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Freeing the chi of change: The Higher Education Academy and enhancing teaching and learning in higher education

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This article takes a look at some of the new policies enacted in the United Kingdom with the goal of improving the quality of higher education there and the way students study. Both the Higher Education Bill (2004) and the Higher Education Academy's efforts in this field are very new. Therefore, it is very appropriate to conduct a retrospective of past efforts. While other levels of study have dealt with these attempts head-on, the essay demonstrates that the meso level, which is crucial, has been neglected. On the other hand, many theories of change and development have provided the foundation for these interventions. The concept of the reflective practitioner is central to one dominant paradigm; this theory focusses on the micro (person) level of analysis. As agents of change, it views reflective practitioners. Another is associated with learning organisation theory, which takes a macro view and attributes change to changes in the norms, beliefs, and practices of an organisation. One more holds that the field itself is the most important unit of study for bringing about transformation, and it is founded on the idea of epistemological determinism. Other policies in higher education coexist with the ones already listed; they may not be directly related to improving instruction, but they still have a substantial impact on the field via a patchwork of unrelated tactics and implicit assumptions. Particularly pertinent here are policies concerning funding, research, and expanding involvement, all of which are being put into place within a more managerialist setting characterised by an increase in workload and a decrease in available resources. Consistency between the policies and the ideas that underpin them throughout the many levels of analysis is absent from all of this. The higher education programs implemented by different government and non-government organisations have often worked against one another due to their lack of cohesion. This leads us to our choice of an Eastern philosophical metaphor: the idea of blocked chi. At the departmental level, which is the meso level of analysis, there is also a lack of a strong theory of change and related policies. Our goal is to liberate the "chi of change" by proposing solutions to the second omission.

Introduction

Chi brings good fortune in the form of physical energy, relationship affinity and material prosperity... If chi is not allowed to flow freely... then it stagnates and transforms into destructive energy, known as sha chi ... Chi is said to gently flow along curved lines while the 'doom laden' sha chi strikes like a 'secret arrow' along straight lines. (Dee, 1999, p.8)

This article examines the main UK policy initiatives directed at the teaching function within British universities in recent years. It concentrates on 'post-Dearing' initiatives, identifying strategic and theoretical weaknesses that have hindered the progress of change. Dearing was commissioned to outline a long-term national strategy for higher education in the twenty-first century, and reported to the government through the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (NCIHE) in 1997. Its recommendations, operationalized through a number of funding initiatives, have shaped new approaches to teaching, learning and research across the UK university sector.

The article questions the appropriateness of the strategies adopted by government in pursuit of its aims for the enhancement of teaching and research quality in British universities. It argues that the change strategy adopted has resulted in only partial effectiveness for three main reasons. First, there were absences and incoherence within the level of analysis chosen for initiatives to promote change, with clear gaps at the 'meso' level of the departmental community—what Becher and Kogan call the 'basic unit' (Becher & Kogan, 1992). Second, the funding initiatives are underpinned by inadequate tacit theories of change. Third, these initiatives exist in a policy environment redolent with policy paradoxes (Gleeson, 1989), which serve to undermine their effect. There is, in short, a lack of 'joined-up thinking' in any fundamental sense (McCormick & Leicester, 1999).

The article seeks to contribute to the present debate on teaching, learning and research in higher education with reference to the British government's latest initiative to set up a new organization, the Higher Education Academy, to support curriculum and pedagogical development. We start with a brief survey of the UK university sector in the 'post-Dearing' area, in order to contextualize the change initiatives under scrutiny in this article.

The development of government teaching enhancement initiatives post-Dearing

The report of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (often known as the Dearing Report) in 1997 heralded a number of changes in the English funding council's approach to teaching and learning. The Learning and Teaching Standing Committee of the Higher Education Funding Council for England was set up following the publication of the report to 'advise the funding council on developing learning and teaching strategy and the funding mechanisms to do this'. The six key issues identified by the committee were:

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1. Raising the profile of learning and teaching in higher education
2. Enhancing public confidence in the quality of learning and teaching in higher education
3. Enhancing the quality of learning and teaching
4. Responding to global competition
5. Promoting the efficient and effective use of resources
6. Encouraging research to support learning and teaching in higher education (HEFCE, 1998).

The 1998 strategy and funding proposals document recognized what had been apparent to practitioners for some time, that there were 'Many agencies, institutions, individuals, initiatives and programmes ... concerned with improving the quality of learning and teaching. There [was] competition, duplication and lack of co-ordination and coherence between initiatives'. In addition, it recognized that some initiatives had proved ineffectual: 'For example, it is not yet clear that the outcomes of the Fund for the Development of Teaching and Learning (FDTL) and the UK-wide Teaching and Learning Technology Programme (TLTP) have been widely understood and adopted by those who might benefit from them' (HEFCE 1998, p.3).

