohen and Manion (1980) have outlined the advantage of the multi-method approach thus:

Exclusive reliance on one method therefore may bias or distort the researcher’s picture of the particular slice of reality he/she is investigating. He/she needs to be confident that the data generated are simply artefacts of one’s specific method collection. And this

confidence can only be achieved as far as narrative research is concerned when different methods of data collection yield substantially the same results. Furthermore, the more the methods contrast with each other, the greater the researcher's confidence (Cohen and Manion, 1980:208).

Use of multiple methods in qualitative research is bound to yield some contradictions. Yin (2003:61) points out that "a researcher should be able to accommodate unexpected contradiction in the findings instead of sticking to substantiated preconceived positions and if the quest for contrary findings can produce documentable rebuttals, the likelihood of bias will have been reduced."

3.15 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology was anticipated to have some limitations. It was acknowledged that use of case study approach rendered the findings ungeneralizable. The findings cannot be applicable to a wider population. Also, as a full time employee with pressure of work, it was not practically possible to deal with all cases of the study conclusively.

Another limitation was use of taped interviews approach. Respondents could have been uncomfortable about their responses being taped fearing management. The fear could have had the effect of getting and providing 'safe' information from participants that did not reflect the accurate position.

A third potential limitation relates to the narrow scope of the study's participants drawn only from sampled state universities that have Teaching and Learning Centres. Non inclusion of participants that have never been exposed to a Teaching and Learning Centre had the consequence of excluding perceptions of some participants which could have added both depth and breath to the current set of findings.

Limitations of the methodology were countered through the following measures taken by the researcher:

- Triangulation was employed to enhance trustworthiness. Apart from interviews, other supporting data collecting instruments were used such as questionnaires and documentary data. This diversified approach made the data collection process robust.
- Interviewees were made comfortable when taping their responses by pointing out to them that findings were going to make a contribution to the development of knowledge on academic professional development in higher education. Participants' confidence was also reassured by pointing out to them that their interviews will be treated with confidentiality and anonymity of participants.
- The researcher also ensured a balance of time allocated for research tasks and time allocated for full-time employment. Adequate research time was allocated to ensure that accurate and robust data was collected since inadequate research time might compromise quality of data to be collected.

3.16 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has attempted to discuss the research paradigm, strategy, methods used for data collection and data analysis process of the study. The methodology employed is premised on critical theory paradigm and its influence on higher education transformation through the process of academic professional development.

Qualitative research methods were employed in order to address the research questions of the study. The study represents a qualitative case study design where data was collected through semi-structured questionnaires, interviews, focus groups interviews and documentary sources. The population of the study comprised academics sampled from two case study institutions.

It is acknowledged that findings of case study approaches are limited in terms of generalizability. However, opportunities exist in case study approaches for academics to have their "voices" heard and add to the body of knowledge on academic professional development in higher education through search for meaning and interpretation of data or phenomena.

Chapter 4 below will attempt to deal with presentation and analysis of data.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter three provided and discussed information on methodology. The purpose of this chapter is to present, analyse and discuss data generated through interviews, focus group discussions, questionnaire methods and documents with relevance to the problem discussed in chapter one, that of the effect of enabling and constraining institutional conditions and cultures on ASD – in higher education institutions in Zimbabwe state universities.

Responses from each case study institution were coded and grouped to allow themes to emerge from the data. The qualitative approach was employed to analyse data. However, questionnaire data was used to a limited extent to supplement qualitative data. Themes that emerged were highlighted and discussed at the same time. It is argued that, in qualitative research, data presentation and data analysis occur at the same time (Murimba and Moyo, 1995). Academic participants' responses were coded [P] while Deans' responses were coded [D] and academics' questionnaires' responses were coded [R] to facilitate clear categorization. The data collected is presented and interpreted in this chapter under the following sections that emerged:

- biographical data of participants and respondents.
- views of academics on implementation of ASD in institutions drawn from a questionnaire.
- some general enabling and constraining factors that influence development and implementation of APD.
- academic traditions and cultures and their enabling and constraining effect on ASD.
- institutional conditions and their effect on the development and implementation of ASD.

Quotes reflective of academic 'voices' are used extensively to provide the qualitative 'feel' of the participants' responses.

4.2 BIOGRAPHICAL DATA OF PARTICIPANTS

Table 4.1 - Demographic data of participants

N: Number = 24

Characteristic	Variable	CASE STUDY INSTITUTIONS				TOTAL	
		X INSTITUTION		Y INSTITUTION		T	%
		N	%	N	%		
Age in years	30 – 39	2	17	3	25	5	21
	40 – 49	3	25	2	17	5	21
	50 – 59	5	41	4	33	9	37
	60+	2	17	3	25	5	21
Sex/Gender	Male	9	75	10	83	19	79
	Female	3	25	2	17	5	21
Marital Status	Single Married Divorced Widowed	12	100	12	100	24	100
Highest Academic Qualification	BA/BSC (Hons)	10	83	7	58	17	71
	Masters	2	17	5	42	7	29
	PhD						
Trained as Teachers	Yes	10	83	8	67	18	75
	No	2	17	4	33	6	25
Teaching Qualification	CE	5	42	5	42	10	42
	GCE/PGDE	5	42	3	25	8	34
	PGDTE	0	0	1	8	1	4
	No Training	2	16	3	25	5	20
Lecturing Experience in Higher Education (in years)	0 – 5	2	17	1	8	3	12
	6 – 10	7	58	9	75	16	67
	11 – 15	11 – 15	-	-	-	-	-
	16 – 20	-	-	1	8	1	4
	21 – 25	2	17	-	-	2	9
	26 – 30	-	-	-	-	-	-
	30+	1	8	1	8	2	8
Grade	Lecturer	7	59	4	33	11	46
	Senior Lecturer	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Professor	-	-	1	8	1	4
	Chairperson	1	8	3	25	4	17
	Dean	2	17	2	17	4	17
	Director T & CC	1	8	1	8	2	8
	VC	1	8	1	8	2	8

Table one shows that the majority of the participants 14 (58%) fall within the (50 – 60+) age range in both case study institutions X and Y displaying an equal number of academics in each age group. However, 10 (42%) of the participants fall in the lower and middle age range. It is evident then that age differences exist between young and old academics suggesting that participants' views and attitudes towards ASD could be varied. Similar findings were made in Nigeria where it was noted that there was

significant difference towards their motivation in in-service training programmes between young and old teachers (Yemisi, 2013:138).

Related to marital status, the table reflects that all participants 24 (100%) in both case study institutions X and Y are married suggesting that family circumstance might influence participation of academics in ASD programmes. Cafarella and Zinn (1999:71-72) contend that, in higher education supporting factors such as family have some influence on academics' participation in staff development programmes.

According to Table 4.1, it is portrayed that academic qualifications of participants are not varied. The majority of the participants 17 (70.5%) hold Masters degrees followed with 7 (29.5%) who hold PhD degrees. This suggests that there is a critical shortage of highly qualified lecturers in the two selected state universities whose consequence might be low quality teaching and learning in these institutions. According to Baraiya and Baraiya (2013:150), teachers with proper qualifications play important role in the education quality improvement of their institutions.

In this study, teaching qualification is another noticeable variable. The table shows that 1 (4%) in case study institution Y holds a Post Graduate Diploma in Tertiary Education (PGDTE) with 5 (20.5%) without training, while the majority 18 (75.5%) of the participants hold CE, PGCE and PGDE which qualifies one to teach in Zimbabwe high schools. However, 5 (20.5%) of the sampled academics had no form of any training. This is clear evidence of the need to have ASD in the two selected case study institutions in order to provide quality education.

Table one also shows that the majority of the sampled academics fall within the lecturer grade. The majority of the participants 11 (46%) were lecturers with case study institution X having 7 of these while case study institution Y had 4 respondents. It is pertinent to point out that only case study institution Y had 1 professor which only translates to 4% of the participants. This is reflective of the brain drain which has led to juniorization of staff in some state universities in Zimbabwe (SARUA, 2011:20) (section 1.2). The imperative is higher given this evidence for higher education institutions to develop interest in ASD programmes.

Finally, according to the results reflected in table 4.1, only 5 (21%) of the sampled academics were females with 19 (79%) being males. Both case study institutions X and Y have low female representation of academics on their staff that is 3 (12.5%) and 2 (8.5%) respectively. Documents availed by Human Resources (HR) confirmed this position. This suggests that there is low participation of female academics in the higher education sector in Zimbabwe. This is consistent with findings made by Acker (1997:69) who found in her study that women struggled to break the barrier to make a career in Canadian university faculties.

4.3 RESEARCH RESULTS

4.3.1 Questionnaire responses on lecturers' views on development and implementation of ASD

Eight questionnaires were administered in each case study institution giving a total of sixteen 16 for both institutions X and Y. The response rate was 100% since respondents completed the questionnaires in the presence of the researcher. Use of questionnaire was adopted to supplement qualitative data. Respondents gave answers as reflected in table 4. 2. Respondents' answers for each case study institution are also shown in order to glean possible influence of the institutional conditions of each on ASD implementation. This has relevance to the problem of this study which is to explore the effect of institutional conditions and cultures on the implementation of ASD in Zimbabwe State Universities.

Table 4.2 Lecturers' views on implementation of ASD in two Zimbabwe state universities

N: Number of lecturers = 16

QUESTION	INSTITUTIONS				TOTAL	
	X		Y		YES	NO
	YES	NO	YES	NO		
a) Are you consulted in drawing up programmes?	0	8(100%)	4(50%)	4(50%)	4(25%)	12(75%)
b) Do you consider a PhD qualification a guarantee for one to be a good teacher?	0	8(100%)	3(37.5%)	5(62.5%)	3(19%)	13(81%)
c) Do academics view themselves more as researchers than teachers?	7(87.5%)	1(12.5%)	5(62.5%)	3(37.5%)	12(75%)	4(25%)
d) Is ASD associated with workshops on teaching skills than research into teaching problems?	8(100%)	0	3(37.5%)	5(62.5%)	11(69%)	5(31%)
e) Do ASD programmes have high uptake rate among academics?	3(37.5%)	5(62.5%)	3(37.5%)	5(62.5%)	6(37.5%)	10(62.5%)
f) Are academics aware of the need to be trained through ASD programmes?	3(37.5%)	5(62.5%)	4(50%)	4(50%)	7(44%)	9(56%)
g) Is an outstanding researcher associated with good teaching?	2(25%)	6(75%)	3(37.5%)	5(62.5%)	5(31%)	11(69%)
h) Do promotion policies in the institution highlight research more than teaching?	8(100%)	7 (0)	6(75%)	2(25%)	14(87.5%)	2(12.5%)
i) Is the position of a Director of a Teaching and Learning Centre equivalent to that of a Faculty Dean?	0	8(100%)	0	8(100%)	0	6(100%)
j) Does ASD enjoy the commitment of the institution?	1(12.5%)	7(87.5%)	8(100%)	0	9(56%)	7 (44%)

Regarding ASD programme development raised in question (a), the table shows that 12 (75%) of the respondents indicated that they were not consulted by development

practitioners in drawing up the programmes. Strikingly, all (100%) respondents in case study institution X indicated that they were not consulted suggesting that ASD programmes were imposed on academics. In chapter 2, Merriam (2001) and Knowles, Holton III Swanson (2005:40-42) argue that such programmes are likely to be irrelevant and experience poor uptake rate by lecturers.

Question (b) asked respondents whether a PhD qualification was a guarantee for an academic to be a good teacher. Thirteen 13 (8%) out of sixteen respondents felt that a PhD is not considered to be a qualification that guaranteed one to be a good teacher. Comparatively there was consensus (100%) among respondents in institution X than Y which had 3 (37.5%) of its respondents supporting the view.

On question (c), which sought to find out whether academics viewed themselves more as researchers than teachers, 12 (75%) of the respondents confirmed that they were more of researchers than teachers. Although 4 (25%) felt otherwise, this is insignificant out of a total of 16 respondents. This shows that academics have loyalty to their disciplines with the consequence of having negative effect on academics' interest in ASD. This is consistent with arguments advocated by Zuzekyi and Badger (2007:14) and Straniforth and Harland (2006:136) on 2.8.2.1. who argue that academic traditions found in the disciplines exert less positive influence on ASD initiatives.

From the table, it can be seen that for question (d) 11 of the respondents out of sixteen (16) translating to 69% felt that ASD programmes were made up of workshops. This resonates with the views expressed by Boud (1999) on 2.8.2.1 and Light and Cox (2001:14) on 2.8.2.2 who contend that ASD programmes are simply workshop based defined by their focus on acquisition of teaching skills. However, ASD was found to be research into teaching problems of the discipline by 5 (31%) of the respondents. Although insignificant, it is interesting to note that they are all respondents from case study institution Y. While a probable explanation for this might not be clear, a plausible explanation could be located in the formal course (PGDTE) offered by the institution that influences academics to have such a holistic understanding of ASD.

Question (e) asked respondents whether there was high uptake rate of ASD among academics in their institutions. Ten 10 (62.5%) of the respondents believed that ASD

programmes did not have high uptake rate among academics. Comparatively, from the table 4.2, respondents in both institutions felt the same, that ASD experienced low uptake rate among sampled academics. Each institution had 5 respondents out of 8 backing the view that ASD does not have high uptake rate. Reasons for the trend are likely to be linked to the low value attached to teaching. In section 2.8.3.3, D'Andrea and Gosling (2005:16), Hunt (2007:773), Kogan (2000:210) and Marsh (2011:163) argue that the academic role of teaching was not given as much attention as research.

From the table, question (f) raised the need for academics' awareness for training through ASD. While 9 (54%) of the respondents out of 16 indicated lack of awareness of the need for training, 7 (44%) believed that the need was there. Lack of awareness for training was more pronounced in case study institution X which had 5 of its respondents, confirming lack of need compared to 4 respondents of case study institution Y. The effect of institutional conditions prevailing in case study institution X, where workshops only form the mainstay of ASD programmes without other programmes like a formal course in APD, is probably apparent. Kutner (1997:4) has contended that a formal course on ASD has positive influence on some academics with regards to their teaching role.

Question (g) sought to find out from the respondents whether an outstanding researcher was associated with good teaching. It is pertinent, that 11 of the respondents out of 16 translating to 69% did not think that an outstanding researcher was equally good at teaching. Although 5 (31%) of the respondents felt that there was some relationship between a good researcher making a good teacher, the figure is not that significant compared to 11 (69%) respondents who did not believe so. Marsh (2011:163) and Quinn (2006) on 2.8.2.3 argue that a dichotomy existed between research and teaching and that good researchers were no more or less likely to be good teachers.

Question (h) asked respondents whether institutional promotion policies highlighted research more than teaching. From the table, a high response rate of 14 (87.5%) respondents supported the view that institutional policies favoured research over teaching. In case study institution Y, 2 (12.5%) of the respondents did not feel that promotion policies favoured research compared to teaching. However, this figure is is

not substantial compared to 14 (87.5%) and might have no meaningful impact on the way institutional promotion policies have on the development of ASD practice.

With respect to the position of the Director of a Teaching and Learning centre in the structure asked in question (i), there was unanimous (100%) agreement in both institutions X and Y that the Director's position is not equivalent to that of a dean of a faculty. Gosling (2008:60) argues that lowering the position of the director of a T & LC has the effect of ASD being viewed lowly by mainstream academics.

In question (j) respondents were asked whether their institutions were committed to ASD. Table 4.2 reveal that 9 (56%) of the respondents were positive that there was institutional commitment to ASD with 7 (44%) not supporting the view. However, it must be pointed out that most of the commitment to ASD is evident in case study institution Y which has all 8 (100%) respondents reflective of institutional commitment compared with case study institution X that had only 1 respondent out of 8 supporting a similar view. It is clear that case study institution X lacked commitment while case study institution Y displayed commitment. While reasons might not be clear to explain this trend, it is likely that reasons are located in institutional conditions of each case study institution. Giroux (2004) on (2.3.2, p 26-30) argues that a critical examination of institutional conditions can explain or lead to an understanding of underlying influences of certain results experienced in institutions.

4.3.2 Enabling and constraining conditions that influence development and implementation of academic staff development in higher education institutions

Under the major theme above, the following sub-themes emerged:

- Conceptualization of academic staff development and its influence on ASD
- The need for academic staff development by academics and its influence on APD
- Characteristics and relevance of academic staff development programmes
- Concern for students' success by lecturers

These are presented and discussed below.

Constant comparison analysis was used to analyse data as described in chapter 3 (section data from interviews was broken down into codes and categories. Below is part of the interview data that was generated into codes. Codes that had common elements from the entire field notes were merged to form categories as shown in Table 4.3.

Thank you very much for the opportunity you have given me to interview you about academic professional development which I understand is taking place in your university. My first question my friend relates to your understanding of academic professional development. What is your understanding of this?

Thank you professor. My own understanding of academic professional development perhaps comes from my wide reading I come across this concept in various forums where people are talking about improving the delivery of tuition in universities. in this regard there are various concepts associated with academic professional development and attempt perhaps to respond to the type of student we are receiving in the university so it becomes increasingly clear that there is a need for academics to develop skills that will assist them in communicating effectively when they are delivering their lectures or when they are teaching university students so in this regard I have realised that in developed countries for instance there are creating units that will be responsible for upgrading methodological skills in order for the lecturer to develop effectively particularly in the teaching area of university service so in that regard I regard academic development as an attempt to empower or equip the modern lecturer with skills to interact effectively with the kind of student who is getting into universities.

Thank you very much. Tell me, are academic aware of the need to be trained given the way you have characterised the situation. Is there awareness?

Let me be very frank on this one, they are not, the majority of them are not. They don't even think it's necessary for them to be trained to teach at university because the general mindset is that once someone has obtained a PhD or once you have attained professorship level then that is enough to operate in the university set up. According to them they say

they are able to handle anything at undergraduate and postgraduate level in terms of research and they understand everything in that area all that they need to do is carry on with their research and of course do some bit of teaching so they are not aware of the need to be trained to teach or at least we can say they don't accept that kind of new drift of trying to train in the area of teaching.

This is interesting. Associated with this is the question of quality.

Table 4.3: A selection of categories and codes from interviews with academics

Categories and Codes	
CATEGORY 1	CATEGORY 2
Concept of APD	Academics' attitude towards APD
Codes:	Codes:
Induction	Belief in the subject
Be trained	Carry on with research
Improving tuition	Negative attitudes
Developing professionals	Value on teaching
Empower or equip with skills	Content
Develop academics	Programme relevance
Upgrade methodological skills	Reward
Assist with communication	Academic recognition
Skills to be developed	PhD qualification
Improving professionalism	Practitioners not qualified
Note: Codes are only shown for categories 1-2, but they were allocated in a similar manner for all categories.	

4.3.2.1 Conceptualization of academic staff development (ASD)

In curriculum project implementation, the success or failure of a project partly depends on how participants understand and interpret a project (Light and Cox, 2001; Warschaner, 1997:1). In this section of the thesis, attempts are made to draw insights on how academics in higher education institutions conceptualized academic staff development (ASD) by analyzing interview extracts drawn from the data collected from the two case study institutions namely X (university

representing a group of new universities) and Y (university representing an established university). Interview extracts were drawn from interview questions in Section A (Appendix1).

Data from across both case study institutions X and Y show that participants had varied conceptions about ASD or APD. Participants' viewpoints associated ASD with discourses to do with "development of skills," "empowerment of lecturers," "professionalization of the academic role of the lecturer," and also "training." These discourses were dominant in interview extracts of participants of both case study institutions. For example, in case study institution X, participants P₂ and P₅ associated ASD with the notion of development of the lecturer. More specifically, P₂ mentioned that ASD is "developing academics into professionals" while P₅ explained that ASD was "viewed as a programme intended to develop academics into all areas of the lecturer." The Director of the T & LC and focus group participants also expressed their views on ASD and the concept of "development" as being associated with ASD also featured among them. One group participant, for example, explained that ASD was associated with "development of skills of teaching among lecturers." Expanding on the same concept, the director of the T&LC elaborated that:

The idea is to staff develop academics without a teaching background to ensure that they get relevant theoretical background to teach in higher education.

The argument here is that "development" is for academics without a teaching background and is designed to empower them with knowledge that will make them qualify to teach in higher education institutions. In the same vein, some participants of case study institution Y also described the notion that ASD or APD is associated with development of the academic.

Participant P₉ and the dean (D₄) associated the notion of ASD with development. P₉ was more precise and said that ASD is "development of skill" without elaborating the skill and D₄ was more eloquent and elaborate and noted that:

It (ASD) is a way of developing colleagues who do not have pedagogical skills to teach in higher education.

Similarly, the Vice Chancellor understood ASD to:

Address gaps relating to knowledge, skills and attitudes pertaining to those who aspire to be university teachers.

Indeed it is acknowledged that ASD or APD is meant for lecturers without higher education pedagogue. Studies by Gosling (2001:79-90) have also revealed that ASD in the UK has attracted the interest of those without educational training background (section 2.9.1.1, p82-93).

Apart from the discourse of development, the “training” discourse also emerged from the interview data. However this was fairly prevalent and limited to case study institution X. Participant P₃ specifically emphasized that ASD is viewed as “training academics and professors in teaching skills” suggesting that lecturers as knowledge experts in their field need training in teaching if they are to be effective. Similarly P₂ added his voice to the debate by encouraging that:

Lecturers need to be trained since they hold degrees, again emphasizing the point that ASD is associated with “training” of academics without a teaching background in spite of holding post graduate degrees in their fields of expertise.

Besides training, the notion of induction as a concept associated with ASD was also acknowledged by participants in interviews. In case study institution X, participant P₁ talked about “inducting new lecturers into the university” while in focus group discussion one participant highlighted that ASD involves “induction of lecturers beyond basic skills. Similarly, conceptualization of ASD as a form of induction featured in the focus group discussion of case study institution Y where one participant said “academic staff development inducts lecturers into the profession.”

Indeed, studies by Feiman-Nemser (2001:31) and Trowler and Becher (1996) have acknowledged the place and role of induction in preparing new university

teachers to lecture. Furthermore, from the data particularly from case study institution Y, interview extracts are dominant with the notion professionalism as a concept associated with ASD or APD. However, there is limited reference to the view that ASD is associated with professionalism in case study institution X. A study of the data in case study institution Y shows that participants P₉, P₁₀, P₁₄ and P₁₅ associated ASD with the discourse of professionalism.

For instance, P₁₅ explained that:

It (ASD) is a concept tailor made to impart professionalism on the part of the academic.

Similarly P₁₄ commented that:

One has to be developed in order to do things professionally.

In the same vein, P₁₀ observed that:

ASD promotes professionalism.

Adding his voice to the discourse, P₉ argued that:

It (ASD) is about professionalism and ethics.

Also the Vice Chancellor commented that:

The programme embraces the values of professionalism and integrity.

In focus group discussion, one participant noted that ASD “inducts lecturers into the profession”. On the other hand, in case study institution X the concept of professionalism was raised only in focus group discussions where one participant referred to ASD as “an attempt to professionalise the academy”. These developments are consistent with studies by Becker (1989), Fritzmaurice (2008:350), Nixon (2002:74), as well as Nixon, Marks, Rowland and Walter (2010:233-235) on (2.2.2 p17-19) in which emphasizing that professionalism in teaching in a higher education context should be judged by adherence to the moral value of the practice.

Interestingly, the discourse of empowerment is prevalent in interview data of the two institutions albeit limited to institution Y than institution X. A probable explanation for the trend lies in the formal course (PGDHTE) run by case study

institution Y. In case study institution Y, participant P₉ argues that the course will empower one to teach in higher education” while the dean (D₃) acknowledged that ASD “empowers lecturers with teaching skills to teach higher education students in a way that is different from high school ones. Similarly, one participant in a group discussion also commented that ASD “empowers teaching assistants.” By comparison with case study institution Y, in case study institution X only one dean (D₁) talked about empowering of lecturers when he said that ASD “empowers lecturers with teaching skills” and explained further that ASD supports academics so that they are “better equipped” in order to offer quality teaching. In studies on critical theory by Apple and Giroux (1996) and Habermas (1989), on 2.3.2 there is evidence to the fact that the discourse of academic development has an empowering dimension.

Strikingly a study of the data of both institutions associated ASD with “development,” “induction” and “professionalism” whose result is associated with improvement and enhancement of the teaching and learning process in faculties. This aspect is prevalent in interview data of participants P₃, P₄ and P₆ of case study institution X and of participants P₉, P₁₄ and P₁₅ of case study institution Y. In case study institution X while participant P₃ remarked that ASD “enhances teaching in various departments,” P₄ elaborated in his argument that “constant refresher workshops, seminars which are part of academic staff development improve teaching.” However P₆ was economic in his comments and merely noted that staff development is associated with “improving delivery of tuition.”

In the case of data of case study institution Y it also reflected improvement as an aspect linked to the effect of ASD programmes. For example participant P₉ described ASD” as enriching of knowledge and research” while P₁₄ highlighted that ASD will make lecturers “teach in a way that is different and better.” Similarly P₁₅ elaborated on the aspect of improvement by mentioning that ASD programmes translate teaching into effective delivery.”

These viewpoints by participants are consistent with findings made by D’Andrea and Gosling (2001) on 2.9.1.1 and Quinn (2012) on 2.9.2.1 who in their case studies of the UK and South Africa respectively pointed out that academic professional development (APD) was linked with improvement of teaching and learning in

higher education practice. However other studies (Mizell, 2010) claim that there is no conclusive evidence to support this. Interestingly interview data of both institutions also reveal that ASD focuses on teaching skills and methodology. Participant P₃, dean (D₁) and focus group participants of case study institution X make reference to teaching skills as the focus of ASD. P₃ emphasized “teaching skills” as the aspect to be addressed through ASD or APD while D₁ highlighted the same – “empower lecturers with teaching skills.” Voices of participants from focus group discussion talked about “acquisition of knowledge” and some “particular skill.”

By contrast in case study institution Y participant P₁₀ also associated ASD with “teaching skill” while P₉ emphasized “methodology.” Surprisingly P₁₄ argued that ASD concerned itself with “IT and new generation of students that change now and again.” Throughout the data use of workshops and seminars are the dominant approaches in teaching these skills.

Results clearly show that ASD can be understood in terms of its purpose, its approaches, its empowering dimension and improvement, it brings about as an intervention strategy. Development of the university teacher is one of the dominant discourses that emerged that characterizes ASD. The development is imperative to empower academics with pedagogy appropriate to teach students in a way that is different from high school. This development is expected of university teachers to ‘grow’ in terms of their consciousness towards higher education challenges ranging from issues of equity and quality, IT, new generation of students and academic literacy. In Volbrecht’s (2003:5) study on 2.8.1.1 revealed that academics’ development through ASD should “conscientize” them on challenging higher education curriculum issues. Also Feiman-Nemser (2001:3 – 4) emphasized the role of academic professional development in raising academics’ awareness of higher education challenges that threaten quality.

