



New Professionals and New Technologies in New Higher Education?

Conceptualising struggles in the field

Alison Hudson

Doktorsavhandlingar inom den Nationella Forskarskolan
i Pedagogiskt Arbete nr 19

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Abstract

This thesis explores the practices and positionings of two groupings of professionals in UK higher education, 'educational developers' and 'learning technologists'. It investigates the emergence of the groupings, and their professional paths and respective approaches to supporting teaching and learning. It also explores the use of information and communication technology within what is seen as a changing university context. These two 'new' professional groupings are most associated with a shift of focus in universities from teaching towards learning, heightened emphasis on the quality of teaching and learning, the increased impact of learning technologies on practice, organisational transformation, and increased numbers of students attending universities, i.e. massification of higher education world-wide. Thus, equivalent exemplars and variations can also be found throughout Europe and in other international settings.

The social structure and practices that govern the two groupings have been analysed by means of a wide range of theories, concepts and methods which include Bourdieu's (1988) concepts of habitus, field, position and capital, Boyer's (1990) ideas about new scholarship, Palmer's (1998) conceptualisation of the university teacher and Clark's (2003) identification of the entrepreneurial university. The work of others, in particular Schön (1967) and Ball (2003), also provides an insight into the powerful relationship between technology, society, education and change.

Thus, the thesis explores fields and sub-fields, as social arenas in which capital is accumulated and where struggles for power and resources take place. The study suggests that both groups occupy a highly politicised position, are affected by the shifting value of social, cultural and economic capital in the constantly changing higher education, are subject to struggle regarding 'position' and agency and are susceptible to the demands of new power regimes and technological solutions. It suggests that educational development is a scholarly field of study but has also become a technology responsible for translating institutional policy into practice, while learning technologists have been more politically successful and have had a relatively greater impact on academic practice in university settings. Whilst the relationship and division of work between educational developers and learning technologists has been hitherto little understood this study shows the similarities and differences, and boundaries and overlaps in the knowledge, practices, positions, dispositions and allegiances of the two groupings. An argument of the thesis is for a more cohesive approach to educational development in higher education which embraces learning technologies and higher education policy. Furthermore, this thesis suggests that the balance of power and the value placed on social, cultural and economic capital in the knowledge economy of higher education is shifting; from teaching and learning towards change and 'innovation' underpinned by new

technologies, business imperatives and new forms of management. This shift in the UK has been reinforced by successive periods of reform and restructuring of the university, where both 'new' and 'old' professionals are subject to social and political pressures initiated by new forms of central governance and a growing bureaucracy of change. A danger for higher education is that the balance is pulled more towards policy technologies and bureaucracy and away from the professional judgement of university academics/teachers.

Key words:

Higher education, university, technology, change, new professional, academic practice, professional development, educational development, educational developer, learning technology, learning technologists, educational technology, learning technologies, ICT, multimedia, digital technology, eLearning, technology enhanced learning, higher education policy, educational research, scholarship, innovation.

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Glossary of Abbreviations

AECT	Association for Educational Communications and Technology
AJET	Australasian Journal for Educational Technology
ALT	Association for Learning Technology
ALT-J	Association for Learning Technology Journal
ASCILITE	Australasian Society for Computers in Learning in Tertiary Education
ASET	Australian Society for Educational Technology
Becta	British Educational Communications and Technology Agency
BERA	British Educational Research Association
CBURC	Computer Board for Universities and Research Councils
CETL	Centres for Excellence in Teaching and Learning
CDI	Compact Disc Interactive
CMALT	Certified Membership of the Association for Learning Technology
DAVI	Division of Audio-Visual Instruction
DfE	Department for Education
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment (new)
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
DTI	Department of Trade and Industry
DVI	Division of Visual Instruction
ECIM	Educational Centre for Interactive Technology and Multimedia
EDEN	European Distance and E-Learning Network
EDUs	Educational Development Units
EFFECTS	Effective Framework for Embedding C and IT using Targeted Support
EIT	European Institute of Innovation and Technology
eLRC	e-Learning Research Centre
EPSRC	Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council
ESRC	Economic and Social Research Council
FDTL	Fund for the Development of Teaching and Learning
FE	Further Education
HE	Higher Education
HEA	Higher Education Academy
HEDG	Heads of Educational Development Group
HEFCs	Higher Education Funding Councils
ICED	International Consortium for Educational Development
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ILTHE	Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education
ISSOTL	International Society for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning
ITL	Institute for Teaching and Learning
IRTL	Institute for Research in Teaching and Learning
IV	Interactive Video
IVIE	Interactive Video in Education
IVFE	Interactive Video in Further Education
IVIS	Interactive Video in Schools
JISC	Joint Information Systems Committee

LMSs	Learning Management Systems
LTA	Learning, Teaching and Assessment
MIT	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
MEd	Master of Education
MPhil	Master of Philosophy
NCET	National Council for Educational Technology
NCIHE	National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education
NEA	National Education Association
NIVC	National Interactive Video Centre
NSHU	Networks and Cooperation in Higher Education
PGCert	Post Graduate Certificate
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PVC	Pro-Vice-Chancellor
QAA	Quality Assurance Agency
RAE	Research Assessment Exercise
RLOs	Reusable Learning Objects
SEDA	Staff and Educational Development Association
SEDA-PDF	Staff and Educational Development Association – Professional Development Framework
SOCRATES	Educational initiative of the European Commission (1994-2006)
SRHE	Society for Research in Higher Education
STLHE	Society for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education
SURF	Samenwerkende Universitaire Reken Faciliteiten; English (Co- operative University Computing Facilities)
TEL	Technology Enhanced Learning
THE	Times Higher Education formerly The Times Higher Education Supplement (THES)
TLTP	Teaching and Learning Technology Programme
TQA	Teaching Quality Assessment
TQEF	Teaching Quality Enhancement Fund
VC	Vice-Chancellor
VLEs	Virtual Learning Environments

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Preface

The term 'new professional' emerged in the late 1990s alongside changing work boundaries in UK higher education. It drew attention to the proliferation of job titles which were beginning to be applied to various forms of work associated with support for teaching and learning in higher education. At this time many universities were occupied with addressing a 'change' climate which included shifting emphasis away from teaching to learning and towards policies widening participation and increased emphasis on information and communication technology. Thus, perceptions of the new professionals varied substantially; for example, as an 'emergent new group' having hybrid roles for the support of teaching and learning (Gornall, 1999, p. 45) or as an university instrument for servicing the needs of re-formed institutions which had become dominated by economic imperatives, market forces and new forms of management (Beck, 1999). My own career in UK higher education positioned me as a new professional working at the intersection between teaching, researching, educational development and learning technology, so I was deeply involved in practice involving different professional groupings, bodily, emotionally and intellectually.

This thesis draws on my own professional experience to investigate what it means to be working at the intersection of multiple boundaries which delineate the seemingly ever-changing UK university. It investigates the social and cultural forces that have shaped what have become recognised as new professional fields in UK higher education, the impact of new technologies on those fields and the emergence of new practices developed by the fields. In particular it explores the background and struggles of two specific groupings of new professionals: educational developers and learning technologists.¹

Nevertheless conceptualising and defining the practices of educational developers and learning technologists has been problematic since such forms of work are interdisciplinary and replete with diverse terms, definitions, characterisations, descriptions and models (Oliver, 2002; Macdonald, 2003; Land, 2004; Conole, et al., 2007; Gosling, 2008). Indeed, a recently proposed international study describes staff working in educational

¹ The terms educational developer and learning technologist, along with other terms, for example, academic developer, educational technologist, instructional designer and IT pedagogue, are frequently seen in discourses of the area studied. Whilst, for the purpose of consistency, the terms 'educational developer' and 'learning technologist' are used throughout this thesis it is important to note that this form of work and the terms used to describe it are dynamic, unstable and contestable, as we shall see in later chapters of the thesis.

development as having no unifying profile or professional pathway into and through the field (McDonald and Stockley, 2008).

For this thesis, the work of educational developers is primarily understood as that which focuses on teaching and learning and on the academic performance of institutions of higher education, while that of learning technologists concerns supporting teaching and learning by means of media and available communication information and related technologies. Both groups, however, state a commitment to supporting professional development and educational change.

This thesis is written at a time when education as a whole is in the process of being re-shaped, in particular its role in the 'knowledge society' in which information and communication technologies and digital media increasingly impact on culture and society (McLuhan, 1964; Castells, 1996; Prensky, 2006) and innovation, enterprise and reform are high on the agendas of universities (Clark, 2003). Thus the issues raised by McLuhan and Fiore (1967), Schön (1967) and Boyer (1990) as outlined below remain relevant in the current climate.

The medium, or process, of our time-electric technology is reshaping and restructuring patterns of social interdependence and every aspect of our personal life. It is forcing us to reconsider and re-evaluate practically every thought, every action, and every institution formerly taken for granted. Everything is changing; you, your family, your education, your neighbourhood, your job, your government, your relation to "the others." And they're changing dramatically.

(McLuhan and Fiore, 1967, p. 8)

But, as we are learning, technological innovation belongs to us less than we belong to it.

(Schön, 1967, p. xiii)

How can the role of the scholar be defined in ways that not only affirm the past but also reflect the present and adequately anticipate the future?

(Boyer, 1990, p. 75)

So we can see that as early as the 1960s McLuhan and Fiore and Schön noted the impact of technological innovation and electronic media on every aspect of social life including the university, while several decades later Boyer suggested that higher education needs to be much more responsive to future change. Thus, the impact of technological innovation and the need for higher education to be responsive to change are key themes which appear and reappear as the thesis progresses.

Chapter 1. Introduction

This chapter introduces the main aims of the research, the questions posed by the thesis, its context and rationale, and the key terms. It concludes with an outline of the structure of the thesis.

Aim

The principal aim of the research carried out for this thesis was to gain a better understanding of the practices and positions of two groupings of new professionals in UK higher education: educational developers and learning technologists. The research thus aimed to explore their development, the social structures that govern the two groupings, their respective approaches to supporting teaching and learning and the employment of new technology within a changing university context. It also aimed to show the extent to which professional practices differ. Whilst the context of this thesis is UK higher education, variations of the two professional groupings may also be found throughout Europe and in other international higher education settings,² most notably associated with increased number of students attending universities, a shift of focus from teaching towards learning, and, more recently, the increasing impact of the ‘knowledge society’ and the ‘knowledge economy’ on university work.

This thesis inevitably builds on earlier work of a range of researchers³ and also on my own work,⁴ but endeavours also to make an original contribution to understanding about technology and change and the emergence of new professionals in higher education. It has an empirical base which is used to illuminate both the experience of what it means to be a new professional, and underlying socio-cultural issues affecting practice.

Thus what is under investigation is the social structure, relationships,

² See for example, national and international societies, networks and associations such as: Association for Learning Technology (ALT); Australasian Society for Computers in Learning in Tertiary Education (ASCILITE); European Distance and E-Learning Network (EDEN); International Consortium for Educational Development (ICED); International Society for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (ISSOTL); Society for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education (STLHE); Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE).

³ For example: Gornall, 1999; Beetham, et al., 2001; Gosling, 2001, 2008; Eggins and Macdonald, 2003; Land, 2004; Oliver, 2002, 2003; Conole, et al., 2003, 2004b; Taylor, 2005; Price, et al., 2005; Conole and Oliver, 2007; Peseta, 2006; Hicks, 2005, 2007; Lee et al., 2008.

⁴ For example Hudson, 1997, MPhil, and selected published papers from 1999-2006 (Appendix VII).

principles, characteristics and practices that govern the two groups of new professionals, rather than explicit focus on individuals within the groups as objects of research. The following research questions are posed:

- What is a new professional in higher education?
- What are the characteristics, principles and practices that distinguish the educational developer and learning technologist as new professionals?
- How do the practices of the educational developer and learning technologist contribute to teaching, learning and scholarship in higher education?
- In what ways is the notion of a new professional in higher education useful?

Context and rationale

Two overlapping stages characterise UK higher education post World War II. Firstly, from 1945 the ‘modern’ university, described by Weiner as ‘a community of scholars with shared patterns of education and training, apprenticeship and socialisation’ (Weiner, 1996a, p 61), followed by the ‘post-modern’ university, with more diverse patterns of entry and career structure, micro rather than macro narratives and fragmentation in the knowledge needed by late capitalist societies (Cowen, 1996). However, Filmer (1997, p. 51) argues that the transition of the modern university, from the premise of preserving the continuity of an elite intellectual minority, moving through various structural forms towards the ‘open-access university’, is more fragmented. Nevertheless, for the modern university, there were two main career pathways: academic (or old professional) or academic-related (administrative) (Weiner, 1996a). The new professional who emerged within the post-modern university blurred the boundaries between academic and academic-related work to encompass a wide range of posts and roles with titles such as learning-coordinator, educational-developer, technical-support officer, information specialist and so on. Whilst such posts might be seen as indicative of the existence of new forms of university groupings located perhaps in separate units such as centres for educational development, educational media, academic services and flexible learning (Gornall, 1999, p. 45), they were also present in subject departments and non-centralised units (Gosling, 2008). However, as we shall see, providing support for academics as teachers in higher education has a long history; thus the extent to which such posts may be said to be new is somewhat contestable.

Initially such new professionals in higher education were mainly concerned with supporting teaching and learning and educational and professional development. However, specific groupings emerged such as educa-

tional developers and learning technologists who later became particularly influential in terms of educational policy and practice in the sense that they worked closely with senior managers responsible for academic practice (Henkel, 2002; Gosling, 2008). Thus they held positions on policy making committees and bodies (Brew, 2006), at both institutional and national levels, and were given responsibility for developing and writing learning and teaching strategy documents and 'overseeing' the implementation of the learning and teaching strategies (Gosling, 2008, p. 26).

At the same time, considerable debate arose about the nature of the roles and practices of new professionals in relation to previous (modern) and more recent (post-modern) organisational structures (McDonald, 2003; Conole, 2004a; Shephard, 2004; Land, 2004, 2006). For example, Conole (2004a, p. 1) points to the difficulties of aligning 'this new emergent group of professionals' (those concerned with learning technology) 'within existing institutional structures'. Land (2006, p. 107) suggests that 'many learning technologists find themselves located in organisational spaces that are not seen to have educational agency, or to be academic'. Land points also to the tensions of educational developers caught between different 'orientations' and 'shifting positions of authority and role'.

Thus, whilst educational development and the use of learning technology seems to have become established parts of higher education, the terms and positions associated with roles and practices continue to be contested and remain little understood (Oliver, 2003; Macdonald, 2003; Land, 2004, 2006; Conole and Oliver, 2007; Gosling, 2008). In addition, much of the literature assumes that new professionals operate as distinct groupings with little debate regarding their complementary and cross-disciplinary roles. Thus, whilst there has been much interest in the use of information and communication technologies and indeed in university reform, the practices and the working relationships between educational developers and learning technologists (and other new professionals) and the socio-political conditions which shape their practices remain largely unexplored. Thus, Oliver (2003, p. 259) finds 'little research about learning technologists as opposed to learning technology', whilst Land (2004) calls for further research into new professional communities and practices.

More recently the need to understand better practices and relationships among new professionals has become a concern of several reports and research studies. For example, a European report on the impact of technology-enhanced learning on roles and practices in higher education identifies questions about relationships, practices, professional identity and appropriate research methodologies but does little to answer them (Price, et al., 2005). Another European study into the 'competencies' necessary for im-

proving the practices of university teachers using online environments calls for research on roles, 'shared meanings' and the experiences of professionals in the field (Alvarez, et al., 2009, p. 334). Meanwhile a paper taking an international perspective on routes into the profession of educational development highlights the need to investigate pathways and perspectives into educational development cross-culturally as well as nationally (McDonald and Stockley, 2008). Interestingly a recent study on educational development units in UK higher education provides evidence of the interrelationship between educational development and learning technology, in terms of the impact of e-learning on the strategic priorities of educational development and questions of positioning and authority in restructuring processes (Gosling, 2008). The study refers to relationships as somewhat volatile and 'polarised'; however it does little to explain or discuss their nature or the underlying causes.

The thesis aims to fill this gap by exploring the background and practices of two influential groupings of new professionals (educational developers and learning technologists) since 1990 and also the social and cultural forces surrounding their professional pathways over several decades.

Key terms

The key terms used in the title constitute central threads which run through the thesis. This section provides a brief introduction to the themes; however they are discussed in more detail in later chapters.

The notion of newness is central to this thesis as in new professionals, new technologies and new higher education. Newness is associated with theories, innovation, discovery and the invention of products and processes (Schön, 1967). It is generally taken to mean that no previous examples exist, assuming also the need to establish what has gone before. Newness can thus be seen as related to the invention, say, of a new theory or a new technology, and innovation as more associated with change and the process of bringing something new into being (ibid.). The discourse of newness is much used in marketing (and politics), and closely associated with ideas of re-branding, 'modernisation', change and reform. This interpretation has been criticised as empty of value and commitment (Beck, 1999). Newness, primarily associated with discourses in the areas studied, is thus employed in this thesis with caution and as a discursive term to signify its usage to denote the systematic improvement of products and processes and the cooption by the public management reform agenda.

New professionals

Prest (1987), in the preface to the book, *The Professions in Early Modern England*, points out that, the noun 'profession', 'derived from the Latin *profiteri* ('to avow or confess')', was, in the mid-seventeenth century, applied to the so-called 'three great professions of divinity, law and physics, besides being used more generally as a synonym for calling, occupation or vocation'. (ibid., preface). Thus, profession is not simply the equivalent of a form of work or occupation, 'the word also implies an ideology' (O'Day, 1986, p. 52).

Eraut (1994) similarly argues that 'professionalism' should be treated as an ideology which influences process of 'professionalisation' as the means by which particular occupations seek to gain status and privilege according to that ideology.

Thus profession, in this thesis, is interpreted as a social construct, associated with particular power and prestige resulting from specific skills and competence arising from needs and values of social systems and/or particular ideologies.

Attention is drawn by Weiner (2002) to the very varied uses of the terms 'profession', 'professionalism' and 'professionalisation'. Professionalism, for example, is subject to power relations and thus may also be perceived as a form of 'occupational control', in the sense of requiring a specific set of values, knowledge and practices (Ozga, 1995, p. 21). Weiner (2002) notes that 'professionalisation' is commonly used to draw attention to what are perceived as shortcomings of traditional forms of practice (of teacher education in this case) and of the need to improve and reform, or alternatively as a means of holding together 'disparate neo-liberal government policies' (Weiner, 2002, p. 277). Thus whilst professionalism may be perceived as a form of work orientation, professionalisation may be interpreted as a process of occupational control. Alternatively 'profession', 'professionalism' and 'professionalisation' may all be used to raise the status or to validate the value of occupational groups (ibid.).

Appending 'new', to any of the above interpretations implies that there are few previous examples of knowledge and practices in that context. Prest favours the growth of new professions as 'part of a process of occupational difference and specialism'. However, he also argues that the history of the professions 'should not be conceived of simply as a constant linear progression to professionalization' and that professions come and go, often without any satisfactory explanation (Prest, 1987, p. 18).

Meanwhile Etzioni (1969) describes less powerful public-sector professions, such as teaching and nursing, as 'semi-professions', in the sense that, for example, teaching is framed by government policy and characterised by bureaucracy and hierarchy. As we shall see later, it has more in common

with the new professions than say, the so-called 'true professions' of law and medicine (Snoek, et al., 2009). Also, we shall see in chapter four, that the adjectives 'semi', 'post' and 'new' have all been appended to the concept of educational professional in order to reflect policy-related discourses that are associated with accountability, new working relationships, improvement and innovation, new bodies of knowledge drawn from practice, and a focus on targets and standards (Etzioni, 1969; Gornall, 1999; Beck, 1999; Ball, 2005; Snoek, et al., 2009).

Going further, Bourdieu calls into question the very concept of profession itself, arguing that it stands for some as 'a kind of methodological motto' that is 'all the more dangerous because it has [.....] all the appearance of neutrality in its favour' (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 242). Thus Bourdieu argues that the use of the term profession should be replaced with that of field which he describes as a 'structured space of social forces and struggles' (ibid.).

A central aim of this thesis is to explore the ways in which two specific groupings have sought to gain professional status, privilege and symbolic capital. Thus, following Bourdieu, the concept of field is introduced in order to disrupt the mythological motto of the professions (and professionals) as primarily virtuous and neutral (see chapter four).

New technologies

New technology is another key term for this thesis, which can be interpreted both as a tool, or technique, object or system (Schön, 1967; Poster, 2001; Ball, 2003; Hamilton, et al., 2004; Nordkvelle, 2004). New technology may also be seen either as a product or a process. For example in this thesis new technology is identified as a product in the form of electronic tools used in educational practice for the purposes of dissemination, illustration and communication. This interpretation includes information and communication technology (ICT), interactive technology, new media and learning technology, all of which are common and familiar in higher education discourses. New technology as a method, technique or process focuses on pedagogical work or techniques aimed at bringing about change. Thus, it is argued, new technologies, as both tools and techniques, feature to various degrees in the practices of new professionals. However, given that there is a long history of technologies as tools and methods used in teaching and learning, something which will be discussed later, and given the identification of the increasing impact of technology and media on society as noted earlier, the extent to which new technology in higher education is actually 'new' is also questioned in this thesis.

New higher education

The terms new university, modern university, entrepreneurial university and post-modern university have all been used to indicate that higher education is undergoing a process of redefinition (Cowen, 1996; Trowler, 1998; Clark, 1998, 2003; Slaughter and Rhoades, 2004; Ball, 2005). The change agenda, either to attain a steady state of change or as a systematic process of reform, has affected universities throughout the UK, Europe and the USA for a century or more (Schön, 1995). Following the Robbins report in the 1960s in the UK, the concept of new university was first used to mark the widening of university education beyond that needed for elite social groups (Robbins, 1963). By the early 1990s, the notion of the new university once more was applied, this time to former polytechnics and colleges of higher education which had been awarded university status. Once again newness was understood in terms of widening student access (Further and Higher Education Act, 1992). Thus, taking into account that technical innovation, change and reform seem to be inevitable characteristics of progress (Schön, 1967), the phrase 'New Higher Education' in the title of this thesis, is included to reflect and question the continuous adaptation of higher education to the broader changing social structure.

The field

'Field', another word in the title of this thesis, is derived primarily from the work of the French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu. He identifies social 'fields' and 'subfields' as settings in which agents or individuals are positioned and located. Bourdieu describes the field as the 'locus of relations of force' which is subject to endless change and reconstitution as 'a potentially open space of play whose boundaries are *dynamic borders* which are the stake of the struggles within the field itself.' (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 104, italics original emphasis). Bourdieu's concept of 'subfield' suggests that there are different levels of structure in which 'subfield' is a division within a field which has 'its own logic, rules and regularities' (ibid).

Thus, Bourdieu's conceptualisation of 'field' is interpreted in the thesis as representing the broad area of academic practice in higher education (involving old and new professionals), within which the two groups of new professionals are identified in this study as sub-fields. We shall see that educational developers and learning technologists also self-define themselves as belonging to 'fields', 'communities' and 'disciplines'. Indeed the different language and terms associated with the groupings adds complexity to an area already fraught with difficulty and paradox (Land, 2004). One reason for this, as Bourdieu notes, is that, to question the interrelation of different fields generally provides more questions than answers.

It forces us to raise questions: about the limits of the universe under investigation, how it is “articulated,” to what and to what degree, etc. (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 110)

Structure of thesis

The thesis is divided into nine chapters. Chapter one, provides an introduction to the thesis, its main aim, the key research questions, background context and key terms. Chapter two discusses underpinning theoretical frameworks while chapter three focuses on the methodological approaches taken in the thesis. Chapter four provides an overview of the social arena and wider field of higher education and introduces key themes running throughout. The fifth chapter provides an autobiographical and reflexive account of one person’s experiences as a new professional and indicates the impact of new technologies and policy at the level of the individual. Chapters six and seven review the literature to explore the backgrounds, practices, perspectives and positions of educational developers and learning technologists respectively. Chapter eight provides an analysis of in-depth interviews with practitioners who are acknowledged as ‘knowing agents’ who contribute to the construction of the field and have a sense of the ‘game they engage in’ (Bourdieu, 1998, p. 25). The final chapter reviews the overall thesis and analysis in relation to the research questions. It reflects on the challenges of researching one’s own area of work and discusses the key relationship between technology and change. It concludes by highlighting possible struggles for new professionals regarding new technologies and educational development.

Chapter 2. Theoretical framework

Introduction

This chapter introduces the theories and concepts that have influenced my thinking during this research. It discusses the main theoretical perspective adopted, which is then related to theorists and writers who have become central to my investigation and illuminated the study.

Theoretical perspective

As already stated, this thesis is a study of practices, relationships and professional experience in universities. A central argument is that knowledge is gained in many ways including through experience and ways of understanding that experience. I have also sought to locate the study in a broader social, cultural and historical context. The way I have chosen to carry out my study reflects my ontological position drawing on an understanding of phenomenology as emphasising the existence of the individual human being, and her or his own conscious awareness, which gives weight to individual and collective subjective experience as a source of all knowledge of objective phenomena. This perspective reflects the position conveyed by Schutz (1964, 1967) and Bourdieu (1986, 1992) who both outline a rigorous and descriptive sociology which assumes the researcher/sociologist is a key factor in whatever she/he investigates. Moreover, both Schutz and Bourdieu give emphasis to the actor or social agent whose disposition and actions lie at the heart of the social system.

Thus in my study, I use professional autobiographical narrative to illustrate that as researcher I am part of the world that I am studying. I also use further methods and conceptual frameworks to explore the context, position and practices relating to the 'object' of the research – the emergent professional areas of educational development and learning technology in higher education. Such phenomenological arguments have also led me to seek appropriate ways of dealing with social phenomena as significant aspects of reality and as related both to the individual and to society. The emphasis is thus placed on exploring practice and experience and the social and cultural conditions which shape that experience.

The epistemological view adopted in the study of how we know what we know has been inspired by Pierre Bourdieu, in particular his work on reflexive sociology, his view that knowledge and practice are influenced by disposition and beliefs and his identification of objectivism and subjectivism within structure and reflexivity (Bourdieu, 1990; Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). Reflexive sociology requires the researcher to be sensitive to how particular social fields work however, Bourdieu also emphasises the need

for the researcher to be aware of his or her own intellectual position and disposition and the principle sources of such perspectives, arising from for example class, gender and education, and how this might distort the view of the field. In researching complex socially-constructed events and experiences Bourdieu's argument for self-criticism and his view of the 'scientific field' as active in the reflexive process through 'the dialogic of public debate and mutual critique' has been particularly informative. Thus,

...the work of objectivation of the objectivating subject is carried out not by the author alone but by the occupants of all the antagonistic and complementary positions which constitute the scientific field.
(Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 40)

For Bourdieu, the researcher remains central to the process in the sense that, as Schutz points out, his or her values and disposition affect both approach and outcome.

...the attitudes of the social scientist towards his (sic) subject matter is determined by his own presuppositions, metaphysical, ethical, or political, or by value judgements of whatever kind. These presuppositions may be tacitly assumed or openly stated.
(Schutz, 1967, p. 3)

With that in mind, the professional autobiographical narrative, which appears in chapter five, has been placed ahead of the literature reviews of educational development and learning technology and the analysis of in-depth interviews, in order to make explicit the habitus and disposition of the researcher (myself). The aim has been to expose my own understanding and positioning in relation to the subject and to make them transparent to the reader.

Developing theoretical and conceptual frameworks

This section considers the theorists and writers who have helped me to define the theoretical and conceptual framework for my study. These include, as already seen, Bourdieu and especially his theories on 'field', as a socially structured space (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992), and also Boyer (1990), Palmer (1998) and Clark (1998, 2003) who focus specifically on academic practice in a changing higher education, and Schön (1967) and Ball (2003, 2005), who address technology and change.

Field and habitus

Bourdieu offers an approach to understanding the practices and trends of professional fields through the utilisation of concepts such as field, habitus,

position agency and capital. As mentioned earlier 'fields' and 'subfields' are identified as social arenas in which capital is accumulated and where struggles for power, position and resources take place. For Bourdieu 'habitus' is a set of deeply-founded dispositions and beliefs rooted in the daily practices of individuals and groups which contribute to the accumulation of capital and the exercise of agency. Such 'embodied history' which is manifest in experiences, interests and beliefs is informative in the sense of providing insight into 'the active presence of past behaviors' (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 54).

Bourdieu thus argues that the relation between field and habitus operates in two ways.

On one side it is a relation of *conditioning*: the field structures the habitus, which is the embodiment of the immanent necessity of a field (or of a set of intersecting fields, the extent of their intersection or the discrepancy being at the root of the divided or even torn habitus). On the other side, it is a relation of knowledge or *cognitive construction*. Habitus contributes to constituting the field as a meaningful world, a world that is endowed with sense and value, in which it is worth investing one's energy.

(Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 127, italics original emphasis)

'Social agents' are thus viewed as holders of specific capital who, through habitus, actively contribute to the construction of the field. 'Agency' meanwhile refers to the capacity and 'position' of individuals to act within a particular field. Bourdieu argues that social agents as 'subjects' and, through habitus, acquire a sense of the game they engage in.

In fact, "subjects" are active and knowing agents endowed with practical sense, that is, an acquired system of preferences, of principles of vision and division (what is actually called taste), and also a system of durable cognitive structures (which are essentially the product of the internalisation of objective structures) and of schemes of action which orient the perception of the situation and the appropriate response. The habitus is this kind of practical sense for what is to be done in a given situation – what is called in sport a "feel" for the game, that is, the art of *anticipating* the future of the game, which is inscribed in the present state of play.

(Bourdieu, 1998, p. 25, italics original emphasis)

Bourdieu introduces two other concepts of particular interest to this study: those of 'symbolic capital' and 'symbolic violence'. Bourdieu argues that the struggles of agents to identify with one group or another or to be differentiated from one group or another, is a struggle over symbolic capital.

These struggles aim not to abolish the classification or to transform its principles but to modify individual positions in the classification, and they therefore imply a tacit recognition of the classification. Dividing those who are closest and most alike, they are the perfect antithesis and the most effective negation of the struggle against another class, in which the class itself is constituted.

(Bourdieu, 1990, p. 138)

Bourdieu argues that such struggles are activities to do with gaining symbolic power 'by accentuating selected personal qualities of elites as supposedly superior or natural' (Swartz, 1997, p. 43). Symbolic capital is thus a means of identifying and describing orientation and positioning within a particular field.