The 1998 consultation document proposed a new integrated approach to the funding of improvements in teaching quality: the Teaching Quality Enhancement Fund (TQEF). The TQEF would provide funding at three levels: the institution, the academic subject and the individual. The HEFCE annual conference in 1998 indicated a preference for funding for 'excellence and enhancement through bidding schemes, rather than by formula'. This was in contrast to the oft-heard complaint of 'bidding fatigue' and probably indicated a fear of teaching enhancement funding being absorbed into the main teaching grant, rather than a desire to continue competition between institutions. Initially it was proposed that funding at the institutional level would be for additional student numbers only, but the April 1999 (HEFCE 1999a) announcement of the funding council's strategy, following consultation with the sector, included funding to support institutional learning, teaching and assessment strategies. HEFCE announced five main purposes for their learning and teaching strategy:

1. Encouragement and reward
2. Coordination and collaboration
3. Disseminating and embedding good practice
4. Research and innovation
5. Building capacity for change.

Institution-level funding would provide support for the implementation of institutional learning, teaching and assessment strategies. Funding would be done by formula, based on student numbers. The total amount provided for this level of funding was just over £48 million for the three-year period 1999-2002. A similar sum was distributed in 2002 for the following three-year period. An analysis of institutional strategies undertaken by the National Coordination Team in 2003 (Gibbs, 2003)

suggested that the change of funding approach had resulted in institutions becoming more strategic in their approach to teaching enhancement, and integrating teaching strategies rather better with other institutional strategies (such as states and widening participation), that teaching and learning strategies were becoming more embedded within institutions, and that evaluation of teaching enhancement had become more apparent.

The analysis also noted that 'externally driven curriculum change, especially in response to the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA) requirements and initiatives, has emerged as a major focus for many institutional strategies. Many institutions and much activity is centred on the move to programme specifications, outcome-based curricula and the development of generic and key skills within curricula at different levels' (Gibbs, 2003, p. 3). Revision of assessment approaches also featured widely in the published strategies. Particular areas of emphasis had emerged: supporting 'widening participation' students; changing curricula to develop generic learning outcomes and student employability; a shift in emphasis from teaching to learning; greater elaboration of the links between research and teaching; information technology infrastructure and e-learning.

Funding at the subject level was focused on the creation of the Learning and Teaching Support Network (LTSN) of 24 subject centres and a generic centre, and on the continuation of the FDTL. The latter was something of a hangover from a previous approach to supporting developments at the level of the discipline, with phases of funding relating to rounds of QAA subject reviews. The interim evaluation of the LTSN concluded that, whilst the subject centres were 'starting to be perceived as key players within their respective subject communities', 'ways need to be found to connect the work of the LTSN to sustainable change at various levels—the institution, faculty and departments—change motivated by national policy as well as by local needs' (HEFCE 2002, p. 18). Clearly, the goal of integrating change processes had yet to be achieved.

Funding at the level of the individual was focused particularly on the creation of the National Teaching Fellowship Scheme (NTFS), which awarded three-year fellowships worth £50,000 to 'excellent' higher education teachers, the first awards being made in July 1999. However, institutions were also encouraged to recognize and reward individual teaching excellence, both through learning, teaching and assessment strategy funding and through HEFCE's human resources strategy initiative (HEFCE, 2001). Twenty higher education teachers per year were made National Teaching Fellows between 1999 and 2003. Despite much lobbying to allow teams of staff to be given awards, the funding council has continued to insist that only individuals can be rewarded in this way, a position that appears to run counter to the encouragement in other areas of their strategy to encourage collaboration and sharing of practice.

The creation of the Institute for Learning and Teaching (Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education [ILTHE] from 2002) was a direct result of the Dear-ing Report of 1997, which indicated that there should be proper, accredited educational programmes for university teachers as for other professions. However, this was

not a new idea since the Association of University Teachers (AUT) had themselves been calling for appropriate preparation for teaching since 1995 (AUT, 1996). The ILTHE was to be the professional body that would provide accreditation (either directly or through educational programmes) and the benefits of a professional accreditation for individuals who taught within the higher education system. Whilst HEFCE funding underwrote its setting up, it was always intended as a self-determining, membership-owned organization funded by subscription rather than an instrument of government policy. Between 1998 and 2004, the ILTHE carried out its mission alongside the Staff and Educational Development Agency (SEDA), which had been founded in 1993 to undertake similar educational activities amongst higher education teachers. Early versions of the vision for the ILTHE included many of the functions which were in the event taken on by the LTSN subject and generic centres, such as the creation and support of debates about teaching issues, the provision of resources and professional advice and so on.