Related to the development discourse of the university teacher associated with ASD is the question of approaches used in its practice. It emerged that ASD as an intervention of university teacher development is associated with induction and training respectively. The notion emerging is that despite their standing as discipline experts academics need to be inducted and trained in the science of

teaching. However induction and training are limited compared to ASD or APD which are broader in scope and perspective (Feiman-Nemser - 2001). In fact some authorities (Feiman-Nemser, 2001 and Lieberman, 1995) warn against adopting training as an approach to ASD because of the connotations associated with it such as mastery of technical skill which is a limited view of ASD. Such perceptions have the consequence of attracting a negative perception about ASD. Rather ASD should be appropriately be conceptualized as SoTL whose implication is training of academics to become reflective practitioners (Bath and Smith 2004) (section 2.2.1 p 16). Also Boud (1999), Posser and Barrie (2000), Posser and Trigwell (1996) as well as Ramsden (2003) on 2.2.3 identify value of reflection as the foundation for scholarly inquiry into enhancing learning and teaching.

Interestingly, results also associated ASD with the professionalizing discourse. The suggestion is that university teachers should adhere to standards and code of conduct with respect to the discharge of their academic role. This suggests that the development of university teachers should include professional growth. Implied in professional growth is an element of continuous development that is sustained and not a once off event that is ad hoc. So, in conceptualizing ASD, the discourse of continuous development should be considered as its characteristic (Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin, 1995). However, professionalization of the broader academic role of the academic appears to be resisted. According to Little (1993) and Lortie (1975) professionalism is experienced by academics as an incompatible discourse because it is at variance with academic norms of academic freedom and autonomy. Also, scholars like Nixon, Marks, Rowland and Walter (2001) as well as Lisewski (2005:5) warned against notions that viewed academics as professionals because academics preferred their professionalism to be discipline based. The implication emerging is that ASD should be understood in terms of Boyer's (1990) four forms of scholarship that are discovery, integration, application and teaching (sections 2.2.3 and 2.8.1.2). That way ASD could be conceptualized as a scholarship of teaching towards which university teachers could be developed as professionals and scholars in their own right (Rowland, 2003).

While viewing ASD from a professionalization dimension perspective is a fairly contested concept in higher education as discussed above, its empowerment

dimension is not contested. It is clear from the study that ASD is associated with empowerment of its recipients and does bring about change for the better (Bath and Smith, 2002). In critical realist terms empowerment is linked to development and change. Forde et al. (2006) and Maynard (2007) on (2.3.2 p26-28) contend that ASD should transform academics into agents of change in higher education. It follows, therefore, that ASD should be underpinned in critical pedagogy if the development of the academic is to be a transformative one.

Additionally, whilst ASD is associated with improvement of teaching and learning, the limited view and misconceptualization of ASD as mere exposure to technical skills that an academic should acquire is quite apparent in the study (Badger, 2007, and Light and Cox 2001) (2.8.1.2 p52-53). A broad perception of ASD as research and reflection into the teaching of a discipline still misses. This consequently diminishes the status of ASD practice with the unfortunate effect of poor development of ASD and its implementation. A correct understanding of ASD, as an “intellectual activity” where the university lecturer engages in “reflective practice” (Polinscar, 1992) (2.8.2.1) rather than a traditional perspective of it involving acquisition of teaching skill to solve teaching problems, should be encouraged. Acceptance of ASD by lecturers will arguably contribute towards successful implementation of its programmes.

Indeed, the influence of institutional conditions and teaching cultures on the conceptualization of ASD has been evident. Conceptualization of ASD was reflective of the huge influence of the institutional culture which academics expressed. The teacher development discourse associated with ASD and the professional dimension attached to it and approaches such as induction and training were distinctively linked to the two case study institutions X and Y respectively. Research studies are well documented that point to the influence of institutional conditions as well as teaching cultures on conceptualization of ASD and its development (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Ryan, 2004). Indeed understanding these institutional contexts and conditions will lead to a better characterization of ASD leading to a sustainable practice of it.

4.3.2.2 The need for academic staff development by academics and its influence on development and implementation of APD practice

Providing a programme in the absence of expressed needs of the participants is investment that will yield no results because it will have no takers (Volbrecht, 2003, section 2.8.1.1). Efforts are made in this section to establish whether academics see the need to participate in ASD programmes. Interview extracts were generated from interview questions in Section B (Appendix1).

Data from across all study institutions X and Y indicate strong resistance to APD training. Interview extracts from participants demonstrate a lot of scepticism and negative attitudes towards ASD programmes. In some instances, in case study institution Y in particular, though limited, participants presented compelling arguments for the case in favour of ASD programmes. However, negative attitudes and resistance to ASD prevailed among the majority of participants. K.

In case study institution X, for example, participants P₃ and P₄ expressed the view that ASD is not needed and appreciated. P₃ strongly expressed his views thus:

Frankly, they (academics) are not interested. The mindset is that one has attained a PhD or professorial status and they can handle anything.

In emphasising his lack of interest in the project (ASD) he expressed the view that a T&LC served no purpose. According to P₃, it is “an animal” created to promote the agenda of administration and “its politics”. This is reflective of the resentment and negative attitude some academics have towards ASD. In defending his view, P₃ argued that “teaching in a university is not considered highly”. The influence of such an attitude is that there is no motivation to treat ASD seriously. Similarly, participant P₆ also of case study institution X expressed the same viewpoint. He felicitously put the point so well thus:

They (academics) do not see the need. Most appreciate the way they were taught and people are satisfied with the status quo. For the majority, the idea is opaque.

In the same vein, participant P₄ and P₅ added their 'voice' to the debate demonstrating that academics lacked "awareness" for the need to train with P₄ arguing that "people (academics) think after post graduate who can't teach" and P₅ commenting that some academics have a negative attitude towards APD because it was not associated with any reward. P₅ put the point so well thus:

There is no benefit or recognition such as certificate of attendance.

On the other hand, P₄ suggested that APD could have value if it promoted "the teaching of difficult courses such as research methods and statistics". In the same vein, P₆ also suggested that academics could have interest in APD if the programmes covered areas in which lecturers' professional needs were addressed. According to P₆, areas like "statistics and communication were identified as areas of need".

The Vice Chancellor of case study institution X added his voice to the conversation by highlighting that no training was required for university teaching. According to him, "academics learnt through apprenticeship. One had to emulate one's peers and that it was up to the individual's initiative. There was no deliberate training.

Participants of focus group discussion of case study institution X expressed similar viewpoints. Participants noted that mainstream academics saw no need to participate in ASD programmes. One group participant noted that:

They (academics) view it as something outside their mandate. Some regarded it as a nuisance.

According to one participant, resistance is heightened because ASD is housed and driven by the Faculty of Education. This structural arrangement is regarded with suspicion since other faculty members fear that Faculty of Education is trying to "impose its hegemony on other faculties".

Similar attitudes that reflect lack of awareness for the need to participate in ASD programmes were prevalent in case study institution Y. Participants P₁₀, P₁₁, P₁₃ and P₁₅ interview extracts present revealing insights on some academics' attitudes. Participant P₁₁, for example, commented that ASD is associated with negative attitude because of the low value given to teaching and in his view the status of teaching explains why ASD has not been well received. According to P₁₁ the negative attitude arises because lecturers feel no need for training since they have been teaching for years with no training. Similarly, P₁₀, P₁₃ and P₁₅ expressed the same viewpoints. P₁₀'s response, to the question on the need for lecturers to train, demonstrates that academics lack awareness for the need to train. The old belief prevails that academics pick it by rubbing shoulders with their peers particularly senior academics like professors. P₁₀ expressed the point so well thus:

High ranking lecturers say they were excellent lecturers without training. I only need my history content to deliver excellent lectures.

This demonstrates the mistaken belief that mastery of content translate into good teaching (Maphosa and Mudzielwano, 2014:66-71) and reflects lack of awareness of the importance of teaching in addressing vexing challenges affecting higher education institutions (Pleschora, et al. (1999). P₁₃ also described the attitude as negative and showed confidence in the old ways of doing things and as a result sees no reason for training. P₁₃ explained that:

We have been in the profession for long. We know it all. I have taught for ten years. You can't teach me anything new.

This lack of awareness for training was highlighted (in response to questions in Section B, Appendix3) by the Vice Chancellor so well thus:

Currently there is no great awareness in state Higher Education Institutions on the need to engage in self-

reflection, quality assurance and the enhancement of educational services.

The argument then is that there is no benefit in taking up APD training. So no need is felt in taking up APD. In the same vein, participant P₁₅ weighed in with his voice to the debate by arguing that APD as a strategy invited negative perceptions and resistance. According to P₁₅, the reason for the negative attitude arises from the fact that:

Academics do not see it (ASD) as part of the curriculum they will deal with.

So the programme is viewed as a burden. The reason advanced by P₁₅ for the negative attitude is located “in the way it is packaged for academics”. According to him, the programme is workshop based and unchallenging.

However, in spite of these experiences of lack of interest in ASD activities, some participants show potential for ASD to improve teaching effectiveness in their institutions. For example, P₁₃, in spite of being sceptical, explained during the interview that APD was a programme that made academics understand students as individuals with varied needs, background and culture. P₁₃ described the benefits of the programme thus:

It is a good programme. I would encourage others to take it. It (ASD) helps to understand students.

This is consistent with findings by Pleschova et al. (2010) where APD programmes were found to be helpful in making university teachers understand the needs of the millennium learner. P₁₀, on the other hand, demonstrated need for APD training because of the challenges presented by the new generation of students. He presented the following loaded compelling case for need for academics to take up APD programmes:

Serious professionals argue that these foundations offered by APD are necessary.

Researcher: Why?

New generation of students offer challenges. It would be naive to expect students like yester year. These students are IT competent. They have immense access to information and as a result lecturers' old notes would not work in the face of IT literature students. There is diversity in terms of ideology such as academic freedom. Old timers need to be equipped with best practices on handling new generation of students.

It is clear that a compelling case for ASD is imperative which is needed for academics to be able to meet the challenges presented by students who operate in a digitised environment.

Directors of T&LC also added their voice to the discourse. Data from the two directors of case study institutions X and Y (in response to interview questions in Section B, Appendix 2) described the attitudes of mainstream academics in their institutions as generally negative. The two directors gave interesting but different reasons linked to the negative attitude. While director of T&LC of case study institution X mentioned that lack of knowledge about the relevance to the role of the academic was responsible for lack of interest in APD activities, the director of T&LC for case study institution Y blamed lack of interest on the attitude of senior scholars who viewed APD programmes as low and intellectually unchallenging. According to the director, professors viewed themselves as authorities in their fields and saw no benefit in participating in APD activities.

From the results it is clear that academics have a negative attitude towards ASD programmes. The root cause of the negative attitude is that academics take teaching for granted. This is consistent with findings by Maphosa and Mudzelwano (2014) in their study on professionalization of teaching in South African universities. Maphosa and Mudzelwano (2014:65) found that the discourse around university teaching viewed teaching as common sense business and that anyone with a PhD could teach. This discourse is also highlighted by Gramnski (1917), Tyan and Garbett (2007:418) and (Quinn2012:33). This is supported by studies of teacher development

programmes across the US, UK, Canada and Australia (Martin and Ramsden, 1994; Wright and O'Neil 1995; Ramsden et al., 1995; Griths, 1996).

In arguing for awareness for academics to see the need for training it should be emphasised that teaching is not common sense business. Indeed discipline expertise does not translate into teaching expert. The need for university teachers to be prepared for teaching millennium learners, according to the methodologies that are in keeping with the philosophies of the disciplines, should be emphasised (Greenburg, 2004:15; Scott and Scott, 2005:1; Tera, 2010:1).

In spite of the lack of awareness of the need to train on the part of academics, there is evidence presented by some participants of compelling arguments in favour of the potential of APD in empowering academics to address challenges associated with higher education effectiveness.

One participant warned that it would be “naive” for academics to teach as before, given the IT literate students who are getting admitted into university today. Universities are expected to produce graduate cadres who can participate in a knowledge society that is IT driven (Pleschora et al. (2010). This is a clear case for the need for APD training by academics. Trigwell and Posser (2004) as well as Scott (2005:36-37) warn that traditional teaching methods will be inadequate to address the challenges HEIs face.

Apart from lack of awareness for the need to train on the part of academics, the question of teacher construct and the notion associated with it was also found to have a bearing on the negative attitude. Some participants associated the notion of teacher with lack of formal training of its own as a discipline and the low esteem prevalent in society that is linked to teachers.

Finally, it emerged from the results that lack of belief and conviction in APD as a strategy that can transform academics to be agents of change in higher education influenced the need for training among academics. Gordon and Denis (2002) have shown that teachers with high self efficacy beliefs are likely to engage in productive teaching practices than teachers with low self efficacy. However, studies by Bailey (1999) in Postaref et al. (2007:5) show that

academics have a strong belief system that has influence on research and not teaching. This suggests that a belief system that favours teaching just as good as research should be developed through APD.

4.3.2.3 Characteristics and relevance of academic professional development programmes and their influence on development and implementation of programmes

Effectiveness or ineffectiveness of an academic professional development programme is partly dependent on the characteristics of the programme itself (Mundry, 2005; Quick et al. 2009). Academic participants, deans, directors of T&LCs and Vice Chancellors of the two case study institutions were asked about their experiences regarding the relevance of ASD programmes in their institutions. These experiences are captured, presented and discussed below.

Interestingly, data reveals that a number of characteristics influenced the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of academic professional development programmes in the two case study institutions. Surprisingly, lack of consultation of participants by programme facilitators was cited as a major weakness in the design and development of professional development activities. In case study institution X for example, participants P₁, P₂, P₃, P₄, P₅ and P₆ voiced against the practice whilst participants P₁₁, P₁₂, P₁₄ and P₁₅ of case study institution Y expressed similar concerns but mentioned that the programmes were beneficial.

Below are examples of interview extracts extracted from some of these participants to demonstrate participants' concerns. These were drawn from responses to interview questions related to Section C (Appendix 1).

Comments of participants from case study institution X are presented first below.

Participant P₁ said:

I was not consulted or at least invited. There is no communication. They (facilitators should consult).

Participant P₃ voiced his concern thus:

It (Teaching and Learning Centre) does not take the views of participants. At the moment it's a weakness.

Participant P₅ expressed his concern thus:

Consultation is done. There is need to consult departments. That will help someone knowing the nature of our needs.

Finally participant P₆ observed that:

Needs assessment are not familiar. No consultative meeting. Voices are not captured at individual level.

Similarly, some participants of case study institution Y raised the same concerns that programme facilitators for academic professional development did not consult academics in coming up with staff development programmes. These views are captured below.

Participant P₁₁ observed that:

It's a top down approach. Participants should have been involved. Consultation will strengthen the programme. Imposition of programmes is counterproductive.

Participant P₁₂ was more to the point and said:

Not aware that any consultation is done.

Participant P₁₄ recounted his concern more eloquently thus:

Personally I was not consulted. One knows one's deficiency. Consultation will address specific needs and problems of participants.

Participant P₁₅ was more succinct and pointed out that:

As an individual I wouldn't say I was consulted. Perhaps some could have been consulted.

The above interview data strongly suggests that academic facilitators of APD programmes did not consult academics in constituting the activities of the programme.

Directors of T&LCs of the two case study institutions confirmed that they did not consult participants. The responses related to interview questions in Section B (Appendix 2). The director of the T & LC of case study institution X has this to say:

No involvement in putting together activities.

Researcher! Why?

We are ignored. Invitations for inputs are ignored. They don't even look at them.

In the same vein, similar views were expressed by director of case study institution Y in response to the same question. In his write up the director mentioned that he rarely consulted individual academics in drawing up programmes.

Interestingly, focus group discussants of both case study institutions X and Y presented the same view points. These views were extracted from responses to interview questions in (Appendix 4). For example, group discussion participants for case study institution X highlighted that APD programmes are “imposed” and “prescribed” since participants “were not consulted.” On the other hand group discussion participants for case study institution Y made the same point, but suggested that “consultation should take the form of a multidisciplinary approach.”

In the light of the above, the ‘voice’ of the participants strongly demonstrate that programmes were designed and developed without consulting participants. This trend is consistent with findings made by Brancto (2008:62) and Hanziker (2010:3) who found in their studies that imposed professional programmes to be irrelevant and diametrically opposed to the needs of the participants.

However, although participants were not generally consulted in the development of professional programmes some participants expressed the view that their experiences were used in ASD activities. For example, participant P₁₄ of case study institution Y highlighted that “they bring in experiences, we need

to use” suggesting that facilitators were referring to participants’ experiences in training them. Also P₁₅ of the same institution added his voice to the debate by commenting that facilitators drew heavily on participants’ experiences. He eloquently presented his pointed that:

Experiences of the facilitators and learners [academics]
were used. Experiences became part and parcel of both.
Experiences were noted in both.

These messages by both participants P₁₄ and P₁₅ suggest that participants appreciate that their experiences are valued and that they can be connected to classroom teaching. This is consistent with adult learning theory which states that adults have “an accumulated reservoir of experience” that becomes valuable as a source of learning (Knowles, 1980:43; Hunzicker, 2010:3). This suggests that integrating ASD activities with participants’ experiences will make the programmes more relevant and effective.

Surprisingly, analysis of interview data of the two case study institutions X and Y reveal interesting results related to content based needs of participants and the programmes that are focused on addressing students’ needs respectively.

Participants P₃ and P₄ for case study institution X commented that academics need ASD programmes that addressed challenges they faced with communication skills, highlighting that poor communication by teachers distorted understanding of concepts. In expressing his point P₃ stated that:

Lecturers who cannot communicate in English resort to teaching subjects in the mother tongue. It distorts understanding, precision and subject vigour.

Similarly, participant P₄ also of the same case study institution identified ITC as an area of need that required to be addressed through APD to strengthen lecturer effectiveness. However, he suggested that “ITC should be integrated into teaching” thereby focusing on content of the subject (ITC) and the teaching approach of the subject. In line with this thinking, Hunzicker (2010:4) states that teachers deemed professional development relevant when it addressed their

specific needs and concerns or when they saw their learning experience and their departmental responsibilities captured as part of the ASD activities.

While participants for case study institution X namely P₃ and P₅ above were concerned with content based needs, participants for case study institution Y were concerned about students' diversity being addressed through professional development programmes.

In demonstrating care for the students, P₁₃ acknowledged that ASD programmes “assisted us to realize that students are different, know the students and their expectations.” In the same vein, P₁₄ appreciated that the programme made them “understand the diversity of our students and the need to create space to communicate with students on any particular time.

Loucks-Horskey and Stiegelbaner (1991) emphasize the same point that an effective professional programme is one that considered concerns of both the lecturers and students in its formulation. Student feedback was viewed as a good source of capturing students needs to input into ASD programmes (Merrian, 2001) in order to make them more relevant.

The question of structured unplanned and infrequently held ASD activities has also been raised in case study institution X as a programme that makes a professional programme ineffective, Participant P₂ in particular remarked that:

The programme is not detailed and unstructured. It's a crash programme. I only attended the programme once in 2011. Since then I have not attended any.

This suggests that the programme lacks detail and is unstructured apart from the fact that it is ad hoc thereby rendering it ineffective. Studies by Pleschora et al (2012:81) in their studies on professionalizing academics into teachers emphasized the need for well designed programmes for them to increase teacher satisfaction and to be effective.

From the results, there is evidence to suggest that practitioners in both case study institutions designed and developed professional development

programmes without consulting academics. Research shows that professional programmes that do not capture the “voices of participants particularly their needs are likely to experience low motivation as well as lack of commitment in programme uptake and implementation (Hunzicker, 2010:6). Lack of consultations has the consequence of having programmes that are not client driven and as such could end up lacking relevance and authenticity. A one size fits all approach (Fleming et al., 2004:166) is evident with the result of having a programme product that is uninspiring and less motivating. The result will be an ineffective programme since the programme would have missed the opportunity to capture lecturer input regarding what and how they will learn (Lieberman and Pointer- Mace, 2008) as well as lecturer learning pace (Porter et al., 2003). Clearly the programmes will suffer from ineffectiveness and the project might not pay ‘dividends’ in respect of improving lecturer quality. Instead, professional programmes are likely to experience low uptake among academics. Results in table 4.2, response (e) (4.3.1 p156) confirm and corroborate that ASD programmes in the two case institutions experience low uptake rate. It is significant to note from table 4.2 that 10 (62.5%) out of 16 academic respondents indicated that ASD programmes did not have high uptake rate among academics. So there is evidence to suggest that many lecturers do not participate in ASD programmes. Although reasons for the low uptake rate might not be entirely located in the irrelevance of the ASD programmes the possibility of this factor (irrelevance of programmes) cannot be ruled out among other factors.

It is also clear from the results that lack of consultation led development practitioners to miss the opportunity to capture and integrate life experiences of the participants into ASD programmes. According to adult learning theory (Nicholls, 2005:613; Knowles, 1990:43), adults have valuable life experience that can be used as a resource in teaching. The job of teaching adults is different from teaching children because they bring to the T&LC life experiences that can be used to solve classroom problems. So, adult learners are motivated to participate in programmes in which they feel that their experiences and contributions are valued and respected (Bellington, 1988:91).

Results also show that these imposed programmes are associated with the top down approach. This approach is associated with undemocratic approaches to ASD practice. There is evidence that practitioners, as key agency (Archer, 1998) of ASD, are not creating space for academics to participate in the design and development of professional programmes (Scott, Issa and Issa, 2008:161). That has the consequence of denying academics (as learners) a voice in contributing towards the development of ASD programmes. The practice that is evident in the two case study institutions is consistent with traditional undemocratic classroom practices where the learners' 'voices' are not sought and the dominant views of the powerful are perpetuated. That way, learners continue to be short changed and injustices continue. Critical realists like (Apple, 1995; Dillards 1997; Giroux 2004) call for change in such approaches. Giroux (2004:44), for example, advocates for the consideration of the diversified needs of the students in terms of language, culture and social status when determining instructional approaches. So, for ASD to have relevance in training academics to become university teachers, it should promote democratic classroom relations between practitioners and academics (learners) whereby space is created for academics to debate critically teacher development issues (Feiman-Nemser, 2001).

Although programmes were imposed, content or subjects that participants wanted to be included in ASD programmes were mentioned. ICT and communication skills were identified as areas which needed to be improved among academics. In the case of ICT, the need was to integrate it into teaching thereby focusing on content of (ICT) and the teaching approach of teaching it. This resonates with research that shows that effective professional development should focus on both subject area content and how to teach it (Lambert, Wallach and Ramsdey, 2007; Lieberman and Pointer- Mace, 2008; Mundry, 2005). This is crucial for lecturers to know their subject area in order to engage students meaningfully and clear any misconceptions they might have (King and Newmann, 2004). Society is a networked society and the new generation of students is highly ICT literate and so lecturers should be empowered to use educational technologies in their teaching (de la Harpe and Radloff, 2008; and Scott and Scott, 2005:1) on (2.5.1 p33-34). According to the results, ICT is a

bona fide academic need which should be embedded in APD programmes if they are to have relevance.

Apart from addressing the question of subject needs of academics, ASD programmes were considered to be effective if they made lecturers more concerned and aware of student diversity. The argument for satisfying this need is that student diversity discourse is a challenge affecting higher education practice today because of democratization of the sector. Indeed scholars like Feiman-Memser (2001), Hilra and Coheny (2011) and James (2013) present the problem faced in teaching new generation of students, as a compelling case (2.5.1) to which higher education should respond to by professionalising teaching in higher education. In ASD can have relevance and considered to be effective if it can make lecturers aware that their instructional decisions should respond to student diversity. Student diversity generally manifests itself in terms of differences in learning styles, subject choices in departments and academic attitudes (Kandiko and Mawer, 2013:9). In critical realist terms, it is imperative that APD is embedded in critical pedagogies that would empower academics to use student centred approaches in teaching that promote student participation. Academic empowerment that is envisaged should result in the professionalization of teaching practice that promotes democratization of classroom practices (Giroux, 2004:44). Such practices will see democratic space being created for students to raise questions that relate to higher education practices that are unfair.

It also emerged from the results that participants expressed dissatisfaction with ASD programmes because they lacked detail, were unstructured and ad hoc. This rendered the programmes ineffective. These findings are consistent with findings made by Dearn, et al. (2002:1) in Australia where they found that provision of ASD programmes remained largely unsystematic and ad hoc. They reported that this happened in spite of the high level of awareness of the importance of the teaching role in higher education in Australia. In addition research also shows that the more time teachers spend engaged in professional development the more likely practice is to improve (Porter et al., 2003; Quick et

al; 2009). So infrequently conducted ASD programmes that are unstructured and lack detail are likely to be ineffective (Tyanan and Lee, 2009:89:41).

The purpose of this study is to explore institutional conditions and cultures that enable or constrain the development of ASD practice. Through triangulation of data from interviews, group discussion and questionnaires, some conclusions can be made. It emerged clearly that ASD programmes run by the two institutions were ineffective on grounds of being irrelevant because academics' needs and life experiences were not captured. The programmes were not a product of consultation but were imposed as broad based programmes that would fit all participants. The programmes were also found to be ineffective because they were not well structured and implemented infrequently. Subject content particularly ITC and pedagogical approaches consistent with teaching ITC subjects were also raised as needs that would make ASD programmes effective.

4.3.2.4 Concern for students' success by lecturers and its implications for ASD practice

Results from participants of both case study institutions X and Y demonstrate that academics lack sensitivity for students concern and their success. Participants argued that massification of higher education as well as their teaching practices were some of the reasons associated with lack of sensitivity to care for students' success. Interview extracts were generated from interview questions related from Section D (Appendix1); Section B (Appendix 2) and questions in (Appendix 4).

In case study institution X, participants P₂, P₅ and the Director of the T&LC highlighted that interest for students' learning concerns was not there. For example, participant P₂ commented that "commitment to student success is not there". In his view, lecturers' concern for students is described as lacking and that "sensitivity to student success" is also "lacking". According to participant P₂, student concern is subordinated to "academic rewards" which is associated with "research output". In the same vein, P₅ expressed the same view by pointing out that:

Students' progress is not prioritised during the semester". Instead, lecturers are concerned about "assignment submission deadlines.

Experiences of the director of the T&LC also confirmed similar viewpoints. From her experiences from workshops, academics treated all students as one because they were not aware of the varied nature of students' differences. The director of the T&LC expressed the point so well thus:

Not all of them care for the student. At a workshop, academics were surprised that students had different learning styles and attitudes. Before the workshop, they would just go and perform before the students and not expect that the student is learning any different from the one sitting next to them. The topic generated a lot of debate.

The implication is that lecturers did not see students as individuals with varying differences in terms of needs and interests (Len, 2011; Mintz, 2012). Instead they adopted the "one size fits all teaching approach" (Horizon, 2013:1) disregarding individual differences of the learners. The traditional teaching approach where the teacher "performed" in front of students dictating notes resonates with the banking discourse condemned by Freire (1970) which treated students as empty vessels to be filled with knowledge.

These findings are consistent with Felder's (2005) study which explored academics' understanding of student differences in higher education. The study also found that lecturers' understanding of students' learning needs was low. Ramsden (2003) also argued that students were responsible for their studies. Apart from lack of sensitivity, massification of higher education has also been linked to inability of lecturers to care for students' learning development. In case study institution Y, participant P₉ pointed out that "massification of higher education has brought its challenges like high student numbers which one cannot handle". He further elaborated his concern by explaining that "there is a

diversified student body” which presents “communication challenges” with individual learners. Similarly P₁₃ expressed his concern about numbers by saying:

Each institution is concerned about numbers. Its numbers.
If I am teaching 300 students it is not easy to know each
one of them. I am afraid quality is compromised.