The concept of symbolic violence is used by Bourdieu to identify the existence of hidden struggles activated socially by a holder of capital as a means of limiting and controlling the agency of individuals with less capital. Symbolic violence is a 'soft' form of violence which can be conveyed through looks, gestures and body language, or denied for reasons of self-interest or misrecognised, for example, in processes of reform and change. Social agents may favour acceptance of 'the world as it is' and/or find the dominant order 'natural' because '*their mind is constructed according to cognitive structures that are issued out of the very structures of the world*' (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 168, italics original emphasis). Bourdieu stresses that taken-for-granted actions and practices legitimise and constitute the maintenance of power relations. Moreover, the positioning of higher education institutions within the market-led knowledge economy and the denial by practitioners of the economic and political interests present in a set of practices has been described as similar to the 'false consciousness' of Marxist traditions (Swartz, 1997, p. 89). Thus Bourdieu argues that:

'...symbolic violence ... is the violence which is exercised upon a social agent with his or her complicity.'

(Bourdieu, 1998, pp. 167-168, italics original emphasis)

In other words symbolic violence is about how the dominated come to accept their own conditions of domination (Swartz, 1997). Symbolic violence thus provides a critical lens through which to view the positioning of individuals and sub-fields and in particular the interplay between the changing university, workplace ethos, practice and agency.

The properties or characteristics of the field

The active properties or characteristics of a field, termed 'capital' by Bourdieu, determine both the (re)construction of the field of academic practice and the sub-fields of educational development and learning technology in today's higher education. Bourdieu argues that social, cultural and economic capitals are critical resources that shape both field, as one of the central organising concepts of work, and 'game', as a deliberate act in which capital is employed in the field of play (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). Thus, field as a space of play, involves rules, strategies and the deployment of different capitals.

Social capital is identifiable in social networks and interpersonal skills accumulated through habitus, education systems and workplace experiences. Bourdieu defines social capital as follows:

...the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition. (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 119)

It is used in the study to explore the practice and the actions of agents in relation to their networks, communities and institutionalised relationships.

'Cultural capital', in contrast, is interpreted as the knowledge, skills and experience, which are accumulated by individuals and groups over a period of time. Bourdieu (1986) distinguishes three types of cultural capital: 1) 'objectified', which applies to tangible goods, seen here as practice in the form of knowledge and skills which are owned and can be traded; 2) 'embodied', which is marked by habitus and by accumulated experience, identified in this study as tacit knowledge (Polanyi, 1967, 1969); and 3) 'institutionalized' which is understood as formal qualifications, titles and credentials. Bourdieu's three types of cultural capital are thus used to explore practice, in terms of what agents do, their tacit knowledge and their formal qualifications.

Economic capital implies the conversion of other capitals into money and resources. Whilst social, cultural and economic capitals are interdependent Bourdieu (1986) sets economic capital at the base of all other types of capital. Economic capital has therefore been used as a significant resource in defining the logic of the field.

The logic of the field

The 'logic of the field' determines which capitals are used and to what effect. Bourdieu describes a 'sort of hermeneutic circle' which involves three

movements between the 'field of power', the structure and relationships between agents and the habitus and capital of agents (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 104).

... in order to construct the field, one must identify forms of specific capital that operate within it, and to construct the forms of capital one must know the specific logic of the field. (Ibid., p. 108)

Bourdieu places emphasis on knowing the field and mapping the space to create awareness of the main force lines that structure the space. Therefore, for this study, field, structure and position, habitus and capital are interpreted as follows:

- the field is that of academic practice in higher education, positioned as a field of power in relation to broader national and global imperatives. Sub-fields include educational development and learning technology.
- the structures of the relations between the positions occupied by specific agents (i.e. the new professionals) are hierarchical and fragmented, for example, concerning players at global, national, institutional and departmental levels, all have specific knowledge and skills with which to trade.
- relationships and positions are defined through utilisation of different capitals and similarities and differences in practice.
- habitus and disposition signify the construction of the field by social agents and thus demand research approaches which attempt to expose hitherto hidden experiences and voices (in this case, of the new professionals).

An overarching conceptual framework is thus provided by Bourdieu which enables a more acute and targeted understanding of the social and cultural events and relations which have shaped both the broad field of higher education and its new professional sub-fields of educational development and learning technology. The framework is discussed further in the chapter on methodology and methods.

Conceptualising academic practice within a context of change

Central to the work of educational developers and learning technologists, it is argued, are practices which aspire to support academic practice and thus the practice of academics (or university teachers) and, to some extent, the change agenda of higher education. A number of scholars have emerged as 'architects' of the field, for example Boyer (1990), Palmer (1998) and Clark (1998). Their interrelated sets of concepts and models, developed against

a background of reform in higher education, are interpreted in the thesis as theoretical and pragmatic responses to the impact of social change upon academic practice. For example, Boyer's conceptualisation of scholarship and Palmer's perceptions of the pedagogic needs of the university teacher were developed in response to change in and reform of universities in the USA. They emphasise the importance of research, knowledge acquisition, understanding, application, and teaching as the main elements underpinning academic practice. In contrast to Boyer and Palmer, Clark offers a conceptual framework for introducing new practices aimed primarily at sustaining change in universities. Although all three architects developed their ideas as a response to successive waves of change in universities, they also created useful frameworks by which to explore professional practice such as that of educational developers and learning technologists.

More specifically, Boyer reconceptualises scholarship in higher education following the shift from universities as principally research-led to a more even balance between teaching and research. Boyer (1990, p. 16) suggests four distinct scholarships of *integration*, *discovery*, *application* and *teaching*, developed primarily to support the practices of the university teacher, the quality of his or her teaching and the changing relationship between research and teaching. Boyer draws on surveys of faculty staff in American universities by the Carnegie Foundation in the 1980s, to study the definition of scholarship. Thus, scholarship has become an important and, as we shall see later, contested discourse for educational development and a significant feature in educational policy.

Of particular interest to this thesis is Boyer's *Scholarship of Integration* which emphasises connections across disciplines, and specialisms which are placed in larger contexts, thus providing new ways of illuminating knowledge and understanding. The *Scholarship of Integration* has thus been described as the 'primary driver' for leadership and change in contemporary universities (Savage and Betts, 2005). Boyer's view of integration, although essentially focusing on research, resonates with the thoughts of others. For example Engeström (2001) focuses on expanded learning and co-configurational work, drawing on activity theory and theories of social constructivism to explore the possibility of dialogue between different traditions, cross-cultural perspectives and networks of interacting systems. Activity theory is another way of illuminating the inter-related practices of new professionals by showing the complex social and cultural relations that underpin multi-disciplinary approaches to learning and working. The challenges and possibilities of multi-disciplinary working and learning constitute an important theme running through this thesis, reflected also in my own professional practice and arguably, in the multi-disciplinary work of educational devel-

opers and learning technologists. Thus I revisit, in the final chapter, themes of boundary crossing, cross-cultural perspectives, specialisms and networks of interacting systems.

With educational debate often dominated by questions of reform, Palmer (1998) forefronts the voice of the university teacher by noting that at the centre of academic practice lies the importance of 'good teaching' and the role of the teacher in creating the most advantageous conditions for learning. Thus, Palmer identifies 'Learning in Community', 'Knowing in Community', 'Teaching in Community' and 'Personal Identity and Integrity' as part of a unifying framework for the practices of university teachers. Whilst identity and integrity are clearly important aspects of the personal and working lives of professionals (whether new or old), Palmer (2005) also reminds us of the contradictions and complexities involved in maintaining personal integrity and in achieving a balance between personal and professional ethics, a tension which is again revisited later in the thesis.

Palmer's draws on his own experience as a university teacher and his discussions over many years with students. Interestingly whilst Boyer's work is strongly referenced in the sub-field of educational development, Palmer's work is less so. This may be the result of shifts in UK policy from teaching to learning and consequently from emphasis on the teacher to that of the student (NCIHE, 1997). Although teaching 'excellence' is now widely promoted (see also chapter five), often the voice of the teacher is a missing element in the literature of higher education policy.

Clark (1998) meanwhile offers a useful and necessary contrast to Boyer and Palmer's concentration on scholarship and teaching in his focus on a combination of individual entrepreneurialism, peripheral units and strongly-managed centralised approaches to university change. Clark suggests that the transformation of universities can only occur through collective entrepreneurial action where university units come together and 'work across a university over a number of years to change, by means of organised initiative...' (ibid., p. 4). In a study of five European universities Clark (1998) identifies five 'pathways of transformation' for sustaining change and for creating an 'entrepreneurial university'. These five pathways are:

- *a strengthened steering core*, which strengthens institutional steering by bringing together central managerial groups and academic departments
- *an enhanced development periphery*, which is manifest in a growth of development units working across boundaries mediating between departments and external organisations
- *a diversified funding base*, which involves raising funding from secondary sources such as funding councils and third-stream discretionary income from a diverse base.

- *a stimulated academic heartland*, meaning department and faculty renewal based on a 'modified belief system' achieved by blending traditional academic values with the 'newer managerial points of view'.
- *an integrated entrepreneurial culture* brought about by developing a 'work culture that embraces change'.

(adapted from *ibid.*, pp. 5-8)

The five pathways place emphasis on practices of management and leadership, interdisciplinary working, income generation and the transformation of values and culture. They thus reflect the centralised position of educational development units in the UK, often under the direct management of Vice- or Pro-Vice-Chancellors (Henkel, 2002; Gosling, 2008). Interestingly, Clark's (2003) most recent study shifts emphasis from structure towards process, and from top-down, central control towards acts of 'collegial volition' which involve collective decision-producing and collective commitment to change, which he sees as essential to sustaining a 'steady state' of change in universities. Nevertheless he seems to remain committed also to encouraging universities to engage in proactive entrepreneurial activity. Indeed Clark advocates 'collegial entrepreneurship' as a 'mediating normative order' for universities in the twenty-first century (Clark, 2000, p.19).

Thus, Boyer, Palmer and Clark reflect different ways of interpreting academic practice and transformation within a changing higher education as universities struggled to meet the demands of a more diverse society. Boyer and Palmer focus on scholarship and teaching, while Clark draws attention to practices which essentially focus on change and transformation. Clark also stresses the importance of boundary-crossing and the need to negotiate new borders 'with academic criteria serving as guideposts' (Clark, 2003, p. 103). Thus all three accept that integrative practice is an important aspect of academic life. Moreover, three of Boyer's scholarships – *discovery*, *application* and *teaching* – and three of Palmer's conceptualisations of community – *learning*, *knowing* and *teaching* – reflect similar activities and can be incorporated under the headings of research, knowledge acquisition, understanding and application, and teaching. For example:

- research and investigative approaches to academic practice and teaching equate with the *Scholarship of Discovery* (Boyer, 1990) and *Learning in Community* (Palmer, 1998)
- knowledge acquisition, understanding and application, and helping the academic community to recognise problems and opportunities place emphasis on context and reflect the theory/practice dimension of the *Scholarship of Application* (Boyer, 1990) and *Knowing in Community* (Palmer, 1998)

- teaching that is stimulating, active, and which fosters practical development and encourages future scholars equates with the *Scholarship of Teaching* (Boyer, 1990) and is represented in the notion of *Teaching in Community* (Palmer, 1998).

The different perspectives also highlight potential areas of tension, for example, Palmer places emphasis on the importance of identity and integrity and the difficulties of achieving a balance between personal and professional ethics whereas Clark's pathway to transformation and developing a 'change' work culture stresses the need to modify beliefs and values in line with new managerial⁵ points of view.

Thus, Boyer's scholarships, Palmer's conceptualisation of the role of the university teacher and Clark's conceptualisation of the entrepreneurial university together provide the basis for a conceptual framework for the analysis of academic practice and practices which support transformation and change. It is hoped that they also, illuminate the position and practices of educational developers and learning technologists and the logic of the relative sub-fields.

Technology and change: a crucial relationship

Schön's (1967) work on technology and change captures, it seems to me, many of the tensions and concerns in higher education settings today. In the 1960s Schön was working on product development in order to help industrial firms to engage more effectively in technological innovation and change. He thus began a prolonged interest in change as it applies to modern life and adaptive social systems. In Schön's seminal text *Technology and Change: the new Heraclitus*, he looks back to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries when science and technology were part of the project of 're-establishing the dominion of man over creation' (ibid., p. 190-191). Schön reminds us that technology can be an instrument for 'evil' as well as good, for domination as well as empowerment. He also shows that the rhetoric surrounding the Great Exhibition in London in 1851 provides an early example of the now familiar hyperbole and expectation of progress that new technologies are expected to bring to society. The then Prince Consort, Prince Albert, pronounced technology the 'instrument' of social progress as follows.

⁵ New managerialism is used to define a form of corporate governance in higher education which has a tendency towards using a preponderance of managerial techniques. See also Trow (1993); Ozga (1995); Deem (1998, 2001, 2003, 2004, 2006).

Nobody who has paid any attention to the peculiar features of our present era will doubt for a moment that we are living in a period of most wonderful transition which tends rapidly to accomplish that great end to which, indeed all history points. The realisation of the unity of mankind ... The distances which separated the different nations and parts of the globe are rapidly vanishing before the achievements of modern invention and we can traverse them with incredible ease; ... Gentlemen, the exhibition of 1851 is to give us a true test of the living picture of the point of development at which the whole of mankind has arrived in this great task in a new starting point from which all nations will be able to direct their further exertions.

(Quoted in J. B. Bury, p. 330; in: Schön, 1967, p. 191)

Schön discusses the growing sense of unease in society in the 1960s over the affects of technological change on personal identity. He argues, for example, that technological change, innovation and progressive diversification provide a challenge to spiritual values and contribute to 'the erosion of old concepts of role and function' often without anything clear to replace them (ibid., p. 195). Above all, Schön is concerned about the breakdown of the sense of personal identity and the consequences of change being forced on individuals and groups. This leads to an argument for an 'ethic of change' for individuals, organisations and society as a whole involving a 'meta-ethic' of inquiry and discovery aimed at guiding the process of change, and 'making possible the abandonment of old positions without the loss of self' (ibid., pp. 198 - 203). Interestingly, Schön's argument for an ethic of change parallels Boyer's concepts of scholarship, Palmer's conceptualisation of university teaching and Clark's pathways to university transformation as an attempt to guide social change.

Other researchers' work has been more rooted in policy implications of the present. Ball's (2003) paper entitled 'The teacher's soul and the terrors of performativity' resonates with recent re-forms of UK higher education and the use of new technologies both as objects, in the form of pedagogical and managerial tools, and processes related to the reform of educational policy. Ball draws on Lyotard's (1979) conception of the 'postmodern condition' in which knowledge is de-socialised and performance monitoring and management become key features of reform. Postmodernism is commonly used as a term, concept or 'label' to mean after modernism. In this thesis postmodernism, is seen in terms of the reconstruction of a new social reality in which 'historical traditions' lose their attraction and give way to variation and multiplicity which in turn leads to the formation of 'new' narratives and fragmentation, differentiation and groupings on a smaller

scale (see also Lyotard, 1979 and Ball, 2003). Ball identifies the commodification and de-socialisation of knowledge as a feature of the present period resulting in changes in the relationships between the learner, learning and knowledge. For example, he shows how policy technology and 'performativity' operate through target-setting to change existing regimes of teaching, learning and assessment (often through the introduction of new computer-based technologies). Ball (2003, p. 215) perceives performativity as a mode of regulating, controlling and representing 'the worth, quality or value of an individual or organisation within a field of judgement'. Furthermore, Ball has a conception of social theory itself as a field of power; for example, as 'a field of networks of relations constantly subject to the play of power, both within and from without, and beset by struggles for positional advantage'. Thus, similarly to Bourdieu, Ball argues that theory should be enabling rather than be prescriptive; i.e. theorists 'do not tell me how to think, but enable me to think about how I think' (Ball, 2006, p.3).

Summary

The theories, concepts and writers discussed in this chapter have been valuable in enabling the exploration of dynamic social and cultural relations and in framing and structuring the study. The theories of Bourdieu provide the overarching framework for this thesis. However other writers provide useful concepts and perspectives to guide the more detailed analysis of practice and reflection on specific themes. All have motivated my interest in the subject, and have been provocative in terms of challenging normative views of the subject.

Chapter 3. Methodology and methods

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to consider the methodology and the methods used in this thesis, which have been chosen, first, because they enable exploration of complex social relationships and interrelated practices associated with educational development and new technologies in higher education and second, because they offer a broad overview and potential for understanding of the subject within its social, cultural and historical context.

A three-fold approach is taken in order to enable a long-term perspective on development over time. This involves a literature review, a reflexive professional autobiographical narrative and in-depth interviews with selected practitioners who are perceived as agents who actively contribute to the construction of the field. The three-fold approach provides a basis for cross-checking findings drawn from different sources and thus helps to establish credibility and trustworthiness through overlap and triangulation (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). It is hoped that the methodology used demonstrates consistency and rigor whilst providing a creative approach to making sense of the social world and the 'logic' of the two sub-fields.

The research methods used are chosen in order to offer a perspective and contextualisation of the habitus, practices and positions of educational developers and learning technologists in today's higher education. The emphasis of both Bourdieu and Schutz on developing a theory of practice, which investigates the social to take into account individual reality, is reflected in the methodological stance adopted here. Thus, the methodologies and methods seek to make visible the practitioner 'whose doing and feeling lies at the bottom of the whole system' (Schutz, 1964, p. 7).

The study is based on a commitment to ensure that any research carried out is guided by commonly agreed international standards of good practice (see, e.g. BERA guidelines and the code of practice of the Swedish Research Council.).

Overview literature

The research necessarily draws on a variety of different written sources including empirical research, reviews, studies, policy documents, white papers, research reports, discussion papers and journal articles. The texts are derived mainly from the UK, Europe, USA and Australasia and cover a range of disciplinary areas including higher education studies (Becher, 1989, 1990, 1994; Becher and Trowler, 2001; Andresen, 2000a; Barnett, 2000a), educational policy (Gornall, 1999; Ball, 2003; Henkel, 2005), educational so-

ciology (Beck, 1999; Deem, 1998; Clegg, Hudson and Steel, 2003; higher education teaching and learning (Rowland, 2001), educational/academic development (Brew and Baud, 1996; Land, 2001, 2004; Trowler, 2004; Hicks, 2005; Grant, et al., 2009), learning technology (Ely, et al., 1988; Selwyn, 1997; Daniel, 1996; Conole and Oliver, 2007) and educational change (Trowler, 1998; Clark, 2003; Daniel, et al., 2006). The texts referenced above are given as examples and reflect only a small selection of the literature used. They are classified according to the journals in which they were published and thus may not reflect the disciplinary areas of the authors. Nevertheless, the articles, journals and authors exemplify the broad context, variety of perspectives and the multi-disciplinary nature of the work of the two groups of new professionals. In addition to journal articles and books, web-based searches of key terms and phrases were carried out, national projects and initiatives were considered, the aims and objectives of professional associations and national agencies were scrutinised and government funded reports, documents and funded initiatives were drawn on.

Bourdieu identifies three connected movements for analysing a field; analysing position within the field of power; mapping out the structure and relations between the positions occupied by agents, and analysing the habitus of agents and the different dispositions acquired (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). This was used as a framework to both search for and structure the overview literature. Overview literature is thus used to locate and introduce the study and the backgrounds and practices respectively of educational developers and learning technologists within the broader social, cultural and historical context. It is also used to highlight recent trends, perspectives and current discourses. Similarly, in the professional autobiographical narrative, a wide range of literature is used, including some of my own work, in order to position the narrative socially, culturally and historically.

Structured literature review of practice

In addition to the use of overview literature a structured literature review of practice was carried out. The literature review of practice drew on empirical studies that answer the same or similar questions about the nature of the work and practices of the two groups of new professionals (educational developers and learning technologists) and values and outcomes related to specific professional awards. This method is best represented as an interpretive technique which provides a systematic overview of particular questions or themes, in this case concerning the practices of educational developers and learning technologists.

The aim of using such methodologies is to allow a more interpretive approach to empirical studies written from different standpoints. However,

studies on human behaviour, even when there are relatively few in number are often complex and difficult to interpret and summarise. Biases, rigor or lack of it, research design and differing use of language and terms also intervene in the production of texts from, for example, independent research, policy documents and funded research. Indeed sponsors often exert considerable control over the final text. As we shall see later ‘pedagogical language and terminology’ may be appropriate for one context while the use of ‘language to which institutional management will relate’ may be required in another (ALT, *Research Strategy*, 2005, p. 1).

Other potential problems are text selection, and interpretation based on professional judgements. Indeed, interpretive techniques have a number of potential drawbacks including being overly subjective, ignoring context and time frame and damaging the original integrity of the material. Following Bourdieu, a reflexive hermeneutic approach was adopted drawing on a structured framework based on Boyer (1990), Palmer (1998) and Clark’s (1998, 2003) conceptualisations of academic practice (see Fig. 1, page 40). Thus it was intended that the selection and review of texts would reveal patterns of underlying practices which provide an initial insight into the logic, position and capital of the two groups.

Method

Texts for the structured literature review of practice were selected on the following basis:

- emphasis on practices of educational developers and learning technologists
- reflecting empirical research ranging from independent research to the formation of policy reports (since 2000).
- representative of accreditation and professional standards relevant to professional associations in the UK, for example, the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA) and the Association for Learning Technology (ALT). (See Appendix I for list of texts)

Initially I drew on personal knowledge and experience based on two decades of working in the field to identify appropriate texts, but also carried out key word searches of the web, electronic journals, conference proceedings and library catalogues. Personal contact with professional associations, researchers and writers in the field also proved productive. For example, I contacted the Association for Learning Technology (ALT), the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA) and leading UK writers on the practices of educational developers and learning technologists to enquire about recent studies, and in particular, any relevant current empiri-

cal research. This helped to add to my own knowledge of the field and the scope of current activity, and also confirmed my perception of the paucity of independent current research on the practices and the relationship of educational developers and learning technologists.

Thus whilst a wide range of literature exists on educational development and the use of learning technologies, there have been few empirical studies on practitioners and the conditions in which they work in UK universities since 2000. The lack of empirical research on what educational developers and learning technologists do in the UK has meant that texts on educational development necessarily draw on studies based in Australia, where there has been much activity in this area. Also, job advertisements for learning technology and related posts were analysed to identify more recent examples of technology-related practice. For example, of eight educational development texts, three draw on work from Australasia (Fraser, 2001; Bath and Smith, 2004; Taylor, 2005). Possibly due to more generous funding from professional associations and/or government agencies, studies on learning technologists appear more UK orientated (all seven texts are set in UK contexts). However the most recent empirical study on the practices of staff supporting learning technology (at the time of writing) was carried out by Oliver in 2002. Thus, to gain an indication of current practices in learning technology, the Association for Learning Technology Digest was consulted, which lists job vacancies associated with learning technology on a bi-weekly basis. A search was carried out of advertisements and job descriptions over a twelve month period – from January 2008 to January 2009. Over 100 jobs were identified during that period. Analysis of the types of jobs and associated practices is discussed with the literature review of texts in chapter seven. An abbreviated list of jobs advertised can be found in Appendix III.

The two sets of texts selected have some consistency, for example, both sets include empirical studies, literature reviews and professional standards for accreditation. However, the characterisation of practice should be seen as a broad generalisation that reflects activity in UK and in the case of educational development Australian Universities over the period between 2000 and 2008. It is therefore suggested that the reader considers the literature review of practice alongside the practices revealed in the autobiographical narrative and in the in-depth interviews.

The literature review of practice covers eight texts on the practices of educational developers, of which five draw on empirical research. These include a survey of 71 Australasian ‘academic developers’ (Fraser, 2001), two studies surveying heads of educational development units in 2000 and 2006 by the same author (Gosling, 2001, 2008), a two-year empirical study of

practising educational developers (Land, 2001) and a study of the leadership experiences of educational development specialists in (17) Australian universities (Taylor, 2005). The three remaining texts on the practices of educational developers are a discussion paper which 'reviews the current debate regarding the work of academic developers' (Bath and Smith, 2004) and two frameworks (combined) aimed at supporting the professional development of staff involved in 'Leading Staff and Educational Development' and 'Leading and Developing Academic Practice' in higher education institutions (SEDA-PDF, 2005). The documents are listed in Appendix I.

Seven texts are included in the analysis on learning technologists. Only two are research studies, of which one is a large-scale career scoping study which includes the role analysis of (35) staff working in UK higher education, audit of (23) HE institutions and in-depth interviews with learning technology staff, managers, heads of personnel, staff development and educational development (Beetham, et al., 2001). The second empirical study draws on interviews with learning technologists to identify 'what they do' (Oliver, 2002). The five remaining texts include a report of a three-year project aimed at developing support for professional development in order to 'embed' new technologies (EFFECTS, 2003), a review of the literature on learning technologists including associated accredited schemes and relevant professional programmes (Oliver, et al. 2004), requirements for certification to the Association for Learning Technology (CMALT, 2005) and two frameworks (combined) aimed at supporting the professional development of staff involved in 'embedding' and 'eXploring' learning technologies (SEDA-PDF, 2005). The documents are listed in Appendix I.

As far as it is possible to discern, most of the texts on the practices of educational developers are independent studies, though Gosling's studies are sponsored (albeit modestly) by the Heads of Educational Development Group (HEDG). This offers a contrast to the studies on learning technology which are either commissioned or the result of funded work sponsored by JISC, ALT or SEDA. Furthermore the studies on the practices of learning technologists have all been used as foundations for either the development of professional schemes (CMALT, 2005) or professional development framework awards (SEDA-PDF, 2005).

The texts were analysed using a conceptual framework (see Fig. 1) based on the work of Boyer, Palmer and Clark which identifies practices of scholarship, teaching and organised initiatives related to transformation and change, as discussed in chapter two.

Fig. 1. Conceptual framework of academic practice: scholarship, principles of teaching, change and transformation.

Research
Knowledge acquisition, understanding and application
Teaching
Integration
Identity and integrity, beliefs and values
Management and Leadership
Strategic practices aimed at bringing about change

The framework was developed through an iterative process in the early stage of the study based upon an initial literature review of the field to identify key concepts which guide academic practice in the context of the changing university. It was used to cluster themes together into relevant groups and where terms were ‘fuzzy’, personal judgement was exercised. Thus, personal insights into the field, professional interpretation and iterative reflexivity made it possible to be generative rather than over-descriptive or reductionist. Characterisations of practice found in the texts but not adequately covered by the framework were classed as subsidiary practices. The working documents can be found in Appendix II.

As mentioned earlier the analysis of the structured literature reviews of texts on the practices of educational developers and learning technologists are placed respectively in chapter six and seven. Thus the characterisations of practice (cultural capital) are contextualised within the broader overview literature of each sub-field. Moreover, to make it easier to gain an overall sense of similarities and differences between the two sub-fields, chapters six and seven are structured similarly.

Professional autobiographical narrative

Autobiographical narrative is used to capture and frame the impact of change and reform on individual professional identity and practice (Oates, 1991). Through the process of reflection, autobiography offers a context for individual action which locates the individual’s social and physical space against a changing background. The narrative, therefore, is time-sensitive, is told as a story, provides clues about the researcher’s habitus and uses a Bourdieuian theoretical framework, as outlined in chapter two, to capture and reflect on experience. It mixes story with discussion which means that the ‘I’ can be read in several ways. For example, as narrator, ‘I’ tells a chronological story, while the ideological ‘I’ provides clues to social location and relationships and ‘I’ as an agent of discourse takes a reflective view of the narrative, thus

focusing more on the meaning of personal experience (Smith and Watson, 2001, pp. 58-64).

The autobiography thus is a 'life history', or 'life story' set in a historical context (Goodson, 1992, p. 6., in: Erixon, 2002, p. 33). However, when reading autobiography it is important to consider the perspective and subjectivity of the writer. The aim, therefore, is not to establish an essential truth but to provide source material from which to learn and deepen understanding.

Autobiography has become an accepted research method in education and is considered particularly valuable for individuals and groups whose perceptions and experiences have had little historical coverage; for example minority groups, women, teachers and in this case, a woman (myself) working as a new professional in higher education. Therefore, autobiographical narrative, as reflective practitioner research, seems fitting in terms of allowing a richer and more nuanced picture of the disposition and practices of new professionals working in changed university settings.

Moreover, writing a professional autobiography, the use of reflexivity and Bourdieun analyses of struggles over power, have revealed the gendered nature of events in my own professional experience and have drawn me to several feminist writers. For example, Wiener (1996b), David (2003) and Clegg (2006) explore issues of agency and have increased my awareness of the relevance of feminist epistemology. Indeed feminist perspectives have influenced the epistemology and practice of the study where the use of reflexivity and subjectivity allows the questioning of 'how we know what we know' and where the employment of autobiography has become an accepted research method (David, 2003). Moreover, feminist writers have paid considerable attention to higher education as a workplace. For example, Weiner (1996a) and David and Woodward (1998) explore the changing nature of women's work in higher education, Ozga (1995) and Deem (1998, 2003) examine the impact on organisational cultures of the new managerialism, Dillabough (1999) considers the interrelationship of gender, identity and reform and Reay (2004) focuses on identity in education. In particular Clegg's critical stance on the relationship between policy, practice, agency and the use of ICT in higher education (2003 et al., 2006) has been helpful in highlighting deterministic approaches to technology and change.

Narrative writing is thus seen as an important means of uncovering professional experience and of giving voice to individuals and their practice (Clandinin and Connolly, 2000; Erixon, 2002). However, while emphasising the importance of 'voice' it is important to be aware of the danger of over-introspection and subjectivity, and of over-emphasis on the actor as central to the story. For example Apple (1996, p. xiii) refers to 'literary im-

agination' but also warns of 'possessive individualism' and 'hidden motives' of autobiographical accounts, while Bourdieu (2003, p. 287) is critical of 'narcissistic confessions of the apostles of postmodern reflexivity'. Nevertheless, the hope is to reduce subjectivity at the same time as maintaining a sense of agency. With these and other concerns in mind, I have worked hard to find an appropriate voice. However, it is also evident that there is no perfect or neutral method as Todorov argues (1984, pp. 56-57):

...in language there is no word or form left that would be neutral or would belong to no one: all of language turns out to be scattered, permeated with intentions, accented.