The publication in January 2003 of the government White Paper on higher education (*The future of higher education* [Department for Education and Skills, 2003]) indicated some changes in thinking about the funding of teaching and learning development. There was no mention of continuing support for institutional teaching and learning strategies, and it is likely that funding for this area will be discontinued or at best subsumed into the general teaching grant, with funds specifically directed towards the new Centres for Excellence in Teaching and Learning (CETLs) described in the White Paper, whose main objectives for the funding are:

- a. To reward practice that demonstrates excellent learning outcomes for students.
- b. To enable practitioners to lead and embed change by implementing approaches that address the diversity of learners' needs, the requirements of different learning contexts, the possibilities for innovation and the expectations of employers and others concerned with the quality of student learning.
- c. To enable institutions to support and develop practice that encourages deeper understanding across the sector of ways of addressing students' learning effectively.
- d. To recognize and give greater prominence to clusters of excellence that are capable of influencing practice and raising the profile of teaching excellence within and beyond their institutions.
- e. To demonstrate collaboration and sharing of good practice and so enhance the standard of teaching and effective learning throughout the sector.
- f. To raise student awareness of effectiveness in teaching and learning in order to inform student choice and maximize student performance. (HEFCE, 2004, p.4)

Some of these objectives echo those of the NTFS, and the creation of CETLs might be seen as a response to the demand to recognize and reward groups and teams of teachers. The use of the term 'beacons' of good teaching in the original consultation document was dropped after the consultation process had taken place. Doubtless this was in response to a general feeling that 'beacon' status for schools has not been perceived as a great success. There remains some ambiguity about the relationship

between these CETLs and the LTSN subject centres, although the intention seems to be that the subject centres have the main responsibility to undertake the dissemination of the practices developed by the CETLs.

The creation of a Higher Education Academy in the White Paper appears to be an attempt to pull some of the separate parts of the previous strategy together. The Academy will include the LTSN and the ILTHE, establish new standards for the education and accreditation of higher education teachers and administer the NTFS. The Academy will also take on some of the wide-reaching functions of the Higher Education Staff Development Agency (HESDA), a body funded by institutional subscription. HESDA (previously the Universities and Colleges Staff Development Agency, and before that the Universities Staff Development Unit) has had a remit for teaching quality enhancement covering staff development for all categories of staff, including academic development, although this was not its core function. Most importantly (in terms of promotion of good teaching) it had the contract for the training of QAA subject assessors and institutional auditors.

At the individual level the NTFS is to be expanded to create 30 experienced fellows per year, with two additional categories of 'rising star' and learning support staff offering 20 more awards. It is evident from this increase that recognizing and rewarding teachers in higher education is seen as a key element in the strategy to improve teaching in the sector and improve the profile of teaching and learning.

At the time of writing (June 2004), it is not possible to pre-empt the outcomes of implementing this new initiative, or to speculate on the extent of the benefits that might be reaped by the academic community from the new emphasis at the meso level brought about by the CETLs. Proposed changes at the individual level tend to reinforce previous patterns, while changes affecting funding at the institutional level are not yet fully formulated.

We argue here that there are three fundamental problems underlying this history of the policy thrust towards enhancing teaching and learning in higher education. First, although they address different levels of analysis in the higher education system, they do so in an incoherent and incomplete way. Second, the initiatives are underpinned by tacit and poorly thought-out and differing theories of change. Third, these policies are formulated and implemented in the context of the implementation of other higher education policies which are incompatible with them, creating an incoherent 'policy bundle'. To use the metaphor of our title, we argue that taken together these three factors represent blockages to the 'chi of change'. We will elaborate each of these three blockages in turn.

Underlying theories of change

One important strand of policy at the micro level aimed at enhancing teaching, learning and the student experience is the accreditation of course by the ILTHE for 'warranting' new lecturers. The government expects new lecturers to become qualified higher education teachers, although it is not yet quite clear whether this is going to be a mandatory condition of employment.