According to the participants, this suggests that massification of higher education not only compromises individual needs of the students but has the consequence of compromising quality. Focus group participants added their voice to the debate by blaming massification of university education as a significant factor that affected lecturers’ capacity to understand students’ case for success. One group discussant for example lamented the disadvantage of “large groups” in constraining student participation compared to “small groups found to be associated with interactive learning”.

Interestingly, in case study institution X focus group participants also blamed massification of higher education for affecting lecturers’ ability to pay attention to students’ learning needs. One focus group participant described student numbers as a “rally” while another participant in the group labelled the lectures as “mass lectures” and that these had the consequence of “compromising” lecturers’ attention on students. Indeed one group participant commented that: “I can’t remember 10% of the students from the group”. In addition participant P₃ also of case study institution X highlighted that high student enrolment “compromised quality”. However, P₃ recommended that “lecturers need to be self searching”. He demonstrates rare insight by challenging academics to be “prepared to assist students” rather than “condemn them”. He goes further to say that “Quality is linked in the lecturer” and that “the trend is to blame the student” instead.

The implication is that open access compromises quality and that the student is blamed for poor output. Lecturers tend to absolve themselves of any responsibility for poor student output. A case study by Quinn (2012:39) made

similar observations and recommended that in a massified higher education context, a balance between quality and equity needed to be balanced for the public 'good' if part of the university mandate was to be realised. Kandiko and Mawer (2013:11) also advocated equity of opportunity over standardisation in higher education practice.

Interview data from both institutions also show that apart from massification of higher education dependence on traditional teaching approaches short changes students from getting lecturers' attention and care apart.

In case study institution X, for example, participant P₅ explained that: "interest is there" among academics because there is "commitment to prepare notes". He also emphasised that "students are given booklets of notes" as a practical demonstration of their interest in students. Earlier the director of the T&LC also commented that lecturers "just go and perform before the students" suggesting that lecturers were not creating meaningful learning experiences for students to engage in, except dictating notes.

Similarly, participant P₁₃ of case study institution Y also blamed dependence on traditional teaching approaches and noted that:

Academics have traditional ways of doing things. We dictate notes. Truth be told lecturers are not flexible.

This suggests that lecturers' dependence on traditional teaching approaches 'cloud' them from the need to use new approaches that are responsive to student differences in a university setting characterised by large class sizes. However, whilst participant P₉ and P₁₀ highlighted the same view point as P₁₃ they questioned students' state of preparedness for university studies. For example P₉ notes that: "Students are not competent at entry". According to his view, "language proficiency constrains understanding of concepts" because of "varying backgrounds". Expanding on the same argument P₁₀ commented that "Yes, students' failure causes concern" and proposes that "investigations should

be made” and where possible “students who fail should be given a second chance”. P₁₃ in concluding the interview noted that:

They (students) appear to have been forced to come to university. They bunk lectures and they do not do assignments.

The above suggests that students lack the necessary background knowledge expected to embark on university studies. In the US, Squire (2013:3-6) made similar findings in his study of First Generation students into college. The findings documented that first generation students faced many barriers but the major one was role of social capital in student success. Yosso’s (2005:89) article on cultural capital also confirms the same argument.

Surprisingly, participants P₁₄ and P₁₅ demonstrate rare appreciation for students’ concern and care. While P₁₅ qualified a “good lecturer” as someone who has an understanding of students P₁₄ emphasised the need for training to have an awareness of students’ concerns. Below is what P₁₅ said:

Any good lecture should get an understanding of students.
An understanding of needs (students’) influences the curriculum.

This suggests that students’ needs and interests influence curriculum construction, methods choice and assessment approaches. On the other hand, P₁₄ demonstrates that staff development training has benefited him. From his experience, before training he lacked awareness about students’ concerns. However, training “opened me so that we should listen to students’ problems”. P₁₄ also appreciates that students have different dispositions where he found “mature” students were focused” and wanted “to develop educationally” compared to those “straight from school”. The participant’s understanding of his role is clear that it is to “motivate them (students) and create positive attitude to give them hope” than condemn. In other words learning opportunities that engage students meaningfully should be created. These findings are consistent

with the study conducted by Woodwick (2009) who saw value in academic training in critical pedagogy as it empowered lecturers to understand students' diversity in higher education settings.

In discussing this data it is clear that lecturers are not sensitive to the development of students particularly their learning needs. Whilst understanding student diversity in a challenging higher education environment is crucial, in order to improve student output, lecturers are not aware of its influence and role in teaching (Jen, 2012:8; Mintz, 2012:1). Lecturers appear to subscribe to the view that students are responsible for their studies and they either "sink or swim" (Quinn 2012:30) on their own. Arguably there is a tendency to externalise students' causes for not succeeding in the system outside the academics themselves. This is a conservative elitist paradigm that seeks to perpetrate the status quo which favours the privileged at the expense of the underprivileged (Giroux, 2004:61; Quinn, 2012:36; Woodwick, 2009:3).

Also although the traditional approaches and practices are dominant where the elitist and common sense notion (Grammasci, 1971) is evident as discourses that are linked to lack of sensitivity for students' success, the power of the discipline in influencing academics is also evident. Interest in research awards suggests that the research is what counts discourse (Knight and Trowler, 2001; Quinn, 2012) has the consequence of influencing academics in marginalizing the importance of focusing on students' development and their success. This is important since student success can be developed around the strengths and weaknesses which the students bring to the classroom. So, homogenous lesson plans (Illich, 1971) characterised with note dictation and students taking notes is inadequate to cater for the diversified learning needs of the students. In that light, the banking approach in teaching condemned by Freire (1970) is unlikely to produce graduates that can participate meaningfully in national transformation. The challenge is for lecturers to rethink on their teaching with the objective of coming up with teaching approaches that are responsive to handling large class sizes.

Since reflective practice is the core element of teaching (Brandenburg, 2008; Gimenez, 1999; Morian and Waysdorf, 2013; Schon, 1983), academics are encouraged to reflect on their teaching practices in order to come up with students' learning experiences that match their needs. Indeed results revealed that lecturers need to do a lot of "self searching" since teachers are reflective practitioners who continually evaluate their teaching approaches and choices. Critical theorists like Giroux (2004:54) advocate for reflective practice that will lead the teacher to respond to curriculum questions as to why certain knowledge is selected, how it is taught and assessed. The consequence of reflective practice is likely to lead to improved understanding of students' learning styles as well as use of teaching approaches that match their needs (Len, 2011:71; Mintz, 2012:1).

It also emerged from the results that students failed to get lecturers' attention because they suffered from language deficiency. This suggests that students did not have expected background knowledge in order to gain from university education suggesting that such students did not deserve attention but rather should be excluded. This thinking is reflective of the cultural capital discourse (Squire 2013:5) used to exclude the underprivileged from benefiting from higher education. Quinn (2012:39) in her case study makes similar observations that the student deficit discourse is used by neo liberals to defend undemocratic higher education practices in which students from disadvantaged backgrounds are excluded on grounds of being underprepared. From a critical realist perspective, critical pedagogy should be used to develop a more 'inclusive' higher education practice that incorporate marginalised groups into the mainstream teaching regime found in a university setting (Giroux, 2004: 44). Indeed through this approach the purpose of a university that of promoting the public 'good' would be realised.

From the results claims can be made that discourses such as the intellectual discourse, research discourse and cultural capital discourse have a strong traditional influence which contributes towards academics' lack of interest in understanding and promoting student output and success, Kandiko and Mawer, (2013:9).

4.3.3 Academic traditions and cultures as enabling or constraining factors that influence the development and implementation of academic staff development (ASD)

Under the major theme above the following sub-themes emerged:

- The competition between research and teaching
- Disciplinary traditions and cultures
- Credibility of practitioners and directors of T&LCs
- PhD qualification
- Teaching excellence Awards

These are presented and discussed below.

4.3.3.1 The competition between research and teaching and its enabling and constraining influence on the development and implementation of ASD

The competition between research and teaching is well documented in literature (Hunt, 2007; Marsh, 2011:58). The research counts discourse has created pressure on academics to research and publish while the teaching discourse equally made its demands for the university teachers' attention. In this section of the thesis, an attempt is made to examine whether the relationship between research and teaching is affected by the value and status given to each one of them and the influence of that value on ASD programmes.

A study of the data of both case study institutions X and Y (collected from interview responses to questions in Section F, Appendix1) reflect interesting insights on how the relationship between research and teaching is affected by the value and status given to each one of them. Some participants in both institutions reflect the view that research is significantly more prestigious compared to teaching. This perspective is highlighted by participants P₁, P₄ and P₅ all of case study institution X and by P₉, P₁₁ and P₁₂ of case study institution Y. For example, P₁ noted that "in practice research counts" while P₅ also confirmed that "research is superior to teaching" with P₄ adding his voice to the discourse by commenting that "research is held in high esteem than teaching".

Similarly, participants of case study institution Y also expressed the same views about research. P₉ in particular emphasised that the “status given to research compared to teaching had more weight”. In the same vein, P₁₂ echoed the same high value given to research by observing that research has status although teaching is important while P₁₁ acknowledges the influence of research on academics by stating that “it is conditional for one to be a researcher if one has to be a successful academic”.

Analysis of the data clearly shows that the superior status of research has the consequence of marginalizing the teaching role of the academic with significant impact on teacher development. Literature (Elton, 2009:9; Marsh, 2011:163) has well documented evidence that demonstrates that research enjoys superior status compared to teaching.

According to some participants, reasons for marginalization of teaching at the expense of research are located in rewards and recognition such as promotion and funding. Some participants mentioned that teaching does not attract recognition or any form of reward that is why it is lowly valued by academics. In highlighting this point, P₃ of institution X commented that a lecturer who “produced many graduates was not rewarded or recognised” while one who “produced five research articles was promoted”. Participant P₁₅ case study of institution Y added his voice to the debate by recounting that:

In my ten years I have never heard of people being rewarded for being effective teachers. Yes students talk well, nobody is interested.

These results clearly suggest that the lower status given to teaching adversely affects academics’ interest in taking teaching and teacher development activities seriously. Some scholars, (Hunt, 2007:773; Tyan and Garbet, 2007) acknowledge that research was perceived to be more important because of promotions and rewards attached to it. The implication is that academics will not have any motivation to engage in teaching because it does not attract recognition. This resonates well with literature where Kreber (2000:64)

contends that “academics’ motivation to do research is linked to rewards” associated with it. Data across both case study institutions X and Y also show that the question of research policies is yet another factor that militates against efforts to raise the importance of teaching in higher education institutions. Some participants commented that research policies that stipulated the number of articles required for tenure or promotion created a lot of pressure on academics. Participants indicated that one ignored research at his own peril. Participant P₃ of case study institution X captured the pressure so well thus:

Publish or perish. They will never say don’t teach or perish.

But it is teach less and publish more.

Similarly, participants P₉, P₁₀ and P₁₅ of case study institution Y made comments that reflect the same pressure. P₁₀ for example mentioned that:

The old adage still governs and remains relevant, publish or perish. Without research you can’t be tenured or promoted.

Expanding the same argument P₁₅ strengthened the point further by mentioning that:

People are not promoted on sensitivity to the needs of the students” but rather “on number of publications.

This demonstrates that the pressure for academics to publish has the consequence of leading academics to neglect student needs. This confirms views contended by Ramsden and Moses (1998:374) who noted that high research output by academics can lead them to disinvest their interest in students’ needs.

It is pertinent, therefore, to comment that research policies have not only contributed to the “peripherization” of teaching but also to loss of academic interest in students’ needs. It is clear, therefore, that these research policies are a constraint to teacher development and academics’ approach to APD

development and practice. In chapter 2 (sections 2.8.2.3; 2.9.1.1 and 2.9.2.1), there are case studies regionally and internationally that reveal the negative effects of research policies on academic interest in ASD. Regionally, in South Africa, Institutional Audits reflect the privileged status of research (2004:9) and in Zimbabwe ZIMCHE (2006:10) policies promote research output over teaching to count towards promotion (2.8.2.3 p 57-58). According to Gosling (2001:77), in the UK, (2.8.2.3) Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) increased funding for discipline based research leading to the marginalisation of teaching.

Deans of faculties were also asked about their views on the impact of the relationship between research and teaching. Views of deans per case study institution were sought. Interestingly, the sampled deans acknowledged that although teaching was key in their institutions, research had more weight. What was significant though was in the reasons which some of the deans of the respective case study institutions gave. While in case study institution X, D₁ explained that research was held in high esteem because it was associated with promotion and academic recognition, D₃ of case study institution Y described research as having more weight compared to teaching but gave pedagogical reasons as opposed to reward. The dean explained that “research is a key driver of other functions since it has ability to feed other priority areas of teaching”. According to D₃, for a teacher to be a good one, one would have done research that informs teaching. One needs research based knowledge to produce quality graduates. It is these quality graduates that can drive the transformation and development agenda of Zimbabwe. The comment by D₃ that points to the value of research and teaching towards quality students learning is insightful as opposed to the adverse effects of the competition between the two (Hunt, 2007; Tynan and Garbet, 2007) (2.8.2.3 p 57).

This perspective that reflects the positive value of the link between research and teaching and its influence on student learning has been raised by some participants in the debate around the competition between research and teaching discourse. Earlier in the interview, some participants acknowledged that there was a link between research and teaching and its influence on increasing the quality of student learning.

Data from across both institutions reflect this version although it is more dominant in case study institution Y because of the influence of the (PGDTE) a formal course that has modules that promote inquiry based teaching. On this, participants demonstrated rare insights on the value of research in increasing the quality of student learning. The value of lecturer research on the quality of students' learning experiences features in some of the interview extracts of the participants. In particular, participants mentioned that lecturers needed to use knowledge they would have personally researched on rather than depend on "borrowed" knowledge from other sources. Participants also highlighted that research was linked to the enhancement of discipline based specific teaching approaches as opposed to generalised approaches to the teaching of distinct disciplines. This is significant since different teaching approaches are linked to specific disciplines (Prosser, Trigwell and Tylor, 1994).

In this study, data from participants P₉, P₁₀ and P₁₁ of case study institution Y acknowledged that research contributed towards the quality of students' learning. Participant P₁₁ for example presented the argument so well thus:

There is a link between research and teaching. Research should be conducted to improve teaching. In the absence of research we import archaic knowledge and lecturers should refer to their articles (research). It motivates students.

P₉ and P₁₀ added their voices to the conversation with P₁₀ presenting his comments more eloquently thus: "research should be used in teaching. Academics can enjoy teaching through research. Influence of research towards teaching is critical". While P₉ simply stated that academics as researchers should use their researches in their teaching.

In the same vein, the Vice Chancellor of case study institution Y mentioned that:

Teaching and learning are dynamic concepts that are so intertwined with research.

On the other hand, case study institution X had one participant P₃ demonstrating the value of the link between teaching and research on the quality of student learning. Earlier in the interview, P₃ presented the view that “good researchers are good teachers.” This is a contested relationship. In table 4.2, question (c) (4.3.1 p155-156) respondents presented a contrary viewpoint by indicating that a good researcher was not necessarily a good teacher. In their view, there is no relationship between the two. Confirming this view, studies by Brew and Bund (1995a), Mash (2011:163), Ramsden and Moses (1992:273) as well as William and Blackstone (1983:842) concluded that there is no relationship between the two. Marsh (2011:163) on (2.8.2.3 p55) found out that there was no correlation between research and teaching. More recently too, Quinn (2006) in her case study of a South African university, also confirmed that there was no significant relationship between a good researcher and one’s lecturing ability. However, later in the interview P₃ demonstrated that a link that improved teaching and research enhanced the quality of learning.

These results suggest that there is need to move beyond the idea of the discourse around the competition between teaching and research and seek to maximise the benefits which students enjoy as a result of lecturer’s research. There is clear evidence from these results that lecturer research has positive impact on the teaching of one’s discipline (Newman, 1996). The potential that exists in promoting research into the teaching and learning of a discipline should be exploited through APD programmes. This is consistent with Boyer’s (1990) model of the scholarship of teaching (2.2.3 p20-21 and 2.8.2.3 p57). This version confirms views by Brew and Boud (1995a), Gomett and Holmes (1995: 52), Zinchev and Jenkins (1998) as well as Woodhouse (1998) who suggest strategies that link improved teaching and research towards the enhancement of quality in student learning. The implication is that APD has a role in promoting teaching approaches that are relevant to specific disciplines. In particular, it would be fruitful to research on issues on faculty and learning in relation to one’s disciplinary area. Critical realists such as Giroux (2004:44) and Dewey (2009) contend that research should be used to discover and construct

knowledge within a classroom context to make the learning process more real and meaningful.

A questionnaire (question 9 in Appendix 5) was used to ask respondents to indicate the academic activity they gave the most weight from among the following (a) research (b) teaching (c) community service. Space was provided on the questionnaire for respondents to make comments giving reasons for their choice. Only participants with direct experience in APD activities in their institutions were sampled. 8 respondents were sampled from each case study institution X and Y giving a total of 16. This sample would suffice to reflect trends since the qualitative methodology is the main data gathering approach. Data collected from respondents of case study institution X and Y are furnished below respectively.

Response from case study institution X

In case study institution X 7 (87.5%) respondents indicated that research was given more weight while only 1 (12.5%) of the respondents said they gave weight and recognition to teaching.

Reasons for their choices in relation to research, teaching and community service are presented below. This is what they wrote in an open ended questionnaire (question 9 Appendix5):

Respondent (R₁)

My motivation to commit my energy and effort into APD is greatly compromised by the realisation that APD will not count career wise.

Respondent (R₂)

APD could put more weight in teaching methods, learning resources.

Respondent (R₃)

One would want to deliver lectures and cover most of the workload in available time resulting in research work afforded less time.

Respondent (R₄)

Because I have to prioritise research activities APD activities are placed at the bottom of my priorities list.

Respondent (R₅)

Research is important. You then devote less time to APD. I see it as unimportant.

Respondent (R₆)

Very little attention/interest is given to APD activities as we naturally worry more about promotion.

Respondent (R₇)

Research would give more capability to do better teaching and community service.

Respondent (R₈)

Negatively – that is interest is APD.

The above write ups by respondents of case study institution X show that there is overwhelming support for research at the expense of ASD activities. Respondents' comments indicate that ASD activities suffer because they do not count towards promotion. The majority of the respondents indicated that they invested more time in research because it counted towards their career growth. It is clear that research is prioritised and given more time. By contrast, teaching is not prioritised since it is mistakenly associated with unscholarly activities such as teaching methods and lack of promotion. According to respondents, it would be a waste of time to invest in it. The effect is that APD activities will get to the bottom list of the priorities of academics because there is no motivation in engaging in them on account of no reward.

It is clear from the respondents' responses of case study institution X that research negatively affect academics' interest in participating in the institution's APD activities.

Responses from case study institution Y

In case study institution Y all the respondents 8 (100%) considered research to have more weight and recognition than teaching or community service. This is reflective of the influence of the research tradition of the institution also corroborated in responses (c) (4.3.1p162-163) and (g) (4.3.1p162) in table4.2.

When asked how this weighting affected their interest in APD, this is what they wrote in an open ended questionnaire (question 9 Appendix 5):

Respondent (R₉)

All the three activities are recognised although academics opt for research which is more objective and counts towards research.

Responded (R₁₀)

More attention is channelled towards research because it matters for promotion more that teaching.

Respondent (R₁₁)

No write up was made. It was left blank.

Respondent (R₁₂)

In the sense that research is quantified when being considered for tenure and not APD.

Respondent (R₁₃)

No write up. It was left blank.

Respondent (R₁₄)

APD requires extra time which might not be sufficient to balance the research and teaching aspect.

Respondent (R₁₆)

Became less interested because it steals away time for research and other things.

From the write ups of the respondents it would appear that research affects academics' interest in ASD negatively. Research is given more weight compared to ASD because it counts towards promotion and career progression while ASD does not. What is also pertinent is that engaging in ASD activities is considered a waste of time ("steals away valuable time for research") because it is not associated with any form of reward. Interestingly, respondents indicated that research was a quantifiable activity that can be measured objectively while teaching is not. This is consistent with findings made by Newman (1996:10) who argue that assessment of teaching was more subjective compared to research. So academics "peripherize" APD over research because research counts towards tenure and promotion.

Through triangulation of data collected through interviews, focus group discussion, documents and questionnaires, there is clear evidence that academics value research more than teaching because of the reward system that favours research. The consequence of this skewed value system is the marginalization or "peripherization" of teaching. It is also clear that this marginalization of teaching adversely affects academics' interest and approaches to teaching particularly teacher development activities such as APD development and practice.

So, the low value given to teaching by academics acts as a constraint to APD development and implementation. This is consistent with Hunt's (2007:773) contention that training courses in how to teach are problematic in institutions where teaching has a lower status than research (2.8.2.3 p57-58). It has also emerged from the results that research into the learning and teaching of a discipline (SoTL) increases the quality of student learning. This is consistent

with Rowland's (1996) research on (2.8.2.2 p55) conducted at a British University where it was found that research in the discipline improved the quality of teaching. So APD should be used to empower academics in the scholarship of teaching in the practice of their disciplines since there are different teaching approaches appropriate for each discipline (ASDUNZ, 1996; Brew and Baud, 1995a; Garnet and Holmes, 1995; Newman, 1996). This critical approach to scholarship of teaching will increase the quality of student learning.

The research counts discourse emerged as the most favoured compared to the teaching discourse. This is reflective of the power and influence of the discipline found in a university setting (Becher, 1989; Jenkins, 1996; Kreber, 2000; Trowler and Becher, 1997).

In this study, there is evidence of the power of the discipline to the extent that it determines which academic roles count and also the rewards attached to it (Henkel, 2000; Feiman-Nemser 2001). Consequently, the discipline has influence on the value system of the different roles of the academic. Following on this, the skewed value system, where research emerges as superior to teaching, becomes evident from the results. The teaching discourse finds itself being subservient to the research counts discourse on account of the fact that it lacks disciplinary field of its own and has no reward associated with it. The result has been marginalization or "peripherization" of teaching in a university setting (Hunt, 2007; Quinn, 2012). So, the competition between research and teaching in a higher education context is likely to have negative effect on academics' approach to ASD practice.

However, research has been found to be linked to adding value to the quality of learning of students. Various scholars (Anderson, 2000; Newman, 1992; Ramsden and Moses, 1992; Woodhouse, 1992) have challenged academics to exploit the link between research and teaching to add value to the quality of learning of the students.

Boyer (1990) on (2.8.2.1 and 2.8.2.3), for example, has challenged academics to move beyond "the tired old teaching versus research debate" and use the link

between the two to add value to teaching. In this study there is evidence of the value of lecturer research that informs teaching whose consequence is quality learning experiences for the students. So, APD should be used to empower academics in the scholarship of teaching, in the practice of their disciplines since there are different teaching approaches appropriate for each discipline. This critical approach to scholarship of teaching will increase the quality of student learning (Brew and Baud, 1995a; Patrick and Willis, 1998).

Notwithstanding this progressive development, the scholarship of teaching is viewed with 'scepticism' and might struggle to be mainstreamed into university cultures. Consequently, the competition between research and teaching is likely to be a constraint to ASD implementation.

4.3.3.2 Disciplinary traditions and cultures and their enabling and constraining influence on APD development and practice

Academic traditions and particularly disciplinary cultures in departments have been alleged to have influence on curriculum innovations (Baud, 1993; Quinn, 2012) in higher education institutions. Therefore, this section of the study seeks to explore the influence of disciplinary traditions and cultures on the development and implementation of APD. Interview extracts captured from responses to interview questions related to Section E (Appendix 1) from academic participants are quite revealing.

Participants from both case study institutions X and Y were of the view that discipline based research had immense influence on academics in terms of construction of their identity and professional behaviour than teaching.

In case study institution X, for example, participant P₃ observed that the power and influence of academic traditions could be viewed against the context in which "professors are given prominence and status even if they are 'bad' teachers in the eyes of students they teach." The power and influence of discipline based research would be at play here. An academic would earn professorship on grounds of outstanding research and not teaching. One would

have delivered high research output in his/her department referred to as ‘goods’ (Hankel, 2000 in Clark, Hyde and Drennan, 2011:11). Teaching has no ‘goods’ to deliver so it does not attract any honour. So, academic traditions promote research into the discipline rather than scholarship of teaching (Ramsden and Moses, 1992:273) that is viewed as the ‘discipline’ of APD whose legitimacy is questioned by mainstream academics (Quigley, 2010:22). According to P₃ the influence of academic traditions are so strong that it is acceptable to view “a student as a partner in research; through joint publication” and through that approach treating teaching as part of research becomes interesting.

This suggests that the identity and role of the academic is viewed through disciplinary research to the extent that the student is embraced within the discourse of discipline based research rather than the teaching discourse. This resonates with literature (Clark, Hyde and Drennan, 2011:7; Deem, 2006:204) that confirms that academics construct their identity through their disciplines. Weller (2011:104) on (2.8.2.2 p55-56) also argue that lecturers prefer to retain their scholarship identity based on their disciplines and resisted new identities based on higher education teaching.

The influence of disciplinary identity was also echoed by participant P₅. P₅ explained that he “aspired to be an expert in his discipline” and that his “goal was to become a professor”. The implication is that P₅’s priority is not to be a good teacher but to be a prominent professor. The influence of the discipline is evident here that academics are influenced to be experts in their fields and not in teaching. That way they will “gain status, respect and self-esteem” (Hankel, 2005 cited in Tayler, 1989:28) as reward for outstanding research output in their disciplines. By contrast, teaching does not attract much coveted honours.

The influence of academic traditions and culture on an academic is more evident in participant P₅ as he reveals his beliefs and philosophy as an academic. This is what P₅ said:

My belief and philosophy is that science development is key. Focus should be on its (science) development. At my

institution, more should be done for geography. If we die the discipline is not promoted – geography in Africa.

This clearly suggests that the participant is worried about the lack of development and growth of his discipline (Geography) that appears not to be receiving the research attention it deserves. The ‘voice’ of participant P₅ is calling for the advancement of his discipline lest it loses its status in universities in Africa. Teaching status that is low in higher education institutions is not his worry. This is a clear consequence of the effect of academic traditions and culture.

In the same vein, the Vice Chancellor of case study institution X added his voice to the views of participant P₅. The views were in response to interview questions related to Section B (Appendix 3). The Vice Chancellor highlighted his belief in promoting disciplinary development and growth through research (discipline based research). The Vice Chancellor explained that academics will be able to grow if they are able to “make a contribution in their area.” In the Vice Chancellor’s view “content of the discipline is a must” not teaching. He warns that if:

Space is not given, so the subject (discipline) does not grow and we end up not growing as discipline experts.

The Vice Chancellor’s comments echo those of participant P₅ that suggest that an academic should promote discipline based research and through it, the discipline would develop and grow. The message by the Vice Chancellor to “give space” for disciplinary development and growth is evidence of the power and influence of academic traditions and cultures. This has implications for APD, that it is not prioritised in terms of giving it space to develop whose consequence will be poor implementation.