(Todorov in: Erixon, 2002, p. 27);

Interestingly, Bourdieu suggests that reflexivity can reduce the impact of subjectivity particularly if rigorously applied:

...the researcher can and must mobilize his experience, that is, this past, in all his acts of research. But he is entitled to do so only on condition that he submits all these returns of the past to rigorous scientific examination. For what has to be questioned is not only this reactivated past but one's entire relation to this past which, when it acts outside of the controls of consciousness, may be the source of a systematic distortion of evocation and thus of the memories evoked...

(Bourdieu, 2003, p. 291)

A wide variety of genres of life narrative each portraying different modes and features (fifty two in all) are identified by Smith and Watson (2001, pp. 183-214) several of which parallel the approach taken here. In particular, the concept of *Bildungsroman* emphasises life's journey and how individuals learn about the nature of the world, discover meaning and pattern, acquire a philosophy of life and re-evaluate assumptions. *Bildungsroman*, more recently, has been used by women to consolidate their rights to identity and a place in public life (ibid.). Indeed in *Bildungsroman* the values of the social order become apparent in the assessment by the central character of her/his place in society.

While *Bildungsroman* emphasises life's journey, 'autoethnography' or 'anthropological autobiography' has at its centre power relations and the social context in which they are produced. Thus, autoethnography tells about a culture at the same time as about a life. Indeed Reed-Danahay argues that the autoethnographer is a boundary-crosser who seeks to 'rethink' the relationship between autobiography and ethnography. Autoethnography is thus defined as:

...a form of self-narrative that places the self within a social context. It is both a method and a text, as in the case of ethnography. ... This type of autobiography is quite different from the more standard approach criticized by Bourdieu (1986), in which the autobiographer divorces the life trajectory from social constraints. (Reed-Danahay, 1997, p. 9)

Professional autobiographical narrative has been chosen, therefore, for the insights it can bring to a single professional journey through a significant period of time and into a study of 'one's own group'. It also enables reflection on professional rationale for undertaking research, which has proved helpful at a personal level.

Method

The professional autobiographical story of emerging interests, career pathways, professional relationships and critical incidents within a changing higher education environment affected by the rapid advancement of new technologies – is narrated as simply and as accessibly as is possible. The emphasis is more on education and public life and experience, rather than on the private. However, recalling appropriate and relevant events and finding an appropriate language form and style to describe them has provoked concerns typically associated with those of women writing autobiography. These include the place of the 'I' as the daughter, wife and mother and the possible consequences of the constructed account to the writer, reader and lives of others (Heilbrun, 1989; Anderson, 1997; Smith and Watson, 2001; David, 2003; Townsend and Weiner 2009/2010 forthcoming). So, in attempting to portray personal, historical and professional events which may validate or challenge more generalised or accepted viewpoints, the autobiography has necessarily to be approached with caution.

The initial narrative was written in order to capture and truthfully recall significant events. However, narrated memory is an interpretation of the past drawn 'from fragments of experience that change over a period of time' (Schacter, 1996, in: Smith and Watson, 2001, p. 16) and is based on how we memorise events (Smith and Watson, 2001). As such we select and organise them into a complex construction that becomes 'the' story of our lives. Erixon asserts that such writing is but a fiction:

...all history writing becomes a type of linguistic fiction, a coded, written artefact representing past structures and processes. (Erixon, 2002, p. 26)

The events are made into a story by suppressing or subordinating certain events and highlighting others, by characterization, motif repetition, variation of tone and point of view, alternative descriptive strategies, and the like – in short, the techniques that we would normally expect to find in the plot of a novel or play. (ibid., p. 27)

In this case the fragments were consciously selected to give a sense of habitus, history, change and development. It also became clear that I had instinctively omitted particular periods of my life that I considered unimportant (to the story) and instead focused on what I clearly considered to be relevant and critical events. The narrative is structured into four ‘life history’ phases and covers two educational periods which I judge to be particularly important in terms of revealing the events which shaped my professional habitus and disposition and which also map my professional journey and capital, accumulated over a period of time.

The process was consciously reflexive and iterative. That is to say, the original narratives were expanded, refined and analysed to address Bourdieu’s argument that the researcher should take into account his or her own position and habitus, be self-critical and include individual reflections. Thus, despite attempts to represent other positions, the narrative constitutes a personal testimony and therefore can be neither neutral, objective nor distanced.

A selection of my published work (see Appendix VII) is interwoven with the autobiographical narrative to provide windows on different phases of professional activity. The papers were chosen because they explore relationships between the various activities of new professionals such as teaching, learning, scholarship, new technologies, pedagogy and professional development and change. The papers are embedded in practice, seek to link theory with practice and illustrate various approaches taken to scholarly activity and professional development. Most importantly, they represent the perceptions and practices of an individual new professional (myself) as a teacher, researcher, educational developer and learning technologist. The papers, some of which draw on small scale empirical studies, seek also to illustrate practices set within and between different professional communities and professional cultures. They focus on what I considered at the time to be critical incidents or key phases of my professional development. Thus whilst the context of each paper is different, they all have at their core questions about collaborative learning and working and the use of new learning technologies. They also reflect what has become clear to me over a period of 20 years working with new technologies, that although technologies change, many questions and issues remain the same and are often repeated with each new wave of technological development. The texts, therefore, should also be seen as offering a sociological perspective,

filling ‘gaps’ in the literature and illustrating educational development and socially constructed events.

It is hoped that the use of the texts and the positioning of the autobiographical narrative, preceding the chapters on the new professionals (educational developers and learning technologists), will provide the reader with clues not only about the life of a new professional but also about the social world that shaped my approach as a researcher (Bourdieu, 2003).

In particular in deciding to use professional autobiographical narrative as a methodology I have tried as much as possible to tell my story truthfully; however I am also aware that my perceptions of events will differ from others. I have also tried as much as possible to protect the individuals involved (by e.g. anonymising names and titles). However, given the nature of the field, some may be able to identify institutions and even individuals. I want to argue that, despite this, it is important that the story be told, not as an indictment of the practices of individuals or institutions, but as an illumination and illustration of ‘new professional’ practices in UK HE (and elsewhere).

In-depth interviews

In-depth structured interviews were chosen as a means of exploring the research questions and as a key way of representing the experiences, practices, opinions and interests of agents working in the field and the variety of views and differences which constitute it. Ensuring consistency, structure and rigour are at the forefront of the interview process and the analysis of data (Schutz, 1964). Careful planning of the questions was thus at the heart of the quest to explore the logic of the two sub-fields within the context of the changing university environment.

In-depth structured interviews are intensive interviews usually involving a small number of respondents. They are particularly useful when exploring experiences, interests and beliefs, and whilst focused, they allow the respondent space to explore issues at length, thus providing rich data which may form the basis of a deductive (thematic) or inductive (grounded) theory used to identify emergent themes and concepts (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Whilst there has been much debate regarding the advantages and disadvantages of using deductive or inductive approaches in qualitative research it is argued that the interplay between existing theory and emerging theory is a useful and important paradigm in qualitative research (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Thus a theoretical thematic approach was used as a foundational method of analysis. A theoretical thematic analysis draws on prior understanding and can be closely aligned with the research questions and used to identify and analyse themes and organise and describe themes in some detail (*ibid.*). Also following Bourdieu, the work of the researcher

is to collect, interpret and write up possible readings of the data and to approach the task with an objective, unbiased, critical view. Therefore whilst the theoretical thematic framework was used to explore the research questions and key themes which had emerged in earlier chapters an inductive (or grounded approach) was also used to identify additional emergent themes or clusters of issues which may deserve further attention and research. Thus a theoretical and thematic deductive-inductive approach was adopted as an overall methodology.

Both the questions and the analysis of the transcripts were framed by Bourdieu's concepts of field, position, habitus and capitals (as discussed in chapter two). Furthermore, the questions were designed to explore themes which emerged from the autobiographical narrative and the literature review.

Moreover the in-depth interviews were subjected to a process of triangulation. That is to say that patterns and irregularity which construct the position of the object of the research can be more accurately located if two or more views are directed towards it. Thus the review of literature on practice, the autobiographical narrative and the experiences and views of agents in the field are used here to identify common and contrasting features in order to construct meaning associated with the object of the research and the research questions.

Method

The initial aim of the interviewing process was to select male and female practitioners who could be identified as having experience of one sub-field or the other. Clearly the objectification of practitioners is problematic and can be contested in terms of positioning. Nevertheless, for the purpose of this analysis and following the arguments of Schutz (1964) objectification is considered here to be a necessary approach to analysing complex social and cultural activity. Classification, is instead used as a starting point in exploring a socially constructed 'system of structured, structuring dispositions, the habitus, which is constituted in practice and is always orientated towards practical functions' (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 52). Themes identified in the literature and the previous chapters were used to provide secondary criteria. Thus practitioners with experience of different practices, such as teaching, research, management and support and representation from different professional associations and different generations were sought.

I used my knowledge of the field and recommendations made by other practitioners working in the field to identify potential interviewees. Each prospective interviewee was contacted by email or phone to ascertain their willingness to be interviewed. All who were approached agreed to take part.

Nine interviewees, five men and four women, with a range of experience reflected in the above criteria were selected from different universities in the UK. Six were classified as experienced practitioners with senior roles and three, at the time of the interview, were classified as newcomers to their respective fields.

A timetable for the interviews was drawn up and a second email was sent out which included information about matters of confidentiality, anonymity, and ethics as laid down by the British Educational Research Association (BERA) and consistent with the code of practice of the Swedish Research Council. Interviewees were also informed that their participation was voluntary and that they had the right to withdraw from the research at any time. Further information about the nature of the research topic and the following list of themes which were to frame the interview were included:

- background education
- professional route (education, career)
- current role, practice and position
- personal views of 'the' profession and field
- extent of impact of new technologies for learning on higher education and academic practice
- relationships between educational developers and learning technologists
- impact of research and scholarship on educational development and the use of learning technologies
- impact of funding and resources on educational development and the use of learning technologies
- shifts and trends in HE as a whole and the impact on the field, sub-fields and agents in the field
- current and future challenges and personal aspirations.

With the agreement of the interviewee, the first interview was treated as a pilot. The pilot interview was used to test the interview questions in relation to coverage, appropriateness and time allocation. It was also used to check style and approach. Following the pilot interview, a follow-up phone conversation took place with the respondent to clarify one or two points that were raised about the difficulties of particular questions. The pilot interview led to some minor adjustments to the order and formation of the questions. Consideration was also given to the nature of the questions and the range of experience of interviewees in the field. Thus some minor adjustments were made for those who were new to the field. (For the interview themes see Appendix IV)

Ensuring the best possible conditions in which to carry out the interviews was also an important consideration. However, as the interviews were face

to face, and as I was positioned as 'the visitor', in all cases, the interviewees selected the interview rooms. All locations and environments proved to be appropriate. An hour was allocated for each interview. It was necessary on two occasions to complete interviews within an hour (due to local time constraints on the interviewees). Three interviews lasted an hour and the remaining four interviews ranged from 1 hour 15 minutes to 1 hour 45 minutes. In each case all the themes were covered.

As the interviewer I was inclined, initially, towards taking a conversational approach to the interview process. That is to say that the interview is approached as a discussion, a sharing of ideas and views, 'a building of trust and rapport' (Gubrium and Holstein, 2001, p. 103). I particularly wanted to check my own understandings formulated through my analysis of the literature and through my participation as a member of the field in a particular social and cultural setting. However, being a member of the field and having a certain amount of 'knowledge' also raised a number of issues which prompted me to rethink my approach (Schutz, 1967). Bourdieu stresses the principle of reducing the exercise of symbolic violence in the interview process through active, methodical listening 'an apparently contradictory posture that is not easy to keep up in practice' (translation in Schostak, 2006, p. 59). Nevertheless, I felt that the approach best suited to the situation was one of active listener.

Thus the aim was to achieve a balance which combined an informal approach with pace and structure. To avoid intruding on the listening and 'telling space' I decided not to take notes during the interview (Schostak, 2006, p. 60). At the start of each interview I chatted informally with each interviewee and before starting the interview mentioned one or two things which I had included in the original letter such as the ethics and confidentiality agreement. Each interview was concluded with a general question along the lines of 'is there anything that you would like to add?' or 'is there anything that you feel I've missed?' This final question drew rich responses from most respondents. Indeed some identified particular frustrations, issues and concerns and some reflected on questions which they felt had been particularly challenging.

The recording quality of all interviews was good. I transcribed all the interviews myself. One respondent requested a copy of the transcription 'not for checking purposes' – but for their own reflection, as 'being asked things in a different way challenges you to think differently' (respondent).

In writing up the analysis, the coding of quotations is based on the initial criteria used to select interviewees (discussed earlier). However it was also adapted and expanded to take into account the multidisciplinary nature of the sub-fields and a certain amount of repositioning which came

through from the respondents at the start of the interviews. For example, one respondent who was initially chosen because her work involved the use of learning technologies repositioned herself as 'a hybrid', whilst another respondent positioned himself as an 'educational developer', although his current role and extensive experience of using learning technologies could also lead to him being categorised as hybrid. Thus, for the purpose of this analysis the classification of hybrid is introduced into the coding of quotations as a third grouping. Indeed it reflects the interrelated nature of the practice that is at the heart of this analysis.

The coding of quotations is based on the following criteria:

M denotes Male

F denotes Female

1 denotes substantial experience in the field or sub-field

2 denotes relative newcomer to the field or sub-field

ED denotes practices which primarily focus on teaching and learning and which may be signified by current job title or prior experience

LT denotes practices which primarily focus on working with learning technologies and which may be signified by current job title or prior experience

H denotes practices which are primarily a hybrid of the previous two categories and which may be signified by current job title or prior experience.

For example, a quotation from an experienced female respondent with experience of working in educational development is coded as follows: F1ED. A quotation from a male respondent new to the sub-field of learning technology is coded as: M2LT.

Tags and identifiers used in quotations are as follows:

... placed at the start or end of a piece of text denotes the continuation of a sentence

... ... placed within a piece of text denotes a pause for thought

[.....] denotes that a section of text has been removed

[the VLE] denotes researcher's text used to replace the original. This may be used to protect anonymity.

As mentioned earlier a theoretical thematic framework was used to search for themes in the transcripts. The analysis of each transcript and the development of the framework aimed to be reflexive and iterative. Indeed as each transcript was carefully read, re-read and analysed, the construction of

the thematic framework followed Bourdieu's description of a hermeneutic circle (discussed in chapter two). Thus, as new themes emerged or were clustered and as new knowledge and new understandings took shape, the framework was amended accordingly. The theoretical and thematic framework used for the analysis can be found in Appendix V.

Chapter eight, which includes the analysis of the in-depth interviews, has been structured to follow the Bourdieun theoretical framework. However, the emergent themes are used as subheadings to hold meaning and reflect the sense of my analysis for the reader. The themes are elaborated in the voices and experiences of the respondents who, as 'knowing agents', have particular roles and are engaged in particular practices. Thus it is hoped that the analysis captures and maps a multiplicity of views and highlights and illuminates some of the struggles in the field.

Summary

The methodology and methods discussed in this chapter present a particular approach that draws on Bourdieu's concept of the 'logic' of the field. While the methodology and methods have been selected to construct, define and determine the sub-fields of educational development and learning technology, the integration of the theoretical, conceptual and thematic frameworks and the systematic and structured approach taken has been used to guide the analysis.

Chapter 4. Overview literature and key themes

Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the global, national and local factors concerning the emergence of educational developers and learning technologists as new professionals in UK higher education in the 1990s (Gornall, 1999; Beck, 1999). The chapter highlights public debate on the nature of change in higher education, the significance of the increased pace of technological change and the impact of new technology on policy and practice. It further discusses a key set of relationships for this thesis: that between research, practice and the use of new technology. Finally, it explores the nature of professional identity and the position of educational developers and learning technologists as new professionals within higher education.

The period covered by this thesis (from 1990 to the present) sits within a longer time frame of change in UK higher education (Deem, 2004). It is a period characterised worldwide by the massification of the higher education system, increasing impact of globalisation and internationalisation, increased competition between higher education institutions, application of new technologies, and the introduction of new modes of knowledge production and new forms of management practices (Scott, 1995; Clark, 1998; Gibbons, 1998; Bleiklie and Kogan, 2000; Becher and Trowler, 2001; Deem, 2006). Thus, Hanna refers to the start of the new millennium as a 'critical pressure point' where demand for learning combined with 'accelerating advances in digital communications and learning technologies' are challenging 'dominant assumptions and characteristics of existing traditionally organised universities in the 21st century' (Hanna, 1998, p. 66). Others likewise suggest that the crucial change for the university sector was the appearance and the coming together of different factors, most especially new technologies. Gibbons, for example, argues that collaboration between knowledge producers and the use of 'new information and communication technologies' were central to achieving a distributed knowledge production system (Gibbons, 1998, p. i). However, though new technologies were mostly seen as exciting, emancipatory and empowering, some viewed their introduction more critically, as mainly profit-driven and prioritising educational entrepreneurialism and the free market over academic learning (Slaughter and Rhoades, 2004).

The changing higher education landscape

As we have seen, the Robbins Report set the agenda for change in UK higher education in the 1960s by recommending the expansion of the university

sector. The Jarratt Report (1985) identified the need for universities to provide evidence of how public funds were being spent, thus setting an agenda of accountability. Reports followed focusing on academic standards (Reynolds, 1986), an expanded higher education system and the role for technology (MacFarlane, 1992), library provision (Follett, 1993), modularity and credit transfer schemes (Robertson, 1994) and the impact of programmes promoting the use of ICT in higher education (Atkins, 1998).

Towards the end of the 1990s in the UK, policy trends were set in motion that were to profoundly influence the purpose, shape, size, management and funding of higher education in the UK. Well into the millennium the main impetus for change came from the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (NCIHE, 1997, known as the Dearing Report, taking its name from its Chair). The Dearing Report approved of the fact that universities were working more closely with business and with economic policy, but called also for higher education institutions to widen participation and focus on the needs of students; in other words to 'harness the infrastructure, together with high quality materials and good management, to meet the needs of students and others' (NCIHE, 1997: 41. 67). In order to achieve this aim, Dearing suggested that senior management needed to be more creative, i.e. 'take an imaginative leap' in order to develop strategies which would bring about institutional change (ibid., 41. 66). It further identified a key role for higher education as sustaining a 'learning society' which necessitated, among other things, fundamental change in attitudes towards teaching (see sections 23 and 33 of the report below).

23. In the light of these national needs, we believe that the aim of higher education should be to sustain a learning society. The four main purposes which make up this aim are:

- to inspire and enable individuals to develop their capabilities to the highest potential levels throughout life, so that they grow intellectually, are well equipped for work, can contribute effectively to society and achieve personal fulfilment;
- to increase knowledge and understanding for their own sake and to foster their application to the benefit of the economy and society;
- to serve the needs of an adaptable, sustainable, knowledge-based economy at local, regional and national levels;
- to play a major role in shaping a democratic, civilised, inclusive society. (Ibid., Section 23)

33. There must, therefore, be a radical change in attitudes to teaching. (Ibid., Section 33)

Further Dearing drew attention to the importance of changing staff roles, new and more flexible working patterns and professional development. Thus the report emphasised the importance of universities developing both a management strategy and an ICT strategy, each responsive to the needs of staff, students and other institutional 'stakeholders'. Accordingly, professional development was seen as a critical factor and it was recommended that all institutions should 'review and update their staff development policies to ensure they address the changing roles of staff' (NCIHE, 1997: 47). The report aimed to set the scene for change and enhance development of strategies and initiatives at all levels of university practice.

Echoing Dearing, a 'landmark' speech made in 2000 by David Blunkett (2000, section 8-12), then Secretary of State for Education and Employment in the UK, asserted that universities were to be 'the powerhouses of the new global economy'. The 'Greenwich Speech', as it became known, was a landmark speech because it provided the most comprehensive view yet of higher education in the process of change, and it also highlighted the relationship between globalisation, higher education and the knowledge economy (Clegg, Hudson, and Steel, 2003). The minister drew attention to the significant changes that technological progress and competition within higher education would bring, and sought to link universities to 'innovation and ideas, skills and knowledge'. Crucially, higher education was to be re-positioned at the centre of these developments and 'at the heart of the productive capacity of the new economy'. Other politicised discourses surrounding higher education at the time, for example the Bologna Declaration (1999), set a similar social, cultural and scientific agenda for higher education across Europe. Expectations were high in terms, for example, of 'the arrival of the knowledge economy' and learning as 'big business'. Indeed Blunkett argued that the 'shape, structure and purposes of higher education' were 'undergoing transformational change' not only in the UK and Europe but across the world (Blunkett, 2000).

The importance of knowledge growth, knowledge exchange and innovation is further highlighted in the European context by the European Commission and its creation of the European Institute of Technology (EIT), (now named European Institute of Innovation and Technology), which is to be responsible both for inspiring change in existing institutions and for offering the private sector a new integral relationship with higher education and research (EIT, 2007). Barroso, (2005, p. 3) the president of the European Commission, identifies in particular 'education, research and innovation as the engines for sustainable growth' and the EIT, through its networks, as tearing down 'the walls between research, education and business' and unlocking Europe's potential for innovation (Barroso, 2006, in: Communiqués De Press).

Similarly, Richard Straub (2006), Chairman of the European eLearning Industry Group, strongly represents the interests of the business sector by welcoming opportunities for social and business innovation such as new business and pedagogical models and by interpreting the repercussions of globalisation on higher education as challenges based on increased competition made possible by new technologies. Straub thus advocates the use of learning technologies to transcend traditional ways of learning and for European educational institutions to be open and to collaborate in a jointly-managed ICT infrastructure. Cost efficiency is another advantage of the new technologies cited by Straub.

The growth of new technologies continues to be viewed both nationally and globally as vital in collaborative and competitive interchanges that have been emerging between universities and the knowledge society. Meanwhile, as financial pressures on universities have increased and university funding models have changed, new technologies have been 'harnessed' to position universities in the knowledge economy.

However, universities faced tensions and contradictions in what they were being asked to do, i.e. respond to local needs and at the same time attract international students, collaborate and at the same time compete in the global economy, be more open at the same time as more aggressively competitive, and contribute to knowledge production at the same time as being asked to commodify, market and disseminate knowledge. International competition, the tightening of relationships between governments and multinational companies and the creation of new environments for university research were interpreted either as creative in terms of new opportunities available or as disruptions to existing academic life. Clark (2000, p. 12) argued for example that globalisation and 'knowledge growth' is 'the most troubling trend' which profoundly affects the nature of university work.

The globalization of knowledge propels its growth at an accelerating pace, rattling universities to their very foundations. [...] Assaulted by knowledge differentiation, "renaissance" scholars – broad in their command of scholarship – are becoming an endangered species. Entire universities and departments cannot keep up ... curricular uncertainty is becoming a way of life. (ibid.)

Thus, higher education world-wide is currently being shaped by a stream of political and economic agendas and travelling policies, with new technologies playing an increasingly important role in binding them together.

Moves towards operational competence

Emphasis on the knowledge economy and business models for higher education in the UK was accompanied by shifts of power in terms of management and 'operational competence'. The latter is interpreted as an acceptance of the situation as it is whilst seeking to produce more effective operations within it (Barnett, 1997; Becher and Trowler, 2001). This section highlights the impact of such shifts in terms of the value, nature and purpose of university work.

Fairclough (1995) points to the cultural consequences of knowledge commodification and commercialisation and their negative impact on the social reconstruction of universities (see also Coaldrake and Stedman, 1999; Henkel, 2002, 2007). Similarly Becher and Trowler (2001) are critical of the increased presence of competition and the orientation towards client and market needs. Ramsden (2003, p. 4) suggests that it signals a fundamental shift in values, and that the intrinsic values of university learning and scholarship are being compromised by pressures on higher education. While Henkel (2002, p. 29) contends that there remains a commitment to academic values even if universities 'like commercial organisations' are having to find their way in global, regional and local markets.

One aspect of this package of changes is the forms of public management introduced into higher education including increased emphasis on public accountability, finance and academic performance (Becher and Trowler, 2001; Deem, 2004). Thus corporate strategies emphasise devolution of responsibility to departments or units at the same time as mechanisms are sharpened to assure centralised control and increased accountability. Such changes in management practices are thus interpreted as prioritising operational competence. Such moves it is argued affect core values, power relations and discourse and signify a 'slide to performativity' (Barnett, 2000a). Ball (2003, p. 215) defines performativity as a 'new mode of state regulation' which requires 'individual practitioners to organize themselves as a response to targets, indicators and evaluations'. It is a phenomenon that can be seen, for example, in the use of league tables and various types of 'inspection' and as a 'new currency of judgement' (Ball, 2005, p. 18).

New technologies: implicated in the struggle

A central argument of this thesis is that the impact of the new technologies on higher education has been seismic with academic practice increasingly influenced by policies involving technological trends for example 'e-learning' (DfES, 2003a; de Freitas and Oliver, 2005). This section highlights the impact of new technologies on higher education policy and provides a critical overview of the debate and tensions thus generated.

The cost of the introduction of technology has been a concern for university budget managers for some time and increasingly so recently with its association with new business models and cost savings. Recommendations for 'an industrial model' for the 'development and implementation' of new technology in education were made as early as the mid-1990s, as we shall see in chapter five, (National Council for Educational Technology, 1994, p. 5). Only a few years later, claims were made that technology could transform education at a global level and represented a 'paradigm shift' in thinking about higher education (Gibbons, 1998; Wiley, 2000).

Thus the Dearing Report, as already noted, identified communication and information technology as central to improving the quality and flexibility of higher education and its management, and also suggested 'scope for a reduction in costs' (NCIHE, 1997: 36. 65). Accordingly, the Report urged higher education institutions in the UK to establish 'overarching communications and information strategies' by the end of the 1990s (NCIHE, 1997: 41). At about the same time, other national and European-funded programmes were initiated to encourage the use of information and communication technology both to enhance learning and to increase collaboration between educational institutions. For example in the UK the Teaching and Learning Technology Programme (TLTP, 1992-2000) encouraged higher education institutions to collaborate on the production and use of electronic resources, whilst in Europe, the Socrates programme supported a number of collaborative projects in teacher education and the Leonardo da Vinci programme promoted vocational training and collaboration in IT across different sectors (see also chapter five). Many of these pioneering (experimental or, in terms of current discourse, innovative) projects explored the potential of new technologies to support teaching, learning and communication, with their success being largely dependent on the creativity of enthusiastic participants (Taylor, 1998).

By the start of the millennium, however, the development of new technologies and communication and information strategies in UK higher education seemed driven less by the curiosity and creativity of teachers and more by 'neo-managerialism' (Clegg, Hudson, and Steel, 2003) and the heavy steering of initiatives. This was interpreted by Becher and Trowler:

...steering at a distance through devolution of responsibility within strict parameters, carefully monitoring staff and cost centre outcomes and control through fostering internal competition.

(Becher and Trowler, 2001, p. 10)

Becher and Trowler further suggest that such steering requires a highly centralised approach which involves 'the development of corporate strategies, strong central management teams, a proliferation of cross-institutional support, units concerned with quality assurance, teaching and learning, staff development and so on' (ibid., p. 11). This view is also reflected in Clark's (1998) notion of the 'entrepreneurial university' which emphasises the transformation of universities through university units working together to bring about change.

Thus, compelled to adopt new business models and information and communication technologies, universities began to utilise the potential of technology not only to explore its use to support teaching and learning but to enhance business imperatives (or ventures) and operational activity. Indeed, e-learning was assumed to be 'an essential element in delivering higher education efficiently and effectively to a diverse, mass audience' (Conole, et al. 2007, p. 70). Institutions moved to position themselves as deliverers of 'e-learning' – a term currently sitting alongside other concepts such as 'technology-enhanced learning' (TEL). Indeed 'open and flexible learning', 'distance education', 'blended learning' and 'mobile learning' are all terms associated with the use of technologies in higher education. However, while such concepts emerged and were largely embraced, and as each new wave of technology was introduced and 'hyped', cautionary arguments often went unnoticed (Ely and Plomp, 1986). Thus, little time has been left for critical reflection which has resulted often in 'uncritical acceptance' of technological solutions and insufficient exploration of fundamental questions of purpose (Clegg, Hudson, and Steel 2003, p. 48)

With the introduction of Virtual Learning Environments (VLEs) and Learning Management Systems (LMSs), there was a perception that information technology would streamline labour-intensive university procedures such as registration, course delivery and the tracking of students on courses. This perception enhanced institutional and administrative agendas and contributed to the increasing treatment of university practice as a commodity that can be bought and sold, i.e. commodified. Indeed, Oliver, et al. (2007, p. 36) argue that 'technology is thoroughly implicated in the commodification of knowledge', including the treatment of the student as customer and the production of 'learning objects' in the form of deliverable 'chunks of learning' (Williams, 2004, p. 305). Williams describes learning objects as 'the commodities of e-learning' which provide 'a new and efficient common currency for teaching and learning' (ibid.). Wiley (2000) is more positive, associating learning objects with 'reusability', 'generativity', 'adaptability' and 'scalability', and having implications for 'the way materials are designed, developed and delivered' (ibid. p.3). Thus, the discourse

on reusable learning objects (RLOs) (a term which has many definitions but essentially means easy access to digital learning resources) is part of the wider marketisation of higher education which aims to re-define the work of academics within a highly politicised process (Oliver, 2005; Land, 2006).

If new technologies in higher education are designed primarily to enhance consumerism, 'scaleability', and knowledge as a commodity, this will necessarily move universities further in the direction of performativity and technocentric dominance. However, as we have seen, new technologies have also been viewed as enhancing accessibility to learning opportunities and open educational resources and expanding the possibility of connectivity (Naeve, et al., 2005; Daniel, et al., 2006). Concern to establish norms of performance and assessment has sought to homogenise quality, compatibility, and transferability in higher education, through development of a range of academic and open technological standards. In the latter instance, these have included open source and open international ICT standards (Naeve, et al., 2005), Quality Assurance Standards in the UK (QAA) and the harmonisation of higher education qualifications across Europe through the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS). However, aspirations for wider access, greater flexibility and transferability, and different perceptions of standardisation and quality assurance have generated tensions too; for example, between standardisation perceived primarily as regulatory and therefore concerned with establishing limitations and norms and standards viewed primarily as providing a uniformity that allows for wider access and greater flexibility.