Like all policies, this one is built on a causal theory of change. Theories underpinning change initiatives are rarely explicit, fully formed or argued out, and this one is no exception. The tacit assumption is that when novice lecturers undertake education development courses they will become reflective practitioners, and subsequently act as innovators, primary adopters or sources of 'contagion', bringing improved perspectives and approaches to teaching back to their departments, where they are diffused. The universal accreditation policy presupposes that, when it is in place, new generations of better trained lecturers will, in the same way, gradually improve teaching and learning and the quality of the student experience in higher education. Fostering reflective practice in lecturers, an idea inspired by Schön's work (1983, 1987), is the dominant philosophy on these courses; at least in terms of espoused theory (Ecclestone, 1996). This notion underpins the curricular characteristics just described. The idea is rooted in a critique of the technical rationalist approach to professional practice, which searches for the 'right' ways for professionals to behave in different circumstances regardless of context. The notion of reflective practice, by contrast, posits that all professional practice has at its core a kind of artistry, and that the way to better practice is through careful examination of that artistry, 'that is, the competence by which practitioners actually handle indeterminate zones of practice' (Schön, 1987, p. 13). The reflective practitioner is able to think about his or her practice in intelligent ways, and to improve the level of artistry over time. Becoming such a thinker does not come easily: 'The student cannot be *taught* what he [*sic*] needs to know, but he can be *coached*' (Schön, 1987, p. 17). Schön approvingly quotes Dewey (1974, p. 151) on this:

He [*sic*] has to see on his own behalf and in his own way the relations between means and methods employed and results achieved. Nobody else can see for him, and he can't see just by being 'told', although the right kind of telling may guide his seeing and thus help him to see what he needs to see.

While there have been a number of criticisms of the concept of the reflective practitioner (see Trowler & Cooper, 2002, pp. 234-235 for a summary), this kernel of thinking remains at the core of almost all higher education teachers' educational programmes, at least rhetorically. Similarly, it lies in nascent form underneath the NTFS, as an Economic and Social Research Council-sponsored evaluation of that scheme found:

No explicit model or strategy for educational change appear to inform the work of the 20 fellowship holders. Implicitly they are viewed as reflective practitioners who will disseminate 'good practice' within the sector. This approach appears to be based on 'transfer' theories of learning which do not recognise the complexity of educational change ... Transfer theories of learning fail to recognise the complexity involved in educational change and the difficulty of embedding good practice'. It has been demonstrated that 'ordinary' teachers will not accept and apply curriculum changes unless they share the educational beliefs and values that underpin them. (Skelton, 2002, pp. 3, 11)

This reliance on individuals as change agents also permeates many approaches to organizational enhancement. For example, some understandings of the 'learning

organization' simply see it as a well-managed collection of reflective practitioners (Pedler *et al.*, 1990; Edmondson & Moingeon, 1998), or one in which individuals' mental models are improved (e.g. Senge, 1990; Argyris, 1993). So, despite an apparently macro perspective, such notions of the 'learning organization' involve theories of change (in this case teaching and learning enhancement) at the micro level. Thus, Kim (1992, p. 1) defines the learning organization as 'consciously manag[ing] its learning processes through an enquiry-driven orientation among all its members'.

Within the management learning literature generally, there has also been an emphasis on how individuals in organizations learn (Argyris & Schön, 1974; Daft & Weick, 1984; Pedler *et al.*, 1990; Argyris, 1993). This agentic theory of change is founded on a set of ontological assumptions summed up by the term 'methodological individualism' (MI). MI approaches the study of societies and organizations with the assumptions that individuals' thoughts and decisions are more significant than the structures they operate within. It is individuals' agency, their decisions and actions, which shape the institutions and social circumstances they operate within, rather than vice versa.

MI rejects structural explanations for social phenomena, which see individual actions as determined by social structures around them, which lend them regularity and predictability. Change involves better approaches to practice eventually being dispersed by individuals across organizations and systems. Such an approach appears to be endemic to formal educational policy making in the UK, as both Coffield (2002) and Guest (2001) argue in relation to vocational education and training policy, where a flood of short-term and disparate initiatives focused largely on the individual led to:

behaviour that is unlikely to tackle the underlying problem at an organizational level and leaves the cultural institutions that gave rise to the problem in the first place largely untouched. (Guest, 2001, p.5)

While we can see methodological individualism and dispersion (or 'transfer') theories underpinning many higher education policies, those policies aimed at the macro level tend to be underpinned by more collectivist theories: for example, the TQEF with its emphasis on organizational teaching and learning strategies. Here the 'learning university' is one in which strategies are clear, explicit and appropriate. Internal policies are congruent with overall strategies, so that practices are acquired and adopted to better suit the university's adaptation to its environment and the achievement of its goals. In this case, the theory of change is closer to the understanding of learning organizations as embodying residues of past learning in organizational routines (e.g. Levitt & March, 1988). In this way, the learning organization is highly adaptive and very effective in achieving clear goals in a changing environment.