Participant P₆, unlike participant P₃ and P₅, advocated for a broader conceptualization of the disciplinary view. He acknowledged that interest in discipline based research was a barrier to APD activities. However, P₆ argued

that a disciplinary view of interpreting the role of the academic was “not broad enough to capture social reality.” His perspective is reflective of an appreciation of the fact that knowledge is subject to different interpretation by students who have varied experiences (Mintz, 2012). The implication for academics is that learners’ conceptions need to be considered and understood to take them on board discipline based (knowledge) content. The strength of academic traditions and cultures militate against this thinking. This is consistent with the findings of Hardy and Smith (2006) who concluded in their study that participants’ discipline background and their experiences may impact training. In line with this view, participant P₆ comments that the strength and influence of academic traditions and cultures can be so strong that:

Some colleagues can find it difficult to disengage in the discipline. Lecturers have to reflect.

In the case of participant P₆, he has moved from a narrow view of the discipline expert to a broad view that captures the teaching of students in a discipline. He demonstrates his broader view by acknowledging that apart from disciplinary based activities students need to be assisted in academic writing and research for them to develop into discipline experts as well (Rowland, 2002).

The voice of P₆ is significant in that, while he acknowledges the importance of the discipline in a department, he presents a broader role of the academic that is underpinned in moral values that express responsibility for students’ learning needs; in particular students writing and research skills. The views of P₆ have implications for ASD. ASD should be embedded in the scholarship of the discipline as well as scholarship of teaching (Boyer, 1990; Newman, 1996; in Patrick and William 1998:8) as a broader project of the role of the academic in fulfilling higher education practice. This suggests that APD embedded in critical pedagogies will play a critical role in addressing learning needs of students who have less cultural capital (Squire, 2013:6), as reflected in shortage of communication and writing skills referred to by participants.

Similarly, participants in case study institution Y particularly P₉, P₁₀ and P₁₂ also mentioned that academic traditions particularly disciplinary cultures found in departments influenced academics' attitudes towards teaching. For example, participant P₉ is of the view that disciplinary identity affects APD negatively because departmental cultures prioritise discipline based research over teaching. P₉ gives an example of linguists who might view APD as an “auxiliary function” of an academic role if judged from a disciplinary perspective. Participant P₁₂, also of case study institution Y, also added his voice to the strength of the disciplinary identity discourse over teaching discourse when he commented that he constructs his identity through the discipline. In presenting his construct P₁₂ recounted that:

I consider myself as an academic first and foremost rather than a disher of knowledge.

This confirms views from literature (Becher, 1989; Deem, 2006:204; Mendoza, 2007:75) that state that discipline based research is the primary source of academic identity. Henkel (2000) and Mackenna (2004) on (2.8.2.2 p54) advocated that disciplines constituted the primary source for academic identities. Through that construction P₁₂ sees his identity as disciplined based and not teaching based. From the interview extract, it is evident that P₁₂ has a deem view of teaching which he associates with ‘dishing of knowledge’ suggesting that teaching is associated with less intellectual rigour (Giroux, 2004) compared to disciplinary research. In addition, the “disher of knowledge” discourse subscribes to the traditional teaching approach where ‘the banking concept’ (Freire, 1997 in Giroux, 2004:44) which treats students as passive receptacles of knowledge has invited criticism from critical realists (Giroux and MacLaren, 1996; Jeistyan and Woodrun, 1996) as an inadequate teaching approach.

Participant P₁₀ also expressed similar views to those of P₁₂. Early in the interview P₁₀ explains that he considers himself to be interested in both research and teaching. However, as the interview progressed, the influence and strength of the discipline discourse became quite apparent and strong. He recounts that

his discipline influences his research interest. In confirming his preference for discipline based research this is what participant P₁₀ said:

Consider myself to be both. My research interest is influenced by my discipline. Members are interested in research workshops. Multidisciplinary research is most embraced by academics. It is reinforced through multidisciplinary research which strengthens research sharing.

The argument emerging is that some academics prefer ASD based research workshops rather than teaching development workshops that are viewed not to be related to the development of the discipline. In particular, multidisciplinary research approaches are embraced by academics because they promote collegiality (Mathias, 2005:97) and development of communities of practice (Mathias, 2005; Trowler and Knight, 2000; Viskoic, 2006) characterized by knowledge sharing. The strength of disciplinary cultures articulated by the above participants of case study institution Y were captured so well by participant P₁₃ of the same institution. Unlike participants P₉, P₁₀ and P₁₂, P₁₃ interestingly brings in the notion of ‘academic tribes’ (Becher and Trowler, 2001:33) where he describes departmental members as “a family”. This suggests that academics who belong to a department are ‘a tribe’ who are defined by the same traits such as the same disciplinary identity, values, language and conceptual framework” (Kongen, 2000:210). As can be deduced, teaching is not part of the traits of the ‘academic tribe’ (Henkel, 2000 in Gosling, 2010:8). In his argument, P₁₃ posits that disciplinary interests are paramount to members of the ‘tribe’ to the extent that introduction of APD activities are interpreted as an interference. P₁₃ presented the point so eloquently thus: “We are a family. As a family and something [APD] comes along it interferes us”.

These results suggest that academic tribes promote research interests of their disciplines. This strongly suggests that academic tribes as part of strong academic structures and traditions have a less positive influence on the

development and implementation of APD programmes. A claim can be made that uptake of APD programmes will be very poor on account of the influence of departmental cultures. Low uptake rate of ASD programmes reflected in table 4.2 question (e) (4.3.1 p156) can partly be located to the strength of the discipline.

In this section of the thesis, results show that academic cultures particularly departmental cultures have a huge influence on academics in the way they construct their identity and actualise that identity as discipline based researchers (Weller, 2011:104). The teaching discourse has no influence on how academics construct their identity (Deem, 2006:205). Rewards and honours such as professorship associated with discipline based research output (Henkel, 2005; Kogan, 2000:210) are further motivations for academics that have the consequence of negatively undervaluing teaching and teacher development in preparing academics to teach in higher education institutions (Luzecky and Badger, 2008). It is evident from these results that traditional academic cultures do not reward teaching and by implication ASD. This arises from the perspective that ASD is viewed as a field in higher education that lacks a discipline of its own. In chapter 2, Quinn (2006) on (2.8.1.2) described this as a misconceptualization of ASP since it has developed into a field in its own right. However, this misconceptualization has negative effects on ASD and its development among practitioners.

Both teaching and ASD have been misconceived as non academic and, therefore, not legitimate (Quinn, 2012; Rowland, 2002). Academic imperatives like these will lead academic staff development not to be integrated into the academic culture and traditions of the institution. The challenge is to present ASD as a scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) with the objective of making academics understand their disciplines through discipline based research and scholarship of teaching (research into the teaching of the discipline (Baud, 1993:10).

The notion of discipline tribes featured as a major characteristic of academic traditions and cultures embedded in departments whose influence militates

against APD programmes (Henkeel, 2000 in Clarke et al., 2011:8). Consequently, academic cultures which characterise higher education tend to impact on ASD less positively. According to the results, this is so because disciplinary interests are paramount to members of the ‘tribe’ to the extent that introduction of APD activities is interpreted as an interference.

In the light of these results, one can safely conclude that academic traditions and cultures, particularly departmental cultures constrain implementation of APD programmes. However, results also showed that academics in their disciplines could embrace teaching if they adopted a broader view of their academic identity in which the ‘students’ learning needs formed part of academics’ reflection in the teaching of the discipline. This resonates well with critical realists such as Giroux (2004) and Illich (1997) whose call for consideration of students’ cultural, economic and language needs in determining appropriate instructional methods is emphasised. Consequently, space could be created for embedding APD in the scholarship of the discipline as well as scholarship of teaching (Newman, 1996 in Ramsden and Moses, 1992:274). However, Weller (2011:104) warns that lecturers’ construction of learning, teaching and research is hugely influenced by one’s discipline to the extent that “new identities” with wider obligations of lecturers as higher education educators are resisted. Mills and Hubber (2005) in Quinn (2012:56) also warn against “imposed formalisations” from other fields in this case ASD that could harm the disciplinary identity of academics. The concern of the academic is on the discipline’s growth through research rather than on teaching. That explains why some participants are worried about the demise of some subjects like geography. The academic participant wants to uphold the “integrity of the curriculum” (subject discipline) and the “practice of the discipline” (Clegg, 2009:410) particularly his Geography lest it does not develop. Lecturers would rather be viewed as scholars of their disciplines rather than scholars of teaching.

Interdisciplinary research associated with “communities of practice” and collegiality was also suggested to be promoted through research workshops. Barlov and Antonian (2007) and Postaref et al.(2007) on (2.8.2.1 p54) argue that communities of practice promote understanding and collegiality among

academics. This is also reflective of the strength of discipline based research that has the effect of constraining APD activity. So, epistemological concerns expressed by the participant demonstrate that the academic is concerned about ensuring that the students learn his discipline. So, reflection into teaching will help the lecturer understand the discipline through the scholarship of research (discipline based research) and the (scholarship of teaching and learning) research into the teaching of the discipline (D'Andrea and Gosling, 2005:148; Rowland 2002:66) (2.8.2.2. p55-56). However, APD can include workshops or seminars on interdisciplinary research with the objective of driving benefits from it such as sharing teaching approaches applicable across disciplines as well as promoting peer fellowship (collegiality).

It could be concluded therefore, that academic traditions and cultures have a strong bearing on constraining implementation of teacher development activities of academics through APD. It also emerged from the results that departmental cultures can be used to promote interdisciplinary research which APD might embrace in its research based workshops designed to promote the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL).

4.3.3.3 Credibility of practitioners and directors of Teaching and Learning Centres (T&LCs) their influence on ASD programmes

Literature has documented evidence that reveals that change agents as key actors need to have power (Archer, 1995:198) and the credibility (D'Andrea and Gosling, 2005; Gosling (2001) to be effective as transformative agents in HEIs (2.3.2 and 2.8.2.1 p54). So, the question of the academic credibility of practitioners as key actors in driving the ASD strategy in universities is examined in this section of the thesis. Interview extracts were drawn from responses to interview questions related to Section D (Appendix1) and Section A (Appendix 2).

Participants from both case study institutions X and Y highlighted that academic practitioners and directors were categorized as non academic. However, in some instances some participants exhibited rare insights in which academic staff

development was viewed as an academic activity in its own right. Interview extracts from participants demonstrated that disciplinary knowledge remains a significant factor in influencing the credibility and legitimacy of practitioners in the eyes of mainstream academics. The interview data below demonstrates this. Participants of case study institution X interview extracts are presented first.

P₁ Belief is in subject development to earn status

P₄ It is difficult to draw a line to see if the developer is an academic. Professional status is compromised if academic mastery is not done.

Researcher: Can you consider a career in academic staff development?

P₄ If the attitude towards Teaching and Learning Centre is anything to go by not many will be keen. Many feel that working in such a centre one is compromised. The perception is Teaching and Learning Centre is reserved for those who are less academic so I wouldn't take up a career in ASD.

P₆ Directors of teaching and learning centres are not perceived as academic leaders.

Researcher: Why?

P₆ Requirements for directors emphasize educational experience, administration, maturity and emotional stability.

Director (T&LC) No, people see the teaching and learning centre as an administration unit and not an academic unit.

Researcher: Why is that so?

Director (T&LC) The perception is the unit has been set up by administration to help them in their administration jobs. The academic element is yet to be felt. So it's for convenience of administration set up to make sure that people are policed.

Focus Group Participant (XU) It (Teaching and Learning Centre) lacks credibility. It should be a non faculty unit.

Dean (D₁) They (practitioners) are academics but they provide support and administration in teaching and learning centres.

Researcher: How do they do that?

Dean (D₁) Supporting teaching departments in producing materials, for instance, handouts on marking, how to handle big classes. This is helpful in social sciences. Hosting workshops and induction activities for new lecturers are good strategies.

Vice Chancellor (XU) A person (director) who understands Teaching and Learning Centre as an academic area. They should be in it. They run programmes of an academic nature. They should also offer support. Currently that is the function. It (ASD) should be a specialist area. It should focus in inquiry; know your area, related issues to the highest fora.

Data from case study institution Y was equally revealing although participants highlighted requirements and qualifications for practitioners and directors which had no bearing on academic qualifications. Below is what participants in case study institution Y said:

Participant (P₁₂) – Qualifications for a director (T&LC) should be one with a vision, buy in of a Vice Chancellor, knowledgeable, a people's person.

Participant (P₁₅) – Facilitators in our teaching and learning centre have vast experience in high schools and teachers colleges. So, is high school pedagogy relevant to the university environment? This is a challenge to be looked into. Adults are disposed to andragogy rather than high school pedagogy. The facilitator should demonstrate a sound rootedness in university experience.

There is need for a deliberate effort to root experience in the higher education set up.

Dean 3 (YU) – Practitioners should be recruited from Faculty of Education because that is the basis of teaching methods. Lecturers should use more methods and avoid talking too much. Practitioners should be academics who have taught in higher education. These are former principals of teachers colleges with tertiary experience.

Dean 4 (YU) – Academic staff development is an academic activity.

Researcher: Why?

Dean 4(YU) – It is because it is based on academic rigour. It has theories like any other.

Researcher: What qualifications should practitioners have?

Dean 4 – Experience in education. Most of them have been principals in teachers colleges. Emotional and psychological maturity are critical issues. Initially people thought they were not academics but attitude has changed because of research output and members were not sure of what they would get from colleagues in education.

Data from both case study institutions particularly case study institution X show that the status of practitioners and directors is a contested one because they lack professional identity. Participants particularly P₁ and P₄ emphasized the question of “subject” and “academic mastery” respectively reflecting the power of the discipline in determining the credibility of an academic in a higher education institution. So, the contestation arises from the perspective that, while academics’ identity is heavily influenced by their disciplines (Deem, 2006:204; Henkel, 2000; Mckenna, 2004; Kogan, 2006:204; Trowler and Becher, 1996:7), practitioners are not because ASD’s status as a discipline is questioned (Gosling, 2001:27; Boud, 1999:6). Recently, Quinn (2006:216) on (2.8.1.2 p52) found in her study that the credibility of practitioners was questioned on account

of their practice that lacked scholarship. For example, in case study institution X, the dean (D₁) is of the view that the content of ASD is about “supporting department” through “hosting workshops” and giving “handouts on marking” while dean (D₃) of case study institution Y emphasised the role of practitioners in dishing out “lots of teaching methods to lecturers”. This demonstrates that ASD is a non-academic activity that lacks disciplinary knowledge of its own, serve the game of skills acquisition evident in the data. ASD lacks pedagogic literature of its own. Similar views were expressed in chapter2 (2.8.1.2) by Haig (2007) in Higher Education Exchange (2007:44), Deem (2006:204) and Kogan 207:210) that ASD lacks pedagogic literature of its own and research products in the form of research publications to qualify as a discipline. Consequently, the disciplinary standing of ASD is questioned because in the eyes of mainstream academics, activities of ASD are mere workshops on teaching and learning (Light and Cox, 2001:14) with the consequence of practitioners lacking identity and legitimacy (Henkel, 2000; Mckenna, 2004). As key actors of ASD or agents, the argument then is that academic development practitioners lack “properties and power” to transform higher education (Archer, 1995:198). This is a constraint to the development of ASD practice because practitioners are then viewed as “merely trainers” (Rowland, 2003:15) and para-professionals (McDonald, 2003:5-6) whose roles are misconceptualized as non academic. So, lack of disciplinary standing of academic development practitioners has a significant unenabling effect on APD. It is viewed as a field that lacks intellectual rigour (Kolfoil, 2012:36) as opposed to intellectual activity consistent with discipline based research (Deem, 2006).

Studies in South Africa confirmed similar trends. An evaluation report by Scott (1998:12) on the effectiveness of academic development showed that deans and professors lacked confidence in the credibility of teaching and learning centres (2.8.2.4 p61). In another study, Cleggy (2005:149) commented that practitioners were treated as second class citizens whilst Volbrecht (2005:599) was also of the view that practitioners have less positive influence in the professionalization of higher education because they lacked good reputation on account of questionable academic credentials. In explaining the reason, Gosling (2009:6) on (2.8.2.2) highlighted that ASD has no field that could be categorized as a

scientific field to be researched. In these studies, the effect of poor credibility of practitioners has constrained development of ASD practice.

The challenge and struggle is to present APD as a legitimate and academic activity (Ramsden, 2009:81; Kell, 2005:13). Boyer's (1990:17-25) four forms of scholarship have been used as a basis to defend the shift in thinking. Participant P₄ of case study institution X resisted this perspective by arguing that taking up a career in ASD would be "compromising on one's academic future." He put the point so well by saying: "The perception is Teaching and Learning Centre is reserved for those who are less academic. So I wouldn't take up a career in ASD." This suggests that academics view ASD as an area that is not linked to disciplinary knowledge. This perspective resonates with literature where Clarke (1997:44) notes that bodies of knowledge determine the behaviour of individuals and departments. The traditional perspective of ASD as a supportive one is prevalent. Its role is viewed as workshop based and, therefore, non-academic. In table 4.2, respondents to question (d) overwhelmingly believed that ASD programmes were heavily workshop based with respondents of case study institution X unanimously (100%) confirming the view point (4.3.1 p162-163). The implication, therefore, is that the broader view of the role of the academic whose identity is not limited or defined by the discipline alone is resisted by academics (Rowland, 2002:66; Weller, 2011:104) (2.8.2.2). So, academic traditions and cultures, where the professional identity of the academic is influenced by the discipline, are so strong that it constrains development of APD practice. The consequence would be ineffective transformation of higher education and low quality education.

Results also appear to show that academic development practitioners do not hold PhD degrees. Bio data confirms this (see table4.1). Out of 24 respondents only 7(29.5%) held PhDs against 17(70.5%) who held masters degrees (4.2. p159). All practitioners fell in the latter category that does not hold doctoral degrees. This compromises the credibility of practitioners in the eyes of academics in a higher education environment in which the number of degrees one holds counts as a source of credibility (Quinn, 2012:36). PhD qualifications add value to practitioners' properties and power (Archer, 1995) as agents of

ASD. Results also show that practitioners are recruited on the strength of their teaching experience that is mostly schools dominant and not related to higher education. For example, participant P₆ of case study institution X highlighted that recruitment requirements for practitioners “emphasised administrative experience, maturity and emotional stability” rather than academic qualifications reflective of disciplinary training. Similarly, participants P₁₂ and P₁₅ of case study institution Y made similar observations with participant P₁₂ mentioning that a director had to be one with a vision and being a people’s person with participant P₁₅ adding his voice to the debate by questioning the relevance of high school pedagogy to a university teaching environment. The implication is that ASD is viewed as an area which lacks training, has no discipline compared to disciplinary knowledge whose expertise is developed through PhD training. Lack of these academic qualities is a weakness that compromises the effectiveness of practitioners as change agents that can inspire academics to change their attitudes towards teaching and bring about institutional transformation (Quinn, 2012:36).

Studies in Australia revealed similar experiences. Gosling (2008:3-4) on (2.8.2.4: p61) for example found in his survey that in Australia academic developers lacked credibility because they were recruited on the strength of teaching in schools and lacked discipline based research background and training consistent within a university setting.

This suggests that practitioners need to demonstrate that they are scholars of higher education practice and that ASD is a discipline comparable to any other in its own right (Comber and Walsh, 2007; Deem, 2006; Moore, 2003). It is critical then that research into the scholarship of teaching is practically demonstrated through publications in journals and books (Boughey and Mckena, 2012; Quinn, 2012:38). Gosling (2008:153) on (2.8.2.2 p55-56) defended the disciplinary standing of ASD that reflect the development of the movement of ASD as a discipline in its own right. In the absence of such scholarship advocated for by Boyer (1990), academic development practitioners will lack credibility as scholars with the consequence of a constraining effect in the transformation of higher education through ASD.

It also emerged from the results that academics had negative attitudes towards practitioners because of their patronising attitudes. An attitude like this constrains ASD implementation. The relationship should be collegial (Achinstein, 2002) since both academics (as students) and practitioners (as lecturers) will be co-constructors of knowledge in a social situation (Boughey and Mckena, 2012 in Quinn, 2012:35). Academics like any student need to be treated with respect (Comber and Walsh, 2007) for them to develop interest in ASD in a sustainable way. A collegial relationship that has potential to develop a community of practice (Wenger and Snyder, 2000:139) has an enabling effect in developing ASD practice in higher education. It is imperative for practitioners to promote it.

Interestingly, some data extracts show that some academics view ASD as bona fide academic work with its own specialism based on sound theory. The Vice Chancellor of case study institution X acknowledged that the role of the director of a T&LC was academic. He advocated for the treatment of ASD as “a specialist area” whose focus is scholarly inquiry into the teaching of the discipline associated with serious intellectual rigour at the highest level. In the same vein, dean (D₄) of case study institution Y acknowledged that ASD is an academic activity based on theories and is underpinned on intellectual rigour like any other discipline. This resonates with the call by Boyer’s (1990:17-25) four forms of scholarship in which the scholarship of teaching is taken as a serious form of scholarship. Also, studies by McDonald (2003:5-6) advocated for the promotion of research into the teaching of the discipline as a scholarship in its own right. The implication is that viewing ASD from this perspective will make practitioners and directors have credibility in the world of academia and the T&LC will earn the status of an academic unit rather than an administrative unit whose role is to police academics. The consequence would be effective development of APD practice rather than its resistance.

From these results, it can be concluded that practitioners and directors lack credibility in the eyes of academics on account of lack of disciplinary identity. The status of ASD as a discipline is also contested and questioned with the consequence of its actors such as practitioners being categorized as non-

academic and the T&LC described as a non faculty unit. This discourse has a constraining effect on the development of ASD practice and ultimately on the quality of teaching and learning in higher education institutions. The challenge is to present APD as a legitimate and academic activity. However, some rare insights that reflect ASD as an academic activity or specialist area with its own theory and scholarship that has been evident albeit to a limited scale. In order to counter the non academic status of practitioners and ASD, there is need to reconceptualise ASD activities from the workshop and skills paradigm to an integrated paradigm in which research into the discipline is linked to the scholarship of teaching.

4.3.3.4 PhD qualification and its conditioning influence on ASD

The view that a PhD qualification is a guarantee for ‘good’ teaching has been studied (Biggs, 1999; Postreff et al., 2007) but lead to inconclusive results. In order to determine the influence of a PhD qualification on professionalization of the academic role of teaching participants were directly asked about its influence on teaching. Participants were responding to interview questions related to Section D (Appendix 1) and Section C (Appendix 2).

Data from across both case study institutions reflect a striking different view from a commonly held view about a PhD qualification’s influence on teaching in universities. The commonly held view is that a PhD qualification is a guarantee for good teaching in a university (Lee and Green, 1997:4). Dominant views reflected in interview extracts show that contrary to expectation a PhD qualification is not a guarantee for one to be a good teacher. There was general agreement among participants from both case study institutions that a PhD qualification was not a guarantee for good teaching. For example, in case study institution X participant P₁ commented that:

PhD is not a guarantee for effective teaching. It’s just a piece of paper, they need experience.

Similarly P₄ and P₅ made the same comments. While P₄ observed that:

It (PhD) is not a guarantee for one to be a good teacher. It improves research skills. However, I have a higher degree but I can't handle a large class. There is need for pedagogies to handle large classes.

P₅ on the other hand argued that there were “good lecturers” without a PhD while it is just a requirement by the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE). Later in the interview P₆ eloquently explained the point so well thus:

Personally, as a PhD candidate, I do not think so. PhD does not add value to teaching and learning because the thesis is not aligned to what the academic will be doing in the classroom. PhD digs into a discipline. The PhD holder would need professionalization. I AM NOT undervaluing PhD (P₆, XU).

Surprisingly, similar views are reflected in participants' data of case study institution Y. Participants mentioned that although a PhD was a coveted qualification it did not make one a good teacher. P₁₃, for instance, sounded more intellectual in his argument when he remarked that “it's (PhD discourse) not about qualification but conceptualization of teaching”. Finally, P₁₅ explained the view by recounting that a PhD is “purely an academic qualification” where someone has “acquired some expertise in a discipline.” But that knowledge does not translate into delivery. P₁₅ concluded his contribution by commending that:

A PhD was not an end in itself in as far as being holistic i.e. having knowledge and being an effective educator who facilitates effective teaching and learning.

So far these results imply that a PhD qualification is not a guarantee for one to be a ‘good’ teacher. It is also imperative from the results that PhD holders teaching in universities need professionalization through APD. Similar findings were made in the UK by Gibbs and Coffrey (2004) in their study of the impact

of training university teachers. They found that to hold a PhD qualification did not translate into effective teaching (Gibbs and Coffrey 2004:91). Volbrecht (2003:155) on (2.9.2.1) noted that a PhD meant to some that they were automatically good teachers.

However, academic participant P₁₂ of case study institution Y held a contrary view. From his experience P₁₂ felt that PhD holders were treated differently. They were not expected to undergo APD training. The reason for the selective treatment could be traced to the view that an expert in a field is competent to teach in a subject area of his speciality. Griffin, Green and Medhurst (2005) in Postareff (2007: 557) made the same observation in their investigation between professionalization and disciplinary identity. Views were extracted from responses to interview questions raised in Section D, Appendix 3. They found that discipline experts paid more attention to research in their disciplines more than professionalization of teaching programmes launched by their institutions. The Vice Chancellor of case study institution X echoed similar views. Contrary to the call for excellence in teaching that is evident in data across both case study institutions X and Y, in the interview, The VC argued in for excellence in the discipline rather than in teaching. According to the VC, a PhD qualification made one both an expert in the discipline and in teaching. The VC argued his case thus:

An academic is one who is an expert. A PhD holder in linguistics can, therefore, teach. Excellence should be in the discipline rather than in teaching. Teaching is for people in education (Faculty of Education).

This is consistent with findings made by Bailey 1999 in Postareff et al (2007:560) in his research focusing on academics' motivation on research and teaching. He found out that gaining higher qualifications increased academics motivation for doing research than teaching. In chapter 2, Mangematin (2000:749) on (2.8.1.1) argued that holding a PhD was a stronger criteria in recruitment of university teachers since it enhanced quality of research in a

faculty. Similar views on this discourse were made in this study on a section that explored whether academics felt the need for ASD programmes.

The Vice Chancellor's comments are reflective of his conception of an academic role, which he views as subject development and research (Postarett et al., (2007:558). This view suggests that genuine professional development will come about by addressing university management's conceptions of teaching and learning.

Results on the impact of a PhD qualification on the professionalization of teaching role of the academic has given rise to two perspectives of teaching. On the one hand, academic participants conceptualized teaching as effective delivery of teaching that is student centred (Postareff et al., 2007:550). On the other hand, management conceptualized teaching as excellence in the discipline (Griffin, Green and Medhurst, 2005:38) associated with teacher centred methods. The PhD holder is viewed as source of knowledge which is delivered through the lecture method (Coffrey and Gibbs, 2000). The latter approach has shortcomings because the method relies on old traditional approaches where the teacher transmits his own self constructed knowledge to students regarded as passive recipients (Postreff et al., 2007:558) with no experiences that can be regarded as sources of knowledge (Biggs, 1999; Kember, and Kwan, 2002; Samelowiz and Bain, 2001). It also came out clearly that a PhD qualification is not a guarantee for the holder to be a 'good' teacher. Results in Table 4. 2, response to question (b) (4.3.1 p162-165) corroborate this viewpoint that a PhD qualification does not make one a 'good' university teacher.