Thus, Daniel, et al. (2006) in discussing the global profile of higher education interpret increased access to education through e-learning as benefiting millions world wide, particularly in developing countries, while others point to the dangers of consumer-led commodified systems of learning. Naidoo (2005), for example, is critical of consumer-led approaches because they encourage, among other things, superficial learning by:

...transforming learning into a process of selecting, consuming and reproducing an unconnected series of short, neatly packaged bytes of information. More importantly the learning dispositions inculcated may encourage surface rather than deep processing (Ramsden, 1998) and hinder the development of higher-order skills required for autonomous learning and lifelong learning.

(Ibid., p. 32)

This offers a contrast to the perception that technology can stimulate development of skills in analysis, reasoning, and critical judgements (Newman, et al., 2004).

In summary, the literature suggests that new technology in universities is political in the sense that it has become increasingly associated with powerful business and commercial agendas. Later, we shall examine how this association, as well as the affordances or benefits offered to teaching and learning, have introduced challenges and tensions to the work of university educators. It is suggested that discourses such as those generated by new managerialism generate moments of struggle, particularly in relation to academic freedom, which have implications for how educational developers and learning technologists function and feel about their work.

New professionals: new scholarship

The relationship between research and practice has been described as the 'nexus' that underpins every aspect of university life (Brew, 2003a; 2003b). Engaging in scholarship is one way of bringing research and practice together and at the same time responding to changes in contemporary society (Boyer, 1990; Schön, 1995; Brew, 1999; Andresen, 2000b; Elton, 2005). This section explores the relationship between research and practice, and the various discourses related to new scholarship.

New forms of scholarship have been an important aspect of the work of educational developers and central to debate regarding teaching and learning in the changing university (Boyer, 1990; Trigwell, et al., 2000; Andresen, 2000b; Elton, 2001; Macdonald, 2003; Shulman, 2005; Huber and Hutchings, 2005). Thus, it is argued that new forms of scholarship are adopted by new professionals.

The concept of scholarship has been largely associated with technical rationality and efforts involved in the creation and testing of scientific knowledge in the modern research university (Schön, 1996). However, what has become known as 'new scholarship' is most commonly associated with strengthening the relationship between research and academic practice through new forms of reflective action research (*ibid.*). The shift in higher education from an elite education to a mass education system has prompted a variety of creative approaches to scholarship. For example, in the early 1990s in the USA, as we have seen, Boyer stimulated debate regarding new ideas about scholarship and its changed role in contemporary higher education (Boyer, 1990). Boyer's view was that university education needed to change to reflect a more diverse contemporary society. Thus, as universities in the USA struggled to meet those demands Boyer broadened the view of scholarship, mainly by applying it to interactions between student and teacher and by reflecting on the relationship between research and academic practices more broadly.

Boyer coined the term 'new scholarship' in his seminal text *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate*, to signify the broadening of the conventional definition of scholarship which was seen as too narrow and abstract (Campbell, 1991). Boyer raised these concerns at a time when higher education in the USA was expanding, though contradictorily the 'faculty reward system narrowed' to reward traditional subject-based research (Boyer, 1990, p. xi). Colleges, universities, teaching staff and inevitably students, were caught between these competing trends. Thus, Boyer's scholarships were developed to encourage a shift in perceptions about university teaching away from the prior research-led elite system to a practice-led mass system of higher education. This was also a time of diminishing financial resource, so by reconsidering the meaning of scholarship Boyer took the opportunity to campaign for a university education which would meet the needs of contemporary society. Boyer's four new 'scholarships': of *integration, discovery, application and teaching* were evaluated as 'thoughtful and thought-provoking' approaches to addressing concerns about university practices and the role of the teacher, in particular in the USA (Campbell, 1991). Boyer thus identifies a broad diversity of functions that universities perform and in so doing, considers also the role of the teacher, quality of teaching, the relationship between teaching and research, staff time and professional recognition.

Others also focused on the relationship between scholarship, personal development and collective professional improvement. For example, Schön (1995) draws on action research methodologies to introduce an epistemology of reflective practice to institutions of higher education 'dominated by technical rationality'. Andresen (2000b) likewise interprets scholarship as teaching which emphasises critical reflectivity, peer scrutiny and inquiry. Elton (2005) meanwhile sees scholarship as learning in research mode and as a means to develop critical understanding of the teaching and learning process. However, Kinchin, et al. (2008) question the impact that the scholarship of teaching and learning has had on making pedagogical practice more visible. The need to encourage more critique is a further point made by Kreber.

...the academy needs to begin to ask more critical questions if the scholarship for teaching movement is to have a lasting, positive and practical impact on our colleges and universities, as well as on the wider society.
(Kreber, 2005, p. 391)

We shall see as we progress through this thesis that while scholarship features in the discourses of new professionals there remains much debate

surrounding the relationship of research to scholarship and notions such as new scholarship and scholarly activity (Schön, 1995; Brew, 1999; Andresen, 2000b; Elton, 2001; Diamond, 2002; Kreber, 2005; Savage and Betts, 2005; Kinchin, et al., 2008).

New knowledge: learning technologies, gaps and division

Learning technologies have been pervasive in academic practice though are often seen as the exclusive domain of learning technology specialists. This contradiction has fostered differing attitudes and approaches to critical engagement with new technology in higher education as we shall see in this section.

We have already seen that policy advisers and academics have drawn attention to the impact of technology on education and society in general since the 1990s, highlighting in particular the need for effective technologies in higher education (Laurillard, 1993; Daniel, 1996; NCIHE, 1997; Hanna, 1998; Gibbons, 1998). The blurring of boundaries between research, teaching and technology was proposed by John Daniel (1996) as Vice-Chancellor of the Open University in the mid-1990s. The emphasis on research, teaching and technology reflects the Open University's primary concern with distance learning and the use of information and communication technologies to support university teaching and learning. Daniel stressed the importance of scholarship, intellectual challenge and research activity in developing approaches to learning and teaching which use new technologies. Rapid technological innovation in the 1990s further prompted debate on the importance of research into new technologies for teaching and learning. For example, Shephard (2004) stressed the concerns of university teachers regarding pressure to use ICT in advance of both adequate research on the pedagogies needed, and appropriate support for development. Land and Bayne identified 'a new media' age as provoking research into different pedagogical cultures:

The technological paradigm shift with which we are engaged – viewed by many as heralding a new media age – is prompting us to reconsider the very basis upon which we understand how pedagogical cultures operate within institutions of higher education.

(Land and Bayne, 2005, p. 1)

More recently, Oliver, et al. (2007) emphasise the increasing importance of the nexus between knowledge, technology and society, and Conole and Oliver (2007) argue for a more sophisticated account of the relationship between technology and change.

However, it remains difficult to find research or debate that critically examines the ubiquity and impact of new technologies on university practice. Indeed Selwyn argues that the literature all too often fails to engage with the wider socio-cultural concerns.

Thus educational technology remains a marginalised area of educational studies – discussed for the most part in its ‘own’ publications, by its ‘own’ proponents, on its ‘own’ terms.

(Selwyn, 2006, p. 417)

If this assertion is valid, questions concerning the underlying motivations for such marginalisation might be asked, particularly as one might expect everyone involved to agree with Land (2004, p. 7) that ‘the growing role of educational development in higher education has to be set against the continuously dynamic state of technological development’. Indeed the first edition of Laurillard’s (1993) book, *Rethinking University Teaching: A Framework for the Effective Use of Educational Technology* had much to say on the broader impact of new technology on university practice. However, more recently, while Naidoo (2005) raises critical questions about ‘commodified’ and consumer-led approaches to university education in Barnett’s (2005), *Reshaping the University: New Relationships between Research, Scholarship and Teaching*, it could be argued that authors of other chapters mention technology but do not engage fully with challenges that come from the combined influences of globalisation, university massification, the ‘learning economy’ and the use of new technologies. (see Scott, in: Barnett, 2005, p. 62; Macfarlane, in: Barnett, 2005, p. 174; Peters and Olssen, in: Barnett, 2005., p. 41). Similarly in the USA Huber and Hutchings (2005) also ignore the impact of new technologies on the daily life of university staff in their discussion of the place of scholarship, teaching and learning in higher education. Thus, whilst they refer to a ‘burgeoning interest in technology’ they do not engage with the implications for university practice, only going so far as to signal a divide between ‘technology people’ and ‘most academics’ (ibid, p. 100).

Others, however, have engaged more assertively and positively with how new technologies are used in everyday university practice, for example, by adopting an integrated or multi-disciplinary approach and/or involving colleagues across different communities of practice. For example, Fraser (2005) explores relationships between educational development and decision-making about IT infrastructure in modern universities (see McNaught, in: Fraser, 2005, p. 108). Similarly, Land and Bayne’s (2005) collection, *Education in Cyberspace*, draws on different theoretical perspectives to explore

wide-ranging and meaningful ways of theorising the contexts and cultures of higher education and new technologies. Their argument is that whilst there is an abundance of literature focusing on technical and operational issues, relatively little exists on the broader social and cultural contexts within which new technologies for learning are placed.

However, it is important to draw attention to the wide range of journals in which research on teaching and learning and the use of new technologies is published.⁶ Such a broad range of well established journals suggests that many practitioners from different subjects and disciplines have been researching on teaching and learning and new technologies in a wide range of socio-cultural contexts over a considerable period of time. Furthermore, conferences have also provided a platform for university researchers and practitioners to share their observations relating to new technology. Nevertheless as we shall see, different professional groupings tend to restrict themselves to particular sets of publications, conferences and professional associations, a social phenomenon that contributes to the marginalisation of groups and communities mentioned by Selwyn at the start of this section.

There is also evidence that tensions and divisions are being exacerbated further by differing perceptions of research and scholarship, and continuing struggles over epistemology; evident in dismissive and pejorative views of previous work such as a 'plethora of crude ideas about its potential' (Pelletier, 2005, p. 11). Such a perspective could be interpreted as elitist which sets itself apart from the majority of practitioners.

New professionals: autonomy or control?

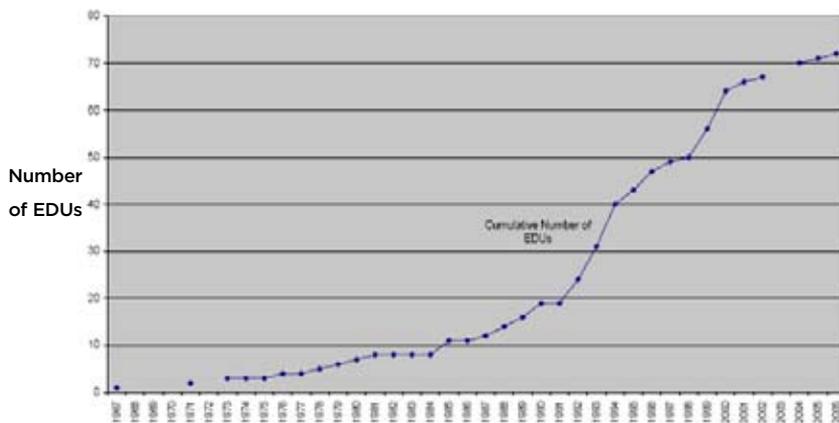
We have seen that technological innovation and technological change have gathered pace over the time-frame of this thesis. Barnett (2003, p. 38) describes present life in universities as 'turbulent and uncertain' and that over time the effects of external pressures have introduced 'a particularly intractable set of challenges'. Daniel, et al. (2006) refer to a 'tectonic shift in higher education'. This symbolism implies formidable disruptive movement over a short period of time. Moreover, such 'formidable' change is inextricably linked it seems, to the emergence of new forms of professionalism. This section highlights the emergence of new forms of professionalism in universities and of educational developers and learning technologists in particular.

⁶ For example, British Journal of Educational Technology; Journal of Computer Assisted Learning; Association for Learning Technologies Journal; Learning Media and Technology; Distance Education; Technology, Pedagogy and Education. See also the wide range of journals listed at TLRP/TEL website <http://www.tlrp.org/tel/journals/>.

The parallel emphasis on strategies to support more students from diverse backgrounds, and the interest in the use of information and communication technologies to support different approaches to learning, in turn, sought different skills on the part of university tutors. As a result tutors adopted ‘new’ hybrid roles which included the manager-academic. Such roles, reflected the decline of the traditional academic and the emergence of ‘efficient’ management derived from the private sector (Deem, 2004, 2006) as well as the ‘information professional’ working at the intersection of digital infrastructures and services (Cox, 2007).

Universities thus appointed a range of new professionals to provide support for tutors, and to develop practices to support changes to the curriculum, teaching and in respect of the rapid advancement of information and communication technologies (ICT). Thus, ‘educational development units’, were created in centralised bases in which new professionals such as educational developers and learning technologists grouped together to devise new ways of supporting teaching and learning. Such centres proliferated in UK universities from the late 1990s onwards. Figure 2 below shows the rise in number of educational development units (EDUs) over a period of forty years.

Fig. 2. Cumulative number of EDUs since 1967 (Gosling, 2008, p. 9)



Interestingly, in the 1960s educational development units were frequently the outcome of ‘the work of individual enthusiasts’ who were interested in incorporating audio and visual units (Gosling, 2008, p. 13). This suggests that educational development units (and perhaps new professionals as a category) initially emerged from the enthusiasm of ‘old professionals’ rather than, as later happened, being ‘formed’ through government or institutional directives.

As might be expected, conceptions differed about what it means to be a new professional in UK higher education. Gornall implies that new professional was a peripheral category, in so far as it was applied to those whose primary concern is to develop support for teaching and learning.

...an emergent new group, associated with the support of teaching and learning, who are neither wholly lecturing nor technical nor support staff, and indeed who may not have had any of the , 'traditional' backgrounds at all. In the educational cosmology, this makes them 'other'... (Gornall, 1999, p. 45)

Beck, on the other hand, frames the work of new professionals more in political terms, seeing their 'formation' as the outcome primarily of marketisation.

The neo-liberal technologies of institutional control and accountability are identified as the key mechanisms which now increasingly subordinate education to the economic imperatives of the latest phase of globalised, 'post-industrial' capitalism. [...] This is achieved through a formidable combination of indirect 'market' controls (competition for funding, clients, research contracts, etc.) and direct controls (highly prescriptive government criteria, inspection regimes, appraisal regimes, as well as—and crucially—a restructuring of the 'formation' of the new 'professionals' who will service the needs of these re-formed institutions).

(Beck, 1999, p. 227)

Snoek, et al., (2009, p. 3) suggest new professionals in fact lack 'full' professionalism. Rather, new professionalism refers to 'various kinds of occupations that cannot be regarded as true professionals in the classic sense...' such as teacher educators. Drawing on a study of policy documents concerning the professionalism of teacher educators, they identify characteristics associated with being a new professional which include:

- discourses concerning improvements in the quality of work and stronger emphasis on output requirements initiated by government
- movement away from the traditional professional authority and autonomy towards new forms of relationships and collaboration
- greater levels of accountability
- emphasis on improvement and innovation of work
- lack of a well-defined body of knowledge, i.e. a knowledge base mainly the result of experience and reflection, rather than formal or academic

- increased attention on professional development
- implementation of standards describing competences and qualifications. (adapted from Snoek, et al., 2009, p. 4)

Following similar lines of argument Ball favours the concept ‘post-professional’ to argue that the new professional or the ‘reformed teacher’ is characterised by her/his compliance to adapt to institutional imperatives. Thus:

the ‘post-professional’ is conceived of as simply responsive to external requirements and specified targets, armed with formulaic methods – ‘what works’ – suited to every eventuality. Their ‘professionalism’ inheres in the willingness and ability to adapt to the necessities and vicissitudes of policy. (Ball, 2005, p. 20)

If, then, the identity of old professionals was shaped by concepts of autonomy, privileged social status and knowledge base, following Beck, Snoek, et al., and Ball, new professionals are faced with target setting, accountability and the commodification of knowledge of the ‘post-modern’ university which has meant an erosion of their autonomy and status and the fuelling of a crisis of identity. This is what Ball (2005, p. 26) describes as ‘a process of social transformation’. Interestingly, this sense of breakdown and erosion of autonomy and identity was alluded to by Schön (1967) in the mid-1960s when exploring the effects of technological change of the time at different levels of US society. Thus it seems that what is most important is the *process* of technological change rather than its specificity or temporality. Both old and new professions constitute a space of competition and struggle between different forces of power in the university and within a context of technological change. Thus, as we have seen, Bourdieu replaces the concept of profession with that of ‘field’, which he posits as a structured space in which agents struggle over position and resources (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992).

Complexity, uncertain roles and relationships

There is considerable uncertainty surrounding the specifics of new professionalism i.e. what it means to be a learning technologist and educational developer (Oliver, 2003; Land, 2004). Indeed practices are diverse, positioning is volatile and role is little understood. Prominent in the discourse and the literature associated with the two groupings, however, are notions of community, values and concerns about specificity of field and discipline. This section highlights the shared understandings as well as the complexity and confusion associated with these two groups of new professionals.

In particular, uncertainty has been generated by the distinctions made between educational developers and learning technologists and their roles in supporting academic practice and the use of new technologies for teaching and learning. There is further uncertainty about the identity of each as a distinct field, community and discipline, even though, as we shall see later, the work of both is interlinked and has common characteristics.

A report on the career development of learning technology staff in UK higher education (Beetham, et al., 2001) identified 'educational developers' and 'learning technologists' (amongst others) as 'new specialists' though with 'merging roles' which posited the 'archetypal learning technologist' as 'an educational developer with a learning technology specialism' (ibid., p. 4). It also suggested that 'educational developers' had a critical role to play in supporting 'new specialists' and that they 'must also ensure that they acquire skills in learning technology' (ibid.). Thus there seems to be a difficulty in distinguishing the role of the educational developer from learning technologist.

Echoing the perception of merging roles, the findings of a study of new professionals in Australasia similarly suggest lack of clarity about nomenclature.

Interviewees chose a wide range of different terms to describe their role. Institutional reasons often underpinned their choices. Some reported that they chose different descriptors at different times, depending on their audience... 'instructional designer', 'academic staff developer' and 'professional developer' were also used.

(Fraser, 2001, p. 56)

Moreover 'academic development' and 'educational development' are frequently used interchangeably. This is exemplified in the rationale provided by the *International Journal for Academic Development* (2007) for its existence to:

...enable educational developers in higher education across the world to exchange ideas about practice and extend the theory of educational development, with the goal of improving the quality of higher education internationally. (Ibid.)

Similarly for SEDA's Professional Development Award, two of which are *Leading Staff and Educational Development* and *Leading and Developing Academic Practice*; the outcomes of both relate to supporting strategy and policy. The main differences are that educational development emphasises-

es development processes, such as planning and monitoring, identifying goals, methods and evaluating strategies; whilst academic practice focuses on matters of quality, the student experience, 'educational experiences in core discipline(s)...', scholarship, pedagogy and practices of dissemination (SEDA, 2005).

A recent book on the history of academic development in Australia suggests that a change in terminology took place there in the 1980s replacing educational development with academic development as the 'enterprise increased' and as the status of the units grew (Lee, et al., 2008). In the UK Gosling interprets the various names of educational development units as reflecting 'different emphasis and different fashions':

In the 1980s there were several teaching or learning 'methods units' [...]. Today there are none (known to the author). In 1995, 13 out of the 23 units included 'educational development' within their title, compared to only 9 out of 43 in the 2006 sample, whereas 'learning and teaching' features in the name of 17 units... [...] 'Enhancement' rather than 'development' has come to be used more recently (seven units referred to Quality Enhancement in their name).
(Gosling, 2008, p. 9)

Land (2004) acknowledges the need for recognition of the new groups of professionals, despite the tensions that professionalisation are likely to bring, in the sense that professional entry may be regulatory and stifling rather than affording status and autonomy. Furthermore, educational developers and learning technologists often share a feeling of vulnerability in their perception of their positioning as peripheral to more mature professional fields and subject disciplines such as the natural or social sciences. Thus Land highlights the struggle and risk of hostility involved in seeking to establish fields that are clearly hybrid and/or overlap with long-standing disciplines.

The craving of recognition, of academic respectability is something that has long exercised the reflections of educational developers. But the colonization or assimilation of existing disciplinary ground by a new field can prove counter-productive. (Ibid., p. 196)

In the case of learning technologists, Jones (CMALT, 2006) asserts the need for 'a proper home for our strange new breed' while Oliver (2002) argues for a better understanding of new professionals and the issues that have been raised for education:

The emergence of the 'new professionals' raises a number of issues for those working in higher education. Not least amongst these is the importance of learning about how and why these varied groups work, in order to understand how their practices have developed to suit the current nature of institutions in the sector.

(Ibid., p. 251)

There is also uncertainty about future status and relationships. For example, Oliver argues for more research on how the work of learning technologists complements that of educational developers while Land identifies learning technologists as generating 'major sites of turbulence within the future direction and growth of the educational development community' (2004, pp. 195-96). However, whilst the relationship between educational development and learning technology is to some extent unstable, development of a distinctive culture which reflects the values, disposition, capital and practices of a community (whether educational developer or learning technologist) is an important social dimension in establishing structural and disciplinary coherence and permanence (Becher and Trowler, 2001).

One cohering concept is that of 'community of practice' which has become an accepted part of the discourse of organisational development and social learning in recent years, particularly in terms of developing and sharing knowledge (Wenger, 1998a, 1998b, 2000; Brown and Duguid, 1991, 2001). Wenger characterises communities of practice as informally bound by a shared passion or concern for something, where learning takes place through mutual and regular engagement in activity. Thus, a community of practice is defined by its focus, how it functions and what capability it produces. In this respect, communities of practice, formed within different social fields, develop localised vocabularies, methods and concepts and create their own social and cultural capital. Communities of practice are also dynamic as they move through development stages, engage in different types of activity and interact at different levels (Lave and Wenger, 1991). Wenger argues that participation in such communities is essential to effective learning. However others are less enthusiastic about what community participation can achieve. For example, Kogan (2000) argues that the assertion of individual identity comes through negotiation and exchange, and not by the assumed sharing of values associated with community. Similarly Levin (1998, p. 139) emphasises the importance of context and warns of the 'unthinking copying of others', particularly on matters of reform and policy.

Whilst both new professional groupings view their work as interdisciplinary, educational developers are more likely to see themselves as a distinct 'community of practice' working alongside other academic communities

(Brew, 2003b; Taylor, 2005), while learning technologists tend to identify as part of a 'constellation of practice consisting of multiple communities' (Oliver, 2003).

Later chapters of this thesis explore the similarities and differences, and tensions and struggles both between and within the two groups and also in relation to the broader field of new professionalism and academic practice, as units and practitioners are frequently subject to 'rapid and alarming' organisational change (Gosling, 2008, p. 27).

Summary

This chapter has sought to show the nature of reform-driven agendas in higher education where the goals of political, economic and technological advancement have created a platform for the emergence of new professionals, the principle activities of which have involved supporting colleagues in their academic and pedagogical work and encouraging educational change. Particular attention has been paid to the increasing importance of new technologies in university work and the challenges associated with technological change. In addition attention has been drawn to debates regarding contradictions in higher education values, principles and practices (e.g. teaching and learning as opposed to the commodification of teaching and learning) and the notion of a new scholarship for new pedagogies. Tensions, division, fragmentation and uncertainty are continuing features of new professionalism, in particular regarding single discipline or multi-discipline approaches to work, views of knowledge, professional identity, and notions of community. All of these themes are taken up in more detail in later chapters.

Chapter 5. Professional autobiographical narrative: insights into the practices of a new professional

Introduction

This chapter provides a professional autobiographical narrative in the sense that it aims to capture and frame the impact of habitus, change and reform on individual professional identity and practice. It tells a story of roles, practices and relationships in a professional journey and of the struggles of a new professional caught between changing regimes and shifting cultures. The story is told from a particular point of view: that of a teacher working with 'new practices' and new technologies in higher education. In this respect the narrative first pinpoints events that impacted on my journey through formal education in the UK and second identifies events associated with the emergence of new professional roles and advisory, quality and implementation units in higher education in the UK.

The narrative has three parts. Part one considers early school experiences, route into teaching and early career path. Part two focuses on experience of working in one UK University. Part three reflects on key issues, which are significant in terms of impact on professional career, and provides a general analytical discussion of what the narrative has revealed.

Part two in particular provides considerable detail about events because specificity and location is an important aspect of social analysis⁷ where the 'most decisive choices (of topic, method, theory, etc.) depend very closely on the *location* she (or he) [the individual] occupies within her professional universe'.⁸

As noted in chapter three, writing such a chapter includes ethical implications, such as the fact that my perceptions of events will differ from others, it may seem that there are omissions that others may feel are important or that it may seem a simplified version of complex events.

⁷ Reed-Danahay (2005)

⁸ Bourdieu refers to 'the "anthropological field" with its national traditions and peculiarities, its habits of thought, its mandatory problematic, its shared beliefs and commonplaces, its rituals, values, and consecrations, its constraints in matters of publication and findings, its specific censorship, and by the same token, the biases embedded in the organizational structure of the discipline, that is, in the collective history of specialist, and all the unconscious presuppositions built into the (national) categories of scholarly understanding'. (Bourdieu, 2003, p. 283)

As mentioned earlier, the study is based on a commitment to ensure that any research carried out is guided by commonly agreed international standards of good practice. I have therefore tried as much as possible to protect the individuals involved by anonymising names and titles (see chapter three). Thus, this autobiographical narrative should be understood as a reflexive exploration of habitus, capital and positioning within the field rather than as a case study, whether of an individual or organisation.

Whilst the aim has been to describe organisational settings, movement and position as accurately as possible, where diagrams are used to illustrate specific organisational changes to structures and relationships they should be treated as conceptual tools rather than accurate representations of reality.

Extensive footnotes are used throughout this chapter both to frame a story within the literature of the time and to locate reflection and discussion socially and culturally.

Part I. Early influences

Between the ages of five and eleven, that is in the late 1950s and early 1960s, I was educated in a primary school in a pleasant working-class area of Carlisle, in the North of England. As an only child, I have strong recollection of early friendships and childhood adventures but only the vaguest memories of my initial schooling. However, sports activities formed a large part of my early school memories: running every day up and down the hill from my house to the school, always as fast as I could; being captain of the school netball team; and falling from the gymnasium ropes, an accident which, as we shall see, had serious consequences.

I also recall in my final year at primary school, at the age of 11, being seated in the classroom according to my position in the end-of-term test, a situation about which I had mixed feelings. I clearly visualise the divided and stratified classroom with the 'top boy' at the front on the right and the 'top girl' at the front on the left and my own position and the positions of my other school mates somewhere in the middle. I remember being terrified by the thought that I might do badly in the tests and be placed at the back of the classroom. I also recall that the status afforded by the seating positions was not discussed in the playground, although we all 'knew' who was in front of us and who was behind. My sense now is that a form of symbolic violence was employed to convey messages of social order, a concept of Bourdieu's to which I return later in this chapter. I was much more interested in sport than my school work so I felt that I could just about accept being thus categorised and ordered. However the image of the large

primary school classroom and my emotions regarding the seating experience remain vivid.⁹

During my final year at primary school I fell from the gymnasium ropes and my formal education was interrupted by a serious injury to my hip. The treatment used to remedy the injury was ‘traction’ which meant that I had to lie flat attached to a traction machine. When it became clear that the treatment would take a long period of time I was dispatched from the city hospital in an ambulance on what seemed like a very long journey to a long-stay children’s hospital, a converted ‘stately’¹⁰ home on the banks of Lake Windermere. This was a beautiful location but impossible for my parents to reach by public transport and even difficult to access by car. In addition, formal education in such institutions was under-developed, as it was in my case. Although my parents came to see me every weekend, I felt isolated from my family and from my friends. I also lost a year of education. Consequently, when I recovered and rejoined the schooling system I was a year behind my original peer group, albeit with a strong ambition to catch up. At the time I felt anger and frustration about the injustice of it all, and later came to appreciate the enormous emotional strain the accident and its aftermath had placed on my parents.

Shortly after leaving the hospital, I sat (and passed) the compulsory ‘eleven-plus’¹¹ examination (known as the scholarship) and started my secondary school education at the Carlisle and County High School for Girls. Here the curriculum was similar to that of the local boys’ grammar schools, in that it emphasised both academic attainment and sport. I regained my strength relatively quickly, and was soon spending my lunchtimes, evenings and Saturdays playing team sports. By the end of the first year I was a member of the netball team and I soon represented the school in the full range of

⁹ Bourdieu claims that habitus is formed firstly by family and then by schooling. (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 133, n. 87)

¹⁰ Stately homes were originally built and owned by the aristocracy. Often when the family could no longer afford the upkeep, they were ‘left to the nation’. In this case, the Georgian mansion was first converted into a hospital for wounded officers at the outbreak of the World War 1; in the 1970s it became a convalescence home for sick children and is now converted to flats for retired professional people.
www.thewestmorlandgazette.co.uk/archive/display.var.300023.0.opening_up_a_hidden_treasure.php

¹¹ The Butler Act in 1944 introduced testing and streaming for children at the age of 11. Three types of secondary school were established: grammar school, secondary technical school and secondary modern school. Entry to the grammar school was restricted to the most academic pupils i.e. those passing an examination at the age of 11.
www.elevenplusexams.co.uk/UK_grammar_schools.php

sports. I was regularly voted games captain by my classmates. My favourite sport however was hockey,¹² for which I played centre forward and I have fond memories of ‘bullying-off’¹³ on frosty winter mornings.

‘Passing’ the eleven-plus and attending the High School for Girls in the mid-1960s highlighted issues of both class and gender. I was obliged to make the transition from a working-class family environment to that of the middle class (elitist) academic environment of the grammar school. The school was single-sex, and the women teachers became my predominant role models. It was only later, through reading about the history of the school¹⁴ that I began to understand the legacy and struggle to establish such a school for girls, at a time when women did not have what we now regard as equal human rights to men. The school was established after the Taunton Commission (1864-1868), which drew attention to the general deficiency in girls’ secondary schooling, indeed, at the time there were only 13 secondary schools for girls in the whole of the country. The school was created by ‘first wave’ feminists, active at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth centuries. ‘First wave feminism’ emphasised the rights of women to education among other things,¹⁵ thus Scott-Parker refers to the two main obstacles to improvement in girls’ education at the time as custom and lack of money:

“The tyranny of custom” – the idea that girls had minds worth cultivating was an offensive and revolutionary idea – and “The lack of endowments (finance) for girls’ schools.”

(Scott-Parker, 1995, p. 9)

What is more, northern girls were often seen as inferior to their southern sisters. The writer, Margaret Forster,¹⁶ notes the denigration of the ‘Cumbrian girl’ as compared to the ‘South Country girl’ by the Board of Education Inspectors.