More holistic and structuralist theories of change are also seen in change strategies which go beyond the level of the university to the discipline, such as those adopted by the LTSN. Here the theory of change sees disciplinary epistemology and associated cultures as the key to enhancing teaching and learning practices and the student experience. Teaching and learning practices, the theory goes, are different in different

disciplines largely because of the epistemological characteristics of those disciplines. Change strategies need to be holistic and oriented to the discipline as the significant level of analysis, approached through its manifestations in university departments, conferences and discipline-specific publications.

The level of analysis: the missing meso level

These different initiatives by the government and its agencies have consciously attacked the issue of enhancing teaching and learning in higher education at different points, and levels, of the system.

There have, then, been interventions at the level of the individual, the micro level, and at the level of the university or of disciplines, the macro level. These merge into each other—and it is right that they do so. However, there is a significant lacuna at the meso level, which in universities is the level of the department and workgroup. There has been remarkably little discussion of appropriate strategies for shifting thinking and practices, or to theorizing change at this level. This is not only true of approaches to the enhancement of teaching and learning in universities, but of management science more generally, where the focus tends either to be on the individual or the institution, with no clear rationale for why that is the case (Clegg *et al.*, 1999, p. 5; Edmondson, 1999, p. 302). It is not clear yet that the CETLs initiative, aimed at this level, will yield benefits for academic communities of practice, rest in gas it does on the notion of ‘excellence’, rather than that of ‘change’.

Trowler *et al.* (2002) have argued elsewhere, and we argue briefly below, that the meso level of analysis is a particularly significant one. We also suggest that a social practice theory of change helps us to understand how change can be blocked or facilitated at this level of analysis.

Social processes at the departmental or subdepartmental, workgroup, level are particularly significant, because it is here that students and lecturers engage together in teaching and learning practices. It is here that changes actually take place, and a good theoretical understanding of how and why this happens—or doesn’t happen—is therefore necessary. We suggest that an appropriate theoretical approach here rests on social practice theory (SPT—see Wenger, 1998; Engeström, 2001). As well as addressing the meso level, this theory addresses the social and affective dimensions of change in addition to the psychological and cognitive. Briefly, it argues that the most significant aspect of change processes in teaching, learning and assessment involves social interaction at the level of the workgroup. As workgroups engage in common projects associated with major tasks over the long term they develop ways of behaving (norms), ways of understanding their world (taken-for-granted knowledge) and ideas about what is good and bad (values). In short they are involved in the social construction of reality, at least in the areas of common engagement that they have. They develop a common discourse, a unique way of using the tools available to them and a context-specific understanding of aspects of the project that they are engaged in.

Clearly, they do not have total control over all aspects of social reality—they are not completely agentic. Social structures limit their room for manoeuvre and

influence the workings of the group in important ways. These may include cultural characteristics associated with the larger society in which they exist ('Great Culture', as Alvesson [2002] calls it), gendered aspects of behaviour, professional values and the rest. However, each workgroup will have aspects of social reality unique to it, created through social interaction over the longer term. This will impinge in important ways on any proposed changes to practices, which will be interpreted and implemented in ways mediated by pre-existing local cultures. Again, outcomes will be relatively unpredictable to anyone not familiar with the specifics of local cultures, as will the ways in which those proposed changes will be received and interpreted by workgroups on the ground. Initiatives for the enhancement of teaching and learning will, then, be filtered and adapted rather than just adopted according to local cultural characteristics.

Applied to the field of teaching, learning and curriculum in universities in particular, SPT suggests that workgroups develop distinctive approaches to learning and teaching as they engage on these tasks together over time. One elaboration of this is in the notion of teaching and learning regimes (TLRs—Trowler & Cooper, 2002). These are contested and dynamic, but nonetheless coherent and distinctive. Moreover, they will be conditioned by institutional context and by disciplinary differences—structural factors at various levels within which the TLR operates—TLRs are open, natural systems.

In brief, TLRs comprise a constellation of nine cultural components which have a significant impact on the approach taken in different higher education locales to teaching and learning and assessment. These components are:

- The development and attribution of *meanings*. As the workgroup engages on its project, the meaning of that project itself gains ontological solidity, and the components which compose the project also develop a particular reality. Thus, an undergraduate programme in a particular department comes to be thought about in unique ways, and, for example, the meaning of the grading criteria, that of the grades themselves, are collectively generated and communicated over time, becoming 'solidified' in the process.
- The development and attribution of *codes of signification*. Activities, organizations, terms, concepts and things not only have meanings attributed to them in a cognitive sense, but are layered with affective (emotional) significance. Thus, the term 'quality', and organizations and people associated with it in a particular university, may evoke responses of delight, fear, worry, stress, or something else. Such responses are not simply individual in nature—they are socially conditioned as workgroups meet new circumstances, discuss them and respond to them. The connotative layers of meaning are cultural in origin and import—both in terms of Great Culture and in local, workgroup cultures. These are very significant aspects of TLRs, because concepts and practices like 'lectures', 'multiple-choice examinations', 'problem-based learning' and others become loaded with both meaning and codes of signification. Any innovation will elicit responses of this sort—and that in itself will condition subsequent actions.