From these results, it can be concluded that ASD can be influenced negatively by PhD academic holders who conceptualize professional development as excellence in teaching of the discipline (associated with teacher centred methods). However, academics who view it as excellence in teaching (associated with student centred methods) might view ASD positively. It is imperative, therefore, that academics are professionalized to be empowered through ASD with child centred methods that are consistent with critical pedagogies that value learners' experiences as sources of knowledge (Giroux,

2004:46). Scholars such as Bauer and Prenzel (2012:1643) have also recommended use of child centred methods in European Union Universities through professionalization of the teaching of the academic. Following on this, it is important to note that academics particularly management whose conceptualization of teaching is excellence in the discipline (result of PhD training) are likely to constrain development and implementation of academic professional development (APD) programmes. The implication is, therefore, that APD programmes should be designed to explain and conscientise all academics inclusive of PhD and non PhD holders the value of engaging in ASD to improve the quality of teaching and learning and bringing about transformation in higher education.

4.3.3.5 Teaching Excellence Awards and their conditioning influence on development and implementation of ASD practice

In the face of low status accorded to teaching, universities have introduced Teaching Excellence Awards in an attempt to promote the profile and status of teaching in higher education institutions (Gosling, 2007). This section of the thesis attempts to find out from sampled participants the extent to which the award has promoted interest of academics in teaching. Participants were specifically asked about their views about the Teaching Excellence Awards. Responses to interview questions in Section G (Appendix 1) provided the interview data.

Data from across both institutions X and Y is quite revealing. In interviews, participants felt that teaching awards invited scorn among its recipients rather than status and acceptance among peers. In some cases it invited laughter instead of respect which is indicative of lack of seriousness associated with the award and what it represents.

Interview extracts from participants in both case study institutions X and Y clearly demonstrate that Teaching Excellence Awards are not positively viewed in institutions since the idea was introduced. This view was eloquently expressed by P₁₅ of institution Y when he mentioned that the award was not

taken seriously but was viewed with scorn instead. In the interview this is what P₁₅ specifically said:

“K! K! K! (laugh) I will base my response on experience. It (the award) invites scorn. Given the nature of the institution (research based university) it will be something to laugh about.

P₁₀ of the same case study institution Y also made his comments. He mentioned that Teaching Excellence Awards were “not well received by academics,” suggesting that they are not positively viewed. Participants in case study institution X expressed similar views. For example, P₆ remarked that “attempts to recognise teaching is viewed with suspicion while P₃ was sceptical about the award because the basis for its selection is opaque.

Internationally, studies in the US (2.9.1.2 p93-98), UK (2.9.1.1 p82-93) and South Africa (2.9.2.1 p105-111)) have revealed that teaching awards are scorned and not taken seriously (Gosling 20007; 2008). In the UK, for example, Shelton (2004:459-463) on (2.9.1.1) commented that the award invited contempt from peers and resulted in the receiver feeling isolated than feel to be a member of a community of practice.

In the US similar experiences were felt and commented on by Burbles and Callister (2000). In their study on the effect of these awards, Burbles and Callister (2000:275) on (2.9.2.1) remarked that the awards were associated with “less positive joyful dimension experiences” among faculty.

These studies and results demonstrate that in the eyes of the academic what counts is research and not teaching excellence. A teaching award appears not contribute to the status of the academic. So, outstanding achievement in teaching turns out to be a laughable matter among peers.

Participants gave reasons which are behind these negative attitudes. P₂ of case study institution X felt that a teaching award was shunned because it did not

demonstrate scholarship unlike research. P₂ further emphasised the point that academics do “not want to be called teachers because teaching is not associated with scholarship but it’s a function associated with a teacher”. On the other hand, some participants were less receptive to the idea of awards because they questioned the objectivity of the selection process in coming up with the outstanding lecturer in teaching. For example, P₃ of case study institution X commented that: “it is a predetermined award” and in his view the selection is ‘biased’. P₁, also of case study institution X, gave his reasons and questioned how teaching could be objectively measured. In his view research criterion is clear and research papers speak for themselves unlike teaching.

Similar reasons also featured in case study institution Y. P₁₄ questioned the objectivity of assessing a good teacher from a bad teacher. According to him, “it is a bit difficult.” This is what P₁₄ specifically said “you need a mechanism that would satisfy everyone. What criteria would be there to determine the ‘bad’ lecturer in law, physics, surveying.”

Similarly P₁₀ expressed his scepticism thus:

What is the criteria? Who would do that? It is easier to give Vice Chancellor’s Teaching Award on the basis of research. It is objective and measurable. It is a bean counting game. Articles are there to see.

The implication arising from these comments is that teaching awards are not well received and recognised because the selection process is not based on clear objective criteria. Unlike research whose criteria is objective, teaching’s criteria is rather opaque and needs to be developed to become more objective and measurable. The consequence of these attitudes is scepticism by academics associated with the selection process that results in trivialising teaching.

On the other hand, there were some participants whose responses were not explicitly negative but suggested that awards should be for research rather than

for teaching. Interestingly, these participants are all from case study institution Y which is reflective of its strong research tradition. Participant P₁₃ made his preference for research awards instead of teaching awards very clear. He recommended that awards should be given to research not only because of the recognition it attracts for the academic but also that research does contribute towards the ranking of an institution. By contrast, P₁₄ argued that teaching awards do not bring recognition to academics nor do they contribute to institutional ranking. Participant P₁₂ also of case study institution Y added his voice to the debate in support of research awards. P₁₂ argued that teaching awards are limited in value because “it ends on the day the award is presented.” By contrast, research awards are far reaching and lead to promotion which is a permanent position in one’s career. The position of P₁₂ is that teaching award is not coveted because it attracts no promotion. Instead, every serious scholar aims to become a professor and a teaching award does not count towards that title. In stressing the recognition given to research over teaching P₁₂ mentions that “every academic loves the title. That’s why academics burn candles away to do research. Candles are never burnt for teaching.”

Deans of the two institutions also added their voices to the teaching excellence award debate. Interview extracts from Deans were generated from responses to interview questions in Section C (Appendix 3). D₂ of case study institution X promoted the research agenda by advocating for research awards instead of teaching awards. According to D₂, the teaching awards are not coveted and neither are they “celebrated achievements”. In D₂’s view, unlike research, it is not considered for promotion and neither do recipients of teaching awards attract international status. D₂ concluded that: “So the teaching awards cannot be equated to a research award”.

Surprisingly, D₃ of institution Y fears that teaching awards might trigger a rush for awards at the expense of quality. He further expresses his scepticism about the award and laughs in the process demonstrating that the award is not taken seriously by academics.

Clearly these results suggest that Teaching Excellence Awards have not been successful in promoting the status of teaching in universities. The benefits expected in raising the status of teaching through teaching awards are evidently not there. These teaching awards have not paid any positive ‘dividends’ in terms of raising the status of teaching. The research counts paradigm is stronger than the teaching paradigm (Quinn, 2012). Instead of celebrating achievements in teaching it is devalued. So strong and formidable are academic traditions and culture that they militate against measures to raise the importance and value of teaching (Becher, 1989; Gunn, 2003). In South Africa, Gosling (2009:27) on (2.9.2.1) made similar comments when he found out that academics “valued research over teaching because their identity was based on it” (research).

The same cannot be said about teaching. It has the consequence of not stimulating the professional identity of university teachers as teachers develop their expertise (Coate et al., 2001). From these results, it can be claimed that teaching awards have not been successful in raising the profile of teaching. The reasons are located in academic traditions and culture found in universities. This discourse received extensive discussion earlier in this thesis (2.8.2.2, 2.9.1.1). These academic traditions have the effect of constraining development and sustainability of APD programmes and practice. In the end the status quo in higher education will remain. The question of raising the quality of students’ learning experiences will remain unaddressed. Traditional teaching methods found to be inadequate to deal with new generation of students will be perpetuated. In Chapter 2, on (2.5.1) Giroux (1994) and Tera (2010:1) highlight the shortcomings of traditional teaching methods and challenge universities to equip lecturers with new approaches that bring about quality teaching and learning experiences for the student. APD embedded in critical pedagogies should be developed if quality and access in higher education are to be addressed positively.

A scientific template that captures these concerns should be developed for use to measure teaching excellence objectively. An objective approach has the potential to have the Teaching Excellence Award gain peer respect as well as raising the profile of teaching in a higher education setting.

4.3.4 Institutional conditions and their enabling or constraining influence on the development and implementation of academic staff development (ASD)

Under the major theme above the following sub-themes emerged:

- Institutional policies
- Institutional environment
- Institutional management support
- Institutional and national structures

These are presented and discussed below.

4.3.4.1 Institutional policies and their enabling or constraining effect on ASD programmes

Academic staff development needs to be supported by policies which create an enabling and supportive environment for it to be effective (Cohem and Mirch, 1974: 2006; Trowler, 2002:3). Participants were asked their views on whether institutional policies existed that enabled or constrained development of APD practices (interview questions were related to Section G (Appendix 1), Section C (Appendix 2) and Section C (Appendix 3). Views of participants were captured and discussed below.

In both case study institutions X and Y participants hold the view that institutions lacked supporting and enabling policies for the development of ASD practice. Participants were so clear about their positions regarding policies that their responses not only expressed an awareness of the need for institutional policies that are enabling for ASD but also provided some policy suggestions in some instances. This is what they said by case study institution. In case study institution X participants said:

P₂ - I am not aware of any policies on academic staff development. I will lie.

P₃ - not aware of any [policy] materially or otherwise.

P₄ - not at the moment. There aren't any [policies]. The centre is planning to offer a Higher Education Diploma. If introduced properly it might be accepted

P₆ - policies are none. Not to my knowledge. I don't have information on it. I don't have their [management] implementation strategy.
Vice Chancellor – no policies in place – very minimal.

Focus group discussion

Participants pointed out that the institution did not have policies to create enabling conditions for ASD programmes to be implemented. This is one of the discussants' emphatic comment: 'I would say no, no set guidelines. There are some limiting factors'.

Similar views were expressed by participants in case study institution Y. However, although clear enabling institutional policies around ASD are not in place, they find their expression through policies on tenure. From interview extracts a perspective has emerged that participation in ASD has been made conditional for tenure. Case study institution Y's participants made the following observations.

P₁₀ The year book has policies on expectations in terms of research, teaching, community service for promotion. But for ASD, I am not privy to that. It is somewhere.

P₁₁ Although policies are not in place, they are coercive for tenure. Rather policies should encourage understanding of ASD then policies should be part of contracts.

P₁₂ New lecturers cannot be tenured without training in ASD. It is compulsory whether one has a PhD or not.

P₁₅ I am not sure whether there is a policy written. It would require higher authorities. I was just a participant. However, the university has a clear gender and promotion policy. I am not sure there is a clear policy that covers ASD.

DEAN (D₃) Academic staff development is a requirement for tenure. It applies to inexperienced members of staff.

Dean (D₄) Like I said earlier on for one to be tenured one has to be a benefactor of APD. So a policy on ASD alone, I am not sure.

Vice Chancellor Staff development policy is crafted in a manner that considered the staff development programme as an integral part of the university curriculum.

Results from the case study institutions are revealing. It is clear from participants' views that they are not aware of the existence of institutional policies that might be supportive and enabling in the development of ASD practice in institutions. Disturbingly, executive members of management also confirmed that policies around ASD that might create enabling conditions were "minimal" if any at all. Documents in Human Resources made reference to PhD staff development policy but there is no reference to staff development policy on teaching in faculties. Interestingly, in the view of some participants ASD policies were privy to some most likely the executive and administrators of the institution suggesting that the policies are unknown to key agents and actors of ASD such as academics.

Studies conducted by Volbrecht (2003:15) in South Africa on the development of academic development experiences showed that higher education institutions had unclear policies on ASD. Also Quinn's (2006:153) case study confirmed that lack of enabling institutional policies was linked to the absence of enabling structures for a coherent model of academic development. In chapter 2, Volbrecht (2003:101-105) on (2.9.1.2) comments that the USA does not have integrative higher education policies. Instead, policies were the responsibility of individual states and universities.

The consequence of having unclear ASD policies will lead to poor and ineffective development of programmes that will have less effective influence to professionalise academics into university teachers. For example, the capacity of teaching and learning centres (T&LC's) will be neglected rendering the development of ASD to be ineffective. Also guidance of staff development practices and development of capacity for academic development practitioners will be eroded. Clearly, absence of such policies will not only result in unenabling institutional conditions for the development of ASD programmes but lack of capacity, poor visibility and legitimacy of the programme as well

(Barnes et al., 1994:4; Boughey, 2005; Gosling, 2008:6). In addition, the aim of higher education, which is to produce high quality graduates, meant to serve the developing economies of the country will not be met on account of lack institutional policies. In other words, excellence and relevance of higher education will be compromised. This arises from the fact that high quality teaching staff with a professional culture to develop around ASD practice will not be realised (Barnes et al., 1994:38) (2.5.1). The consequence will be poor quality teaching that is linked to the quality of the educator (Hill and Herlithy, 2011:1; Rothsten, 2010:201).

In critical realist terms, injustices in higher education, curriculum practices will be perpetrated where the elite will continue to be privileged while the marginalized will remain excluded. It has relevance to have ASD policies that are progressive and point to institutional transformation (Quinn, 2012) which support ASD centres as institutional resources in which academics develop pedagogical theories that are discipline specific within the context of discourses of equity and access to higher education (Lebowitza, et al. 2011; Moore and Lewis, 2004:9; Quinn, 2012:47; Winberg, 2004:199). To this end, enabling institutional policies that support the discourse of valuing teaching and learning as an institutional culture should be put in place. In this discourse it is crucial that the place of the student in the teaching and learning process is significantly reflected in ASD practices. Student diversity in particular, that resonates with critical pedagogies should be embedded in higher education practices as a reflection of institutional policies in which ASD is underpinned (Kondiko and Mawer, 2013:16). Such policies will ensure that reconceptualization of the ASD centre as a critical unit that promotes the teaching and learning regime of a university in a scholarly manner will turn out to be real in practice. In line with this thinking, Blackwell (2003) argues that ASD policies should position teaching and learning as scholarly activities (also Boyer, 1990) as opposed to workshops on fixing problems experienced in teaching.

Disturbingly, coercive policies implied in case study institution Y in which participation in ASD programmes have been made a requirement for tenure might have the consequence of creating unenabling conditions for ASD

development. Coercive policies might not have the desired effect. Rather academics should take personal responsibility for their training rather than take it up through coercion (Light and Cox, 2001; Quick Holtzman and Chaney, 2009). It might experience resistance since it contravenes intellectual freedom and autonomy (Boud, 1999:2; Harness and Stensaker, 2008:9) which are unfettered traditions which academics honour. From the perspective of critical realists, the view that institutions are “democratic communities” appear to be significantly denied by granting academic development participants “choice” rather than “voice” (Nixon and Ramson, 1997). Such denials underplay the volume of research on the inevitable refractions “in policy implementation in top down approaches” (McLaghin, 1987; Taylor et al., 1997). It has been argued that teachers have been objects rather than the subjects of policy (Ball, 1997; Mahogany and Hextall, 2000) in the discourse of education policy and curriculum innovation.

The consequence of such policies is that enabling conditions for academic development practitioners to exercise their agency (Archer, 1995) will be compromised in the face of coercive policies. However, Moore (2003:5) contends that academics rarely participate in ASD if they are not coerced because of the strength of their disciplinary identity. So policies that create supporting ASD cultures and institutional structures that create enabling conditions for academics to develop teacher identity should be crafted. In Quinn’s (2012) view, the discourse of valuing teaching and learning should be supported through crafting enabling institutional policies that create conditions for ASD to be developed successfully. Nicholls (2001:12) in the USA on (2.9.9.1.2) warned that the success of a programme depended on enabling conditions found in the institution.

Related to coercive policies that have featured in case study institution Y are the issues of quality assurance and research policies. While these policies are clearly documented in institutions and have structures that support them, they might have the effect of militating against the promotion of teaching in departments and by implication ASD. While research policies promote disciplinary identity of academics (Henkel, 2000; Kogan, 2000:210), quality

assurance policies might be associated with creation of constraining conditions that result in resistance of ASD development by academics (Ramsden, 2003). Associating ASD with institutional goals and objectives such as quality assurance has the consequence of branding ASD programmes with corporate and accountability agendas of the institution all which infringe on academics' culture of autonomy (Rowland 2003:15). In order to counter the negative effect associated with quality assurance, Harness and Stensaker (2006:17) propose that teacher development as well as teaching should be promoted through the vehicle of the quality agenda of the institution. In chapter 2, Gosling (2008) and Hardy and Smith (2006) on (2.8.3.7) suggest that the positive effect of quality assurance that promote teacher development should be embraced instead of emphasizing its threats to intellectual freedom.

Research policies as pointed out earlier might contribute towards constraining conditions for ASD practice. Research points to the case of academic development struggling against powerful disciplinary formations that uphold the academic standing of higher education "curriculum and freedom of academics" (Clegg, 2009:410; Moore, 2003:39) based on individual disciplinary knowledge of the academic. Studies have shown that "two cultures" (Blackwell, 2003) will exist in a university where research policies promote disciplined based research and the other culture in which teaching is neglected. It is clear that research policies are associated with the creation of institutional cultures whose conditions do not value teaching and ASD development. In order to avoid these two cultures, academic developers should integrate the teaching and learning discourse with disciplinary thinking (Rowland, 2002:62) on (2.8.1.2, p50) in their approaches to ASD. Jenkins strengthened the suggestion by proposing that practitioners should build on academics' concern for their discipline rather than marginalise it (1996:15).

To this end, the need for supporting ASD policies is imperative particularly policies that are mainstreamed into all layers of the university framework of teaching and learning. The purpose of this study is to explore institutional conditions, structures and cultures that enable or constrain the development of ASD programmes in higher education institutions. From the study, it would

appear that institutions do not have supporting and enabling policies that create enabling conditions for effective development of ASD practice. In situations where constraining institutional policies exist such as quality assurance and research policies, academic practitioners should reconceptualise ASD to focus on the value of teaching and learning development of these policies.

4.3.4.2 Institutional environment and its enabling or constraining influence on ASD practice

An evaluation report on academic development centres conducted in Denmark and Norway universities by Harness and Stensaker (2006:10) highlighted that development of those centres could not be understood independently of the institutional environment of which these centres were part of. In this respect, the influence of the institutional environment of Teaching and Learning Centres (T&LC's) was explored in this study to understand its influence on APD development and implementation in selected state universities in Zimbabwe. Data was drawn from interview extracts taken from responses to interview questions related to Section G (Appendix 1) and Section C (Appendix 2).

Data from across both case study institution X and Y shows that there are elements in institutional environments that feature in interview extracts of participants, focus groups, deans and directors of T&LC's that affect the environment. Elements that feature most are time, shortage of resources, high student lecturer ratios, institutional politics and heavy workload as the most dominant elements that influence the environment.

However, there is less prevalence of such data in case study institution Y than X, the likely reason is probably located in management support of APD activities of case study institution Y discussed earlier in this thesis.

Whilst participants P₁, P₅ and P₆ of case study institution X described workload as the element associated with creating an unfacilitating environment for ASD, participants P₃ and P₅ commented that the question of research, double intakes and multi campus system created a perception of negativity to the institutional

environment. Highlighting the burden created by workload, P₁ expressed the view that “heavy teaching load” was a factor that was linked to the demanding environment that affected their interest in APD activities. In the same view, P₅ also of the same institution echoed the same point but described elaborately the teaching load “as a problem involving too many courses, five in some cases to be taught and large groups of 400 students”. These experiences are a burden which creates pressure on academics resulting in the creation of an unfacilitating institutional environment for practitioners to succeed. Quinn (2012:46), quoting Fanghanel (2007), also found that lecturers’ workloads had a constraining effect on ASD. In chapter 2, Haig (2007) in Higher Education Exchange (2009:44) in the UK on (2.9.1.1) and Coaldrake and Stedman (1999:9) and McInnis (1996:4) in Australia on (2.9.1.3) commented that the burden of work overload had the consequence of impacting negatively in the successful implementation of ASD programmes.

Apart from workload, as an element that is associated with an unenabling environment double intakes were blamed for creating a perception of negativity to the institutional environment of case study institution X. In expressing this view, P₆ of case study institution X explained that heavy workload arose from “high student lecturer ratio” resulting from the “normal cohort” and the “parallel students” who have lectures in the afternoon. The situation arose because universities have two cohorts of enrolments whereby one runs in the morning and the other in the afternoon for different students studying the same courses using the same lecturers thereby transforming one university into two. This model operates in all state universities in Zimbabwe and is in response to open access to higher education. According to participants, this has created demanding environments in case study institutions X and Y in terms of what the following participants said. In case study institution X, the parallel model resulted in what P₁ described as “travelling to multi campus lecture rooms takes time in terms of travelling” and P₂ commented that “load particularly research inhibits APD” while P₆ expressed concerns about “high student numbers and lack of office space”. Similarly, participants of case study institution Y associated the parallel model with high student numbers and heavy workload

which P₁₃ described as “a heavy curriculum with a big working load” and P₁₅ commenting succinctly that “student population is too high, space is a problem.”

In highlighting this negative environment, participant P₆ of case study institution X eloquently explained that:

Workload makes it difficult for lecturers to take on board ASD which they might think are not practically useful to their career advancement.

Similarly, in case study institution Y, participant P₁₃ succinctly described her experience and the effect workload had on her thus:

It's just not work, there is family life too. Honestly when I started for me first days, weeks and months I could not bear it. It was a load. I am chairperson; I was developing my PhD proposal. It was just too much.

Interestingly, the pressure is so great that participant P₄ and the dean (D₁) of both case study institution X suggested that APD could be accommodated during vacation because during the semester, academics experienced pressure that is so demanding because of their academic work. In highlighting this proposal, participant P₄ suggested that:

Academics would rather have ASD during vacation. There is no time to hold ASD.

Similarly, the dean (D₁) acknowledged that academics experienced heavy workload during the semester and proposed that:

T&LC activities be done during vacations since there will not be a lot of work because teaching load will not be heavy during vacation.

It is clear that academic teaching and research are prioritised over APD programmes. This view point is consistent with the call by Moore (2003:5) which indicated that interest to professionalize practice was influenced by academic identity rather than the motivation to professionalize the teaching role of the academic. In the UK, Wareing (2005:30) on (2.9.1.1) warned that the perception of discipline relevance or irrelevance was not to be down played since it had huge influence in shaping the attitude of participants that participate in professional development activities.

Apart from workload, high student numbers and resultant student lecturer ratios that are high, shortage of space, heavy marking loads, the question of institutional politics has been described by one participant as elements that have a bearing on institutional environment. Politics is in a way the exercise of power among people and can be used in the allocation of resources to the advantage or disadvantage of others (Palanisway and Krishnan, 2008). In line with this view, P₁₀ described the position that a university is an institution whose environment is influenced by institutional politics which can influence allocation of resources. In elaborating the point, P₁₀ eloquently stated that “politics rears its ugly head and affect ASD” when allocation of resources becomes a political game between lecturers and academic development practitioners. In describing the situation further in the interview, P₁₀ highlighted that:

University environment is multilayered and it affects ASD. Politics is the exercise of power and allocation of resources can be affected by it.

The implication is that ASD can be a victim of politics because of its low status. This is consistent with Caffarella and Zinn (1999:246) who argued that institutional imperatives such as politics is a threat to the success of professional development work.

Interestingly, interview extracts of focus group discussion participants also raised similar elements. Whilst focus group participants for case study

institution X described “double intake”, “marking loads”, “pressure to publish” and “staff freeze” as elements that create an unenabling institutional environment for ASD, focus group participants for case study institution Y highlighted that elements such as “large class sizes of 200 students”, “full teaching loads” and “poor funding” contributed towards a negative training environment for academics to engage in ASD. In chapter 2, Knight and Trowler (2000) on (2.9.2.1) warned that elements such as heavy workloads and marking loads characterise critical elements that affect ASD work in higher education.

A questionnaire (question 10 Appendix 5) was also administered to collect data on respondents’ response on institutional environment. Academic respondents were asked to indicate whether the institutional environment supported APD activities. Respondents were also asked to describe in a write up the institutional environment as they experienced it as academics in relation to ASD.

Statistically, the response was divided in case study institution X as follows: 4(50%) ticked YES while the other 4(50%) ticked NO, suggesting that no clear status of the environment could be made by way of statistics in institution X. However, descriptions of the institutional environment made by respondents point to an environment that is reflective of an unenabling environment to ASD activities. Below are descriptions written by case study institution X respondents.

Respondent (R₁)

No. APD is currently at an infant phase at my institution. Consequently prospective beneficiaries have not been won over to the idea.

Respondent (R₂)

Yes. APD exists in the institution; induction workshops for new lecturers are also conducted.

Respondent (R₃)

No. The facilities are not adequate and as a result academics lecture for results and research recognition.

Respondent (R₄)

Yes. All lecturers are required to attend induction seminars/workshops that cover APD.

Respondent (R₅)

No. very little is known among staff members about APD. The unit in charge has not made itself visible.

Respondent (R₆)

No. An acting director has been appointed – unfortunately she operates under a dean of one faculty make it difficult for her to penetrate faculties.

Respondent (R₇)

Yes. At my university there is a director and an office in charge of APD activities.

Respondent (R₈)

Yes. A T&LC has been set up. However, the level of funding of the centre constraints.

All the eight respondents who provided write ups to open ended questionnaires gave interesting and varied elements that shaped the environment of the institution.

The question of uncertainty and invisibility of the programme was mentioned by 2 respondents out of 8 respondents. Compulsory induction policy followed, which was mentioned by 2 respondents. Other elements cited included poor funding, inadequate facilities and lack of a substantive director mentioned by 1 respondent each out of 8. These were cited as critical elements that contributed towards the creation of an unfacilitating environment in the institution.

However, some elements were found to be linked to the creation of an enabling environment in the institution. Existence of an office was cited by two respondents out of 8. The director (acting) was cited by 1 respondent out of 8. It is interesting to note that the facilitating dimension of the director is constrained because he is acting and the fact that he reports through a dean disempowers his power of agency as a key actor (Archer, 1995:198 and Swell, 1992) in ASD in the university.

Turning to case study institution Y, questionnaire results show that 7 (87.5%) indicated that the institutional environment was supportive while 1 (2.5%) was not supportive. From these results, it is clear that respondents for case study institution Y were of the view that the environment of the institution was facilitating and not negative.

Below are the descriptions made in write ups by the respondents of case study institution Y.

- R₉ Yes. Policies are in place for APD as well as funds for staff development workshops.
- R₁₀ Yes. It has been made mandatory for every lecturer without a teaching qualification to participate in APD in order to attain tenure.
- R₁₁ Yes. We have a quality control section which ensures that this is adhered to at all times.
- R₁₂ Yes. All members of staff who have not received professional training irrespective of academic qualifications are supposed to do APD.
- R₁₃ Yes. Exemptions from paying tuition for staff in APD.
- R₁₄ Yes. Funding policies are in place.
- R₁₅ Yes. Staff are given times to attend lectures for APD which do not clash to their teachings. Exams also written separately.
- R₁₆ No. There is very little time for such activities.