¹² Hockey is a game generally played outdoors. It was and remains popular in girls’ schools particularly now in the independent sector.

¹³ A ‘bully-off’ was a face-off for the ball between the two centre forwards at the start of a match.

¹⁴ Scott-Parker (1995)

¹⁵ David (2003, p. 1)

¹⁶ Margaret Forster wrote the introduction to Scott-Parker (1995) and is a well known writer of historical fiction and former pupil of the school. <http://www.visitcumbria.com/mforster.htm>

The Board of Education's Inspectors had the effrontery to comment':
"Perhaps the Cumbrian girl, with her many solid virtues, does not
possess the quick wits of the South Country girl..."

(Forster, in Scott-Parker, 1995, p. 5)

The 1870 Elementary Education Act had created a national system of elementary schools in the UK for children up to the age of 14, and following a campaign for better education for older girls in the Carlisle area, the High School for Girls was opened in 1884 with 36 pupils. The mission of the school involved 'service, responsibility and an active concern for others'. Foster attributes much of the success of the school to the determination of its various headmistresses who 'quite literally devoted their lives to it':

Its reputation was such that it was spoken of then in tones of awe, and those who entered the august portals were automatically regarded as both brilliant and privileged... (Ibid.)

I mention the history, not just in relation to the school as a social and political arena, but also because it provides an early example of institutional reform and change. Whilst Forster paints a vivid picture of expansion and continuous change throughout the lifetime of the school, many early traditions continued until the school's closure in 1970. For example, the language curriculum was similar to that in the 1920s when Latin was introduced 'but those girls who couldn't master it' were allowed to drop it for German. Forster's book led me to understand why girls were allocated to 'houses' and why we had to display our house colours on our jumpers. Apparently, it was deemed important to foster 'team spirit' and encourage the girls to compete for the honour of the house rather than for 'the glory of the individual'.¹⁷

Campaigners for comprehensive education appeared in Carlisle in the mid-1950s after which there followed a long and 'very heated public debate' which divided political parties, families, schools and local organisations. In 1965, the then Labour government's commitment 'to end selection at eleven plus and to eliminate separatism in secondary schools' prompted the Cumbrian local education authority to 'go comprehensive'.¹⁸ Ironically, the girls' high school, which had originally been established to advance women's equality, was closed down in a process designed to increase equality and eliminate differentiated social class structures for all children, including girls.

¹⁷ Forster (1995, p. 48)

¹⁸ Scott-Parker (1995, p. 88)

When the last headmistress Miss Charlton took up her post in 1964 she commented on the forthcoming change and upheaval but also added that 'an adaptability to change is one of the qualities which determine success in living organisms'.¹⁹ Nevertheless, the impact of the comprehensive reorganisation was a source of much distress. Miss Charlton remembered the battle she fought with the architect to 'save at least one of the great lime trees'. Her main concern however was:

...the intangible planning, for our grammar school staff had to adjust to teaching children from a much wider range of ability, and the reorganisation was to include staff from the Robert Ferguson [Boys'] School. The demand for tact, patience and adaptability from everyone was enormous and I could only hope that the pupils were not aware of the strain on their teachers.

(Charlton in: Scott-Parker, 1995, p. 83)

The Girls' High School closed in 1970 when I was 17 and in the upper fifth grade. When I returned for the new academic year in September, the school had been amalgamated with the local boys' secondary school, Miss Charlton had moved on, there was a new 'headmaster' in her place and many of the girls' school staff had left or retired. My most vivid memory is of gazing in disbelief through a classroom window, as I watched the perfect Solway turf²⁰ hockey pitch being bulldozed to make way for an all-weather, all-purpose sports pitch. Scott-Parker likewise recounts:

Apparently, almost every old girl, who goes back to visit St Aidan's today, tells the Headmaster, David Kemp, that the High School's hockey pitch was the best pitch in the North of England! – and so it was. Any girl who loved sport was in her element at the High School.

(Scott-Parker, 1995, p. 89)

The bulldozing of the hockey pitch represented the ultimate symbolism for what had happened to the school.²¹

¹⁹ Ibid. (p. 81)

²⁰ Solway turf taken from Burgh Marsh was prized for its quality and used in many prestigious locations, including Wembley Football Stadium and Wimbledon All England Lawn Tennis Club.

²¹ At the time of writing the original Victorian buildings have recently been demolished to make way for the 'troubled', 'state-of-the-art Richard Rose Central Academy'. <http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/england/cumbria/7850832.stm> (accessed 12.08.2009)

Participation in sport and ability as an athlete²² were the aspects of my life that were most influential on the early formation of my identity. At the Girls' High School one's position seemed to be quite clear: you were very good academically, or very good at sport, or very good at both, or not very good at either – and so it was my ability at sport which gave me cultural capital with which I achieved some status at school. Becoming an athlete involves, for example, working through levels of competitive intensity and the ability to participate and to support the participation of others.²³ It also influences other things, in my case, my wish to teach and conceptions of what being a good leader means. Significantly, the sporting analogies used by Bourdieu in his work on sport, class and culture,²⁴ and his employment of terminology such as field, game, rules, players, capital, stakes, strategy and struggles within the game²⁵ have seemed to speak directly to my experience of sport and the value placed upon it as described above.

In fact it was the head of the physical education department at the Girls' High School, who helped me realise that I could communicate my enthusiasm and understanding of sport to others. Likewise, the head of the art department who arrived at school in my final year helped me value my artistic abilities. Significantly, he introduced to me a view of modern art which stimulated my later interest in combining art and mathematics.²⁶ The encouragement of these two teachers and specific formative school experiences, in turn, inspired in me an ambition to teach. At the time I was unaware that it was viewed as 'a good job for a girl'; it was simply what I wanted to do. By the time I left school for college I had caught up with my original year group, which had been an important goal for me.

On entering higher education, however, I became aware that the two subjects I had chosen to study, physical education and art, had strong but distinctive cultures; physical education emphasised collaboration, participation and belonging, as well as competition, while art accentuated the autonomous creative individual. Initially, studying two such different subjects posed few problems. However, the differences between the two subject cultures, which had been less apparent at school, were to have a strong impact

²² An 'athlete' is someone who actively participates in sport and usually has a high level of skill (see also Coakley and Donnelly, 1999).

²³ Lehtinen et al. (1999) emphasise the importance and power in collaborative group working, specifically in relation to the use of technology in educational and learning.

²⁴ Bourdieu (1978)

²⁵ Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992, p. 98)

²⁶ Later I had a chapter published in a set of school mathematics text books on shape and pattern (1991) Century Maths, Nelson Thornes Ltd.

on me at college. Whilst I was comfortable with the work and practices associated with both subjects, their social dimensions prompted in me questions about my own disposition which I found difficult to reconcile. Was I primarily a team-player or an autonomous, creative individual? It seemed that each subject 'community' had a different set of normative behaviours which proved difficult to combine.

Apart from this, my first few years as a professional were reasonably conventional. My first teaching post was in a mixed comprehensive school in Carlisle and my second was as head of girls' physical education in an inner city comprehensive school in Manchester. I felt supported and motivated by the head of department at the first school who was a positive role model in that she immediately gave me confidence as a young teacher; and also by the head-teacher at the second school, who encouraged me to consider a future role in management.

During this period, from the mid-1970s to the mid-1980s, I was primarily a school teacher of physical education although I maintained an interest in art and also began to teach mathematics. The latter was prompted by a national shortage of mathematics teachers (in the late 1980s) and was also due to an early interest in mathematics and, in particular, the fascination that I had for the relationship between mathematics and art. A curiosity about subject relationships was to become a significant feature of my future work. For example, an initial interest in combining mathematics, art and sport translated into a long-term fascination with design, media and team-based activity. Thus in later work I was to place emphasis on the importance of design, the effective use of media, constructivist approaches to teaching and learning, and collaborative approaches to working practice (see also articles in Appendix VII).

The opportunity of joining (senior) management came in my late 20s, at about the time that I was planning to have children. I took the decision to take a three-year break to be at home with my family. However, throughout this 'home' period, I continued to teach part-time in adult education and also engaged in a year of full-time study. In so doing, I extended my qualifications to teaching mathematics and further developed an interest in problem-based learning and the use of computers in the classroom.

I re-entered secondary school teaching in the mid-1980s with a new subject specialism (mathematics) at a time when desktop computers were being introduced into the classroom – and were most often seen as the domain of mathematicians. Towards the end of the 1980s, I moved into higher

education on a temporary contract, to work in a polytechnic²⁷ as a teacher educator of mathematics.

Part II. Working in higher education

Much excitement was generated in the late 1980s, by the arrival of computer-based multimedia, in the form of analogue interactive video (IV)²⁸ and ‘interactive’ technology in schools and higher education. The following quote is typical of the rhetoric at the time:

...there is little doubt that microcomputer-controlled videodisc systems represent the most potentially powerful communication device in the history of instructional communication.

(Jonassen, 1984, p. 2, in: Hosie, 1986)

However this excitement was tempered with scepticism, caution and concern about cost, and also about lack of software, the necessary changed role of the teacher and the different approaches to research and evaluation that were needed.²⁹ In terms of pedagogical affordances, interactive programmes were seen to have the potential to support ‘student-centred learning’, problem-based learning and group work and to offer possibilities for ‘flexible learning’ particularly in relation to the physical location of the learner and the learning environment provided.³⁰

To begin with most activity centred on the private sector, with major companies such as British Telecom using new ‘multimedia’ technologies to support the training of their staff in ‘flexible learning environments’.³¹ Towards the end of the 1980s, however, the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) began to fund development projects on the potential of inter-

²⁷ UK polytechnics developed from technical colleges and were established in the 1960s to develop vocational programmes at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. A number of teachers’ colleges were also integrated into polytechnics. In 1992 under the Further and Higher Education Act, the status of polytechnics was raised to university. They are often referred to as Pre-1992 universities (in the UK) and are more commonly referred to as ‘new universities’.

²⁸ Interactive Video (IV) computer-based multimedia, in the form of micro-computer controlled analogue interactive videodisc systems.

²⁹ Hosie (1986)

³⁰ For example: the Employment Department Flexible Learning Programme (1990) and the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) (1989).

³¹ Kirkwood (1988)

active video (IV) for schools and further education colleges.³² The private sector was keen to collaborate with the public sector to 'identify a sound strategy for fostering its interactive video introduction into UK schools'.³³ At the time, it was noted that industry's use of IV was mainly in the form of programmed learning packages aimed at large numbers of workers and 'point of sale' information for employees and customers. Interestingly, a study commissioned by industrialists on the use of IV in industry and education³⁴ found that there were few parallels between its use in industry and schools. Nevertheless, it was clear that the private sector saw potential in working with the public sector, and in particular, in introducing private sector methods and practices.

Eager to explore the perceived potential of the new technologies, the UK government allocated relatively large amounts of funding to public sector agencies such as the DTI, the Employment Department, the Department for Education (DfE), the National Council for Educational Technology (NCET) and at a later stage to the Higher Education Funding Councils (HEFCs) to explore public/private sector technological collaboration.³⁵ Initially, as mentioned earlier, funding for educational projects was mainly aimed at the school and further education sectors. However, at the end of the 1980s funding came from the DTI to install and support interactive video in every Local Education Authority and Initial Teacher Training establishment in the country.

As a polytechnic teacher educator in a mathematical science department with an interest in art and the use of computers, I was in a prime position to become involved in such initiatives. At the time there seemed to be little understanding of any political agendas and a limited view regarding the potential impact of new technology on higher education as a whole. The new technologies of the period to many seemed physically daunting, mysterious and incomprehensible. Nevertheless, the potential benefits of using

³² DTI interactive video programmes included the Interactive Video in Schools (IVIS) and the Interactive Video in Further Education (IVFE) projects. For example a report prepared by Hills (report unpublished for NIVC and date unknown).

³³ Boyers (1988)

³⁴ Ibid.

³⁵ For example the Teaching and Learning Technology Programmes (TLTP) (1992-2000). The aim of the Programmes was to develop and explore the use of technology-based teaching and learning material. The programme was also seen as promoting collaboration between higher education institutions, business and industry and supporting professional development. www.hefce.ac.uk/Learning/tinits/TLTP/ (accessed 30.07.2009).

computers and other media in education and the emphasis on the possibilities of interaction with rich media (i.e. various media including visual and audio communication) made these projects particularly appealing to me.

With support from the head of the mathematical science department at the polytechnic, I became involved in a variety of projects e.g. the Interactive Video in Education Awareness Support Scheme,³⁶ the Interactive Video in Schools project (IVIS) and subsequently the Interactive Video in Education project (IVIE), all of which explored the educational use of computers and multimedia in educational settings. I joined a small national team which comprised teacher educators from other HE institutions across the UK all of whom were highly motivated by the creative affordances and learning experiences that the new technologies offered. Thus, unintentionally I had become drawn towards a highly political agenda for higher education which sought to harness technology for educational reform and national prosperity.

As consultant to the National Interactive Video Centre³⁷ and later to the DfE, I spent four years (1989-1993) working on a range of national projects in schools and colleges which explored the potential of 'interactive technologies'³⁸ and 'flexible learning environments'. During this period I gained valuable social and cultural capital in terms of access to national networks, and increased knowledge and skills. The projects also led to the collection of empirical data which I used both for a report published by the Employment Department,³⁹ and as part of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy (MPhil) which I refer to in more detail later in this chapter.⁴⁰ Findings arising from the projects highlighted positively the importance of collaboration in the process of change. For example the final report of the Interactive Video in Education Awareness Support Scheme, for which I was a field officer, noted:

³⁶ The Interactive Video in Education Awareness Support Scheme was granted two million pounds by the DTI between 1988 and 1989.

³⁷ The National Interactive Video Centre was established in 1984 with the support of the Department for Trade and Industry to explore and promote the use of interactive media.

³⁸ Including Interactive Video (IV), Compact Disc Interactive (CDI) and CD ROM.

³⁹ Hudson (1993) *CDI and Interactive Video – A Comparative Study*. Sheffield: Learning Technology Unit, Employment Department.

⁴⁰ Hudson (1997) Issues affecting the introduction and implementation of Educational Multimedia. Master of Philosophy. (MPhil).

Successful change and development in the education sector is a slow and careful process to which many different agencies contribute. While no one factor can ever be claimed to be more significant than others, there can be little doubt that the DTI's initiatives have played a major role in helping to chart the way forward for the development of interactive learning technologies in support of autonomous learners and teachers.

(Doulton, 1989, p. ii).

The view that change requires the collaboration of different agencies continues today in Clark's ideas on 'entrepreneurial universities', Engeström's work on multi-disciplinary working⁴¹ and, as we shall see later, collaboration between national agencies such as the Higher Education Academy (HEA) and the Joint Information Systems Committee (JISC). Interestingly, this phase of technological development, with its emphasis on creativity and autonomy (which preceded the emergence of digital technologies), spanned almost a decade from the mid 1980s to the mid-1990s though is rarely acknowledged in the literature on learning technology.

The interactive nature of the software and the use of multimedia stimulated debates about creative pedagogical practices among teachers and students/pupils. For example, IV was judged as enriching classroom experience:

...there is little doubt that the teachers and pupils judge IV to be an important addition to the learning resources [.....]. The quality of the images, and the power given to the user to manipulate them, probably accounts for the unique value attached to IV.

(Norris, Davis and Beattie (1990) in: Hudson, 1997, p. 15)

However, unwieldy computer hardware and limited access to systems meant that the projects remained relatively experimental (in the history of educational technology). Difficulties relating to hardware and infrastructure were raised also by the NCET which saw the solution as a shift of strategy towards larger scale industrial models.

In order to achieve the required standards of excellence and offer the necessary economies of scale, new technology for education requires an industrial model for its development and implementation. This will only be achieved as the education system moves towards large-scale long-term integrated usage. Thus the infrastructure that needs to be in place to support the optimal development and

⁴¹ Clark (2003); Engeström (2004)

implementation of new technology in schools touches every level and every aspect of the school system.

(National Council for Educational Technology, 1994, p. 5)

Emphasis on economies of scale, and industrial models and infrastructure was indicative of the part information systems providers were to play in future technological development and also in part due also to the limited funding available from government. Thus, collaborating with industry speeded up public-sector technological development.

The projects with which I was involved suggested that new technologies could support ‘flexible’, collaborative and student-centred learning, a stance which anticipated the impact of expansion and a more diverse student body on higher education. The NCET evaluation of interactive video⁴² emphasised high levels of pupil motivation and was mostly positive:

Some pupils achieved a real sense of control through IV: they felt as if they were taking responsibility for what they were doing and for what they were getting out of it. This could come from a disc that required judgement and decision making [.....] when pupils could explore and discover information for themselves. This worked best when the pupils were properly supported – i.e. when pupils had a clear goal, were capable of making their own judgments about the quality of the data they found, and were given some follow-up activity that consolidated what they had learned

(Ibid., p. 33)

The combination of interactivity with the audio-visual capability of the new technology makes it a powerful medium for learning because it supports some of the cognitive processes that constitute learning, and because it supports the affective aspects of motivation and enjoyment that enable cognitive processes to be engaged in the first place.

(Ibid., p. 34)

However, the outcomes from the projects frequently failed to meet ‘hyped’ expectations, and the lessons learnt were often overshadowed by criticism from sponsors who generally wanted something quick and easy to use that would save time and money. Furthermore, industry and private sector re-

⁴² The evaluation report was prepared by Diana Laurillard, who currently holds the Chair of Learning with Digital Technologies in the Faculty of Culture and Pedagogy at the Institute of Education, University of London, and was formerly Head of the DfES e-Learning Strategy Unit and Pro-Vice-Chancellor (Learning Technologies and Teaching) at the Open University.

ports were often unavailable for public scrutiny, and research and development were attributes interpreted by the private sector as mainly about professional development, technological advancement and commercial gain. Meanwhile, struggles over academic aims and pedagogy continued in the attempt to identify appropriate research methodologies for interpreting and evaluating new technology initiatives.⁴³

At a personal and professional level, working on 'leading edge' national projects was highly motivating and challenging. I was now keen to explore the educational benefits of multimedia and was encouraged in this by national debates and activities on teaching methods and practices. For example, the introduction of 'authoring software' was particularly exciting. The range of simple yet powerful programmes, which controlled analogue video, provided teachers and students with the opportunity to edit, structure and sequence text, images, audio and video. Simple tools such SIVA, TURPIN and OpenSoft, developed as part of the IVIS⁴⁴ project, preceded the more sophisticated programmes that appeared in the 1990s such as Authorware. It was thus possible to alter existing multimedia resources and to create new ones. The introduction of authoring software seemed significant also because it enabled teachers and learners to manipulate and interact with media. It also prompted discussion throughout the education sector about the benefits of customisation of multimedia, including 'in-house' production and the ownership of software and multimedia content. The issues raised were precursors to more recent debates about, for example, proprietary software and 'open source' software,⁴⁵ social software and Web 2.0⁴⁶ all of which have enabled web-based technologies and digital media to become more accessible.

Other technological developments were also influencing thinking across the education sector as a whole; for example, the development of hypertext and the introduction of HyperCard,⁴⁷ one of the first hypermedia author-

⁴³ Ely (1987); Schön (1995)

⁴⁴ IVIS (Interactive Video in Schools, 1985-87)

⁴⁵ Open source refers to downloadable software from the internet. Whilst open source software is subject to criteria regarding distribution it generally means free access to source code which can be modified and redistributed.
<http://opensource.org/> (accessed 30.07.2009).

⁴⁶ Web 2.0 second generation web development. Examples of Web 2.0 application include wikis (the creation and organisation of web pages by individuals and groups), blogs and social networking sites such as Facebook.

⁴⁷ Hypertext and HyperCard, launched in 1987 by Apple Macintosh radically changed the way data was stored, retrieved and shared. See also Shneiderman and Kearsley (1989).

ing systems before the World Wide Web. This prompted debate on how data could be stored, retrieved, presented and shared. This, together with increased access to audio and visual media, and increasing emphasis on interaction, collaboration and problem-based learning, prompted experimentation both with computer-based learning environments and physical learning environments.⁴⁸ However, the perceived potential of the new technologies was balanced by difficulties of organising and managing access to limited resources, which, in turn, began to generate questions about whether pedagogies needed to change.

A range of literature appeared during the 1970s, 1980s and early 1990s on the development of innovative technologies, though much of this seems to have been lost to present-day knowledge and understanding⁴⁹ mainly because non-digitalised documentation was not accessible via the World Wide Web. This contributed perhaps to there being gaps in the history of learning technology in the sense that, as we shall see in a later chapters, learning technologists tend to define themselves as members of a newly emergent field of the 1990s and even of the first decade of 2000.

Critical decisions: the new professional?

The start of the 1990s was a critical career point for me. My interest in educational and technological development was reinforced by involvement in projects on interactive video, which were at the time acknowledged as amongst the most cutting-edge and advanced educational and technological initiatives in Europe at the time.⁵⁰ Additionally I sensed that new technologies were likely to have far-reaching effects on emerging educational agendas. Future engagement in technology promised to be challenging and exciting and I could foresee a professional career pathway leading perhaps towards consultancy and the private sector. The career route within my own institution, however, was less clear in terms of how I would be able to continue to work with new technologies.

For some time after the projects had finished, there was little funding available for research and development into how ICT could be used for teaching and learning in the higher education sector. Neither was work with the private sector conventionally associated with academia nor with teacher education. In addition, my peripheral position in the polytechnic

⁴⁸ I use learning environment in its broadest sense to mean everything associated with where students learn and what students make use of in their learning.

⁴⁹ Oliver, et al. (2004, p. 4)

⁵⁰ Fletcher (1987)

as a non-tenured staff member working in a new, interdisciplinary field, contributed to difficulties in identifying new possibilities for research and development. In Bourdieun terms, I had minimal social capital in the field that I worked in – that is higher education. The reason for my decision to remain in higher education was principally vocational in the sense of having a commitment to teaching and learning and an interest in the potential of technology in enhancing teaching and learning. I also had a certain level of confidence in being able to face future challenges and potential struggles. I had developed, it seems, what Bourdieu refers to as a ‘socially constituted sense of the game’⁵¹ based on the capital that I had accrued.

Meanwhile, the transition from analogue to digital technologies created a lull in government funding, and other technologies such as Compact Disc Interactive (CDI),⁵² came and went. This created a sense of frustration in that much of the knowledge, experience and understanding gained about teaching and learning and the use of computers, multimedia and ICT that could be built on was in the process of being lost. This prompted me to take a proposal to the head of the (mathematical sciences) department to establish a centre aimed at supporting development and research into the educational use of interactive technologies and multimedia. His response was positive. However, economic capital i.e. funding for salaries and resources had to be sought externally. Thus, just before the polytechnic became a university (in 1992) my career in higher education as a ‘new professional’ began in earnest.

The changing learning environment in higher education

At the start of the 1990s thus I had the aspiration to set up an educational centre for Interactive Technology and Multimedia. The Centre (ECIM)⁵³ had as its main points of focus interactive technology, multimedia, ‘flexible learning’ and educational research. The work of the Centre focused on exploring and supporting the educational use of interactive technologies and multimedia. Later, in the mid-1990s, as technology changed the name of the Centre was also changed but retained its emphasis on contemporary computer-based multimedia. At the time, a number of similar centres were being established in other higher education institutions, for example the Scottish Centre for Educational Technology at Moray House, the University of Edinburgh, the Telematics Centre at the University of Exeter and ULTRALAB, at Anglia Polytechnic University. All were set up

⁵¹ Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992, p. 120).

⁵² See Hudson (1993)

⁵³ ECIM is used here as a pseudonym.

by 'individual enthusiasts' who were engaged in 'growing' the unit and its work.⁵⁴ All were pro-active, with origins in teacher education, interactive technology, multimedia, telecommunication, teaching and learning. The establishment of such units thus could be regarded as indicative both of the increasing impact of desktop computing on teaching and learning and the onset of an entrepreneurial and business-oriented culture in higher education. These centres were therefore somewhat different from seemingly similar units for which the main focus was supporting the use of audio visual aids and media production.

My immediate responsibility, in leading the educational centre for interactive multimedia (ECIM), was to identify funding opportunities for research and development that would be beneficial both to the field and to the university. In my institution, at that time, teacher educators were located in subject-based faculties. Therefore, as a mathematics teacher educator, I was based, as already noted, in the mathematical science department, which was part of the Faculty of Technology. The mathematical science department thus provided the base for ECIM, under my leadership.

Over the next few years I was primarily engaged in securing funding and resources from outside agencies for research and development projects.⁵⁵ I quickly acquired 'state of the art' equipment (hardware and software) from commercial suppliers 'free of charge'. Bids were successful and staff were appointed to work on the fixed-term projects. ECIM was unconventional for that time, in the sense that it relied entirely on 'soft money' i.e. funding raised externally. It thus anticipated by about a decade the 'development periphery' and enterprise cultures of universities mentioned by Clark.⁵⁶ Perhaps for that reason, I had a great deal of autonomy about deciding the direction of the Centre, its work and its networks. For example, a small national network provided the contact base for colleagues in the wider field and was critically important in terms of shared knowledge and moral support. This

⁵⁴ See also Gosling (2008, p. 10)

⁵⁵ Projects included *Integrating Interactive Video in Flexible Learning* (Learning Technologies Unit, Employment Department); *CDI and Interactive Video – A Comparative Study* (Employment Department); *Evaluating Learning Technology – a Database of Research* (Learning Technologies Unit, Employment Department); *An overview of Interactive Technology research with relevance to Initial Teacher Education*. (National Council for Educational Technology) and *Database of Learning Technology Projects* (Department for Education and Employment).

⁵⁶ Clark (1998)

was a period of high motivation for me and I was eager to face the struggles that undoubtedly lay ahead despite an initial sense of uncertainty.

Literature on change and new technologies in higher education was sparse and I recall waiting with anticipation for Diana Laurillard's book, *Rethinking University Teaching: A Framework for the Effective Use of Educational Technology*.⁵⁷ I also became a member of the Association for Learning Technology (ALT) when it was launched in 1993.⁵⁸

Identifying local and national needs related to ICT and multimedia, teaching, learning, and research and development, and gaining external funding to run the Centre and designing and directing the projects were my core activities as already noted. The future of the Centre, the formulation of external bids and the successful completion of projects demanded a range of skills reflecting different specialisms, including education design, media and communication, new computer-based technologies, and business management, as well as knowledge and expertise in research, evaluation, project management and administration. Furthermore, collaboration, for example, between educational institutions and the private sector was and remains a requirement from most funding bodies. Consequently, working on funded projects and making relationships and connections across sectors, disciplines, fields, subjects and departments, highlighted the importance and indeed necessity of collaboration. However such cross-boundary working was not a mainstream priority and to some extent remains under-utilised, although negotiation is now more common. This is despite the fact that multi-disciplinary learning and working are considered essential features of contemporary university practice.⁵⁹

The first restructuring: from teaching to learning

In 1992, following the polytechnic's transition to university status, there began a comprehensive restructuring which involved faculties becoming 'schools'. This first restructuring provided an opportunity for ECIM to move to a new, more fruitful location. A common view of multimedia technologies at the time was that they represented a specific content base and information/learning resource. However, the work of ECIM was wider, focusing also on pedagogical design, research and development. The aim for the centre was thus to find a base that would allow it to utilise its full range of expertise and skills and be of the most benefit to the university. Two depart-

⁵⁷ The book was published in 1993 (2nd edition in 2002).

⁵⁸ The Association for Learning Technology is discussed in more detail in chapter seven.

⁵⁹ Boyer, (1990); Clark (2003); Engeström (2004)

ments expressed interest in providing ECIM with a home: library services and the newly-formed School of Engineering and Information technology, which now included the mathematical sciences department (the existing home of the Centre).

One outcome of the Follett Report in 1993⁶⁰ on library services had been a series of initiatives backed by substantial amounts of funding. These included the establishment of a national advisory group on information and communications technology entitled the Joint Information Systems Committee (JISC) and funding for the creation of new and extended library buildings. The latter was possibly due to awareness of the potential of ICT in libraries for supporting student learning (as compared to subject disciplinary bases). Academic libraries were clearly expected to respond to the challenges and opportunities afforded by new technology.

Thus, a move to the library for the Centre seemed the best option, a decision encouraged by the head of the library, high level of interest among staff in supporting 'student-centred' learning and level of use of ICT and multimedia. Plans were afoot to strengthen the position of the library, which included the building of a new learning environment. Moreover, senior posts in the library were categorised as academic posts, which was not the norm: library posts were in general categorised as administrative or technical related.

The move marked the start of valued work relationships with colleagues who were committed to providing the highest level of support to students and staff. Moreover, the vision for the library, and therefore for those who worked within its remit, was creative and distinctive and accompanied by an educational philosophy guided by social and pedagogical considerations. However, this was also a time of increasing pressure on institutional budgets, demands for efficiency gains and greater 'client' orientation.

New professionals in the new university

Shortly after ECIM moved into the library, my position as the academic leader was made permanent (i.e. tenured). The centre was building up economic capital although it still relied on short-term external funding and primarily on staff appointed to short-term contracts, which enabled its expansion.

In the mid-1990s many educational institutions and organisations were thinking about new approaches to learning, impact of technology on learning environments and the increased need for centralised networks and infrastructure – even before the widespread use of the internet. In the UK,

⁶⁰ See also chapter four.

the government ‘contemplated a leap into the future’⁶¹ and invited telecommunications, cable, broadcasting, information technology and multimedia industries to work together with educationists to ‘pilot new ways of teaching and learning using new communications technologies’. Accordingly, the emphasis shifted from interactive multimedia to information and communication technology: thus the next phase of technological development, promoted connectivity. I have a strong memory of working with a group of colleagues, teachers and information experts at this time, and of the struggle we had in realising the practical benefits of SuperJANET, the first educational university ‘superhighway’. As I was preparing for a particular meeting I remember appreciating the dramatic impact this phase of new technology was likely to have on teaching and learning and on future working practices, particularly in relation to communication and collaboration.

Aspirations for change in university academic practices revealed simultaneously the need for new forms of educational support which in turn required different combinations of expertise and skills. Accordingly, the work of ECIM shifted towards supporting staff across the university and as ECIM grew and took on more staff, there was a need to foster the careers of staff appointed to the new posts. This introduced a new ‘personnel’ dimension to my work.