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- The development and use of *discursive repertoires*. Discourse too is socially generated and used. It both limits and enables thought and actions, structuring the way projects and tasks are conceived, discussed and pursued. While discursive repertoires, the words and phrases used to express ideas, are generated in the wider society, they are also locally generated, especially when they refer to forms of knowing related to the workgroup's project specifically. Local discursive repertoires may favour the conceptualization of teaching and learning as involving a constructivist process, for example, and so shape the practices in a department or work group.
- The development of *recurrent practices*. As workgroups engage in tasks over time, they develop ways of doing things which become 'just natural' — 'the way we do things around here'. These are taken for granted, and so are only rarely reflected on or evaluated. They include specific ways of and circumstances for using tools, such as email communication for example, and ways of behaving in meetings or with students. It is usually only new entrants to the workgroup who find these practices unusual or surprising, and, after a year or so, often sink into recurrently practising them themselves.
- The formation of *identities in interaction*. TLRs are socially created but they comprise a number of individuals whose individuality is not lost within them. As people interact within the workgroup a process of 'hammering' is occurring, so that personal and professional identities (or subjectivities) are negotiated, sustained, attacked, defended and so on. This can be significant for teaching, learning and assessment practices where dimensions of identity impinge on these areas of practice.
- The development and sustenance of *power relations*. All social groups involve the transmission and application of power of various sorts: from simply making people do things which they do not want to do to more subtle agenda-setting or circumstance-changing practices. The shape that power takes, the way it flows and how its surfaces will vary from regime to regime. One thing is constant, though: power relations are always present, and they always have an effect on the practices of workgroups, including those to do with teaching, learning and assessment.
- The generation of *tacit assumptions*. All workgroups, in fact every one in society, operate partly on the basis of tacit assumptions. Not to do so would simply be impracticable. Such assumptions are not surfaced; in fact some forms of knowing can not be surfaced directly. In TLRs collective assumptions about, for example, assessment practices, their role and value, can influence the practices in that area in very significant ways. These assumptions may have no basis in evidence, may be detrimental to good practice and may even result in practices which are more effortful and less effective than many others, yet they continue to exercise their influence.
- The development and use of *rules of appropriateness*. Associated with several of the above characteristics, these are understandings developed within a workgroup about the kinds of behaviours which are, and are not, appropriate: how a teacher behaves in the classroom, the kinds of interactions she or she has with students,

the level of work she or he allocate to students, whether and how textbooks are used, and the rest. Rules of appropriateness developed in a TLR condition what feels normal and what feels deviant in relation to teaching, learning and assessment.

- The development and application of *implicit theories*. Again, these are related to some of the above characteristics, particularly the tacit assumptions within a TLR. Implicit theories are, in a sense, ‘bigger’ than assumptions, though they encompass, for example, theories about teaching and learning (constructivist versus transmissive, for example) which come to inform practice. They are more likely to be surfaced from time to time than tacit assumptions are, partly because they relate to practice in a more direct way, and partly simply because they are ‘bigger’ and so there is more likelihood that, at least in part, they will be made explicit. These implicit theories are not always generated wholly or mainly within the workgroup. They may come from pre-service or in-service training courses or may result from disciplinary socialization, for example. Wherever their origin, their impact on the practices of the workgroup are nonetheless significant.

A theory of change founded on SPT questions the assumption that the ‘trained’ individual entering a TLR can have a significant impact on its recurrent practices, sets of assumptions, tacit theories and so on. It undermines completely any simple theory of ‘transfer’ or dispersion. While TLRs are dynamic in character, they are also quite stable. Work by Trowler and Knight (1999, 2000) on organizational socialization in university settings in England and Canada found that, while new entrants to a TLR were frequently surprised, even shocked, by what they found, these regimes became as normalized for them as they were to the ‘old hands’ for whom the regime had largely become taken for granted. This is not to say that new entrants simply succumbed to the regime, nor that they had no effect on it: regimes are, after all, frequently contested and contain in themselves tensions and conflicts. Rather, the process of normalization was a rather powerful one, so that what was unusual and explicit soon became tacit and simply understood for new entrants.