7 out of 8 respondents who provided write ups mentioned that some elements existed that created an enabling environment in the institution for ASD to develop and be implemented effectively.

The most outstanding facilitating element was supporting policy which had 3 respondents out of 8 referring to it. This was followed by time, supportive control structure, funding policy and sponsorship mentioned by 1 respondent each out of 8 respondents. Interestingly, only 1 respondent out of 8 highlighted that time was an element that was unfacilitating to the institutional environment for ASD to be implemented. From these results, it is clear that the case

institution is characterized by critical elements that shape the institutional environment to have a facilitating environment for ASD.

From the results, it is clear that a demanding environment characterized by heavy workloads and exacerbated by pressure to publish coupled with travelling time in a multi campus set up are unfacilitating elements that constituted a constraint (Quinn, 2012:46) that affected academics to participate in ASD activities in case study institution X. Other elements that were quite conspicuous in affecting the work of academic development practitioners included multi-disciplinary teaching associated with the parallel model and multi-campus system, high student numbers and attendant heavy marking loads. The institutional environment created by these elements is likely to be associated with the “perception of negativity” (Reid, 2003) which is likely to militate against participation of academics in AD activities. These pressures on the academic are consistent with higher education experiences noted by Winberg (2004) in his study in South Africa. Winberg (2004:199) report concluded that the higher education environment in South Africa struggled to deal with a lot of pressure created by a diversified study body that was underprepared for university education and the need to create time for self learning and doing research by academics. Indeed, elements like these result in the development of an unfacilitating environment for academics to engage in ASD.

The nerve centre of ASD in a university set up is a T&LC. Results show that case study institution X’s unfacilitating institutional environment was partly contributed to, due to lack of a supporting home for ASD activities. ASD activities need a supporting home to succeed. Similar viewpoints were made in chapter 2 by Mucherjee and Singh (1993:60) on (2.8.3.4) in conclusions of a Commonwealth Secretariat Study on Academic Development Centres that pointed to the institutional effectiveness of ASD housed in a facilitating infrastructure that was comparable to that given to faculty infrastructure.

From these results, it is clear that ASD is set within an institutional environment that is constrained or unfacilitating for academic practitioners to operate and

succeed in case study institution X. Results in table 4.2, in response to question (e) (4.3.1 p156) corroborate this position since case study institution X registered a very low uptake rate of ASD programmes. 5 (62.5%) out of 8 respondents indicated that ASD programmes had low uptake rate reflective of some negative and constraining factors.

However, case study institution Y has results which show that it enjoys an institutional environment that is supportive of ASD activities. Critical elements that contribute to a perception of positivity (Knight and Trowler, 2000) are at play in the institution. Supporting staff development policies, sponsorship including time off during semester time to participate in the registered course of PGDTE are crucial elements cited for shaping the institutional environment in a facilitating way for ASD activities to succeed. Robert et al. (2006:150), in their study on developing academic competence, confirmed that a supporting environment contributed towards the success of implementing a higher education programme.

However, case study institution Y had some elements cited by some participants that constituted a constraint to the creation of a facilitating environment. Those that featured included institutional politics, heavy curriculum and the parallel model. It would appear that the constraining effect was countered by crucial elements such as supporting policies for staff development and sponsorship for studying the diploma that probably contributed to the perception of positivity associated with the environment of case study institution Y.

Overall, from the two case study institutions, it would appear that the shaping of the institutional environment is strongly institutionally contexted (Rayn, 2004). Interestingly, respondents made some recommendations that would contribute towards the creation of a facilitating institutional environment. Respondents of the two case study institutions recommended that heavy workloads needed to be reduced. The need for resources to capacitate ASD activities particularly financial support and computers were recommended. Full time staff dedicated to ASD was also recommended as well as staff leave to pursue the diploma course.

These recommendations demonstrate appreciation of the respondents of the importance of creating an enabling environment for ASD activities. It is crucial, therefore, that ASD is designed in a way that capture lecturers' concerns in relation to pressures and struggles that they experience in their academic work. Indeed, an enabling institutional environment should be created to facilitate practitioners to succeed in their ASD work.

However, descriptions of the institutional environment made by respondents in case study institution X point to a balanced environment that is both enabling and disabling. A discussion of the descriptions made by the respondents is quite revealing. Descriptions by respondents R₃, R₅ and R₆ have relevance and significance because they show some clear elements that the institutional environment of institution Y in a negative way. The description given by respondent R₆ shows that the structure of the T&LC operates in an environment characterized by indecision and absence of a clear structure. It operates under an unclear structure and reports to a dean of education who might prioritise teaching in the disciplines at the expense of APD. Consequently, an environment like this might militate against ASD. The low status given to the T&LC and its head to positions not comparable to those associated with a faculty dean might result in the centre and its head not being taken seriously. This explains the reason why respondent P₆ describes how difficult it would be for the acting director to "penetrate" other faculties.

On the basis of the evidence, one can conclude that an institutional environment that is enabling and positive or one that is unenabling and negative for APD implementation is influenced by elements embedded in the environment of the institution. These range from time, research, teaching load, student numbers, student lecturer ratios as well as institutional politics. These have to be understood in order to create a facilitating environment for ASD to develop. Supporting policies, resources and committed management have a lot to do to create a positive institutional environment.

4.3.4.3 Institutional management support and its enabling or constraining influence on the development and implementation of ASD programmes

Literature points to the importance of good leadership that is supportive of educational reforms for successful implementation of development projects to take place (Blanton and Styhanon, 2009:82). Additionally, it is highlighted that institutional leadership is crucial for academic staff development policies to become reality (McGuigan and Cheng, 2011:83). This section of the study seeks to explore the commitment of management in supporting ASD in the two selected Zimbabwe state universities. Interview extracts were generated from responses to interview questions from Section G (Appendix 1), Section C and D (Appendix 2) and group interview questions in (Appendix 4).

Interview data across the two case study institutions X and Y reflect interesting results. Whilst data for case study institution X is prevalent with data that link members of senior management with lack of support for ASD activities, data for institution Y reflect that ASD activities enjoy the support of senior management. A probable explanation in the difference is located in the belief and value systems of senior management of the two case study institutions. Case study institution Y runs a formal course on ASD over and above workshops while case study institution X runs workshops only for its ASD activities. This is reflective of the strong belief and value system placed by management on the importance of improving the quality of teaching in case study institution Y.

Interview data for case study institution X reflects that the Teaching and Learning Centre has no home and operates without a clear structure. The centre is also constrained of resources such as manpower and finance. This unresourced position of the centre has impacted negatively on the development and implementation of ASD activities in case study institution X. Lack of management support is reflected in the data and linked to the marginalisation of ASD programmes.

As a way of illustrating this point, participant P₁ of case study institution X explained that the Teaching and Learning Centre (T&LC) did not get

substantive support of management resulting in it not having a clear status or resources. This is what P₁ said:

Teaching and Learning Centre is not getting good support.
Researcher: Why? The structure is not clear. It is not a department. It has no accommodation, just an office with one computer.

Participant P₃ added his voice to the conversation and elaborated that:

There is no manpower. Only the director is in place.
Institution has to supply more resources for APD activities to be undertaken.

Participant P₅ also made his comments but directed them at APD workshops:

They (management) do not encourage workshop attendance. There is talk for new lecturers to get through courses offered by Teaching and Learning Centre. But it has just been talk.

It is clear from these results that there is no buy in of ASD by institutional leadership. The consequence has been lack of clear policy on ASD, lack of structure, a home and resources to support the programme. Clearly, ASD programmes are not prioritised by management of case study institution X with the direct consequence of constraining the development of the programme.

A questionnaire (question 12, Appendix 5) that asked 8 respondents for case study institution X whether management supported APD programmes collaborated viewpoints expressed by the participants. Statistically 6 (75%) ticked NO response while 2 (25%) ticked YES response suggesting that the majority of the respondents regarded management as not supportive of APD

activities. Below are some examples of the reasons written by respondents in their write ups:

Respondent (R₁)

Top management has not advocated openly for APD. They seem to be lacking clarity on it.

Respondent (R₂)

Management is supporting workshops on APD.

Respondent (R₃)

It is a requirement by Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE) to have such a department.

Respondent (R₄)

They recognise that it improves quality of teaching.

Respondent (R₅)

Not supported – because the person in charge is not provided with adequate resources to operate effectively.

Respondent (R₆)

Management is taking too long to make decisions on the proper placement of APD on the university organogram.

Respondent (R₇)

There is an office in charge of APD activities at the university.

Respondent (R₈)

Indicated Yes. But space left blank.

Interesting write ups were given. 4 respondents out of 8 provided reasons that justified why they felt that institutional leadership did not give ASD support. The reasons included the following: lack of clarity and advocacy of ASD, inadequate resources were provided and that management was undecided about the position of ASD unit in the university structure. Each of these reasons was mentioned by one respondent out of 8. However, 4 out of 8 respondents felt that management supported ASD and they gave some reasons. Reasons highlighted were that: it improves teaching, office space was provided and support for workshops. 1 respondent out of 8 was attributed to each of these reasons.

However, 1 respondent did not give any reason although the respondent felt that management gave support to ASD. No possible explanation could be located for the respondent not to give a reason.

It is clear that management support is lacking in the institutions. The compelling reasons mentioned given by the 4 respondents against 3 respondents are significant given that one respondent hesitated.

The director of the T&LC of case study institution X also expressed similar views in response to interview questions in Section B (Appendix 1). The director was of the view that she was not getting the support of management she expected. She mentioned that she felt sidelined by management since she had no access to the executive. In expressing her frustration she recounted that:

I am stuck in a corner and you meet people out there and people don't know where I operate from. If I don't have access then obvious that nobody will know. We have no meeting point anywhere so these are my frustrations. You feel like giving up.

It is clear that management did not create an enabling environment for APD practitioners to operate. Practitioners particularly the director, does not get the cooperation she expects from management with the consequence of feeling frustrated or "giving up". According to Caffarella and Zinn (2009) on (2.8.3.3), people and personal relationships strongly influence implementation of ASD. Deans as part of management that deal directly with academics have also been linked to lack of support. The director mentioned that deans treated faculty issues as their core business and discouraged academics from attending workshops.

Commenting on deans' support this is what the director said:

Deans tell lecturers not to attend workshops. They say your first job is to teach that academic staff development is secondary. They suggest that workshops be conducted over

vacation or week-end since they should not disrupt university teaching and this is a source of disagreement.

It is clear that deans do not promote ASD activities. Awareness of the importance of raising teaching quality in faculties is not there (Nicholls, 2005). ASD activities are viewed as interference to faculty core business of teaching, resulting in ASD programmes not being prioritised. Clearly, the influence of the discipline is at play (Becher, 1989; Henkel, 2000) which militates against academics' development into university teachers (Scot et al., 2007: viii and Quinn 2012).

Similarly, the director of the T&LC did not enjoy the Vice Chancellor's support in her efforts to develop ASD activities. The director felt unrecognised and isolated by senior management with the consequence of having a questionable status in the university. The director operates from "a corner and meeting of people is done out there." Requests for a place "so that students, lecturers could feel free to drop in" was not prioritised suggesting that a home that could make ASD visible was not prioritised (Gosling 2008:6). This creates negative perceptions among academics about ASD, leading to lack of interest and motivation to participate in ASD programmes. In describing her frustration at the lack of cooperation with management, she commented that:

There is no access to the executive. If I don't have access, then it's obvious that nobody will know Teaching and Learning Centre plans. We have no meeting point anywhere. There are many frustrations. You feel like giving up.

This suggests that the director of the T&LC as the main driver of ASD programmes is not given the recognition and status she deserves with the likelihood of the marginalization of the development of ASD activities. Lack of a link between a unit in an institution and the office of senior management is associated with limited influence and power to attract resources (Gosling, 2008; D'Andrea and Gosling, 2005) to facilitate implementation of projects of that

unit. Clearly, lack of the director's influence with management is reflective of lack of support that might constrain ASD activities in the institution. Lack of the senior management's interest in ASD activities was reflected when he was directly asked about his views of the T&LC. In his view, "centres are just there to satisfy accreditation requirements by the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education" (ZIMCHE). In the Vice Chancellor's view, "they are only an imposition" suggesting that they are not appreciated in the university. Consequently, there is "no specific expectation on them as senior management to support the T&LC. The purpose of APD is not appreciated which is a result of the influence of academic traditions and culture such as disciplinary identity that militate against ASD programmes. This suggests that senior management prioritises discipline based research at the expense of ASD. The implication is that lack of senior management support will constrain development and implementation of ASD.

Equally, focus group participants added their voices to the view that senior management did not support APD. Appendix 4 had group interview questions that guided the group discussion. One group participant explained that "token attention was given" since management offered no practical support to T&LC in terms of "staff, a home of its own and other resources." The consequence would be that implementation of APD programmes would be constrained in the absence of resources. This is consistent with literature in which Baud (1999) emphasised that requirements such as office space are necessary for effective implementation of a programme.

Through triangulation of data from interviews, focus group discussion and questionnaire, it can be concluded that lack of senior management support in case study institution X constrained the development and implementation of ASD activities in the university. There is also evidence to claim that the strength and influence of the discipline as an academic tradition was prioritized by deans with the consequence of ASD not being mainstreamed and getting marginalized in the university (Hunt, 2007:773). These results are consistent with findings made by Gosling (2006:6) in UK universities where it was found that disciplined based research led to the marginalization of teaching. Also, in

chapter 2, Knight and Trowler (2011:147) on (2.7.1) emphasized the influential role Deans as managers of academic sites had on promoting ASD.

It is also clear from the findings that lack of a clear status of the T&LC compared to a faculty creates negative perceptions about the centre and ASD activities. Findings also confirm that a low belief system and understanding of ASD by senior management is linked to lack of support of the programme by management. Similarly, studies by Fermain Namser (2001:4) warn that beliefs and vision of management that do not see the need for higher education practice to change and improve can act as a barrier to effective ASD programmes. Indeed institutional context has influence on management's support of ASD in case study institution X with the consequence of constraining its development if resources are not availed.

Turning to case study institution Y, participants' data is dominated by the viewpoint that ASD programmes are strongly supported by management. The support has taken the form of supporting policies, budget allocation and personal commitment of the Vice Chancellor and deans. The other major difference compared to case study institution X is located in the influence of the Post Graduate Diploma in Tertiary Education (PGDTE) which is a compulsory formal course that offers modules in Foundations of Education offered by case study institution Y.

The voice of management support was eloquently made by participant P₁₄ who described the "support as one hundred percent." The argument of P₁₄ was that management sponsored academics who took up studies in PGDTE. The participant emphasised that the sponsorship was evidence of management's immense support. Participant P₁₃ offered an account of the Vice Chancellor's personal interest and involvement in the institution's ASD activities. P₁₃ explained that the Vice Chancellor's support is based on his own experience in which the teaching challenges he faced were addressed through training. He shared his experiences with academics and advised them that teaching following the way they were taught at university (Baud, 1999:2) was not compatible with

challenges of teaching new generation of students. In describing the Vice Chancellor's support P₁₃ succinctly explained that:

He is the mastermind. He (VC) told us about his experience. He explained and he shared the problems he had faced when he started teaching. Using my professors' teaching ways was not working. I got help and I was effective.

The Vice Chancellor's statements in response to interview questions in Section C (Appendix 3) reflect that support thus:

The launch of the PGDTE was influenced by the belief that an education system can only be as good as its teachers.

This suggests that Vice Chancellor's support is based on practical experience and has the belief that ASD can improve the quality of teaching and learning in his institution.

The director of the teaching and learning centre of case study institution Y also reflected similar views about management support. The director was more eloquent in describing the Vice Chancellor's belief and value in the ASD programme by saying "the programme is on his (VC) heart and that it is his vision" suggesting that the Vice Chancellor's support is based on strong commitment.

Responses to administered questionnaires (question 12, Appendix 5) on whether management supported APD activities, show that all participants 8 (100%) unanimously indicated that management gave support to ASD activities suggesting that academics appreciated the support given. Also, what is significant is that ASD is associated with the development of academic teaching effectiveness rather than mastery of teaching skills associated with the nuts and bolts of teaching (Light and Cox 2001 and Rowland 2003).

The quality of the impact on teachers' teaching development is reflected in the reasons listed by respondents on why they thought management supported APD programmes. A list of the reasons written up by respondents in an open ended questionnaire (question 12, Appendix 5) are given below:

Respondent (R₉)

Management lends support towards ASD activities because of their perceived positive impact on the quality of higher education.

Respondent (R₁₀)

In order to upgrade and uphold the quality of teaching and hence the quality of graduate produced.

Respondent (R₁₁)

Because this improves the level of teaching thereby improving the results.

Respondent (R₁₂)

Because of late the only ASD programme in the institution is taken as a pre-requisite for tenure.

Respondent (R₁₃)

APD activities are also a catalyst for efficiency and effectiveness in teaching.

Respondent (R₁₄)

They want to develop and would want lectures to enhance their delivery in teaching learning situations.

Respondent (R₁₅)

Empowerment of craft and subsequent or ultimate benefit of students.

Respondent (R₁₆)

Management believes people have not been exposed to teaching methods or training elsewhere.

Interesting and varied reasons were provided by respondents as to why management supported ASD programmes in the institution. The most common reason mentioned was need to improve the quality of teaching mentioned by 4

respondents out of 8. This is followed by the need to develop and mould lecturers highlighted by 2 of the 8 respondents. Only 1 respondent cited prerequisite for tenure as the reason for management to support ASD programmes. Reasons mentioned by the respondents are reflective of the position that management supports the programme not only to improve the quality of teaching and its effectiveness but that it will result in moulding and improving lecturer quality. This demonstrates that management has had a positive influence on staff to appreciate that ASD can contribute towards improving the quality of teaching in higher education.

Whilst management support is acknowledged, interview extracts from case study institution Y reflects concerns about the coercive nature of the policies that might be at variance with academic traditions and culture of academics including academic freedom and autonomy. These results are consistent with findings made by Slaughter (2001:34) but discussed in literature in chapter 2, (section 2.8.3.6) where policies imposed by higher education management were found to be a threat to academic autonomy and intellectual freedom which are fundamental values of higher education.

Highlighting this concern, P₁₀ mentioned that “Top down approach is evidence of support.” P₁₂ added his voice to the conversation and said “Anyone not tenured, it’s compulsory to do the course. It is compulsory whether PhD or not.” In focus group discussion one group participant presented the view succinctly thus:

Are supportive because management has made it conditional for one to attend ASD to be tenured. Although it is compulsory I mean coercive the policy ensures participation.

It would appear that academics have concerns expressed inadvertently about the sustainability of ASD programmes driven by policies that are compulsory. Compulsory policies in the long term can create negative attitudes and resistance with the consequence of making ASD programmes unsustainable.

Literature warns that ASD programmes not driven on account of personal responsibility of the academics (Merriam, 2001 and Wood Kowski, 2004) are linked with unsuccessful implementation.

Through triangulation of data from interviews, focus group discussion and questionnaires, it can be concluded that management support is an enabler or constraint to implementation of ASD.

It is evident that implementation of ASD in case study institution X was constrained because of lack of management support while ASD in case study institution Y was enabled and successful because of quality leadership support (Knight 2000:248) the institution received. D'Andrea and Gosling (2005) as well as Halstead (2010) in their studies in the UK (section 2.9.1.1) claim that leadership support from the executives of the university contributed towards the success of university teaching development.

In case study institution X, there is clear evidence of lack of buy in by senior management. Consequently, ASD activities have been marginalized. ASD suffered from lack of clarity and indecision about its place and role in the institution. Resources including a budget and personnel to implement ASD are not prioritised and allocated. This strongly suggests that teaching is given a lower status compared to discipline based research (Hunt, 2007:773). Management has not encouraged a culture in the institution in which teaching is valued as much as research (Quinn, 2012:43) and in which ASD can be viewed as a strategy than can bring about transformation.

There is also evidence to claim that the strength and influence of the discipline as an academic tradition was prioritised by the deans when they treated ASD activities as 'secondary' compared to faculty teaching. Commenting on the power of departmental leadership, Sin, McGuigan and Cheng (2011:82) warn that those managers have huge influence on improvement that can take place in teaching and learning since they are in charge of departments that are central loci of change. In observing this viewpoint, Knight (2000:252) comment that such institutional leaders offer defective leadership in mentoring faculty

members with the consequence of ASD not being implemented successfully. So, deans' attitude towards ASD have militated against effective implementation of ASD programmes. It is also clear from the results that lack of a home (T&LC) compared to a faculty office creates negative perceptions about ASD activities. Lack of a T&LC reduces the visibility of ASD. Documented evidence suggests that there are advantages for management to establish T&LCs. In Australia for example, Gosling (2008:6) found that management that give APD a home not only give the programme visibility and legitimacy but contributes towards interest of academics in professional development programmes.

Findings also confirm that a low belief system and low value system attached to ASD activities is linked to lack of support by management (Fermain-Namser 2011:4).

However, by contrast, case study institution Y enjoyed management support. This is corroborated by questionnaire data in table 4.2, response (j) (4.3.1), which shows that institutional commitment was highly rated. The role of management support in creating enabling conditions is evident. The pillar of ASD support in the institution is the staff development policy that makes it compulsory for all lecturers to take up Post Graduate Diploma in Higher Tertiary Education (PGDTE). Lecturers who registered for the course were not only sponsored but were given time to attend diploma lectures during semester time. Indeed a culture in which teaching is valued as much as research (Quinn, 2012:4) is evident from documents since funding allocated to sponsor the diploma course (PGDTE) is comparable to research according to the budget.

The consequence of such support is that ASD has been mainstreamed into the university wide culture of the institution. Given this evidence a claim can be made that institutional management support is an enabler for successful development and implementation of ASD in case study institution Y.

However, although management support has been associated with creating enabling conditions for successful implementation of ASD the potential for

academic resistance to imposed institutional staff development policies should be recognised (Slaughter 2001:39). Compulsory institutional policies can be associated with corporate agenda linked to “new managerialism” (Lynch, Grumwell and Denile, 2012) often resisted by academics and professors for “infecting” (violating) academic norms of intellectual freedom and autonomy (Feiman-Nemser, 2001:21).

In chapter 2 (2.6), Nicholls (2005:613) advocated for adult learners to be treated with respect and view them as students who can take responsibility for lifelong learning choices. Adult learning theory (Knowels, 1990) advocates for students autonomy and psychological space to be created with regards to programme choices by adult students in order to ensure student motivation which is likely to be associated with successful completion of the programme.

So, while quality management support acts as an enabler in creating enabling conditions for effective ASD to develop, it is likely that compulsory programme policies are likely to generate resistance in the long term. However, in practice lecturers will not opt for staff development opportunities unless there is pressure on them (Quinn, 2012:46). Institutions will have to weigh the merits and demerits of offering compulsory courses.

Finally, in this section of the thesis, it can be claimed that management support can enable or constrain the development and implementation of ASD programmes as shown from results of case study institutions X and Y. Arguably, there is evidence to suggest that institutional context has huge influence on management support.

4.3.4.4 Institutional and national structures and their enabling and constraining influence on ASD practice

Traditionally, higher education institutions have institutional structures such as faculties, centres and units that drive and support activities of institutions to be achieved (Hammond, 2002:2; Metzger; 1987). The influence of these institutional structures on ASD practice, particularly the T&LC and other

related structures on ASD practice, is explored and discussed below. Interview extracts were generated from responses of interview questions Section G (Appendix1), Section C and D (Appendix2).

Data from across both case study institutions X and Y show that both institutions have set up T&LCs as institutional structures that will drive the development and implementation of ASD. Participants from both institutions observed that these T&LCs were not “stand alone” structures which operated independently but were units that operated “under” the Faculty of Education thereby having low institutional profile and less effective effect on ASD. In case study institution X, participants P₁, P₃ and P₄ expressed their concerns about the absence of an independent stand alone institutional structure that champions ASD. For example P₁ expressed his concern by noting that:

It (T&LC) is also falling under a faculty and it compromises its effectiveness. It is not a faculty.

Similarly, P₄ acknowledged the same view point that the T&LC operated under the Faculty of Education. P₄ further made his concerns clear by pointing out that the arrangement yielded an ineffective structure because “it is resented” by mainstream academics who view it as an attempt by the Faculty of Education to “dominate” other faculties. Instead, P₄ recommends that the T&LC “should be a stand alone” that will have the effect of embedding ASD in all faculties in a sustainable way. Participant P₃ echoed the same observation but expressed his disappointment at the structure by saying that “there is the belief that it’s only Faculty of Education which has the ability”. P₃ suggests in the interview that “departmental representatives should form part of the structure”. According to him, it meets the needs of different academics since “the needs of a mathematics lecturer are different from law, languages or history”.

In the same vein, interview extracts from the Director of the (T&LC) as well as those of focus group participants echoed the need for (T&LC) to be a stand alone institutional structure. In adding her voice to the debate as director of the T&LC of case study institution X, she made the following comment that:

It [T&LC] is not an independent unit. We are in the faculty of education and have been housed there for three years. Teaching and Learning Centre is a department in a faculty and I am chairperson of the unit.

In terms of reporting structure, with uncertainty the director pointed out that “I am not sure where next but we still are still going to be reporting to a dean of a faculty”. In focus group discussion, concern was expressed that it “compromised the effectiveness of the Teaching and Learning Centre”, suggesting that it should be a stand alone for it to have an enabling condition. In fact, one group participant recommended that “it (T&LC) should be out of Faculty of Education if it has to be effective.”

With regard to the status of the director in the structure, it appears that from the director that it is unclear and it is considered lowly. Participant P₆ confirmed this viewpoint. According to P₆, the status of director of the T&LC in the structure is low. In his view, it is a position not equivalent to a dean of a faculty suggesting that ASD is viewed lowly. In his view, it is a “junior position” where the director is trying “to assume the status of dean” suggesting that the director’s position should be lower than a dean. In fact, P₆ suggests that the position is unwarranted and believes that it was created for opportunistic reasons to benefit an individual, but is unnecessary. This perception is confirmed by the Vice Chancellor’s remarks that noted that the “teaching and learning centre is at departmental level” and its head should be “chairperson with across the university function”. A study of the university documents confirmed this position. Documents show that both the T&LC and the Director’s position do not appear anywhere in the university structure. This leads to the view that the director of a teaching and learning centre is at a low level which compromises its effectiveness and influence in the institution as a key actor of ASD (Gosling, 2009:25).

Interestingly, interview extracts of case study institution Y also reflect the view that the T&LC of the institution is an “appendage” of the Faculty of Education. Participant P₁₂ in particular emphasised this structure arrangement thus:

From time immemorial Teaching and Learning Centres have been in existence viewed as appendages of Faculty of Education. That way they will be empowered.