Also at about this time project-based activities, funded either internally or externally, became more commonplace in higher education and there also seemed more interest in utilising new technologies to enhance teaching and learning. Eventually the activities of the Centre expanded and an administrator was appointed. At the time the appointment was significant in terms of ensuring that the Centre had the capacity to respond to an increasingly complex range of demands associated with short term funding and project-based activity.

Initially I took care to match job descriptions to the requirements of individual short-term projects which might require specific expertise in multimedia, pedagogical design, project management, evaluation and/or desk research. With focus shifting to broader university needs, it became necessary to create more generic job descriptions which emphasised, for example, wider expertise in design, production of multimedia and web-based material, and in areas directly related to working with teachers and other specialist learning support staff. At the time there were few examples, if any, of similar jobs in the university or elsewhere, indicating perhaps that ‘this type’ of new professional was not yet established widely. Thus new job titles were created which could fit into the somewhat disparate constraints of ex-

⁶¹ Superhighways for Education (1995, p. 3)

isting university career structures.⁶² Eventually a generic job descriptor was agreed which emphasised the use of interactive technology and multimedia in course development. It was classified in the broad sweeping category of 'administrative, professional and clerical' rather than as 'academic' or 'technical'. The 'success' of the Centre meant that despite jobs continuing to be dependant on short term funding the majority of staff appointed to ECIM were able to continue their employment from one contract to the next.

Throughout the 1990s, the diverse backgrounds of Centre staff reflected the relative newness of the work, the broad base of skills required and the lack of existing professional career routes. For example, new appointments included staff with backgrounds in art and design, computing, psychology, teaching, research and administration. The diverse skills base and the wide range of experience on which it drew meant that collaboration and sharing knowledge and understanding were commonplace in terms of the successful completion of projects and our own professional development. The overall team was exceptionally talented, particularly in design; for example, a number of applications were recognised as outstanding, winning national and international awards for excellence.⁶³ Indeed, a number of students and staff who initially worked in ECIM went on to set up successful private companies. The reputation of the Centre spread and invitations to support faculty-based projects, and to participate in national and European-wide initiatives increased. However, lack of career progression for 'new professional' staff more generally, both within the Centre and in higher education as a whole, remained a concern and a continuing struggle – which was eventually resolved, at least to some extent, as we shall see later.

The nature of the work of the Centre in the mid-1990s matched many of the characteristics and definitions of practice⁶⁴ found in the later literature on new professionals and learning technologists.⁶⁵ In this sense ECIM certainly seemed to be ahead of the game!⁶⁶

⁶² A decade later a pay spine for all categories of university staff replaced the previous differentiated system.

⁶³ Successful applications were made to Library Association Public Relations and Publicity Award (1997); European Academic Software Awards (EASA 1998, 2000); European Multimedia Awards (EMMA 1999).

⁶⁴ Definitions of practices are discussed in chapters six, seven and eight in respect of educational developers and learning technologies.

⁶⁵ See also Gornall (1999); Beetham (2001); Gosling (2001, 2008); Oliver (2002); Land (2004); CMALT (2005).

⁶⁶ Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992, p. 98)

Vision, critical events and the convergence of new professionals

The position of ECIM from the mid-1990s can be seen as part of a much bigger picture. This period in UK higher education was marked by policies on widening student participation and an associated shift from teaching towards learning,⁶⁷ especially with regard to student experience, student support, student-centred learning activity and ICT. Locally, a number of events in the university had a significant impact on ECIM, including:

- the transformation of the library into a super-department, based on the concept of creating a centre for learning⁶⁸ and located in a central, purpose-built learning environment
- increased technical capability, reduced cost of computer equipment and a more stable network infrastructure
- the creation of an Institute focusing on teaching and learning in higher education (ITL), under the leadership of the former head of the department of education.⁶⁹
- the creation of an Institute to support research into teaching and learning in the university (IRTL) under the leadership of an appointed professor.⁷⁰

Thus, following a review of academic provision, in 1996 the super-department brought together under one roof so to speak, staff from a range of departments, centres and units which included:

- library and information services (including an audio visual unit, publishing house, design studio and TV unit)
- computing provision (drawn from the department responsible for the university-wide ICT infrastructure)
- the educational centre for interactive technology and multimedia (ECIM)
- the Institute for Teaching and Learning (ITL)

and

- the Institute for Research in Teaching and Learning (IRTL).

The strength of the super-department meant that its outreach was immense. The former head of the library was appointed director, and ECIM maintained its identity and focus within the super-department, line-managed by the director. The Institute for Teaching and Learning (ITL) was now headed

⁶⁷ NCIHE (Dearing, 1997)

⁶⁸ See also Oyston, et al. (2003)

⁶⁹ ITL is used as a pseudonym

⁷⁰ IRTL is used as a pseudonym

by an experienced senior academic and a professor was appointed to lead the Institute for Research in Teaching and Learning (IRTL).

As already noted, a new building was purpose-built to accommodate the Centre for Learning (the super-department) with the aim of creating a learning space in which ICT and multimedia could be integrated with traditional resources, and where new practices of support for learning could be developed. During the planning stage of the new building I was invited to join a group of senior colleagues including the appointed architect, on a week-long study tour of new libraries on the east coast of the USA. The focus was the design, functionality and practices of different libraries. Whilst we saw some beautifully-designed buildings there was little evidence that university practices and learning support in the institutions we visited were changing in the same direction as we were! For me the trip served to highlight the strong vision and philosophy that had been adopted by the university, high level of collaboration within the university and commitment of senior management to providing top quality support for teaching and learning for both staff and students. However, this was also the beginning of a period of extensive change for many university libraries,⁷¹ and thus there was some scepticism about financial imperatives driving new models.⁷² Yet, for me this was another career high point, marked by openness and trust, shared responsibilities and collective efforts to develop knowledge and understanding. It provided a contrast to the second restructuring period which is discussed later.

The new building was opened in the mid-1990s attracting an immense amount of interest from other higher education institutions. Indeed it hosted many national and international study visits, even winning design awards. Visitors expressed interest in the building and the learning environment but were particularly fascinated by the 'new' roles, such as that of the 'information specialist', and practices that were being developed.

Most staff in the super-department fitted the definition of the new professional as discussed by Gornall and Beck (see preface). For example, we aimed to support the shifting balance from teaching to learning and also to serve the needs of the re-formed university. The relatively early timing of the combining of different departments and the opening of the new library building enabled the university to respond speedily to the demands being made by government on higher education institutions across the UK.⁷³ These included providing 'high quality' support for teaching and learning,

⁷¹ Oyston (ed.) (2003)

⁷² Bulpitt, p. 206, in: Oyston, ed., (2003)

⁷³ NCIHE (Dearing, 1997)

providing different types of studying and learning spaces, fully utilising contemporary computer-based networked technologies and meeting the needs of increased numbers of students from diverse backgrounds. Indeed, once again ‘my’ university seemed to be ahead of the ‘game’.⁷⁴

Position within the field

The move into the new building presented a further opportunity to reflect on the location and future work of ECIM, and also on my own position in the Centre for Learning (the super-department). The positioning of academic support departments, their line management and the way they relate to the rest of the university is an important theme within this narrative and as we shall see, also a source of much debate in the literature.⁷⁵ How decisions were taken reflect Bourdieu’s perception of strategies needed to negotiate the field.

The strategies of agents depend on their position in the field, that is, in the distribution of the specific capital, and on the perception that they have of the field depending on the point of view they take *on* the field as a view taken from a point *in* the field. (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 101)

Thus, in my judgement, educational technologies were tools and processes not only essential to pedagogical work and educational development, but also important in guiding decisions about the future positioning of ECIM. In this respect the most significant change was that the Institute for Teaching and Learning (ITL) and the, similarly named, Institute for Research in Teaching and Learning (IRTL) both took up a university-wide remit, moved into the Centre for Learning (the super-department) and thus took up central location on campus. These two different institutes together with ECIM represented sub-fields of new professionals within the super-department; that is, each occupied a position in the structure and each maintained its own ‘logic, rules and regularities’.⁷⁶ Two senior posts were created in the ITL – for university teaching and learning (educational development) and

⁷⁴ Interestingly at the time of writing (thirteen years later) the focus of an article in THE, 25th June, 2009, is the opening of a new university library. The article reports on calls to utilise space more creatively, for ‘trainee librarians’ to require a new set of skills, and for departments to adapt to, embrace – and indeed focus on – electronic information systems (Fearn, 2009).

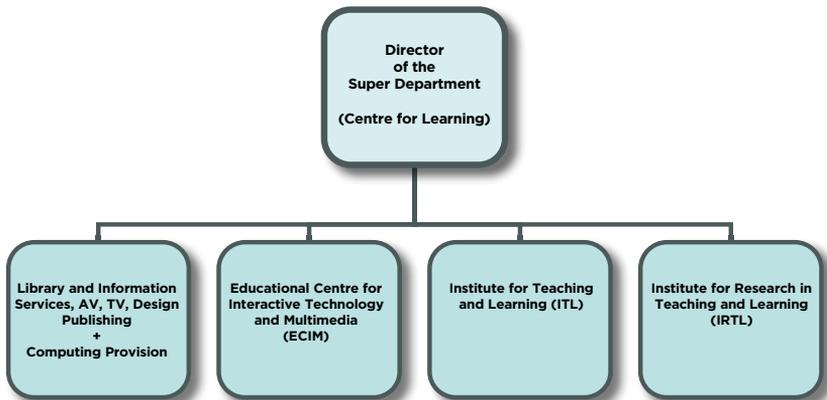
⁷⁵ See also chapters six, seven and eight.

⁷⁶ Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992, p. 104).

information and communication technologies (educational technology)⁷⁷ respectively – which were to prove significant for me, as we shall see later.

Meanwhile the Institute for Research in Teaching and Learning (IRTL) worked with ITL to develop research into teaching and learning in the university and was also the research ‘arm’ of the School of Education. IRTL thus had two lines of responsibility; primarily to coordinate research into teaching and learning across the university and second to support research in the School of Education. In 1996 both institutes, ITL and IRTL (and ECIM), became part of the super-department working alongside each other though each with their own direct lines of management to the Director (see Fig. 3.).

Fig. 3. Initial positioning of ECIM in the converged super-department.⁷⁸



Up to this point, my work could be described as ‘peripheral’ to conventional university work, though an exemplar of ‘entrepreneurial’ and ‘innovative’ demands on the post-modern university.⁷⁹ However, my disposition, as a teacher with an interest in research and scholarly activity⁸⁰ led me to attempt to position the work of ECIM as central to ‘academic’ work across the university. With that in mind, the repositioning of ECIM was negotiated in order to be closer to ITL and IRTL. ECIM had considerable social,

⁷⁷ Educational development and educational technology are used here as pseudonyms but reflect the emphasis of the work.

⁷⁸ Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 are used to show the lines of management of the ITL, IRTL and ECIM and do not include detail and direct lines from other areas.

⁷⁹ Clark (1998; 2003).

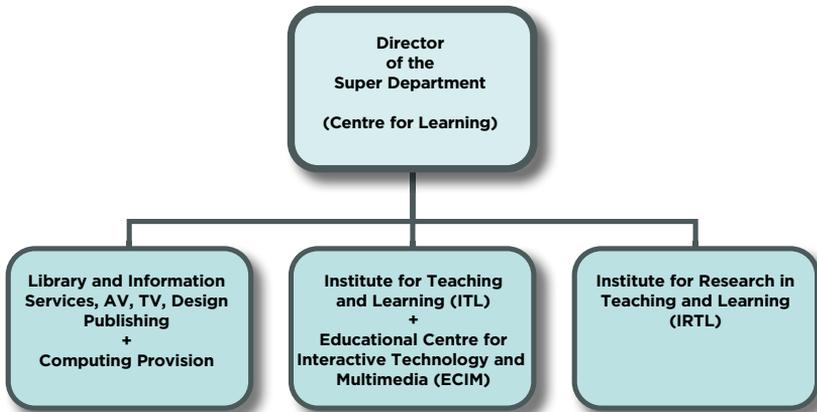
⁸⁰ Andresen (2000b, p. 140).

cultural and economic capital, so the move was accepted. One consequence was a change in line manager from the director of the super-department to the head of ITL.

Whilst I continued as the academic leader of the Centre, I also collaborated more closely with two senior colleagues in the institute who respectively had responsibility for teaching and learning and learning technologies and with whom I had positive and productive relationships. In Bourdieu terms it seemed initially that our, ‘logic, rules and regularities’ were aligned.

In effect, my own position and that of ECIM had changed. I had to some extent lost the autonomy I had been used to and the Centre’s status had shifted from a sub-field in its own right to subordination to another sub-field (as a sub-sub-field) of power with a new set of logic, rules and regularities (see Fig. 4.).

Fig. 4. Structural relationship of ECIM following repositioning.



Whilst symbolic capital was accrued by ECIM in the move, internal social capital appeared to weaken in parallel to the loss of direct contact with the leadership of the department. An additional significant factor was that I was persuaded to relinquish my responsibility for the finances (economic capital) of the Centre by my new line manager, the head of the Institute for Teaching and Learning. Building economic capital was the condition and challenge that I had been set in order to establish the Centre. Indeed, external funding was favourable in the mid 1990s and the Centre’s budget was healthy. However, my motivation for establishing the Centre had not been driven by profit and although the Centre had grown and developed on the basis of external funding, my aim had always been for it to be accepted as a mainstream academic unit. The loss of social capital and economic capi-

tal was however counterbalanced by my trust that the overall ethos of the super-department and the Institute, which aimed to promote interdisciplinary working practices across boundaries, would continue as before. In this sense, the shift of location of ECIM could be seen as constructive. A period of intense activity followed, largely taken up with developing support for students and staff in the university.

Collaborative working practice

Over the next few years (late 1990s) digital technologies, the internet and the World Wide Web laid the foundations for changes which were dramatically to affect education, popular culture and society as a whole. Compared to earlier years in the decade, the discourse of information and communication technology was everywhere, and not just the concern of specialist units. This was another exciting time. Accordingly, I continued to work collaboratively with colleagues and attempted, where possible, to be flexible yet remain true to my values. A good depiction of my work ethic and practice at the time can be found in Tuomi-Gröhn and Engeström's⁸¹ notion of 'task specific participation frameworks' within a 'newly emerging landscape of expertise', where individuals are 'engaged in multiple simultaneous tasks', and 'in multiple communities of practice'.

Funding was available from European⁸² as well as national⁸³ and local sources, to encourage the educational use of ICT and multimedia. The resultant initiatives had different dimensions, for example, promotion of a 'European dimension', broadening of the curriculum and achieving greater efficiency through the sharing of resources. I viewed such initiatives as useful because, regardless of sponsor agendas, they gave participants the

⁸¹ Tuomi-Gröhn and Engeström (2003, p. 3)

⁸² For example Leonardo da Vinci programme (part of the European Commission's Lifelong Learning Programme) funds innovative cross-border collaborative projects. Its aim is to link policy to practice in the area of vocational (work-based) educational and training (VET). http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-programme/doc82_en.htm (accessed 30.07.2009). The Socrates Programmes (European Commission). The first programme ran from 1994-1999. The second programme ran from 2000-2006. The focus was on multicultural aspects of Europe, innovation, mobility, equal opportunities and knowledge in education at all levels. www.eu.int/comm/dgs/education_culture/publ/pdf/socrates/depl_en.pdf (accessed 30.07.2009). It has now been replaced by the Commission's Lifelong Learning Programme 2007-2013. http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-programme/doc78_en.htm (accessed 30.07.2009).

⁸³ For example Teaching and Learning Technology Programmes (TLTP) (as described earlier).

opportunity to work in cross-disciplinary ways, build new and productive professional relationships and develop new ways of working, for example, in interdisciplinary teams.⁸⁴

At the same time projects encouraging the production of digital resources for the higher education sector⁸⁵ attracted attention from educational publishers, who had been cautious in assessing the commercial gains to be made from their sales. Eventually, publishers decided to enter the market for the production and marketing of digital resources, though a more positive offshoot perhaps was the perceived need for a radical rethink of contracts, copyright agreements, intellectual property rights and license agreements. The increased use of networked computers to support learning across the university raised similar issues. So one additional responsibility of mine was to establish and oversee a university multidisciplinary advisory group on access to multimedia computer-based and networked resources. The advisory group existed for six years through a period of technological change which involved expansion and increased access to digital resources.

Throughout this period ECIM continued to engage in a range of university activity. For example, in 1997, as interest in web-based learning environments surfaced, the whole department was involved in the early development of a Virtual Campus involving the entire university being compelled to shift to using First Class.⁸⁶ In addition, ECIM developed an external reputation through involvement in several large collaborative projects which sought to foster institutional relationships, produce digital and web-based learning resources and develop new programmes of study.

However, with the increasing demands it became more difficult to find time to share knowledge and experience and reflect and think about our own work.

Research into learning and teaching in the new university

The purpose-built Centre for Learning provided what I judged to be an excellent environment for advancing research-based practice, by which I mean that it provided a flexible and supportive environment for university staff and students to engage in a wide range of learning activity and use the most current technology. Furthermore, funding was dedicated by the

⁸⁴ See for example Dillon, Tearle and Hudson, (1999); Hudson and Owen, (2000).

⁸⁵ For example the Teaching and Learning Technology Programme (TLTP).

⁸⁶ First Class may be used as an electronic Academic Suite or Virtual Learning Environment (VLE). In higher education it is more commonly used as on-line systems for communication, management and collaboration. www.firstclass.com/Divisions/Solutions/Education/?OpenItemURL=S047C5096 (accessed 30.07.2009).

university through the IRTL to promote research into university teaching and learning and to coordinate and strengthen research in preparation for the 1996 Research Assessment Exercise (RAE).⁸⁷ Thus, opportunities were provided for the various educational research groups to focus on approaches to exploring research-based practice.

One funding stream facilitated small-scale research activity. Accordingly, in collaboration with a subject librarian and subject tutor a bid was submitted on behalf of the super-department on the effective use of electronic information resources. The funding of this resulted in my first collaborative publication.⁸⁸ A second proposal, which included the appointment of a research assistant to investigate the perceptions and experiences of staff in relation to the use of new technologies, was also funded.⁸⁹ Other colleagues submitted bids to research, for example, the student experience, problem-based learning and formative assessment.

Meanwhile, I was asked to take on the role of research coordinator for the super-department which also meant that I was departmental representative on the university-wide 'Core Teaching and Learning Research Group'. The Core Group consisted of a teaching and learning research coordinator for each school and department, thus representing subject disciplines from across the university.

For me, this period is characterised by increased pace of change relating to the university research agenda as well as the increasing use of new technology – both of which were underpinned by the efforts of new professionals such as the staff in the Centre for Learning, the Institute for Teaching and Learning, the Institute for Research in Teaching and Learning and ECIM.⁹⁰ Of the many developments and activities related to the imperative to do research, two were particularly significant. First was the need for collaboration and the pleasure gained from working with colleagues. Collaborative events included university Teaching, Learning and Assessment conferences and a departmental conference on different approaches to research-based prac-

⁸⁷ Research Assessment Exercise (RAE), was undertaken in 1986, 1989, 1992, 1996, 2001 and 2008 to evaluate the quality of research undertaken by British higher education institutions and to allocate research funding for the next (five year) period. <http://www.rae.ac.uk/> (accessed 30.07.2009).

⁸⁸ Hudson and Ottewill, (1997) Electronic information resource use: implications for teaching and library staff.

⁸⁹ Steel and Hudson (2001) Educational technology in learning and teaching: the perceptions and experiences of teaching staff.

⁹⁰ 'New professional' was the designation later introduced by Gornall (1999) and Beck (1999) to denote the non-subject specific, skills based form of university work that we were engaged in.

tice and scholarly activity. Second were the tensions generated, for example, over the distribution and use of resources, and over the aim and purpose of research into university teaching and learning and use of ICT.

Research in the department was primarily aimed at informing teaching and guiding practice, as a basis for conferences and journal articles, and/or to underpin bids for funding and reports to the Higher Education Funding Council. Significantly, my research and publication profile, which had been mostly stimulated by my curiosity as a university teacher, was incorporated into three consecutive Research Assessment Exercises (RAEs) – 1992, 1996 and 2001, – in itself an important marker of academic status.

Meanwhile, I wrote papers with university colleagues on pedagogical design, the use of ICT and multimedia, and also with other academics in the UK⁹¹ and Europe.⁹² I also decided to study for a Masters Degree and purposely chose a Master of Philosophy (MPhil) because its research-based approach to learning interested me and also because an MPhil was flexible and manageable in relation to other professional and personal demands on my time. My MPhil thesis, completed in 1997, was entitled 'Issues Affecting the Introduction and Implementation of Educational Multimedia'.

The period between 1996 and 2000 was a good time for ECIM. However, I was taking on an increasing numbers of responsibilities not in my formal job description, for which I received little official recognition, nor did I receive remuneration for the additional work involved. The Centre continued to gain funding for projects from internal, local, national and European sources; and relationships and working practices with colleagues across the university were well established in some areas and developing in others. It was also gratifying to see that research and evaluation contributed to the good working of the super-department.

Increased monitoring and bureaucracy

However, by the late 1990s a managerial shift was already discernable, initially signalled by increased bureaucracy in relation to externally funded projects. For example, sponsors began to demand more control over projects and instituted complex bureaucratic systems and heavy financial monitoring processes. At first this was understood as a necessary response to a recognised need for better financial monitoring. However, what also occurred was an escalation in the day-to-day administration and running of the

⁹¹ Dillon, Coupland, Edwards, Hudson and Tearle (1998) Multidisciplinary collaboration and the development of multimedia resources.

⁹² Schurz and Hudson (1998) Developing the European dimension through a collaborative European cross-curricular project.

projects. Managing and administering funded projects had always been an important part of the work of ECIM, necessitating the appointment of an administrator. However, greater demands for monitoring resulted in ever larger amounts of effort (and proportion of finances) devoted to providing financial and administrative feedback. The additional time needed both to apply for funding and to administer projects, combined with increased requirements for 'matched' funding,⁹³ resulted in a more cautious approach to externally funded projects on the part of the university in general.

This constituted a paradox: on the one hand, a shifting emphasis in higher education towards untrammelled enterprise and innovation and, on the other, heightened levels of accountability, administration and bureaucracy.⁹⁴ Thus, increased emphasis on enterprise,⁹⁵ innovation and commercialisation skewed my practices towards business and management, which at first seemed quite attractive. I was challenged and excited by the competitive environment; however, there was also a subtle inculcation of what Ball terms 'performative' practices, into 'enterprising' actors/subjects such as myself having 'a passion for excellence'!⁹⁶ Hence, the nature of the work provided new opportunities to 'succeed',⁹⁷ though this was counterbalanced by heightened levels of risk, short-termism and instability.⁹⁸ Thus, my workplace became increasingly competitive and business-orientated and feelings of success were often offset by inner conflict, questions about purpose and uncertainty about professional identity.⁹⁹

The university was also undergoing substantial change at senior management levels. In the late 1990s a new Vice-Chancellor was appointed and following this, much of the senior management team changed.

⁹³ Matched funding refers to an institution making a specified contribution when receiving project funding. The percentage of matched funding required is variable.

⁹⁴ This exemplifies Clark's perception of the entrepreneurial university (1998; 2003) and also by Barnett's (2000b) identification of performativity as the shift of emphasis from academic competence towards operational competence, which has affected core values, power relations and university discourses. See also Lyotard (1979), Ball (2000; 2003), and Usher (2006)

⁹⁵ For example an enterprise centre was piloted from 2000 and formally established in the university in 2003. This again reflected Clark's (1998, p. 138) perception of an enterprise and a development periphery of complex units operating on the edge of the traditional university structure.

⁹⁶ Ball (2003, p. 215)

⁹⁷ Ibid.

⁹⁸ Land (2003); Oliver (2002)

⁹⁹ Beck (1999)

However, local changes in the personnel of ITL were to be more influential on my professional well-being. At the start of the millennium a temporary appointment was made to cover a two-year secondment for a senior colleague in the ITL. The new colleague, appointed on a fixed-term contract had previously worked with the head of educational technology.¹⁰⁰ This change in personnel had an immediate affect on my relationship with the existing head of educational technology. Although both posts were on a more senior scale to my own, we all had the same line manager. Whilst I continued to try to carry out my work effectively I sensed a change in working environment. My former feelings of confidence and ease of working were never recaptured. Looking back, I can now see that from that moment on I was caught up in a struggle over capital and values. Shortly after this, the existing head of educational technology took up another post. The vacated post was filled by the new member of staff who had been temporarily covering the secondment. This was to have important implications particularly for my own work, the work of ECIM and my position as a new professional.¹⁰¹

Consolidation of new working practices

At the start of the millennium the ITL, in which ECIM remained, was allocated a more strategic role in guiding and shaping the new university Learning, Teaching and Assessment Strategy (LTA). The aim of LTA was to sustain the strategic objectives of the university which, at the time, included a strong customer focus, emphasis on quality, modernisation of learning, teaching and assessment and more cost-effective delivery.¹⁰²

The strategy was negotiated through the ITL and agreed by senior management at different levels of the university. ITL had particular leverage because it also worked directly to the Pro-Vice-Chancellor responsible for teaching and learning. Thus central university management, as Henkel notes, sought to extend its power over a dispersed workforce such that policy-making and the implementation of policy was increasingly taken by academics, deans or Pro-Vice-Chancellors. Henkel also notes the 'concentration of academic power at the centre of the institution', and the 'more complex intermediary structure lying between the institutional leadership and academic base units'.¹⁰³

¹⁰⁰Head of Educational Technology is used here as a pseudonym.

¹⁰¹Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992, p. 98)

¹⁰²Learning, Teaching and Assessment Strategy 2002/03.

¹⁰³Henkel (2002, pp. 32-33)

The situation for ECIM (and myself) remained relatively positive. For example, the 'new' strategies for student learning had the potential to stimulate and encourage both research and collaboration. They also consolidated the work, range of specialisms and experience of all staff in the super-department and the ITL including ECIM, in terms of drawing on staff to provide guidance and support for those seeking to implement the strategy.

At the same time academic members of staff in the ITL, including myself, were encouraged to diversify our activities and to provide a wide range of support for professional development. Thus, we participated in (course) validation panels¹⁰⁴ and course planning teams, acted as external examiners¹⁰⁵ and taught on different undergraduate and postgraduate programmes. Those staff who did not have academic posts or who did not have sufficient teaching experience (for example staff in ECIM) were encouraged to take part, either as students or tutors, in newly developing professional programmes for teaching staff. In other words the professional development of staff in the department, as it was for the university as a whole, became a priority. Integrative and collaborative working continued to be promoted in everyday working practice, as were research and evaluation, the writing of journal articles and conference presentations. Such overlapping professional activities highlighted common areas of interest whilst allowing staff to maintain their own specialisms.

Struggles over research into learning and teaching

Meanwhile, the institute for research into teaching and learning had, by the start of the new millennium, created an established network of educational research coordinators (including myself) based in different subject disciplines and departments across the university. Also research into teaching and learning at the university was further strengthened by the appointment of a new professor, who took up the post of IRTL's deputy director. The forthcoming 2001 Research Assessment Exercise was imminent, however, and was to have a significant impact on the future of research into teaching and learning at the university.

As already noted the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) takes place at four- to five-yearly intervals and is the means by which research is assessed

¹⁰⁴University Validation Panel, comprises of experienced subject/department specialists who act as independent judges for the approval of university courses and programmes.

¹⁰⁵External examiner system, quality assurance systems in higher education premised on ensuring that similar standards operate across universities. External examiners are usually appointed members of the examining board for three to four years. The appointed examiner is typically an experienced senior academic whose role is to advise, adjudicate and report on all aspects of the examination and course programme.

and future research funding distributed across the UK university sector. Polytechnics became eligible to participate when they became 'new universities' in 1992,¹⁰⁶ which had been the case for my university. In the 1992 and 1996 RAEs the university achieved a reasonably good position in the rankings, particularly compared to other 'new' universities (ex-polytechnics). For example, in the 1992 RAE the university submission in education (which included a range of education disciplinary areas) was rated a grade 3, and by the 1996 RAE it had improved marginally, to 3a,¹⁰⁷ and remained one of the most highly ranked of the new universities. The target for education in the forthcoming 2001 RAE was to increase the rating to 4. Despite an increase in research activity and the number of staff engaged in educational research at the university (and therefore entered in the RAE), grade 4 was not achieved. This relative subject failure went against the general trends of the university where a number of the research grades were again high compared to other new universities. Educational research, as an RAE unit, was depicted as 'having failed' by the newly appointed Pro-Vice-Chancellor for Business Development and Research and the IRTL was scheduled for closure. However, the Pro-Vice-Chancellor responsible for teaching and learning had a high regard for the work of the Institute for Research in Teaching and Learning, and its broader university function. There followed a long series of negotiations aimed at 'saving' some of the functions which were threatened because of the funding gap created by the RAE outcome.

Not surprisingly, there was an enormous sense of disappointment among educational research staff both in their failure to achieve the required research ranking and the closure of the research institute. However, morale was damaged further by the discourse of 'management' which indicated a mood of inflexibility and hard-nosed decision-making.¹⁰⁸ For example, the expression 'drawing a line under it' was used frequently by the Pro Vice-Chancellor for Business Development and Research to explain the non-negotiability of the management position on educational research.

However, the dissolution of IRTL did not lead to redundancies. Rather it resulted in movement of staff into other schools and the ITL. Staff movement took place in two phases and the two professors with a research remit were both absorbed into the ITL – though a few months later it was decided that there was only enough funding for one. At this point the origi-

¹⁰⁶ Elton (2000)

¹⁰⁷ The 2001 RAEs ratings for 2001 had 7 levels, 1, 2, 3b, 3a, 4, 5, 5*. (5* is now the highest rating). However the 2008 RAE used a four point quality scale. For quality levels see <http://www.rae.ac.uk/aboutus/quality.asp> (accessed 02.04.2008).

¹⁰⁸ Fairclough (1995)

nal professor returned to his Faculty, and in the short term the remaining professor's role was strengthened by being named Head of Research and the appointment of a team of research assistants. Thus following the RAE whilst internal research funding was restricted to a few key areas in the university, research into higher education remained important to the university mission and indeed was strengthened by the appointment of research assistants to ITL, primarily to support the university-wide teaching and learning strategy. However, the purpose and nature of research into higher education became itself an increasingly contested area.