Small-scale research carried out elsewhere (Fanghanel, 2004) has identified tensions reflecting the paradoxes and incoherence discussed in this article. Within the ITLHE course environments, dissonances were identified, particularly in respect of lecturers’ and course providers’ interpretation of the reflective practice paradigm and of synergies between structures and practices. Transferability of knowledge on teaching and learning acquired by novice lecturers was often problematic once they were returned to their primary community of practice. Inadequate transfer was also shown to result in deleterious practices.

This does not mean that higher education teacher education and warranting novice lecturers on accredited courses is a waste of time. However, expecting such individuals to be agents of change in their departments without a complementary set of policies addressing *departmental* practices—the social context into which they return—probably is. We develop this argument about the ‘nesting’ of levels of analysis next.

The policy bundle

Policy bundles are combinations of formal policies, often addressing different areas of practice (finance, teaching and learning, research) which 'hit the ground' together, and are both experienced in relation to each other by practitioners and actually do interact with each other, even if they were conceived and formulated separately. Such bundles often contain policy paradoxes, shaping practices in contradictory ways and setting up incommensurable goals. These paradoxes, like policies themselves, operate at different levels of analysis: the personal, the workgroup and the institutional and national levels.

For example, at the institutional level, evidence from research on innovation, diffusion and change generally concludes that reliance on individuals alone as the agents of change within institutions is ill founded. Hannan and Silver (2000) discuss the significance of 'individual innovation' of this sort (as opposed to other-directed or 'guided innovation'). They note that where individual innovation operates in an environment which is hostile or indifferent to it there is little chance of success. There needs to be some salience between such individual innovations and the 'priorities and plans of the institution or the faculty or the department' (Hannan & Silver, 2000, p144). Yet innovations associated with teaching and learning were generally accorded low status and even treated with suspicion in the higher education institutions Hannan and Silver studied (2000, p. 145). They conclude that the dynamism and groundedness of individual innovation will need more fertile soil in which to root, if it is to have an impact on teaching and learning practices:

One of the most significant findings of [this] study was that the nature of the institution and its sub-units... were very important factors in the innovation process, influencing the incidence of innovation, its success and the likelihood of its becoming embedded. (Hannan & Silver, 2000, p.32)

Research into the study of the *diffusion* of innovation confirms these findings. Diffusion is the process by which 'innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system' (Rogers, 1995, p. 39). Studies confirm the prediction from SPT that diffusion, both within and between organizations, requires mutual adaptation of both the innovation and the organization, at least to some extent. The innovation is adapted to the structures, processes, discourses and soon prevalent within the organization (this is sometimes called the 'domestication' of an innovation). Meanwhile, the organization's structures and practices need to accommodate to the innovation, sometimes in unexpected and unintended ways (Van de Ven, 1986). This requires flexibility and 'a fair degree of creative activity' (Rogers, 1995, p. 395), which universities and their sub-units may be more, or less, able to engage in.

At a higher level of analysis than the institution, policies on funding, research and widening participation in higher education, for example, while laudable in themselves, interfere with the operation of policies on teaching and learning to their detriment. Because higher education policies are not 'joined up' in this broader sense, they 'block the chief of change'. We do not have space here to review the whole set of higher

education policies in the UK, and demonstrate their salience to teaching and learning enhancement. Instead we will use two illustrative examples.

The funding councils' research assessment exercise (RAE) has rewarded institutions for their research output, while its teaching and learning equivalent, the QAA's subject review, had no direct financial benefit whatsoever. Under the rules up to the 2001 RAE, any applied research, including applications of pedagogical research, was not eligible for entry or funding through the RAE. This illustrates one way in which higher education policy is not joined up: the paradoxical ways in which the incentive systems instantiated in funding and prestige-allocation mechanisms, on the one hand, and the drive to better learning and teaching practices, on the other, interact. As Hannan and Silver (2000) argue, such paradoxes are highly detrimental to change efforts, partly because they accord low status to teaching and learning.

A second example of disjointed policy relates to our earlier discussion of the 'learning university' as we saw, the literature in the area suggests that the ideal 'learning university' is one which is highly adaptive to its environment, and can, for example, effectively develop learning and teaching knowledge and practices in ways which help it survive and prosper in a changing context. Yet doing this might easily be deleterious in relation to the goal of improving teaching and learning, and the quality of the student experience. Such a university might learn to improve its rankings in league tables, teach more economically and efficiently, reduce its non-completion rate and attract more funding by increasing student numbers. None of these necessarily mean *improved* learning and teaching or a better experience for its students.