The implication is that, as appendages, their conditioning influence in the development of ASD will be compromised as a consequence of departmental cultures (Gosling, 2009:25). Deans and focus group discussants of case study institution Y also made similar comments. For example, dean (D₃) at the start of the interview was “unsure” whether the T&LC had a structure in the institution. However, he eventually remembered as the interview progressed that “in a meeting it was spelt that it’s (T&LC) in the Faculty of Education”. Inability to remember the position of the T&LC in the structure is reflective of the fact that housing the T&LC under Faculty of Education gives it low institutional profile that compromises its transformative capacity as a centre. However, dean (D₄) was clear on the structure of the T&LC. According to him it operates under the armpit of Faculty of Education and is led by a chairperson. The arrangement reflects that ASD is “subsidiary” to real academic work – an appendage. It is viewed as an equivalent of a faculty department in spite of its university wide scope of activities. Documents of the university show that the T&LC is not in the university structure suggesting that its functions are not taken seriously.

In focus group discussion, participants highlighted the resentment associated with housing ASD in the Faculty of Education by mainstream academics. Traditionally, universities are conservative institutions; consequently other faculties are bent on protecting their academic turf or identity. This does not do well for ASD development. So the T&LC as an institutional structure is not an enabler for the development of ASD and its implementation.

Apart from internal institutional structures such as T&LCs, data from institutions X and Y show that ASD has been influenced positively by external agencies or structures. The Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE) has featured in interview data. In case study institution X participant P₂ described ZIMCHE as a national structure that creates an enabling space for ASD to develop. He highlights that as an institution “they strive to comply”

suggesting that a relationship between ZIMCHE as a national structure and a T&LC as an institutional structure contribute towards an enabling condition for the development of APD. In case study institution Y participants P₉ and P₁₃ and P₁₄ also acknowledged the positive influence of ZIMCHE as an external agency on ASD. Participant P₉ for example emphasised the need for Teaching Excellence to be raised in higher education institutions. He specifically advocated that “ZIMCHE should place Teaching Excellence high on its agenda”. Similarly, P₁₃ highlighted that ZIMCHE as an external agency influences higher education institutions to promote ASD by requiring that “academics have some teaching qualification”. On the other hand P₁₄ acknowledges that ZIMCHE has a conditioning influence on ASD but explains that “supporting leadership” that subscribes to the value of ‘good’ teaching in an institution is a significant factor without which ZIMCHE as a national structure would be limited in its influence. So, the influence of an external agency or structure underpinned on such a discourse that values ‘good’ teaching is likely to create a positive conditioning influence on ASD (Quinn, 2012:37).

From the data presented, some interesting insights can be discussed. First, it is clear that each case study institution has set up a T&LC as an institutional structure designed to support the development of ASD. Research studies show that similar structures have been set up by higher education institutions in Australia (Gosling 2008) on (2.9.1.3), UK (Trowler and Knight 2003:36) on (2.9.1.1), South Africa (Gosling 2009:1-6) on (2.9.2.1) and USA (Nichols 2001) on (2.9.1.2).

However, in this study concern has been raised about the mechanism of the structure which operates as an appendage of the Faculty of Education as opposed to a stand alone unit, an independent structure with a clear reporting structure of its own and not a dean of education. Several weaknesses are associated with such a structure. First, it is clear that a T&LC that operates under the Faculty of Education is “unstable” weak and invisible thereby making its institutional profile low (Gosling 2008). Consequently the T&LC as an institutional structure will not be embedded in faculty structures leading to less positive influence on ASD (Gosling 2008:3). In Australia similar findings were

made by Gosling (2008:2) on (2.9.1.3) in which such unstable structures were easy targets to restructuring when institutions were under pressure to streamline and save funding.

The second struggle associated with treating T&LC as a department of the Faculty of Education is one that has a political institutional dimension. Housing ASD under the Faculty of Education creates turf struggles where the T&LC will be resisted by other faculties that will be protecting their disciplinary boundaries (Trowler and Becher 1996). Consequently academic developers will not get buy-in from faculties (Gosling 2008:3) who fear hegemony of the Faculty of Education.

The third concern related to the T&LC structure (under the faculty of education) is its centralised and generic nature of teaching and learning development structure (Healey and Jenkins 2003). The weakness is that it does not address the needs of academics in faculties since it is not close to the departmental sites which they identify with and spent most of their time (Boud, 1999; Healey and Jenkins, 2003). The result will be lack of acceptance of ASD leading to poor implementation. Similar findings were made in Australia by Deborah and Gilding (2007:2) and Yood and Ingram (2001) with both of them recommending that decentralised structures should be adopted since they had the potential to meet needs of mainstream academics. In chapter 2, Smith and Silver (1999:163) on (2.9.1.2) found out in their study in the USA that professional staff development situated in practice and embedded in professional communities is likely to be successful. Also in South Africa, Gosling (2009:25) found that ASD centres are stand alones as organisational units reporting directly to the Deputy Vice Chancellor. That way academic development activities would be acceptable, sustainable and durable.

Related to T&LC structure in the institution is the status of the position of director. Clearly the position of director in both institutions is low. In table 4.2, responses to question (i) (4.3.1) corroborate this view unanimously that the director's position was lower to that of a dean. Director's grade in the university structure is regrettable. The director of a T&LC should not go through a dean of

a faculty. Instead, the position in the structure should be equivalent to that of a dean reporting to a Deputy Vice Chancellor Academic. In a research study by Quinn (2012) it was found that lowering the status of director to the level of chairperson has the consequence of creating unenabling conditions for ASD since it compromises the director's influence as an agent (Archer 1996). This all lends support to the view that the director of a T&LC is closely tied to the low levels of management within an institution owing to systematic cultural conditions and discourses that do not value 'good' teaching and learning (Quinn 2012:38).

ZIMCHE as a national structure has also been found to have positive conditioning influence on development of ASD. Institutions responded positively to demands for teaching excellence by complying to ZIMCHE requirements. However, an institutional structure alone cannot bring about change. Cultural systems are needed for institutional structures to succeed (Quinn 2012:38). In this study leadership support for valuing 'good' teaching and learning is evident in one of the institutions. So the influence of an external agency underpinned on a discourse that values 'good' teaching (Quinn 2012:37) is likely to create a conditioning influence on ASD that is positive.

The purpose of this study is to explore institutional conditions that enable or constrain the development and implementation of ASD practice. In this part of the thesis, results have shown that both institutional and external structures have a conditioning influence on the development of ASD. A T&LC attached to the Faculty of Education has its profile comprised and its visibility affected. The position of the director is low compared to that of Faculty Dean thereby deeming the position with the consequence of compromising the position. However, an external agency such as ZIMCHE was found to have an enabling effect on the development of APD practice. Both structures particularly the institutional ones need to be independent and faculty based so that they are embedded in faculties that achieves visibility, buy-in of academics and effective influence on ASD that is positive. Indeed, these structures on their own cannot succeed if they are not supported by a systematic culture valued by academics particularly their research in disciplines (Quinn, 2012).

4.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The discussion engaged in this chapter highlighted issues of presentation, discussion and analysis of data. The data collected from the instruments was presented and subsequently discussed in detail with focus and emphasis on the problem raised in chapter 1. The constant comparative method was used to present and analyse data at the same time to facilitate easy interpretation.

In this chapter, it has been noted that academic traditions and cultures as well as institutional conditions have enabling or constraining influence on the development and implementation of ASD practice in higher education institutions. Chapter 5 that follows gives the summary, conclusions and recommendations generated on the basis of empirical evidence that emerged in this study.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the findings of this study where the main purpose was to explore institutional conditions, structures and cultures that enable or constrain the development and implementation of ASD in HEIs. The purpose of this chapter is to present conclusions and recommendations for the study.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

5.2.1 Conclusions from related literature

The current study concerns itself with ASD as a higher education transformation strategy and an exploration of the institutional conditions and cultures that influence the success of its implementation. Since 1990, Zimbabwe's higher education was democratised resulting in its massification. ASD was adopted as a strategy that improved quality through the opening of Teaching and Learning Centres (T&LCs) in State Universities. Despite the establishment of T&LCs, the development of ASD practice has remained below expectation thereby threatening quality in HEIs. Therefore, the study was motivated by interest to understand institutional conditions and cultures that influence the development of ASD practice in state universities in Zimbabwe.

The literature reviewed covered aspects such as the purpose of a university, trends in higher education, institutional conditions and critical theory and its relevance to APD. Interestingly, literature revealed that the purpose and mission of a contemporary university has shifted from the enlightenment paradigm to one which sees itself as a site of critical reason that only contributes towards human power development to serve knowledge economies. The promotion and advancement of social democracy as one of its goals among many also featured (Anderson, 2011; Bowen and Schwartz, 2000) (2.4 p30-33). It is the ability of the millennium learners to take up their roles as responsible

citizens with the capacity to critically analyse issues affecting their communities that is considered to be a crucial role of a contemporary university.

The contribution of critical theory to APD in higher education transformation was also explored in the literature. Critical education, drawing from critical theory, concerns itself with the transformation of undemocratic curriculum practices experienced in HEIs in attempts to meet university goals that include promotion of a just and fair society (Apple, 2004; Barbules and Bark, 1997; Giroux, 1988; Harbermas, 1989) (2.3.1 p22-25; 2.3.2 p26-30).

There is clear consensus by various authors that ASD, underpinned in critical pedagogy, can empower university teachers to motivate students to realise their full academic potential (Apple and Giroux, 1996; Harbermas, 1989; McLaren, 2008). There is further evidence in the literature that indicates the potential of professional development in institutional transformation since it is underpinned by values espoused by critical theory such as transformation and empowerment (Freire, 1993; Brookfield, 2005; Popkewitz, 1999; Giroux, 1994), emancipation (Biesta, 1988; Servage, 2008), and democratic participation (Achinstein, 2002; Sallen, 2007) (2.3.2 p26-30). These authors argue that APD embedded in critical pedagogy will give academics as agency theoretical grounding to understand issues of diversity and quality in higher education.

It is also evident from the literature that SoTL developed as part of continuing professional development since it engages academics in reflective practice that could promote the quality of teaching of the discipline (Flaming et al., 2004). This stems from Boyer's (1990) four forms of scholarship in which the role of the professoriate was made broader. The argument advanced in the literature is that teaching is as important as research and research into teaching is as important as research into the disciplines (Boyer, 1990; McLough and Samuels, 2002). On SoTL, professional development will take reflective practice as an element of training (Boud, 1999; Hicks, 1999; Marsh and Rocke, 1994; Posser and Barrie, 2000; Posser and Trigwell, 1996) (2.2.3 p20-21).

There is also clear consensus by various scholars that lecturers have no motivation to take up ASD programmes because teaching is taken for granted (Grammasci, 1917; Nicholl, 2005; Quinn, 2012) (2.8.1.1 p50-51). These scholars also argue that

academics see themselves first and foremost as researchers rather than teachers with the consequence of not prioritising ASD programmes (2.8.2.2, 2.8.2.3).

It is also evident from the literature that academics' misunderstanding of academic staff development is associated with negative attitudes towards the programmes. According to literature, this misconceptualization is based on the wrong assumption that ASD lacks a discipline of its own. Instead, it is viewed as a practically based activity (workshop) that is divorced from disciplinary context (Kogan, 2000; Rowland, 2002) (2.8.1.2 p52-53).

There is further evidence in the literature that point to the formidable influence on ASD initiatives that is exerted by academic cultures, traditions and practices found in disciplines (Luzecky and Badger, 2007; Staniforth and Harland, 2006 and Henkel, 2002).(2.8.2.1, 2.8.2.2, 2.8.2.3). It is argued that these academic cultures dominate higher education practices to the extent that they give research a superior status over teaching (Elton, 2009; Nicholl, 2005; Marsh, 2011; Weller, 2011).(2.8.2.3 p57-60). This constraints development of APD because teaching has a lower status compared to that of research. Related literature also revealed that institutional conditions and structures have huge influence on the development and implementation of ASD programmes. There is evidence from literature to suggest that senior management support for educational practitioners in higher education institutions is crucial for the development of ASD practice (Blanton and Steylianon, 2009; Knight, 2000; Sin McGuigon and Cheny, 2011).(2.8,3.1 p64-67).

It is argued that quality leadership is imperative since traditionally academic professional development in universities is a new innovation designed to enhance institutional transformation including quality improvement.

Finally, literature reviewed educational staff development initiatives that have been experienced internationally in other countries. Experiences of the following countries were discussed: the UK (Carr, 2001:1; Comber and Walsh, 2007:28-29; Dearing Report, 1997:1060; Doreen and Walsh, 2007; D'Andrea and Gosling, 2005; Hughes and Moore, 2007:17-18; Ramsden, 2009:18-21) (section 2.9.1.1 p82-93), the USA (Burbles and Callister, 2000; Elder and McGrager, 2008; Hunt, 2008:15-16; Lindsey,

Breen and Jenkins, 2002; Callister, 2000:275; Nicholls, 2001:12 and Whitcomb and Liston, 2009:207-211 ; Nordkvelle, 2006:94-99; Volbrecht, 2003:101-105) (section 2.9.1.2 p93-98), Australia (Coaldrake, 2009:19-41; Deborah and Gilding, 2007:2; DEST, 2000:136-141; Goody and Ingram, 2001; Gosling, 2008:18-23; Holdsworth et al., 2008:76; Knight, 2009; Reid, 2003:1; and Rowland, 2006:2) (section 2.9.1.3 p98-104) and South Africa in the SADC region (D'Andrea, Gosling, Scott and Tyeken, 2002; Gosling, 2009:27; Kilfoil, 2011:5-12; Scott, 1998:12; Quinn, 2006:216-217; Quinn, 2012:213; Volbrecht, 2003:185) (2.9.2.1 p105-111).

Case studies from these countries demonstrate that initiatives on ASD are evolving in strength and effectiveness in spite of the presence of constraining institutional conditions and cultures.

5.2.2 Conclusions from empirical investigation

This section of the summary presents findings of the investigation. The empirical investigation revealed that academic traditions including disciplinary cultures have strong influence and effect on the development and implementation of APD practice in the two selected Zimbabwe state universities.

The enabling and constraining effect of institutional conditions and structures was quite apparent from the study. Participants' views were reflective of the influence of the institutional conditions in which they practiced.

There was overwhelming evidence (4.3.2.1, p167-175) for ASD to be a term understood from various perspectives including among others its purpose, its approaches, its empowering and transformation qualities and improvement as an institutional intervention transformation strategy. However, the limited and misconceptualized view that associates ASD with mastery of teaching skills was also evident (4.3.2.1, p167; 4.3.2.2, p175; 4.3.3.3, p216-223). This misconceptualization of ASD is reflective of the influence of institutional conditions and teaching cultures on academics (4.3.4.1, p232; 4.3.3.2, p207-215)

There is also strong evidence (4.3.2.2, 4.3.3.1, 4.3.3.3, 4.3.3, 4) from the investigation to suggest that academics had negative attitudes towards ASD. Reasons given by participants included the fetishism associated with a PhD degree and the perception that holding it translates into good teaching in a university set up (4.3.3.4, p223-227). Lack of knowledge about the relevance of teaching and particularly ASD in addressing challenges affecting HEIs as well as its relevance to the broader role of the academic also emerged as a factor (4.3.2.2, p175-181; 4.3.3.4, p223).

The power of the discipline in having a constraining effect on development of APD is dominant (4.3.3.1, 4.3.3.2, 4.3.3.4, 4.3.4.1, 4.3.4.4). There is clear evidence that academics value research more than teaching because of the reward system that favours research (4.3.3.1, p196-207). The consequence of this skewed value system is the marginalization of teaching (4.3.3.1, p196). It is clear that this marginalization of teaching adversely affects academics' motivation towards teaching particularly university teacher development activities (4.3.3.2, p207-215). So, low value given to teaching by academics acts as a constraint to APD development and implementation.

There is also overwhelming evidence (4.3.3.3, p216) among participants that shows that discipline based research had immense influence on academics in terms of construction of their identity and professional behaviour. Its influence is so great that the development and growth of disciplinary research is given space while teaching is not (4.3.3.1, p196-207; 4.3.3.2, p207-215; 4.3.3.5, p227-232). These disciplinary cultures influenced academics to have negative attitude towards teaching. Consequently interest in discipline based research is a barrier to APD programmes.

There is also evidence to suggest that the status of academic development practitioners lacks credibility and legitimacy in the eyes of academics because they lacked discipline based research background and training that is consistent with a university setting (4.3.3.3, p216) Literature and participants' views in this study show that ASD is associated with the supportive role of activities in departments which is considered unscholarly (4.3.2.1, p167-175; 4.3.2.2, p175-181; 4.3.3.2, p207; 4.3.3.3, p216-223). This is a constraint to the development of ASD practice because the disciplinary standing of ASD compared to faculty disciplines is opaque and questionable. However,

there is evidence though limited of some rare insights that reflected ASD as an academic activity (specialist area) with its own theory and scholarship (4.3.3.3, p220).

From the findings of this research (4.3.3.5), it may be concluded that Teaching Excellence Awards (TEA) have not been successful in raising the profile of teaching in universities. Participants felt that teaching was shunned because it did not demonstrate scholarship comparable to that associated with research. Instead, teaching awards invited scorn among its recipients (4.3.3.5, p229). Compared to research that stimulates professional identity among academics, teaching does not, as university teachers develop their expertise in teaching (4.3.3.2, p207, 4.3.3.5, p227-232).

Participants gave their views on how institutional conditions, policies and structures impacted on the development and implementation of ASD programmes in higher education institutions. There is strong empirical evidence (4.3.4.1) to suggest that higher education institutions lacked supporting and enabling policies for the development of APD practice. Enabling institutional conditions have a positive influence on ASD practice. There is also further evidence (4.3.4.1, p232-237) that confirms that coercive institutional policies might be less enabling in creating institutional conditions for the development of ASD programmes. Academics, as adults, should take responsibility for their training rather than take it through coercion. In the long term, coercive policies will be resisted. Another finding (4.3.4.2) is that institutional environment was found to be unfacilitating for ASD to be developed. Literature and participants viewed elements such as heavy workload, pressure to do research and publish, high student lecturer ratios and shortage of resources as factors that contributed towards the creation of an unfacilitating institutional environment (4.3.4.2, p238-247). These elements had a constraining influence on academics to participate in ASD activities.

There is also evidence (4.3.4.3) from the research that showed that management support can enable or constrain the development and implementation of ASD programmes. Commitment of senior management shown in terms of supporting policies, a budget for ASD and appointments made to T&LC's are crucial for ASD programmes to be successfully implemented. (4.3.4.3, p248-260).

As institutional structures T&LC's were found (4.3.4.1 p232-238) not to be independent stand alone units that championed ASD programmes. Instead, they operated under the Faculty of Education and the arrangement constrained their effectiveness in terms of promoting ASD activities. Mainstream academics resented the structure arguing that Faculty of Education was in a bid to establish hegemony over other faculties (4.3.4.4, p261-267). This structural arrangement had a constraining influence on ASD development and implementation.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.3.1 Recommendations to Zimbabwe State Universities

In the light of the above findings and conclusions, a number of recommendations were made. The study explored enabling or constraining conditions that influenced the development and implementation of ASD in HEIs. The study, therefore, provides opportunities to learn for higher education practitioners to improve their practice as well as conducting research in the field. Recommendations are divided into two: those relating to institutional conditions and disciplinary cultures that enable or constrain implementation of ASD practice and those to do with recommendations for further research.

For addressing the influence of institutional conditions, as well as disciplinary traditions and cultures on implementation of ASD programmes:

- Higher education institutions need to raise awareness among academics for the need to train through ASD in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning in the disciplines.
- Misconceptions about ASD should be addressed among academics by management to improve support of T & L C programmes.
- ASD should make academics appreciate the relationship between learning about the discipline and learning about teaching of the discipline to counter the negative attitudes associated with ASD activities.
- ASD programmes should attempt to assist academics to construct their identities on the values given to research and teaching rather than the discipline alone to reflect the broader role of the academic.

- Academic development work needed to be located in departments in which practitioners would be based in order to promote its effectiveness by directly addressing needs of academics.
- Senior academics with proven experience and interest in promoting teaching of their disciplines should be appointed as academic practitioners to give ASD practice credibility.
- Promotion policies should give equal weight to university teaching compared to that of research to counter its marginalisation.
- ASD policies should be in place that provide for a budget, career paths for academic development practitioners as well as qualifications for their appointment.
- Staff development policies reflective of the importance of updating of both one's knowledge in the discipline and teaching and learning of the discipline (SOTL) should be put in place to promote higher education teaching.
- A scientific template that measures teaching excellence objectively in university teaching should be developed so that Teaching Excellence Awards can gain peer respect and recognition.
- Quality assurance policies should be used as a vehicle that support teaching improvement and university teacher development.
- Academics should be given time and reasonable workload that facilitate academics to participate in ASD activities.
- T&LC's should be provided with resources such as computers, a budget and qualified practitioners in order to facilitate effective implementation of ASD.
- Relevant university structures (Teaching and Learning Committee, Staff Development Committee and Dean's Forum Committee) should ensure that ASD policies that address issues of quality teaching and learning in departments are implemented.
- AT&LC, as a university structure, should lead in the development of a culture that values teaching and learning in faculties in which ASD plays a crucial role.
- Management should give Directors of T&LCs status equivalent to that of a dean of a faculty to raise the status of teaching and ASD activities in a university.
- A national structure like ZIMCHE should have policies that influence universities to have their academics go through a formal course that promotes professionalization of university teaching.

- Buy in and willingness on part of management (including Deans) should be encouraged if ASD programmes are to be successfully implemented.
- Management should have a belief and value system that places importance on improving the quality of teaching and learning in a university.
- University goals and mission among other issues should promote institutional quality development and assurance in order to facilitate mainstreaming of ASD programmes into the university culture and activities.
- Academic staff should receive formal training through (PGTHE) to become qualified tertiary educators.
- Institutional policies that support the valuing of teaching and learning as an institutional culture should be put in place.

5.3.2 Recommendations to Researchers

It is recommended that researchers carry out researches on research areas listed below in order to come up with information that will inform APD practice to enhance the quality of teaching and learning in HEIs.

- There is need to carry out an analysis of the characteristics of APD programmes that are considered to be relevant for university teacher development.
- There is need to carry out research to explore the role of communities of practice in developing the scholarship of academic development.
- A research needed to be conducted to find out the impact of ASD on university teaching.
- Research needs to be conducted to investigate the form ASD programmes should take to address the needs of new generation of students that are IT literate.
- Research needs to be done to establish academics' views on professionalization of university teaching in order to come up with strategies that make implementation of ASD successful.
- Research needs to be conducted on the needs of new generation of learners in order to come up with strategies for ASD programmes that empower academics to deal with these needs.

- Research needs to be done in APD in order to develop theories and tools which contribute towards the development of APD knowledge that would validate it as bona-fide field of knowledge in its own right.
- A research needs to be undertaken to establish measures that would be objectively used to measure scholarship of teaching in order to award recognition/reward on it.
- Research needed to be done into the teaching of the discipline in order to develop its scholarship with its own theory.

5.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 5 captured those discourses found in related literature and those revealed by the empirical investigation for purposes of showing their relevance in terms of discourses. The chapter also gave the researcher an opportunity to provide a summary of the findings as well as recommendations to Zimbabwe State Universities and interested researchers.

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APPENDICES

APPENDICES A

APPENDIX 1: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE – FOR ACADEMICS

Academic Professional Development (APD) in Higher Education Institutions (HEs)

Dear Participant

I am a UNISA student studying for a doctoral degree in education. The background to my study is based on efforts of higher education institutions to improve quality teaching and learning experiences to new generation students through academic professional development (APD) of staff. The strategy however is experiencing limited effectiveness. The purpose of the study is to explore institutional, academic traditions and cultural conditions that affect successful implementation of APD in Zimbabwe State Universities.

You have been sampled as a participant on the basis of your experiences in APD. Participation is voluntary. As a participant you are free to withdraw from the process at anytime. Also, confidentiality and right to privacy will be maintained. Your name shall not be written or mentioned in the study. As a participant you are free to ask questions related to the process or study. You are requested to answer the interview questions as frankly as possible.

Thank you in advance for the time to answer the questions and for your cooperation.

The interview will present participants with an opportunity to tell me their views about conditions that enable or constrain the development of APD practice in higher education institutions. The interview is basically semi-structured and informal. The interview will be recorded and kept confidential. I will be bound by the consent agreement for confidentiality.

The interview will cover:

- A) CONCEPTUALIZATION OF APD

- B) HIGHER EDUCATION TRANSFORMATION AND QUALITY ASSURANCE
- C) CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE APD PROGRAMME
- D) ATTITUDES OF ACADEMICS
- E) ACADEMIC CULTURE AND DISCIPLINARY IDENTITY
- F) COMPETITION BETWEEN TEACHING AND RESEARCH
- G) INSTITUTIONAL CONDITIONS (CONTEXT)

The interview time should be 1½ hours to 2 hours.

SECTION A

CONCEPTUALIZATION OF APD

- What is your understanding of APD in your university?

SECTION B

HIGHER EDUCATION TRANSFORMATION AND QUALITY ASSURANCE

- Please tell me whether there is awareness among academics for the need for new approaches to deal with a new generation of students.
- How is your institution responding to the issues of quality education?
- Is APD accepted as a strategy that can be used to promote quality in the institution?

SECTION C

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE APD PROGRAMME

- What is your comment on the relevance of the APD programmes offered in your institution?
- Tell me whether your ‘voices’ are sought in developing APD programmes?
- From your experience is student feedback used in drawing up the content of APD initiatives?
- Are your choices and experiences considered in informing the content of APD activities?
- Please tell me whether APD initiatives have had impact in your institution. What are the reasons?

SECTION D

ATTITUDES OF ACADEMICS

- From experience in your institution what is the attitude of academics towards APD initiatives?
- In your opinion is a PhD qualification a guarantee for one to be a good teacher?
- To what extent in your view are academics concerned with students and success of their studies?
- Do academics believe in staff development?
- To what extent is participation in ASD programmes in your institution voluntary? What is the attitude of academics on the call to professionalize the teaching function of a lecturer?
- What is the attitude of mainstream academics towards APD initiatives?

SECTION E

ACADEMIC CULTURE AND DISCIPLINARY IDENTITY

- From your experience what is the influence of departmental cultures (research publications) on implementation of ASD programmes?
- Tell me whether you view yourself as a discipline based researcher first and foremost or a teacher? Does this affect your interest in staff development?
- Please tell me how you would rate the interest of departmental members in APD initiatives launched by the institution?
- From your experience, how often does the issue of effective teaching in departments feature in meetings?

SECTION F

COMPETITION BETWEEN RESEARCH AND TEACHING

- What are your views about the status of teaching in your institution compared to research?
- To what extent do promotion policies in your institution affect implementation of APD programmes?
- What is the attitude of academics towards teaching rewards? (Is there funding for teaching?)
- How do promotion requirements affect academic participation in APD in your institution?
- Does the pressure to do research and publish affect participation of academics in APD programmes?
- Please tell me whether promotion criteria in your institution marginalizes teaching? What is the effect on APD activities?
- Is research on teaching and learning (SOTL) recognized as important?

SECTION G

INSTITUTIONAL CONDITIONS AND POLICIES

- What university policies exist that support and encourage APD initiatives and practice?
- Please tell me whether the teaching function is finding space in the strategic plan as an institutional goal?
- Which institutional conditions affect academics in participating in APD programmes?
- How are deans , supported by institutional policies to promote APD? Are they accountable for its promotion?
- Is there an institutional reward like Vice Chancellors Teaching Award that promotes excellence in teaching?