At the time of the repercussions over the 2001 RAE, my work was finely balanced between managing staff and participating in ECIM activities which included research and development projects and educational development activities such as providing support for faculty-based learning, teaching and assessment strategies and developing technology-enhanced courses. I also continued to be the teaching and learning research coordinator.

Following the 2001 RAE, there were frank and wide-ranging views expressed regarding the purpose and form of higher educational research. While differences in the views expressed provided tensions, a sense of 'modus vivendi' was established, which continued to allow freedom for critical work. It also seemed clear that scholarly activity needed to be incorporated as 'a way of being' rather than viewed merely as an optional extra or funded activity.

Habitus: the teacher

Meanwhile, staff in the ITL were increasingly engaged in the design of new programmes of study, including professional development programmes such as a staff development course (later to become Postgraduate Certificate in Learning and Teaching in Higher Education) and a European Masters programme. Professional development courses and programmes became professionally accredited pathways for staff who either were newly appointed teachers or were working in 'new professional' posts, but with no previous background in education.

I continued my research on linking educational development and new technology to teaching and learning, initially by involvement in the European Masters programme, mentioned above. The aim here was to develop a European-wide programme communicated by means of new technologies. The challenges however were huge. For example, apart from having to negotiate a consensus between different European partners and to validate a programme involving different European universities, we pioneered the creation of an open-source virtual learning environment (VLE) which showed the potential of the internet in terms of communication, collabo-

ration and pedagogical design. The design of the VLE was underpinned by theories of constructivism¹⁰⁹ and developed by the Finnish partner in the project. Interestingly, the VLE was developed before commercial companies¹¹⁰ broke into the UK higher education market with similar software. I appreciated gaining a better understanding of working and learning at a distance, experimenting with blended learning (a mixture of on-line and face to face teaching) and engaging with what was soon to become more widely known as e-learning. The debates generated by the project regarding teaching strategies, pedagogical design, curriculum content and technology, as well as validation processes were indicative of issues that would later be thought of as 'cutting-edge' in educational development.

The European Masters programme was one of the first of its kind to be validated by the university.¹¹¹ Indeed, colleagues from ECIM were among the first cohort of students to gain a Masters award through the programme. Working on such a programme illustrated the benefits of technology, in this case, web-based virtual learning environments, though raised questions about, for example, the affordances of technologies, quality of the student experience, benefits or otherwise of international on-line collaborative working, importance of maintaining social presence at a distance, orchestrating interdependence, and so on. All were issues arising from student evaluations and were incorporated into action research projects by members of the programme team.

Piloting the Masters programme and the on-line teaching which followed further highlighted the need to link research with practice. Thus papers were produced by the programme team on on-line communities of learning,¹¹² dialogue in the new media, digital portfolios and reflective on-line diaries,¹¹³ interdependence, research methodologies and module evaluation.¹¹⁴ (See also Appendix VII)

¹⁰⁹LeBaron, Pulkkinen, and Scollin (2000)

¹¹⁰For example, Blackboard. Blackboard (Blackboard Inc.), often referred to as a Virtual Learning Environment (VLE) or an electronic Academic Suite is widely used in higher education and incorporates WebCT Inc's products. <http://www.blackboard.com/Solutions-by-Market/Higher-Education.aspx> (accessed 30.07.2009).

¹¹¹This was the first collaborative programme validated by the university which was designed to use the potential of a virtual learning environment and a blended learning approach with dispersed (international) students. The University Validation Panel assessed the course as an 'innovative and leading-edge approach to the fast developing area of e-learning and multimedia education' (report of Chair).

¹¹²Hudson and Pountney (2004)

¹¹³Clegg, Hudson, and Mitchell (2005)

¹¹⁴Hudson, Hudson, and Steel (2006)

As I continued my duties as head of ECIM, I considered my work as a university teacher on the Masters programme essential to keeping up with new developments in my discipline or field. It meant that I was involved in on-line teaching which included dissertation supervision as well as a full range of academic and administrative activity at programme level, for example, link-tutor responsibilities (working between partner institutions) and course and programme leadership.

Learning and teaching strategies and e-learning

The university meanwhile was engaged in pioneering the use of VLEs and took the decision to evaluate and then to purchase a proprietary VLE. It was first introduced as a 12-month pilot 'e-learning project', and then 'rolled out' across the university a year later, under the auspices of the head of educational technology. At the same time ITL became responsible for the learning, teaching and assessment strategy under the auspices of the head of educational development. The support provided by the institute for both LTA and e-learning was seen to be highly effective; but it was problematic for good channels of communication in the sense that two interrelated university-wide activities were located in the same institute yet were separately organised. For example, initially the e-learning project caused much frustration by being managed as a discrete activity, not least, because the implementation of the VLE impacted on the work and practices of all staff in the super-department, ITL and in particular ECIM. Indeed the effectiveness of the work of ITL depended on good channels of communication.

Tensions and struggles in the field

The 'rolling out' of the university VLE had benefits however: for example, it meant the provision of added resources and new 'e-learning' posts. Thus, an e-learning team was formed, under the line management of the head of educational technology. New fixed-term e-learning posts, which were described as 'at-elbow'¹¹⁵ were advertised, and ECIM staff were encouraged to apply. However, as far as I was aware, none decided to, possibly because of the positioning of the e-learning project, which, initially seemed distanced (although not in its physical location) from other activity in the ITL.¹¹⁶

The introduction of the VLE was a major project for the university and ECIM staff provided much needed extra support. Targets had been

¹¹⁵'At-elbow' generally means support on a 'one-to-one' basis.

¹¹⁶E-learning later became an integral part of the Learning Teaching and Assessment Strategy.

set and university teachers (termed ‘early adopters’) became involved. ‘At elbow’ support and training were provided and new knowledge and skills were quickly acquired by ECIM staff. Many workshops were held for staff across the university, with the e-learning team and staff in ECIM working together to provide support.

In 2002, the struggle to secure permanent posts for ECIM staff was finally achieved. This meant however that new job descriptions and posts needed to be created to ensure that equal opportunities policies were being followed, to allow for professional development and career progression and also to extend and strengthen key areas of the work, which was now more closely aligned to LTA.

In terms of professional development, staff were encouraged to gain experience of university teaching and to become involved in researching or evaluating the use of new technologies in teaching and learning. Research and development projects continued to provide opportunities for staff to develop technological skills, explore the affordances of the new technologies, and to coordinate and manage development. Thus, the new job descriptions were multi-dimensional and aimed to strengthen and balance pedagogical and technological dimensions of the work whilst opening up career routes leading either towards academic or teaching and learning posts, or to work of a more technological nature should that be the wish. (See Appendix VI for an example of a person specification developed for a tenured Senior Developers post.)

The resultant job security was generally considered positively; however, shifting from old to new contracts was more problematic. One difficulty was that tenured posts needed to be advertised and staff, therefore, were compelled to apply for the newly constituted posts. This caused considerable unease, even though the benefits seemed to outweigh the difficulties. Indeed having tenured positions explicitly endorsed the work of ECIM and the knowledge and skills of the staff. However, ‘the stakes’ of the game¹¹⁷ had been raised, in the sense that ECIM acquired important cultural and economic capital – i.e. tenured posts. Whilst this could be seen as a successful outcome for the staff as a whole and the Centre, its impact varied as we shall see.

Political imperatives and moves towards performativity

Under the leadership of the previous principal and Vice-Chancellor (1983 - 1998) and attendant management regime, the university had continued its long-standing commitment to creating opportunities for students from

¹¹⁷ Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992, p. 99)

disadvantaged parts of the region. However, widening participation became a policy imperative for UK universities at the turn of the century, often against a backdrop of financial constraint.

One outcome was that the introduction of e-learning and virtual learning environments was presented as a solution to the twin concerns of widening participation and limiting costs.¹¹⁸ For example, VLEs were being pursued as learning environments aimed at creating more open, effective and creative conditions for teaching and learning, while utilisation of VLEs was linked to targets and statistics about user access. At the same time complex social processes and events were reduced to figures and seemingly arbitrary categories of judgement,¹¹⁹ with concerns about quantity and throughput overriding those of quality and depth of learning.

As the VLE was 'rolled out' locally, it became increasingly difficult to discuss or critique the process of implementation. Whilst I was well aware that uncertainty and risk are implicit aspects of innovative projects, I felt compelled, at a particular point, to express my view about risk related to the quality of the student experience and summative assessment, which also implicated relatively inexperienced (newly appointed) staff in ECIM in the process. However, it was made clear to me that neither criticism nor dissension would be tolerated. Once again I felt increasing discomfort with my working environment.¹²⁰

My general critique found its way into a paper written with colleagues which took a strong stance against technological determinism and called for space for critical discourse.¹²¹ I remember feeling anxious about the content of the paper but equally strongly committed to the position taken. My anxiety was linked to fear of a hostile and intolerant work environment but was also to do with breaking through the barriers which I had constructed to protect my own passion and commitment to technologies and change. Micro-politics had finally intruded into my bounded professional life!

On a more encouraging note, in 2004 the university initiated fellowship awards to teams and individual members of staff involved in teaching and learning support. This initiative paralleled discussion across the broader field of higher education in the UK about the need to reward 'excellence'

¹¹⁸ NCIHE (1997); Bacsich and Ash (1999); Ash (2000)

¹¹⁹ Ball (2003, p. 27)

¹²⁰ Ball (2000, p. 20) describes such situations as a 'disjuncture between policy and preferred practice' which often leads to a tension between 'the teachers own judgments about 'good practice' and students 'needs' on the one hand, and the rigors of performance on the other'.

¹²¹ Clegg, Hudson, and Steel (2003)

in teaching in higher education'.¹²² I contributed to a collaborative application for a team fellowship, as a member of the European Masters programme team (mentioned earlier), which emphasised the innovative work of the intra-university programme and sought funding to support annual student-led 'face to face' conferences. The bid was successful, the fellowship was awarded to the tutor team and an annual student conference was funded for three years (and has continued ever since). The conference brought together in a comfortable social setting cohorts of geographically-dispersed students, who had previously only communicated with each other through video conferencing and VLEs. I also later received a personal fellowship for my general contribution to learning, teaching and assessment in the university and in particular for my work with ePortfolios. Interestingly, university awards in the form of 'fellowships', and 'distinguished teachers awards' increased in the UK¹²³ and in other countries too, primarily aimed at motivating teachers and improving teaching and learning.

Indicators of success and restructuring: a paradox

According to general indicators of effectiveness in higher education, the super-department and staff within it had established strong reputations in their respective fields and sub-fields, both locally and nationally, particularly with regard to participation in national and international projects, associations and organisations. Moreover, we were well informed about current university practices and procedures and continued to develop a wide range of specialist knowledge. This breadth of expertise seemed most effective when work was collaborative, which was evident due to the integrative approaches taken by staff across the super-department to support development in learning, teaching and assessment. For example, university-wide efforts to gain funding included successful bids to the Fund for the Development of Teaching and Learning,¹²⁴ Centres for Excellence in Teaching and

¹²²National Teaching Fellowships: <http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/ourwork/professional/ntfs> (accessed 02.04.2008).

¹²³Information on teaching awards: <http://www.teachingawards.com/> (accessed 02.04.2008).

¹²⁴Fund for Development in Teaching and Learning, established in 1995 to stimulate developments in teaching and learning in higher education and encourage good teaching and learning practice. <http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/ourwork/networks/fdtl> (accessed 12.08.2009).

Learning¹²⁵ and the National Teaching Fellowship Scheme¹²⁶ all of which required evidence of collaboration and competence.

The effectiveness of university strategies to improve teaching in the university also, to some extent, was validated by its highly-ranked position for 'quality teaching' in 2006, a substantial improvement on its previous position in 1995. However, it also needs to be remembered that these indicators can be criticised as 'performative' in the sense that they confirm the status quo/rules of the game that need to be adhered to. Nevertheless the outcome for the university was well deserved and a marker of success. Interestingly the period covered by the quality teaching table was 1995-2001 yet the results were published towards the end of 2006. This was after the university had moved into its next restructuring (starting in 2005).

The second restructuring: 'a values-based approach'

Just before the second restructuring took place, the director of the super-department (Centre for Learning) left to take up a post in another university. A new director was appointed but remained a few months only, after which the post was abolished. The second restructuring brought together IT Services and the Centre for Learning (including ITL and ECIM), into one very large mega-department which was headed by the chief information officer responsible for the information systems of the university.

This new mega-department was the second largest in the university, exceeded only by Estates which had responsibility for university buildings. The main 'driver' for change had been clearly financial, and included the goals of reduction in the cost of 'services', 'the need to demonstrate value', reduction in staffing costs and reduced flexibility in staffing levels, even though the overt mission of the new mega-department was to enhance 'the learning experience'.¹²⁷

The combination of two such large departments required changes in departmental structure, job descriptions, practices, management styles, values and so on. Thus a consultation process took place which sought to combine

¹²⁵Centres for Excellence in Teaching and Learning were established in 2005 to reward excellence in teaching practice and to bring benefits to students, university teachers and higher education institutions. <http://www.hefce.ac.uk/Learning/TInits/cetl/> (accessed 30.07.2009).

¹²⁶National Teaching Fellowship scheme, launched in 2000 and reviewed in 2005, is an award for individual excellence in teaching in higher education in England and Northern Ireland. <http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/ourwork/professional/ntfs> (accessed 30.07.2009).

¹²⁷The source of this information (accessed 09.03.2008) is no longer available on the web.

a 'values-based approach with corporate change' and which included 'values workshops' and 'values assessment'. 'Corporate Transformation Tools' were introduced (i.e. industry and government-created technologies for institutional change) which drew on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs.¹²⁸ Policy technologies were thus adopted which seemed primarily aimed at controlling and directing people and, as Ball shows, this deployment of techniques served to routinise staff activities and capabilities.

Policy technologies involve the calculated deployment of techniques and artefacts to organise human forces and capabilities into functioning networks of power. Various disparate elements are inter-related within these technologies; involving architectural forms, functional tests and procedures, relations of hierarchy, strategies of motivation and mechanisms of reformation or therapy.

(Ball, 2003, p. 216)

The values workshops included participants from different units of the mega-department and from different status levels, and seemed effective both in promoting collegiality and reinforcing the social order. At a personal level, I found the workshops intrusive and superficial, and a reinforcement of what was arguably a disputed interpretation of consultation. Indeed staff seemed to be subjected to what might be termed corporate indoctrination. The overall restructuring process constituted to my mind more of a reinforcement of social control in order to impose the values of the dominant group than a process of democracy.

Also at the start of 2005, the head of the Institute for Teaching and Learning reached retirement age. This was a personal and professional loss since both he and the previous director of the Centre for Learning (the super-department) had been strongly supportive of ECIM. The vacated post was advertised internally as covering educational development, educational technology and higher education research, and applications were submitted by three senior members of staff responsible respectively for the three areas in the advertisement. The head of educational technology was appointed to the post, a decision which was to have a significant impact on my professional career.

Divisions between new professionals

As already mentioned the second restructuring included changes to units, centres and job titles. The ITL retained its title, possibly due to the capital

¹²⁸Maslow (1943)

associated with what had been seen to be a successful ‘product’.¹²⁹ However, it was split into two main areas of work: one emphasising ‘innovation’¹³⁰ which initially focused on the use of digital technologies and e-learning, and one emphasising ‘academic practice’¹³¹ meaning support for teaching and learning.

Jobs were reclassified and staff once more had to apply for ‘their’ jobs. Mostly, colleagues from ECIM moved into the area which focused on innovation and took the opportunity presented of moving on to higher-status academic scales.

When it came to my own job profile, in the fifteen years of the existence of the Centre, I had been involved in a range of activities associated respectively with educational development, learning technology, teaching and learning and higher education research, as well as having leadership and management responsibilities. Thus my work had been multi-dimensional, a characteristic of new professionals in higher education, as we have seen. However, I still identified primarily as a university teacher, although I was not working in teacher education nor was I based in a specific subject discipline. I had traversed different communities of practice, such as those of managers, teachers, researchers, educational developers and learning technologists and therefore had developed a multi-disciplinary identity.

At the time of the second restructuring, I thus found myself at a career crossroads and took the decision to move away from management and towards practical engagement in issues concerned, as before, with strengthening the relationship between research and practice and between the use of information and communication technologies and media and teaching and learning. However, I found, like Schön, that the process of reform had eroded concepts of role and function without anything clear to replace them.¹³² Indeed the organisational space¹³³ in which I found myself offered little support for any meaningful decision.

¹²⁹Ibid. (p. 99)

¹³⁰Schön (1967, p. xv) argues that in business and industry, innovation and technology tend to be closely aligned. However innovation is often singled out by academics as overly-political and viewed with resentment (Land, 2001) though it is a key priority in teaching and learning in a recent report on educational development units in the UK (Gosling, 2008).

¹³¹These areas later developed to include a curriculum and professional development/strategic development, educational change, curriculum innovation and creative development (10.05.2008).

¹³²Schon (1967, p. 195)

¹³³Land (2006, p. 107) argues for example that new professionals find themselves located in organisational spaces that are not seen to have educational agency, or to be ‘academic’.

Nevertheless, I was determined to approach the (second) restructuring positively and to trust that the reorganisation would make possible ‘the abandonment of old positions without the loss of self’.¹³⁴ In other words, I wanted to trust the process of change to be ethical and have consideration of individual career route, professional identity, capital and values. However, based on evidence to the contrary I grew increasingly concerned about the process.

The divide between the two areas in the ITL created a dilemma for me personally. The gaps or spaces that I had worked hard to fill (between innovation, theory and practice etc.) seemed to be reinforced not dissolved by the new structure of the institute. I chose to move into the area of academic practice, in which higher educational research was also located. However, the new head of the institute and the chief information officer both indicated that that they did not expect staff members to work across the divide, between the two areas. This expectation was, it seemed to me, uncompromising, profoundly limiting, unnecessarily divisive, professionally unacceptable and irresolvable. Accordingly I actively began to seek other career opportunities.

One opportunity that presented itself was to continue in the area of work and study for a doctorate at Umeå University in Sweden. This arose in part from the productive relationships established in European projects and partnerships earlier, and interest shown in my area of work. The position was based in the Department of Interactive Media and Learning in the Faculty of Teacher Education, Umeå University – a department well known to me as one which had in the past sought to develop innovative approaches to the use of cutting edge technology, educational work and educational research. Completing a doctorate was something I had wanted to do for many years and I was delighted to be offered the support to do so. Thus, at the time of writing, I continue to seek to work across the boundaries between, theory and practice, educational development and learning technology with previous and new colleagues, though in a new institutional context.

Part III. Reflection and summary

Reflection

I want to end this autobiographical narrative by reflecting on two aspects in particular: values and habitus, and also by discussing some of the key features of my professional journey. Following Bourdieu, it seems that the values I have held, and how my social, cultural and economic capital have

¹³⁴Schön (1967, p. 203)

accrued, my personal disposition shaped by social characteristics such as age, gender, class, nationality, ethnicity and education, my location in an intellectual field and the strategies adopted by other players in the game; all of these have played a part in my career pathway through (one) new university and its continually re-formed nexus of power. A new regime of power set out to persuade me to compromise my values and integrity, and turn my back on my subject discipline and area of expertise. However, my practices have continued to be aimed at research and innovation,¹³⁵ in particular through my work with digital technologies and teaching and learning.

Habitus, and in particular gender, has been a determining factor in the development of my professional identity and career advancement. It was a factor in my earliest educational experiences and in my decision to teach, and it also played a part in the eventual outcome of the various university restructurings with which I was faced. For example, the core group of academic staff who were my colleagues and who worked in ITL throughout the third phase covered by my narrative comprised seven permanent academic staff (including myself) – three men and four women.¹³⁶ Following the appointment of a new head of the institute and the (second) restructuring process, the three male staff (initially) remained in the institute (one as the new head) while of the women, three felt compelled to take up posts elsewhere so that their values and work would be better recognised. On leaving the university at least one gained better remuneration and more scope for leadership, and two considerably increased their intellectual scope. Thus the women exercised positive agency in the situation. The overall shift within the new mega-department, arguably from academic to a technical and managerial orientation, resulted in the consolidation of male staff with institutional status strengthening their positions in the new regime. This suggests that new managerialism with its increasing emphasis on the use of new technologies as objects and processes of control, is likely to promote a gender regime favouring men.¹³⁷

Summary

An aim of this narrative is to provide an account of the impact on an individual of the emergence, in one higher education institution, of new practices, infrastructures and micro-political changes. Accompanying such structural and discursive shifts, we have seen the emergence of the new forms

¹³⁵Schön (1967)

¹³⁶Other staff joined the institute during that period.

¹³⁷Lawn and Ozga (1981); Dillabough (1999); Clegg (2001); Ball (2003, p. 227).

of higher education professionals and new sub-fields of academic practice, exemplified by educational development and e-learning. The narrative has sought to understand the relationship between technology and change and to show how social and cultural capital is advanced, valued and devalued. It also notes the impact of habitus and disposition, and the effects of recent new public management regimes,¹³⁸ technologies of change and performative cultures.¹³⁹ Particularly evident is how new (and old) professionals are rendered vulnerable by indomitable regimes of power.

In this professional autobiographical narrative, I have identified a number of phases of my life which seemed particularly significant. First was my primary school experience where social order and 'place' were firmly established; second was my secondary school experience in the 1970s, which shaped my subsequent subject interest and decision to become a teacher; third was my early 'pioneering' work in the university/department in the 1990s on teaching and learning and the use of new technologies and fourth, was my professional and ethical struggles from the start of the millennium onwards.

During the period covered by the narrative, the most enduring dimension has been my continued fascination with the application of information and communication technologies and multimedia to teaching and learning, combined also with an interest in the relationship between research, practice and professional development. These interrelated dimensions, ironically, mark me out as an 'old' professional and, as the latter part of the narrative shows, have affected the stakes of the game in which I was involved.

Bourdieu interprets the stakes of any game as the product of competition between players; thus the strategies of the 'player' and everything that defines the game are functional,

...a function not only of the volume and structure of his capital at the moment under consideration and of the game of chances [...] they guarantee him, but also of the *evolution over time* of the volume and structure of this capital, that is, of his social trajectory and of the dispositions (habitus) constituted in the prolonged relation to a definite distribution of objective chances.

(Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 99, italics original emphasis)

Thus, according to Bourdieu, the volume and structure of capital and disposition and the strategies adopted by players in the game determine the outcome of any possible competition over capital. When the stakes become

¹³⁸ Deem (1998; 2003)

¹³⁹ Ball (2003)

high, symbolic rather than physical violence is used as a source of power which constitutes a danger to the modes of action of individuals. It can be exercised as a technology of control, for example as in the 'values workshops' or as a feature of the disposition of individual, though powerful agents. As mentioned earlier,¹⁴⁰ symbolic violence is used socially by a holder of social capital against those with less capital, conveyed for example through looks, gestures and body language.

Within any field, or space of 'active forces' and struggles, there are 'stakes' and 'investment in the game', competition between players and sometimes ferocious opposition, all of which indicate belief that the game is worth participating in. This echoes my own earlier delight in team sport, and also of the events in the institute and university from the 1990s onwards. My initial understanding was that players acknowledge, agree and abide by the rules of the game. However, I was always aware that the rules of a game can be changed or abandoned. The question then is to what extent does this affect the game and one's position and agency in the field of play?

When I entered higher education, first as a student and then a teacher, I instinctively sought to cross boundaries. At the same time, I remained fascinated by a particular topic, the potential of new technologies that can be used to support teaching and learning. This remains very rewarding for me personally and in terms of my accrued social and cultural capital. However, my identity as a new professional took me into an unforeseen political environment where practice became increasingly influenced, not by fundamental values and ethics but by technologies of power and control.¹⁴¹

Thus in looking back, my professional identity is as a teacher across three dimensions:

- as 'pioneer', exploring, taking risks, crossing boundaries and borders
- as 'actor', following the logic of the situation, and being drawn (subtly or otherwise) towards agendas of performativity as a means of social control
- as 'scholar', reflexive and subject to 'the struggle over the teacher's soul'.¹⁴²

One outcome of this thesis is that I have been able to analyse particular phases in my own professional journey and now have also, I hope, a more nuanced understanding of events, the relationship between technology and change and politics in higher education. It has also drawn me to make some

¹⁴⁰See also chapter two.

¹⁴¹Trowler (1998, p. 44); Deem (1998, 2003); Ball (2003).

¹⁴²Ball (2003, p. 217)

interesting comparisons between, for example, my early experience of the reform of the school system in the 1970s, and the restructuring of the Institute of Teaching and Learning in 2005. Both organisations (including the super-department) were originally established in response to demands for educational expansion and were perceived as successful in terms of achieving their original aims. At the same time individuals within both organisations could be described as having accrued 'valuable' social and cultural capital. Both organisations were also affected by educational policy and both were gendered, though in different ways. The school had mainly women in senior staff positions who were eventually compelled to seek other posts or lose their status (or jobs) on the eventual closure of the school; while the impact of reform on the ITL also compelled a senior group of women to seek more appropriate professional environments.

Furthermore, I have sought to show how policy technologies and the employment of symbolic capital by the dominant group has been a means of constraining professional autonomy and authenticity, and de-professionalisation.

Finally, above all else, various theorists (Bourdieu, Schön and Ball) have helped me to analyse the on-going relationship between technology and change and my own professional struggles as a social agent working between different sub-fields of power.

As stated at the outset of this chapter, this is a personal story told from a particular point of view and may be interpreted in many ways. Reflecting on the two main educational restructurings which were influential on my professional work has helped me to understand the difficulties that I sensed and the discomfort I experienced particularly with the latter restructuring. My sense is that on the surface both restructurings were responses to social, cultural and economic imperatives where new technologies as both objects and processes were implicated. However, I am forced to conclude that the first restructuring in the mid-1990s had at its centre support for teaching and learning and was thus largely guided by academic values, in contrast to the second restructuring in 2005, which was dominated by managerialism and policy technologies shaped by corporate values.

Chapter 6. Educational development: literature review

Introduction

In the last chapter I showed how changes and restructurings of higher education as a result of expansion, technological development and performativity impacted on one new professional (myself). I also characterised my occupation as that of a new professional committed equally to supporting teaching, learning and scholarly activity (educational development) and fully utilising new technology. In this chapter, I explore educational development (and the work of educational developers) and its background, practices, perspectives of research and positioning as one form of new professionalism in higher education. The chapter concludes by identifying some of the challenges with which the sub-field is confronted.

As mentioned in earlier chapters and following Bourdieu, the term field has been used in this thesis to conceptualise a broad area of academic practice i.e. of university academics as teachers, researchers and to some extent learners in higher education. The term sub-field is used for educational development in this chapter (and learning technology in the next), to denote that it is subsidiary to the broader area of academic practice. As Bourdieu argues, the logic of field and sub-field are determined by the active characteristics and properties of the field. This chapter and the next explore the broader contextual literature and specific texts on practice in the sub-fields of educational development and learning technology.

Background

As we have seen, the expansion of universities in the 1990s created greater demands on university staff to acquire pedagogical skills which would address the needs of an increasingly diverse student body. It became the job of educational developers, working often in specialised units, to ensure that academics acquired the necessary pedagogies and practices. However the debate on the relationship between teaching, learning and research in higher education has a history of more than four decades, at least.

For example, the Robbins Report (1963) had considered university education expansion and its implications, and called for new approaches to management, while the Hale Report (1964) provoked a debate on the suitability or otherwise of university teaching methods. Parallel to this, as we have already seen, Gosling identifies 'central staff development units' as being formed in the 1960s to support the improvement of academic practice in the UK (Gosling, 2008, p. 8). In Australia, similarly-oriented units sought

to 'provide university-wide support and to enhance the quality of teaching, learning and scholarship and to promote the continuing professional development of staff' (Review of Higher Education Financing and Policy, 1997: point 1), while in Sweden in the 1970s, discourses on teaching and learning emphasised the importance of linking research to university practice, encouraged by the (Swedish) Network for Educational Development in Higher Education, (Kallos, 1976).

Gosling notes that some of the 'first units' for educational development in the UK were established in the 1960s, 'often with a focus on educational technology'. However, the speed of growth and expansion of units with the brief to support teaching and learning in universities accelerated in the 1990s, with forty five created between 1990 and 2000. This steady growth tailed off between 2001 and 2005 with only nine new units created (Gosling, 2008, p. 9). (See also Fig. 1, chapter three).

The discourses and practice of educational developers reflect the requirement placed on university teachers to respond to what were seen as far reaching effects of globalising policies of widening participation and expansion as well as marketisation on higher education working practices. Thus, Land (2004, p. 2) describes the establishment of units of educational development in the 1990s (in the UK) as 'a strategic and operational means of helping academic staff to accommodate and cope with such rapid changes in practice and organisation'. Meanwhile, in Australia, against a background of competing conceptions of educational development and later academic development, Brew and Boud warn of fragmentation calling for new frameworks to take account of new roles and the changing circumstances of institutions (Brew and Boud, 1996).

In the first decade of the twenty-first century, university teachers were still being pressed to respond to the increased diversification of the student body as well having to work in a more politicised and financially-driven context. This and the various restructurings being carried out in specific institutions had an impact on educational development units which were increasingly becoming centralised under the control of a Pro-Vice-Chancellor or a Vice-Principle, although 'nearly half had dual lines of reporting' (Gosling, 2008, p. 11). However, excepting analysis of different forms of support to academics to improve their practice which provided the core work of educational development, the sub-field seemed otherwise theoretically under-developed (see also Brew, 2006). As Land (2004, p. 1), argues, 'educational development' is a 'little understood activity' such that perhaps the next decade would be a pivotal and defining period 'in the short history of educational development' (ibid. p. 198). Thus, Land's book, *Educational Development: Discourse, Identity and Practice*, was a response to demands for

more reflection on the nature of educational development and how it could gain better professional recognition. More recent reflections continue to place emphasis on the field becoming 'a profession or discipline in its own right' (Grant, et al., 2009), thus highlighting the need to build a common body of knowledge (Taylor, 2009), and also turn towards the career trajectory of the next ('third') generation (Lee, et al., 2008).