To be successful nowadays, a university needs to play a number of different games. Each game has different goals and involves different rules. Some are about generating income. Others are about increasing funding through attracting greater student numbers. Some are about enhancing research, and research reputation. The goals are often incompatible, the rules are written separately, in different places by different people. And winning at one may involve compromising in others. The learning university plays to win in the games which are most significant to its survival and relative advantage. As it does so, it structures the practices of and constraints on the faculties, departments and individuals within it. This does not always, or even often, include enhancing teaching and learning. This, to apply our metaphor, can only result in *shachi*.

Conclusion: freeing the chief of change

We have argued, then, that higher education policies directed at teaching and learning to date have been disjointed and partial. Significant change in the direction of the enhancement of teaching, learning and improvement of the student experience is something that is difficult to bring about. One way of making it happen is to encourage reflective practice within reflexive departments that are situated in learning universities. These should be assisted in achieving sets of goals roughly compatible with the aim of enhancing teaching, learning and the student experience. The implications of this discussion, then, are threefold.

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First, there needs to be better, more explicit thinking about the point at which policies and their implementation strategies need to be addressed within the higher education system. In particular, appropriate levels of analysis for particular policies need to be selected. The gap in policies and strategies oriented to the meso level in particular needs to be plugged.

We suggest that an appropriate set of strategies might be aimed at facilitating greater reflexivity at the departmental level, thus emphasizing this very significant meso locus of practice. Achieving reflexivity on an ongoing basis is not easy, but neither is it impossible. A reflexive university department is one which:

- is self-conscious about the nature of its TLR—has surfaced its previously implicit theories, developed consciousness about its recurrent practices, and has a greater awareness generally about the specific character of the components of its TLR;
- collectively evaluates how it operates as a department, and how its particular regime influences this, and works to bring about change for the better;
- then actually makes changes in its practices in such a way as to enhance learning and teaching to make that enhancement more likely.

Such reflexivity can be stimulated: this was partially achieved in some cases by the experience of subject review (Leigh, 2004), but this was limited by the generally mechanistic and unwelcome character of that approach to quality audit. Stimulation of this kind of reflexivity sometimes occurs too when critical events cause departments to become self-aware; for example, when they are forced to address a crisis situation brought about by reduction in applications from students.

We suggest the following to stimulate the development of reflexive departments:

- an approach to quality enhancement along the lines of the Scottish Higher Education Funding Council's quality assurance framework (SHEFC, 2002), which encourages institutions and their sub-units to reflect on current practices;
- institutional procedures for validation and course review which require departments to address current practices in an evaluative way;
- evaluative instruments which are redesigned in such a way as to require departments to ask fundamental questions about current practices (the Course Experience Questionnaire used in Australia is one example—developed by academics in a rigorous way). If 'what you test is what you get', then good tests bring about good results.

Second, the theories of change which underpin policies directed at enhancing teaching and learning in higher education need to be made more explicit than they currently are, and improved where necessary. One advantage of this would be the potential to identify incompatibilities between different theories—disjointedness—and so help facilitate joined-up policies in this sense too.

Third, higher education policies need to be formulated and implemented in a more joined-up way than is currently the case. While no one can foresee all of the unintended consequences of policy, there are some obvious incompatibilities and incongruity within the current policy bundle.

The development of the Higher Education Academy represents an opportunity for 'join edup' strategy to improve teaching and learning, and the quality of the student experience in higher education. The more collective approaches of the LTSN, for example, and the individualistic approach of the ILTHE could be harmonized, integrated and worked to create more effective implementation strategies.

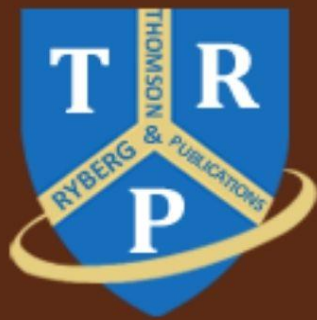
Let us return to our analogy with the Chinese concept of chi. Where policies are developed in isolation from each other they proceed in parallel lines, only linking where they obstruct. Sha chi, or 'secret arrows', are avoided in Chinese buildings since they create disharmony. The proper flow of chi is harmonious, flexible. 'Chi moves in dragon-like curves and spirals' (Page, 1988). If we follow this idea in the development of initiatives to develop learning and teaching in higher education, it suggests that initiatives should come together, link and intermingle. Separate initiatives should not march on, taking no account of what is to right or left, but regularly refer to each other, borrowing what is learned from one initiative and transferring that learning to others.

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