Thank you for your support and time.

APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE – FOR DIRECTORS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING CENTRES

Academic Professional Development (APD) in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

Dear Participant

I am a UNISA student studying for a doctoral degree in education. The background to my study is based on efforts of higher education institutions to improve quality teaching and learning experiences to new generation students through academic

professional development (APD) of staff. The strategy however is experiencing limited effectiveness. The purpose of the study is to explore institutional, academic traditions and cultural conditions that affect successful implementation of APD in Zimbabwe State Universities.

You have been sampled as a participant on the basis of your experiences in APD. Participation is voluntary. As a participant you are free to withdraw from the process at anytime. Also, confidentiality and right to privacy will be maintained. Your name shall not be written or mentioned in the study. As a participant you are free to ask questions related to the process or study. You are requested to answer the interview questions as frankly as possible.

Thank you in advance for the time to answer the questions and for your cooperation.

The interview will present participants with an opportunity to tell me their views about institutional conditions that enable or impede the development of APD practice in higher education institutions. The interview is basically semi structured and informal. The interview will be recorded and kept confidential. I will be bound by the consent agreement for confidentiality.

The interview will cover:

- A) CREDIBILITY OF PRACTITIONERS
- B) CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE APD PROGRAMME
- C) INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES
- D) TEACHING AND LEARNING CENTRES

The interview time should be 1½hours to 2 hours.

SECTION A

CREDIBILITY OF PRACTITIONERS

- Do mainstream academics view academic practitioners as academics or support/professional appointments? What influences their identity/status/credibility?
- To what extent is the career path of ED practitioners clear?
- Is the position of Director Teaching and Learning Centre comparable to that of Dean Research?

- Is the Teaching and Learning Centre viewed as a service center or academic unit/research unit? What influences the perception?
- Are academic practitioners given appropriate status/credibility and power to contribute towards cultural transformation of the institution?
- In your institution, are academic practitioners viewed as engaged in scholarly practice or non scholarly activities?

SECTION B

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE APD

- What are the objectives of the APD programmes? Are academics' experiences, real life or professional considered in developing APD programmes?
- Are staff development programmes developed in consultation with Deans or staff development committees? How are they received?
- Do APD activities meet the needs of lecturers? What has been the feedback?
- Do academics find APD programmes relevant? What has been the feedback?
- Are professional development activities mainly workshop based or inquiry based? What has been the dominant approach?
- What part of APD activities make up the programmes?
- Do academics appreciate that APD can transform the practice of teaching and learning in an institution?
- To what extent do staff development initiatives have credibility? If, not why?
- In your opinion what training do academics expect APD programmes to offer?

SECTION C

INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES

- To what extent are institutional policies in place which provide for the development of APD?
- As Director do you belong to any university committee? What is your role?
- At institutional level are you involved in contributing towards policy issues?
- Is there provision for practitioners to engage with senior management on issues that affect APD initiatives in the institution?
- Does the institution have an institutional policy that promotes quality learning and teaching?
- To what extent is teaching and learning given institutional priority?
- Does the institution have a facilitating infrastructure for APD programmes? Can you identify the infrastructure?
- Are institutional conditions in place which promotes APD initiatives? Tell me those conditions.
- Is the institutional environment too demanding to constrain academic development initiatives? Identify the environmental issues.

SECTION D

TEACHING AND LEARNING CENTRES

- What is the role of the Teaching and Learning Centre?. What is the position of the Teaching and Learning Centre within the university structure?
 - Are institutional policies in place which support its operations?
 - From your experience is it viewed as an academic unit? What are the reasons?
 - What challenges do practitioners experience in implementing APD?
-

Thank you for your help and time.

APPENDIX 3: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE – SENIOR MANAGEMENT (DEANS, VICE CHANCELLORS)

Academic Professional Development (APD) in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

Dear Participant

I am a UNISA student studying for a doctoral degree in education. The background to my study is based on efforts of higher education institutions to improve quality teaching and learning experiences to new generation students through academic professional development (APD) of staff. The strategy however is experiencing limited effectiveness. The purpose of the study is to explore institutional, academic traditions and cultural conditions that affect successful implementation of APD in Zimbabwe State Universities.

You have been sampled as a participant on the basis of your experiences in APD. Participation is voluntary. As a participant you are free to withdraw from the process at anytime. Also, confidentiality and right to privacy will be maintained. Your name shall

not be written or mentioned in the study. As a participant you are free to ask questions related to the process or study. You are requested to answer the interview questions as frankly as possible.

Thank you in advance for the time to answer the questions and for your cooperation.

The interview will present participants with an opportunity to tell me their views about institutional conditions that enable or constrain the development of APD practice in higher education institutions. The interview is semi structured and conversational in nature. The interview will be recorded and kept confidential. I will be bound by the consent agreement of confidentiality.

The interview will ensure that the following are covered:

- A) CONCEPTUALISATION OF APD
- B) TRANSFORMATION OF HE
- C) INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND CONDITIONS
- D) INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT

SECTION A

CONCEPTUALISATION OF APD

- What is your understanding of APD?
- What is its objective?
- Tell me is APD an academic activity?
- In appointing ED practitioners what requirements would you consider important to be met for one to be appointed?

SECTION B

TRANSFORMATION OF HE

- What are the challenges facing the new generation of students?
- Are mainstream academics equipped to deal with challenges associated with new generation of students?
- From your experience are academics aware of the need for academic professional development?
- To what extent do you view APD as an institutional resource/ strategy that promotes quality learning and teaching?
- What is the institutional philosophy about APD in the university?

SECTION C

INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND CONDITIONS

- Are there institutional policies that support and encourage APD initiatives?
 - What is the position of the teaching and learning centre in the university structure?
 - To what extent is Quality Assurance and Performance Appraisal an agenda that influence APD initiatives?
 - Is teaching and learning given institutional priority? Is a structure in place that supports and rewards teaching as is done for research?
 - Does the institution's strategic plan profile university teaching as a strategic goal?
 - To what extent has the audits of the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE) influenced staff development in the institution?
 - In your view have staff development initiatives made an impact on the quality of teaching and learning in the institution?
-

SECTION D

INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT

- How have international trends influenced higher education development in your institution?
- ISSUES TO BE COVERED/ CONSIDERED:

Quality of Learning and Teaching

Higher Education Quality Agency (ies)....(UK, USA, SA etc).

Thank you for your help and time.

APPENDIX 4: FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE SCHEDULE

Academic Professional Development (APD) in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

Dear Participant

I am a UNISA student studying for a doctoral degree in education. The background to my study is based on efforts of higher education institutions to improve quality teaching and learning experiences to new generation students through academic professional development (APD) of staff. The strategy however is experiencing limited effectiveness. The purpose of the study is to explore institutional, academic traditions and cultural conditions that affect successful implementation of APD in Zimbabwe State Universities.

You have been sampled as a participant on the basis of your experiences in APD. Participation is voluntary. As a participant you are free to withdraw from the process at anytime. Also, confidentiality and right to privacy will be maintained. Your name shall not be written or mentioned in the study. As a participant you are free to ask questions related to the process or study. You are requested to participate in the focus group discussion as an equal contributor and as independently as possible.

Thank you in advance for the time to participate in the focus group discussion and for your cooperation.

- What is your understanding of Academic Professional Development?
- What is the institutional Strategy (philosophy) on APD?)
- In what way do institutional conditions and culture influence implementation of APD?
- Where does the role of APD fit within the structure of the university?
- What are the academics views on APD/ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT PRACTITIONERS? How does it impact on programmes?
- In what way does academic culture (research or publish) influence APD initiatives?
- What is the impact of academic professional development programmes on the quality of teaching and learning?
- What would you say are the key challenges for the institution in respect of CPD?

APPENDIX 5: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ACADEMICS

Academic Professional Development (APD) in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

Dear Participant

I am a UNISA student studying for a doctoral degree in education. The background to my study is based on efforts of higher education institutions to improve quality teaching and learning experiences to new generation students through academic professional development (APD) of staff. The strategy however is experiencing limited effectiveness. The purpose of the study is to explore institutional, academic traditions and cultural conditions that affect successful implementation of APD in Zimbabwe State Universities.

You have been sampled as a participant on the basis of your experiences in APD. Participation is voluntary. As a participant you are free to withdraw from the process at anytime. Also, confidentiality and right to privacy will be maintained. Your name shall not be written or mentioned in the study. As a participant you are free to ask questions related to the process or study. You are requested to answer the questions in full and as frankly as possible.

Thank you in advance for the time to answer the questions and for your cooperation.

In this section, please tick (√) in the appropriate box.

1. What was your age last birthday?

Below 30 years	_____	50 – 59 years
30 – 39 years	_____	60 and above years
40 – 49 years		

2. What is your marital status?

Single	_____	Divorced
Married		Widowed

3. Please indicate your highest Academic Qualification you hold.

BA	M PHIL
BA (HONS)	MSC
BSC	MED
BSC (HONS)	PhD
MA	

4. Have you ever trained as a teacher?

Yes
No

5. Which teaching qualification do you hold?

T3	CE
T4	GCE
T1	PGDE
T2	

6. For how long have you been lecturing in higher education institutions?

(Universities?).

0 – 5 years	21 – 25 years
6 – 10 years	26 – 30 years
11 – 15 years	30 years and above
16 – 20 years	

7. Indicate with a tick your Grade

Lecturer		Chairperson	
Senior Lecturer		Dean	
Professor		Director T/L Centre	
Academic		Vice Chancellor	
Practitioner			

8.

YES NO

a. Have you ever participated in APD programmes?

b. Do the programmes answer your needs?

- c. Are you consulted in the drawing up of the programmes?
- d. Is APD accepted as a strategy that promotes quality?
- e. Is APD viewed as a support / professional activity?
- f. Do you consider a PhD qualification a guarantee for one to be a good teacher?
- g. Do Academics view themselves more as researchers than teachers?
- h. Is APD associated with workshops on teaching skills than research into teaching problems?
- i. Are academics' experiences considered in developing APD programmes?
- j. Do APD programmes have high uptake among academics?
- k. Are Academics aware of the need to be trained through APD programmes?
- l. Is an outstanding researcher also associated with good teaching?
- m. Are academic practitioners also viewed as academics and researchers by mainstream academics?
- n. Does institutional environment (workload, research etc) not constrain APD initiatives?
- o. Is value given to teaching supported by institutional policies?
- p. Do promotion policies in the institution highlight research more than teaching?
- q. Is APD integrated (mainstreamed) into the structures of the university?
- r. Is APD not viewed as a sideline activity in the institution?
- s. Is the position of a Director of a Teaching and Learning Centre equivalent to that of a Dean of a Faculty?
- t. Do institutional policies exist that support APD programmes?
- u. Is funding for APD equivalent to that of research?
- v. Does APD enjoy the commitment of the institution?
- w. Are academics encouraged to attend conferences on APD in your institution?
- x. Do departmental cultures and traditions (research) not constrain APD practice?
- y. Does learning and teaching feature as one of the goals of the institution's strategic plan?

9. Which university activity is given more weight and recognition?

(a) research (b) teaching (c) Community service

How does this weighting affect your interest in APD?

10. Does the institutional environment support APD? Yes No

Can you describe the situation _____

11. In which activity do you prefer to commit your time most?

(a) Research (b) teaching (c) APD activities

Explain your response _____

12. Does management support APD activities? Yes No

List possible reasons _____

13. Do you view practitioners in APD as academics? Yes No

Give reasons for your view _____

14. Does teaching of students particularly their problems feature for discussion in departmental or faculty meetings? Yes No

Explain your response _____

15. What are the major challenges faced in establishing Academic Professional practice in an institution?

16. In your opinion, what should be done to make implementation of APD successful in your institution?

Thank you very much for taking time to complete the questionnaire.

APPENDIX 6: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DIRECTORS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING CENTRES

Academic Professional Development (APD) in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

Dear Participant

I am a UNISA student studying for a doctoral degree in education. The background to my study is based on efforts of higher education institutions to improve quality teaching and learning experiences to new generation students through academic professional development (APD) of staff. The strategy however is experiencing limited effectiveness. The purpose of the study is to explore institutional, academic traditions and cultural conditions that affect successful implementation of APD in Zimbabwe State Universities.

You have been sampled as a participant on the basis of your experiences in APD. Participation is voluntary. As a participant you are free to withdraw from the process at anytime. Also, confidentiality and right to privacy will be maintained. Your name shall not be written or mentioned in the study. As a participant you are free to ask questions related to the process or the study. You are requested to answer the questions in full and as frankly as possible.

Thank you in advance for the time to answer the questions and for your cooperation.

The questionnaire focuses on implementation of APD by Directors of Teaching and Learning Centres.

Responses will be treated in confidence.

Use a tick (✓) to show your response or complete the space provided.

1. Gender: Male Female

2. Title: Mr Mrs Miss Ms Dr Prof

3. Highest Qualification: First Degree Masters Degree Doctorate

4. Work Experience:

0 – 5 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	16 – 20 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
6 – 10 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	21 – 25 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
11 – 15 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	26 – 30 years	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. For your appointment as Director of Teaching and Learning Centre which skill(s) was required for the post: (a) research (b) teaching skills
(c) administration and coordination (e) both research and teaching skills

Provide other skills which were expected: _____

6. Do mainstream academics view your position as an academic post? Yes No

Explain this response _____

6. In the majority of cases who initiates APD programmes?

(a) Top Management (b) Deans (c) Chairpersons
(d) Individual Academics (e) The Teaching and Learning Centre

7. Are academics' real life teaching experiences used in developing APD initiatives?

Yes No

Briefly explain how you develop your programmes _____

8. Is participation in your APD programmes high? Yes No

Explain your response _____

9. Do Chairpersons/ Deans support APD programmes? Yes No

Could you give reasons _____

10. Is your work in APD practice considered for promotion? Yes No

Could you give reasons _____

11. Do you feel isolated in the university structure? Yes No

12. Are APD activities supported by the institution? Yes No

Explain this response. Also indicate the kind of support _____

13. How would you rate the status of APD implementation in your institution?

- | | | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| (a) Very satisfactory | <input type="checkbox"/> | (b) Satisfactory | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| (c) not much | <input type="checkbox"/> | (d) more needs to be done | <input type="checkbox"/> |

14. What challenges do you face in implementing APD programmes? _____

15. What suggestions would you make to improve implementation of APD programmes?

Thank you very much for the time.

APPENDIX 7: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR VICE CHANCELLOR/DEAN

Academic Professional Development (APD) in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

Dear Participant

I am a UNISA student studying for a doctoral degree in education. The background to my study is based on efforts of higher education institutions to improve quality teaching and learning experiences to new generation students through academic professional development (APD) of staff. The strategy however is experiencing limited effectiveness. The purpose of the study is to explore institutional, academic traditions and cultural conditions that affect successful implementation of APD in Zimbabwe State Universities.

You have been sampled as a participant on the basis of your experiences in APD. Participation is voluntary. As a participant you are free to withdraw from the process at anytime. Also, confidentiality and right to privacy will be maintained. Your name shall not be written or mentioned in the study. As a participant you are free to ask questions related to the process or study. You are requested to answer the questions in full and as frankly as possible.

Thank you in advance for the time to answer the questions and for your cooperation.

The questionnaire will present management with an opportunity to indicate institutional position, conditions and their role in the implementation of APD in their institution.

Responses will be treated in confidence

Use a tick (✓) to indicate your response or complete the space provided.

1.Position: VC Dean

2.Gender: Male Female

3.Title: Mr Mrs Miss Ms Dr Prof

4.Highest Qualification: Masters Doctorate

5.Work Experience: 0 – 5 years 16 – 20 years

6 – 10 years 21 – 25 years

11 – 15 years 26 – 30 years

6.Is APD adopted as an institutional strategy that promotes the quality agenda?

Yes No

Why do you say so? _____

7.Are traditional teaching approaches adequate in dealing with new generation of students?

Yes No

Explain your position _____

8.As management is the teaching function a prioritised activity in the strategic plan?

Yes

No

Briefly state what the plan says about learning and teaching

9. Has the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE) influenced you as management to establish APD programmes? Yes No

If yes explain how ZIMCHE has influenced the institution

If no, what then influenced management?

10. As management, do you subscribe to the philosophy of lifelong learning?

Yes

No

If yes what kind of support do you give to lecturers?

11. As management do you create enabling conditions for APD practitioners to implement programmes? Yes No

List the things you do if your answer is yes.

12. Which function has more weight/recognition for promotion purposes than the other in your institution?

Research Output

Teaching Excellence

13. Is there funding to promote the teaching function? Yes No

If yes what is the fund used for?

14. In your institution the position of Director Teaching and Learning Centre is equivalent to:

(a) Dean (b) Chairperson (c) HOD
(d) Coordinator of programme (e) Status is unclear

15. Indicate the status of the Teaching and Learning Centre in your institution.

(a) An academic unit (b) support services centre (c) status is unclear

Can you give one or two reasons for that status

16. Are there any university policies that support APD of academics? Yes No
If yes what do the policies provide/say?

17. Does the head of your Teaching and Learning Centre belong to any university committee?

Yes No

If yes indicate the committee _____

18. As management do you encourage academics to participate in APD initiatives?

Yes No

How do you encourage?

19. How do you rate the interest of academics in APD programmes?

(a) Very interested (b) interested (c) not interested

What could be the reasons for interest or lack of interest?

20. Is participation in APD programmes (a) compulsory (b) voluntary

21. Are academics who achieve excellence rewarded? Yes No

Explain your response _____

22. How do you describe the attitude of your academics towards APD programmes?

23. What is your assessment of the impact of the APD initiatives in the institution?

List the challenges that need to be addressed.

24. Suggest any recommendations to improve implementation of APD programmes

Thank you very much for your time.

APPENDIX 8: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Researcher: Raphinos Alexander Chabaya

Title of Research: Academic Professional Development in Higher Education institutions: A Case Study of State Universities in Zimbabwe.

This informed consent will explain about being a research participant in the study. It is important that you read this material carefully and then decide if you wish to be a volunteer participant.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to explore institutional academic and traditional cultures and conditions that affect effective implementation of academic professional development in Zimbabwe State Universities. A secondary purpose is to determine if higher education institutions treat academic professional development as a strategy that can contribute towards transformation (professionalization of teaching leading to quality higher education) in universities. Data will be collected to enlighten actors in higher education institutions on the crucial role academic professional development can play in empowering academics to deal with new generation of students gaining access to university through the national transformation agenda. Information gathered may

also assist universities to deal with **QUALITY ASSURANCE DEMANDS** emanating from the Zimbabwe Higher Education Council (ZIMCHE).

Duration

The participants will be asked to participate in a face-to-face interview lasting approximately 60 to 90 minutes. Should the subject wish to continue with the interview, it will be accommodated at their request.

Procedures

The procedures used will consist of questionnaires and face to face interviews where data will be recorded using an audio recorder. Gathered information will be analysed using manual sorting and sifting of trends that will emerge.

Possible Risks

There will not be significant risk to individuals participating in the study. On occasion, an individual may experience mild discomfort should a question evoke an unpleasant memory. However, participants will be told that they may decline to answer any question at any time for any reason they might choose. They may also terminate the interview at any point in the process if they choose and may withdraw from further participation in the study of their own choice.

Possible Benefits and Compensation

There are no direct benefits to any individual participating in this study. Some satisfaction may be taken from the interview in knowing that they have assisted in:

- Contributing to a new field of knowledge on Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) through Academic Professional Development.

- Conscientising academics on the role of Academic Professional Development as a strategy that promotes quality in Higher Education Institutions.

Contact for Questions

If you have any questions related to the research and your participation in the study you may call Raphinos Alexander Chabaya at 263 772 369 969 OR Professor Louis Van Nierkek at 0027(12)4294778.

Confidentiality

Each participant's right to privacy will be maintained. The results of the study may be published and/or presented at meetings without naming you as a participant. The research information will only be available for inspection by personnel from the Faculty of Education, University of South Africa and the Higher Degrees Research Committee of the University of South Africa and any other person(s) appointed as external examiners for the research study. All information about the participants will be treated confidentially and will not be revealed.

Voluntary Participation

The purpose, risks and benefits of the project have been explained to me as well as are known available. I understand what my participation involves. Furthermore, I understand that I am free to ask questions and withdraw from the project at any time without penalty. I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it feely and voluntarily. My study and contribution to this research, will be maintained in strictest confidence and will not be revealed unless required by law.

Signature of Participant Volunteer: _____

Date: _____

I agree to protect the rights and confidentiality of contributors to this research study.

Name of Researcher:..... RAPHINOS ALEXANDER CHABAYA

Signature of Researcher: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX 9: INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR FOCUS GROUP MEMBERS

Researcher: Raphinos Alexander Chabaya

Title of Research: Academic Professional Development in Higher Education institutions: A Case Study of State Universities in Zimbabwe.

This informed consent will explain about being a research participant as a focus group interview member in a study. It is important that you read this material carefully and then decide if you wish to be a volunteer participant in a focus group interview.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to explore institutional academic and traditional cultures and conditions that affect effective implementation of academic professional development in Zimbabwe State Universities. A secondary purpose is to determine if higher education institutions treat academic professional development as a strategy that can contribute towards transformation (professionalization of teaching leading to quality higher education) in universities. Data will be collected to enlighten actors in higher education institutions on the crucial role academic professional development can play in empowering academics to deal with new generation of students gaining access

to university through the national transformation agenda. Information gathered may also assist universities to deal with **QUALITY ASSURANCE DEMANDS** emanating from the Zimbabwe Higher Education Council (ZIMCHE).

Duration

Group participants will be asked to participate in focus group discussions lasting between 2 - 3 hrs. Each focus group discussion will be focused and concluded within set time.

Procedures

The procedure to be used consists of focus group sessions where discussions will be recorded using an audio recorder. Gathered information will be analysed to look for trends (themes) and surprises that will emerge. Emerging perspectives will be finally compared, contrasted and combined with data collected through interviews.

Possible Risks

There will not be significant risk to individuals participating in the study. On occasion, an individual may experience mild discomfort should a question evoke an unpleasant memory. However, participants will be told that they may decline to answer any question at any time for any reason they might choose. They may also terminate the interview at any point in the process if they choose and may withdraw from further participation in the study of their own choice.

Possible Benefits and Compensation

There are no direct benefits to any individual participating in this study. Some satisfaction may be taken from the interview in knowing that they have assisted in:

- Contributing to a new field of knowledge on Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) through Academic Professional Development.
- Raising consciousness of academics on the role of Academic Professional Development as a strategy that promotes quality in Higher Education Institutions.

Contact for Questions

If you have any questions related to the research and your participation in the study you may call Raphinos Alexander Chabaya at 263 772 369 969 OR Professor Louis Van Nierkek at 0027(12)4294778. SO NOT APPLICABLE

Confidentiality

Each group participant's right to privacy as well as the privacy of other members of the group will be respected and maintained .The results of the study may be published or presented at meetings without naming you as a group participant or other members of the group. The research information will only be available for inspection by personnel from the Faculty of Education, University of South Africa and the Higher Degrees Research Committee of the University of South Africa and any other person(s) appointed as external examiners for the research study. All information about the participants will be treated confidentially and will not be revealed.

Voluntary Group Interview Participation

The purpose, risks and benefits of the project have been explained to me as well as are known available. I understand that my contribution and participation as a group member will be independent and voluntary . Furthermore , my contribution will not be influenced by group thinking or presence of the researcher. Also, I understand that I am free to contribute to the group discussion at will and withdraw from the group discussion at any time without penalty. I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it feely and voluntarily. My study and contribution to this research, will be maintained in strictest confidence and will not be revealed unless required by law.

Signature of Participant Volunteer: _____

Date: _____

I agree to protect the rights and confidentiality of contributors to this research study.

Name of Researcher:..... RAPHINOS ALEXANDER CHABAYA

Signature of Researcher: _____

Date: _____

APPENDICES B – LETTERS

APPENDIX 10: LETTER TO THE VICE CHANCELLOR

Zimbabwe Open University
Masvingo Regional Campus
Box 1210
Masvingo
Zimbabwe

6 April 2013

The Vice Chancellor

.....

**RE: APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN
THE UNIVERSITY FOR DOCTORAL STUDIES**

I write to request authority and permission to conduct research in your university. I am a doctoral student with the University of South Africa. The research study is on ACADEMIC PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT with special focus on conditions that affect its implementation in Higher Education Institutions.

I wish to assure you in confidence that findings of the study shall be strictly for my academic studies only and strictly not for external publication. I shall be indebted for your support on this matter and request.

Thank you in anticipation of your support and assistance.

Sincerely

R. A. CHABAYA

APPENDIX 11 – Permission to conduct research at Great Zimbabwe University



Registrar
Ms S. Tirivanhu
P O Box 1235
MASVINGO
Tel: 039-252100
Fax: 039-252109

Off Old Great Zimbabwe Road
MASVINGO
E-mail: stirivanhu@gzu.ac.zw

GREAT ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY

14 June 2013

Mr. R.A. Chabaya
Zimbabwe Open University
Masvingo Regional Campus
Box 1210
Masvingo
Zimbabwe

RE: APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE UNIVERSITY FOR DOCTORAL STUDIES

Mr. R.A. Chabaya, your application for permission to conduct research at the Great Zimbabwe University for doctoral studies has been granted.

The University would expect you to comply with ethical considerations such as confidentiality. The University would appreciate to get a copy of the study for its own benefit since **ACADEMIC PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION** is a topical issue being advanced in promoting quality education in the higher education landscape.

Thank you and good luck in your research endeavours.

Sincerely

S. Tirivanhu (Ms)
REGISTRAR





MIDLANDS STATE UNIVERSITY

Professor N. Bhebe BA Plr.D.
P. BAG 9055, Gweru, Zimbabwe
Tel: (263) 54 260753 / 260484 / 260884
Fax: (263) 54 260753
E-mail: nbhebe@msu.ac.zw
msuvcoffice@yahoo.com

VICE-CHANCELLOR'S OFFICE

24 March 2014

Mr R.A. Chabaya
Zimbabwe Open University
Masvingo Regional Campus
P O Box 1210
Masvingo
Zimbabwe

**RE: APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN
THE UNIVERSITY FOR DOCTORAL STUDIES**

The University acknowledges receipt of your application to conduct research at Midlands State University for PhD studies.

I am happy to advise you that the University grants you permission to conduct the research.

I wish also to advise that as you conduct your study you comply with ethical considerations such as confidentiality. Also, the University will appreciate to get a copy of your findings for purposes of adding value to our academic professional development programmes in the University.

Thank you and good luck in your studies.

Sincerely

PROF. N.M. BHEBE
VICE CHANCELLOR



Research Ethics Clearance Certificate

This is to certify that the application for ethical clearance submitted by

Chabaya RA [5107121]

for D Ed study entitled

**Professional development for academic staff:
a case study of Zimbabwe State Universities**

has met the ethical requirements as specified by the University of South Africa
College of Education Research Ethics Committee. This certificate is valid for two
years from the date of issue.



Prof CS le Roux
CEDU REC (Chairperson)
lrouxcs@unisa.ac.za

11 November 2013

Reference number: 2013 November/5107121/CSLR