Educational development is thus in one sense an established sub-field and in another, in urgent need of the application of intellectual rigour. Issues that demand more investigation included the nature of the sub-field itself. Is it, for example, a 'field concerned with the development of teaching and learning in higher education' (Rowland, 2001, p. 164), or a set of strategic practices (Macdonald, 2003; Roxå and Mårtensson, 2005) – or a combination of both? Is it a discipline in its own right as Bath and Smith (2004) argue, or one of several new professional communities of practice (Land, 2001; Brew, 2003b; Taylor, 2005)? If it is a community, then it is clearly a fragmented one since the term, educational developer, is contested and definitions of the role, practices and purpose of educational development are constantly being redefined (Trigwell, et al., 2000; Rowland, 2001; Land, 2001; Roxå and Mårtensson, 2005; Brew, 2007; Gosling, 2008; Lee, et al. 2008).

Undoubtedly, at various periods educational development has been a dynamic and productive sub-field with innovative and reflective practitioners which has reconstructed its relationships with other areas of university practice (fields and sub-fields), and in relation to prevailing national and institutional policy and new power regimes, as is shown in the autobiographical narrative. The growing power-base is evident world-wide, for example, in the emergence of associations and networks such as the International Consortium for Educational Development (ICED), established in 1993, with an international conference and associated journal, *International Journal for Academic Development*. Similarly, the International Society for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (ISSOTL) established in 2004 has as its main aim to 'foster inquiry and disseminate findings about what improves and articulates post-secondary learning and teaching' (ISSOTL, 2006).

In the UK the sub-field has also drawn strength and power from a proliferation of professional development programmes for higher education, for example, Professional Development Frameworks (SEDA), the UK Professional Standards Framework (Higher Education Academy, 2006), and as noted in the last chapter, rewards systems which promote 'high quality' teaching such as the National Teaching Fellowship (Higher Education Academy). Thus, we can see that in recent years the sub-field of educational development has matured (Gosling, 2008) although it remains fragmented and uncertain about its future (Land, 2004, 2006). Brew, in Australia, and

Gosling, in the UK, identify growing challenges as institutional managers place greater demands of accountability on academic/educational developers to improve the student learning experience (Brew, 2007; Gosling, 2009).

Review of selected empirical studies of practice and professional awards

Various attempts have been made to capture, explain and define the range of practices associated with educational development, drawing on different perspectives and methods, and with varying outcomes. However, in UK higher education, other than Gosling's studies for HEDG, there are few empirical studies on what educational developers do and in particular on the relationship between educational development and new technology. This section reviews eight texts, five from the UK and three from Australasia, chosen because they are based on empirical studies and characterise the ideologies and practices of educational developers. (See chapter three for the criteria used to search for and select the texts.) The aim is to identify the practices and characteristics underpinning the work of educational developers and thus further determine Bourdieu's 'logic' of the sub-field. The review uses the conceptual framework (discussed in chapter three) of scholarship, principles of university teaching, change and transformation.¹⁴³

Practices are clustered under four headings:

- research and scholarship
- teaching and learning
- application and integration
- supporting strategy and change (which includes management and leadership and improving the quality of teaching and learning).

Following this, two other subsidiary topics are discussed: identity and integrity, the latter of which is identified as an overarching principle of university professionals, and working with new technologies.

Research and scholarship

Research and scholarship are frequently mentioned activities of educational developers. By this is meant that educational developers are seen to engage regularly in critical reflection and research on teaching and learning as well as helping others to reflect on their own practice. However, different perspectives on research and scholarship are evident, for example regard-

¹⁴³The framework used to guide the analysis, the selected texts and the approach taken to the analysis are discussed in chapter three on methodology and methods. A list of the texts can also be found in Appendix I.

ing methodologies, the nature of knowledge and the purpose of research. Thus, in one text a distinction is made between carrying out research into teaching and learning, promoting the scholarship of teaching and learning, and encouraging research into teaching and learning, in order for example, to enhance the ranking of the university in the research assessment exercise (Gosling, 2008). Also noted is the tension within educational development between 'doing' and 'supporting'.

There are many misunderstandings about the remit of educational development and a tension between the need to carry out research in this area and the need to provide support.

(respondent in Gosling, *ibid.*, p. 38)

Scholarship is consistently mentioned throughout the texts and research is clearly an important area of practice for educational developers. However both the texts on practice and the general literature in the field, suggest that educational developers have a range of views about their role regarding research and scholarship.

Teaching and learning

Teaching and learning are also frequently mentioned in the chosen texts, in particular the range of different teaching activities undertaken by educational developers which include consultancy and mentoring (Bath and Smith, 2004; Taylor, 2005), supervising research (Fraser, 2001) and training (Gosling, 2001, 2008). Most significant is the trend towards the teaching and organisation of formalised professional development programmes for teaching staff involving accreditation and qualification. This aspect of practice is directly related to national policy and the UK Professional Standards Framework set for Teaching and Supporting Learning in Higher Education. A recent study identifies three main areas of support for teaching as follows:

(1) providing staff/professional development relating to teaching and learning; (2) having responsibility for initial professional development of teaching staff (e.g. through a Post Graduate Certificate (PGCert), and (3) having responsibility for training for postgraduates who have teaching duties...

(Gosling, 2008, p. 16)

This means that educational developers have become responsible for planning and delivering staff development courses as well as for one-off and other shorter training sessions.

Application and integration

Also well-represented in the chosen texts are activities to do with the application of knowledge and understanding in context. This includes getting to know the community, learning to work in the community and/or adjusting teaching to context/student. For example the results of a study on the leadership experience of academic specialists suggests that being able to adapt to different contexts is important to educational development.

Knowing in community was the strongest theme in this data set, and is well represented in the results. These developers clearly engaged in knowing their academic communities in the Palmer (1998) sense of actively sharing goals, resources, and problem solving. (Taylor, 2005, p. 42)

Reference to cross-disciplinary practice and integrative practices (giving meaning to isolated facts) are not made explicit, apart from the importance of team building (Taylor, 2005) and development of culture of collaboration (Gosling, 2008). This omission is particularly interesting given that the *Scholarship of Integration* (Boyer, 1990) is held to be a primary driver of new professionalism (and therefore one might suppose educational development) (Savage and Betts, 2005; Snoek, et al., 2009).

Nevertheless, teaching, learning, application and integration are visible in many characterisations of practices of educational development. For example Land (2001) identifies twelve 'orientations' that capture the 'attitudes, knowledge, aims and action tendencies of academic developers', two of which are: 'internal consultant' and 'modeler-broker', each indicating practices of application and integration (ibid, p. 4). As 'internal consultant', the educational developer emphasises context.

There is then a period of 'sensemaking' in which the consultant attempts to analyse the complexity of the learning environment and frame some understanding of it. This respondent, drawing on Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept of situated cognition, sees its 'situatedness' as important. (Land, 2004, p. 101)

As a 'modeler-broker', the educational developer emphasises good collaboration.

This kind of orientation is associated with a discourse of educational development as a form of *brokerage*. Putting those who might benefit in touch with those who have valuable practice to offer. But effective brokerage, as the following respondent emphasizes, is dependant on good *collaboration*. (Land, 2004, p. 106)

Such academic practice builds on shared professional understandings and the tacit knowledge of experienced university teachers but is increasingly being replaced by teaching and learning strategies with specific achievement targets and formal accredited professional development programmes with measurable outcomes.

I guess the jargon is not very popular with a lot of people, but actually it is good having performance management which sets targets which are informed by the institutional strategy and that are relying on individuals' work and when that person doesn't deliver it is not that difficult to move them on, or develop them.

(respondent in: Gosling, 2008, p. 33)

Supporting strategy and change: management and leadership

Practices supporting institutional strategy feature extensively throughout the texts though policy is mentioned less which suggests that the relationship of educational developers to policy development is generally related to implementation rather than policy creation. In general, strategic activity is interpreted as planned action designed to achieve a particular goal which is most usually generated through institutional or government policy. However, there are often subtle differences in the way strategic activity is implemented i.e. target-based with an emphasis on throughput or project-based with an emphasis on themes.

Thus, educational developers may be required to, for example, help colleagues to improve the quality of their teaching, manage processes of accountability or support staff going through audits (Gosling, 2001, 2008). They may be required to facilitate university-wide teaching strategies related to professional development or 'oversee' the 'implementation' of learning and teaching strategies (Taylor, 2005; Gosling, 2008). In one text the responsibilities of educational unit directors are identified as both strategic and developmental and as:

...likely to include coordinating comprehensive teaching and learning "Foundations" programs for new academic staff, teaching a course on university learning and teaching, developing policy, and facilitating systemic, university-wide teaching development initiatives.

(Taylor, 2005, p. 34)

Strategic, developmental and innovative approaches are highlighted in a most recent study of educational development practice where two major strands to the work of educational developers are professional development and strategic responsibility:

(1) professional development of staff relating to learning and teaching and other academic duties, and (2) a shared strategic responsibility for implementation of the learning, teaching and assessment strategy, encouragement of innovation and enhancing teaching quality. (Gosling, 2008, p. 18)

Indeed all the selected texts refer to working within a context of modernisation and rapid change. In one text, thus 'managerial', 'political-strategic', 'entrepreneurial', and 'opportunistic' all feature as descriptors to denote the orientation of educational developers (Land, 2004). Interestingly, explicit references to 'innovation' appear more often in texts from the UK than from Australasia which may reflect the less managerial ethos in Australian universities suggested by Andresen (2000a, p. 27), as we will see later in this chapter, or the business orientation and emphasis on 'change' of UK universities in their concern to become 'entrepreneurial' (Clark, 1998).

Identity and integrity

Other factors that one might have anticipated to have seen in the texts include developing a sense of the *identity* and *integrity* of the university teacher (as referred to in Palmer, 1998). Exceptionally, identity, integrity and values are noted in one text as pertinent to 'academic development' in terms of leadership (Taylor, 2005). Otherwise, the chosen texts refer most often to the importance of 'professionalism', and of having a professional 'role' and 'values'. One senses from the quotation below, however, that this viewpoint is shaped more by idealism than by reality. Here is provided what seems to be a 'wish-list' of demonstrable qualities of academic developers.

Dimensions of leadership are evidenced in every aspect of the academic development role. By exercising identity, integrity, and growth in their teaching, developers demonstrate the credibility, fairness, honesty, connection, enthusiasm, genuineness, commitment, competency, sensitivity to values and hopes, broadmindedness, and openness characteristic of effective leaders (Kotter, 1990; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Ramsden, 1998). (Taylor, 2005, p. 43)

We shall see that similar emphasis on professionalism, role and values are also found in the texts on the practices of learning technologists.

New technologies

All texts reviewed refer to the presence of information and communication technologies and most recently, e-learning. However, apart from

training activity being linked to the use of ICT (Gosling, 2001, 2008), explicit practices to support the new technologies are few. Most texts suggest rather that educational development ‘encompasses’ understanding of how ICT can be employed in teaching and learning, but that specialist staff are responsible for the implementation of the use of ICT and e-learning. Indeed one text makes a distinction between e-learning development and e-learning support.

Thirteen of the new universities had staff with some kind of e-learning or learning technology support role, but only eight had someone with an e-learning development role.

(Gosling, 2008, p. 20)

This portrayal of e-learning/learning technology staff reinforces the view that practices associated with learning technologies are seen as specialisms, and thus neither part of the educational developer’s role, nor built into university structures. Thus the texts as a whole fail to characterise or provide examples of support or development of learning technologies.

Summary

The literature suggests that the work of the educational developer is currently changing from being informal, wide ranging and varied towards being more focused on supporting institutional strategy, teaching and learning and professional development programmes. As we shall see later in this chapter this reflects trends towards the centralisation of educational development practices in units under the direct control of Pro-Vice-Chancellors with responsibilities for teaching and learning.

We have also seen that new capabilities are being demanded of higher education professionals, involving for example, encouraging innovation and entrepreneurship in addition to or in place of ‘old’ (conventional) academic practices of teaching, learning and research. In this sense, academic life is being reformed to take account of the real world and to engage (critically or otherwise) with the multiple discourses with which it is confronted (Boyer, 1990; Barnett, 1997; Land, 2001). Nevertheless the characteristics of practice identified in this section indicate that there remains a strong emphasis on practices associated with support for teaching, learning and research on teaching and learning, and a relatively muted response to the market-led and competitive national and institutional policy and strategies for higher education of recent years. However the texts also reveal that there are different orientations and characterisations of practice and thus many tensions within this sub-field.

While the most recent text (Gosling, 2008) indicates that educational development units and the practices of educational developers are continuously changing, there is less evidence of ‘generational shifts’, which we shall see signs of in the next chapter on learning technology.

Perspectives on research and scholarship

This section explores such differing perspectives on research and scholarship held by educational developers. We have already seen that the notion of scholarship is a contested one for educational developers in the sense that there are many interpretations about what they do. We have also seen the influence of Boyer’s (1990) conceptualisation of a new scholarship and the establishment of the sub-field (Trigwell, et al., 2000; Andresen, 2000b; Elton, 2001; Macdonald, 2003; Shulman, 2005; Huber and Hutchings, 2005). Thus, Trigwell, et al. (2000) argue that Boyer’s reworking of the concept of scholarship has made a positive difference to how we understand the relationship between research and teaching in the sense that it has prompted debate into research methodologies. Similarly, Andresen argues that Boyer’s ‘extraordinary’ conception of a ‘scholarship of teaching’ poses transformative challenges to conventional day-to-day university teaching and academic practice.

Boyer, his colleagues, and successors latched onto the extraordinary potential of the idea of ‘scholarship of teaching’, seeing in it a key to faculty renewal. They glimpsed its transformative potential. To confront the meaning of scholarship is not simply to be called to task for how and when to use it, nor is it merely the challenge to talk and write with semantic integrity. It is to experience a fundamental challenge to the way one operates in academic work, hence practicing our teaching in ways that embody and convey intellectual integrity. This theme has since been taken up by others, and interpreted in ways that are beginning to reveal strong implications for day-to-day teaching practice in academia.

(Andresen, 2000b, p. 139)

Elton suggests the impact of Boyer on teaching and learning is to generate a re-newed field of research in which learning comes through ‘natural’ enquiry.

...nearly 200 years after Humboldt, his ideas have been built into curriculum design and extended by Boyer to all kinds of learning. The research aspect of the learning experience is now more a natural outcome of the teaching-learning system and depends less on the

quality of the teacher, while the nature of the link may no longer depend on the research excellence of teachers, but rather on their ability to encourage and facilitate in their students a problematic approach to learning. (Elton, 2001, p. 50)

Thus learning through enquiry has been constituted as an important task for educational developers, for, as Rowland (2005, p. 92) asks, 'how could one enjoy teaching without being fascinated by the subject and wanting to find out more about it?'

This point is taken up by Shulman (2005) in the foreword of the book *The Advancement of Teaching and Learning* (edited by Huber and Hutchings). Shulman argues that it is the professional responsibility of educators to 'engage continuously in their own efforts to examine the quality of their work, its fidelity to their mission, and its impact on students intellectually, practically and morally' (Shulman, 2005: vi). This argument (for research-based practice) is made for both university teachers and educational developers since the practice of both groups are likely to benefit.

However, differing perceptions of research and scholarship and different views of what working as an educational developer means have sometimes generated conflict and tension. For example, Schön (1995) notes the struggles in universities in the USA in the 1990s over epistemology and the nature of knowledge. Schön's powerful narrative of his difficulties in applying a scholarship of teaching and learning to the use of new technologies at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) highlights a range of barriers to developing a scholarship of academic practice. These include, on the one hand, overcoming deep-seated views of research and the role of the 'academic', and on the other, identifying appropriate methods for the new areas of research. As a result of his experience, Schön (ibid.) is deeply critical of 'the power of disciplinary in-groups' and 'our slow-moving battle of epistemologies' specifically in relation to the incoming new technologies or as he puts it, 'educational uses of the computer'. Thus, Schön perceives the new scholarship as primarily challenging technical rationality and positivist approaches to research, engaging in epistemological battles over what academic knowledge means and introducing practice-based research methods such as action research as legitimate and appropriately rigorous ways of knowing and generating knowledge. Furthermore, the new scholarship requires, Schön argues, a new epistemology governed by new rules about what counts as legitimate knowledge, and increased rigour in research in order to achieve legitimacy as a disciplinary field.

The popularity of the concepts 'scholarship', 'scholar' and 'scholarly activity' is one aspect of the new scholarship that has needed clarification or

'tightening-up' (Andresen, 2000b, p. 137). Indeed, prompted by a sense that an insightful and effective discourse is in danger of becoming meaningless, Andresen has sought to specify the 'quintessential scholarly attributes': which for him are 'critical reflectivity, as a habit of mind; scrutiny by peers as a *modus operandi*; and inquiry as a motivation'. However, despite such attempts, differing views remain, and indeed there is a concern that 'scholarship' evades definition. Thus, Sandmann and Fear (2002, p. 2) propose a multiple interpretation of scholarship; as 'fertile, evolving, multifarious-even-contested-environment' yet also dynamic, to do with critique and challenge, as well as learning by engaging with practice.

The new scholarship was heralded, at the turn of the millennium, as a solution to antiquated academic practices and as a means of meeting 'the challenges that we all face as learners and citizens of the twenty-first century' (Huber and Hutchings, 2005, p. 2). In the UK, however, the concepts of scholarship came under attack from government. An 'off the record' comment from the Education Secretary in 2003 about the 'medieval' nature of scholarly activity, was followed by a justification of 'the wider social and economic role of universities' as most deserving of 'significant state financial support' of government. As can be imagined, this was to spark off what continues to be a heated debate about what is seen as the core activity of the contemporary university (Reisz, 2008).

Thus, whilst in many respects scholarship is problematic, the debate about scholarship has paralleled an increasing self-awareness among educational developers, of their contribution to pedagogical development and the practice of teaching in higher education. Focus on scholarship has also become central to the creation of the new discipline of educational development and has provided a distinctive literature. Furthermore, scholarship is perceived by some (e.g. Andresen, 2000b; Elton, 2005) as holding the key to the transformative potential for university staff to renew themselves which, the hope is, will re-energise and transform the university as a whole.

Position and location in the field

If educational developers are a strategic group at the heart of policy and pedagogical transformations in higher education, it might be expected that policy-making and importance of local context would be substantial elements in the professional discourse. It might also be assumed that educational developers would accrue valuable social and cultural capital and thus, have a key position in advising and influencing higher education policy at both local and national levels. This section explores whether this is indeed the case and explores the trends and tensions that have impacted on the position and capital of educational developers.

National position

National agencies and policy-making groups have had a significant impact on the work, capital and priorities of educational developers in the UK in the sense that the former have provided the policy and funding frameworks for the professional identity of the latter. For example, the Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education (ILTHE) was established in 1999 to enhance the status of university teaching and improve the experience of learning and support in higher education (Brown, 2000). The Higher Education Academy (HEA), which succeeded and subsumed the ILTHE in 2004, aimed, along with 24 national Learning and Teaching Subject Centres, 'to help institutions, discipline groups and all staff to provide the best possible learning experience for their students'. The HEA's objectives thus created the context for the forthcoming work of educational developers, i.e. to:

- facilitate the development and implementation of a standards framework for professional recognition
- accredit institutional programmes
- develop accreditation routes for different staff groups and different types of institutions
- support registered practitioners and other individual practitioners.

(Higher Education Academy, 2005, Strategic Plan 2005-2010, No. 3., p. 4.)

More recently HEA seems to have broadened its remit. For example, it has overseen research into how ICT, and more specifically, e-learning can enhance pedagogy, and also aimed to establish, in 2007, an e-Learning Research Observatory, the main task of which was to collate and disseminate e-learning research and fund a number of research projects (see also chapter seven). Indeed, in 2008 the view of HEA is that research on e-learning is an important means of support for the HE sector in the sense of 'improving the quality of the student learning experience' (HEA, 2008b). HEA has also been responsible for a 'Pathfinder Project' to benchmark e-learning 'progress' in higher education institutions in partnership with the Joint Information Systems Committee (*ibid.*, E-Learning Benchmarking and Pathfinder Programme). This particular project, according to HEA is 'different' from previous national initiatives (*ibid.*, p. 2).

The benchmarking exercise was intended to help selected institutions establish where they were in regard to embedding e-learning. The Pathfinder programme, by contrast, was specifically designed to help selected institutions, on behalf of the sector, identify,

implement and evaluate different approaches to the embedding of technology-enhanced learning in ways that result in positive institutional change. The HEFCE strategy provided the strategic background to the programme, with its emphasis on placing the responsibility for, and ownership of e-learning development with the individual institution. (Ibid.)

An emphasis on ‘institutional change’ also generated new partnerships with other national organisations such as the Leadership Foundation for Higher Education, as a ‘dedicated service’ of support and advice to develop and improve ‘the management and leadership skills of existing and future leaders of Higher Education.’ The focus of the partnership is:

...a programme of support for teams from higher education that enables them to develop the knowledge, capacity and enthusiasm for achieving complex institutional change. (HEA, 2008a)

Thus the Higher Education Academy has broadened, its remit, crossing boundaries into different territories and explicitly using its status as a funding body to force change in universities. The examples above emphasise respectively e-learning and leadership as motivators of change. However, the approaches taken tend to focus on implementation rather than on posing critical questions. Indeed, engagement in partnership with such powerful central agencies could be viewed as a breach in the traditional autonomous role of the university as a major producer and transmitter of knowledge.

As we have seen above another development supported by HEA is The UK Professional Standards Framework for Teaching and Supporting Learning in Higher Education (2006), proposed originally in a 2003 government White Paper (DfES, 2003b). While clearly a government initiative paralleling other professional standards frameworks such as those for teachers, the higher education framework is presented as research-based and sector-owned, with a distinctive ‘scholarly nature’ of teaching:

...the scholarly nature of subject inquiry and knowledge creation, and a scholarly approach to pedagogy, combine to represent a unique feature of support for student learning in higher education institutions.

(The UK Professional Standards Framework for Teaching and Supporting Learning in Higher Education, 2006, p. 2)

On the one hand the framework could be interpreted as providing legitimation for the role of educational development in higher education; or

alternatively it could be interpreted as indicative of the failure of HEA to understand the criticism from university staff of attempts to increase central control over their workplace and including the efforts of educational developers.

The HEA has, however, taken several steps that have had a positively retrograde impact, including delay, seeming endless policy change, failure to demonstrate understanding of what is going on in institutions etc. This has lost credibility for educational development and the original impetus created post-Dearing has been considerably lost. (respondent in: Gosling, 2008, p. 51)

Moreover, HEA has moved into areas previously the responsibility of professional organisations such as the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA) (Land, 2004). This duplication encouraged longer-standing associations, such as SEDA, to revise their roles and practices. Meanwhile HEA is criticised for not engaging adequately with educational development professionals and 'individual academics' (Gosling, 2008, p. 50). Thus, paradoxically HEA claims to be concerned with the profile of teaching and learning in higher education, yet also stands accused of downplaying the importance of its grass roots membership and the educational development community generally.

A changing higher education landscape has also been apparent in Sweden, where a number of networks, councils and agencies have been created to provide support for change in higher education. Educational development as a sub-field initially emerged in the 1970s in the form of the Swedish Network for Educational Development in Higher Education (Roxå and Mårtensson, 2005). Later the Council for the Renewal of Higher Education was established by the Swedish Parliament (in 1990) with the broad remit to support the development of teaching and learning in undergraduate education. In 2006 this responsibility shifted to the Swedish Agency for Networks and Cooperation in Higher Education (NSHU) which also incorporated the Swedish Net University (established in 2002 to promote distance education and increased access to higher education). The remit of the NSHU included broadening recruitment to universities, support for pedagogical development, staff development, coordination and marketing of Swedish university courses, and coordination of projects and research on higher education, and in particular distance education.

The main aims of NSHU echo those of similar agencies in the UK, e.g. to develop 'high quality, relevant support', 'close collaboration' and the 'scholarship of learning'. However following a change to a more conservative

government in 2007, NSHU was 'given notice of closure' seemingly with no clear explanation of why or anything to replace it. Understandably, this created a climate of uncertainty for NSHU staff (new professionals in educational development) and for future policy in this area. Thus the focus for NSHU shifted to 'the survival of networks and projects' (Swedish Agency for Networks and Cooperation in Higher Education, 2008).

Sweden is a smaller country in terms of population and resources, with fewer central agencies dealing with conditions in higher education compared to the myriad of committees in the UK. However, recent policies at the national level reflect a similar climate of uncertainty, rapid change and restructuring to that in the UK.

Changes in locus and direction of funding, and the increased influence of national agencies such as in Sweden and the UK, are interpreted as part of the reshaping of higher education. The movement of power and resources (economic capital) away from one institutional base towards another can be read in several ways. For example, in Sweden, moves to form the NSHU by combining longer-standing and newly formed agencies, each with an understanding of distributed learning and educational technology, could be seen as mainly positive in terms of bringing together complementary experience and encouraging collaborative working practices. This provides a contrast to the seeming complexity in the UK created by the involvement of multiple players in the form of agencies, committees, associations, forums, centres and foundations, working at different levels, each with a degree of power and its own strategies, frameworks and benchmarks.

It has thus proved difficult to provide a single descriptor for changing national landscapes. At times, shifts seem to occur, rhetorically at least, towards a more integrated national policy for higher education and away from seemingly isolated national or institutionally-based initiatives in pursuit of highly individual goals and increased power bases, but this is not consistent.

Local positioning: stand-alone units or distributed learning?

This section explores the specific location of educational development units and educational developers within individual institutional environments. Institutional location is an important indicator of role, social capital (networks and relations) and perceived significance (status) of all workers in higher education. In his three studies of educational development units between 1995 and 2006, Gosling noted shifts in the location, structure and management of such units (Gosling 1996, 2001, 2008). The most recent study carried out in 2006 indicates that units tend to be spread across different parts of the university campus, for example, in libraries/information services, human resources, professional (academic development) units,

quality services, registry, or in specific faculties. Placing an educational department unit in an academic department is seen generally as 'a marriage of convenience' for the purpose of quality assurance and accreditation (e.g. the Postgraduate Certificate of Education as mentioned above) (Gosling, p. 11). There has also been a proliferation of educational development units that are directly line-managed from the centre. Less than half (45 per cent) were line-managed by Pro-Vice-Chancellors or Vice Principals in 2000, though by 2006 this had risen to 77 per cent (ibid). Moreover, it is argued that educational development units, faced with rapid change, are developing an ever-closer relationship to senior management with their work increasingly dictated by institutional policy and strategy; all of which reflect tighter forms of university management and increased centralisation.

Where educational developers have been allowed a little more freedom of autonomy, such as in Australia, stronger arguments are found for the development of professional identity and critical practices. Thus in Australia, educational developers have been less associated with centrally organised 'implementation' activity and more with creating a holistic or embedded setting that allows for a focus on the needs of the individual staff members in their workplace (Brew and Boud, 1996). Boud (1999) argues for example that educational development should be located in sites of academic practice i.e. faculties and subject areas, and which might lead to a more collegial perspective in relation to academic work and peer learning. In the USA, likewise, Shulman (2005) and Huber and Hutchings (2005) each advocate holistic approaches to educational development and the importance of research and scholarship dedicated to this endeavour.

Echoing Boud's notions of distributed and embedded practice, Shulman (2005, p. vii.) suggests the need to 'scale down' in order to 'scale up'. His argument is that a distributed approach is needed across the university to increase scholarship on teaching and learning instead of a concentration of activity in stand-alone or centralised units. Furthermore, Shulman argues that distributed scholarship i.e. small groups working in appropriate and different environments, can also be effective with centrally-directed development and systematic reform, for instance, influencing colleagues through 'powerful, focused conversations' (ibid.). These ideas of Shulman to some extent reflect Engeström's theories on integrative and interdisciplinary approaches to learning and working, where the centre does not seek to dominate (Engeström, et al., 1999). Gosling (2008) is able to identify a trend in the UK of exploring the efficacy of different 'distributed' models of educational development. However, the model and its principles are a potential source of contestation and struggle.

...some interesting times lie ahead in relation to debates surrounding the value of centrally-based educational development versus more local, subject-based development models. There are many colleagues who are assuming educational development roles but do not see themselves in that capacity – nor would want to. The politics of boundaries and interfaces will become more pronounced I fear. (respondent in: *ibid.*, p. 30).

This wide distribution of educational development units might be described by Bourdieu as a confrontation of specific forces within a new field of practice which has no direct alignment to an existing subject or discipline. This may be a strength, in terms of independence and autonomy, i.e. not being seen as a tool of a particular ‘interest’ group, but also a weakness in terms of academic credibility and lack of access to power. Indeed, the network of heads of educational development units (HEDG) is clearly aware of the vulnerability of their position. Initially formed in 1995, a key aim of the network is to share experience, provide mutual support and ‘plan their survival’ in an increasingly hostile environment (Gosling, 2001, p. 86).

Summary

In summary, the selected texts on educational development suggest that the preferred location for educational developers depends on their perception of their core work. Those who prioritise scholarly activity and academic practice and who take a distributed and holistic approach to their practice incorporating research and learning, are most comfortable in academic or educational settings, whereas those whose work priorities are primarily to support the implementation of institutional policy and strategy, and who see their role in terms of ‘change management’ will prefer to work in centralised units.

Educational developers: struggles in the field

The strategy of positioning educational development units to promote practices which take account of, for example, a ‘new’ and more diverse student body, newly emerging fields and sub-fields, varying cultures and contexts, as well as policy initiatives is much in evidence in the analysed texts as well as the general literature on educational development. For example a 2001 national inquiry into teaching and learning in higher education in Sweden identified educational developers as a ‘strategic tool’ for the improvement of university teaching (Roxå and Mårtensson, 2005). Another metaphor used is that of a bridge spanning the increasing divide between university management and academic practice (*ibid.*, p. 447). The perception of edu-

cational developers as strategic tools to bridge difference resembles to some extent the efforts to re-distribute power in UK universities noted by Henkel (2002) which suggests that leaders have to develop new sets of relationships and new roles and structures to assist them in carrying out their designated tasks. The 'academic development' unit is thus described by Macdonald (2003, p. 9) as a 'cushion between conflicting interests', and by Henkel (2002) as being pulled and pushed according to the tensions of public accountability and government policies. Similar to Henkel, Land (2004, p. 129) notes the potential discomfort of 'the great majority' of developers who are compelled to identify with the notion of change, solve the difficulties associated with both leading and supporting processes, and argue for the necessity of often controversial forms of change. This has meant increased utilisation of consultation, negotiation and persuasion exercises and a stronger dynamic between senior management such as Vice-Chancellors, Pro-Vice-Chancellors, the professoriate, and faculties. Involved in the 'dynamic' have been advisory and implementation units with a wide range of specialist expertise, such as units for supporting teaching and learning and the use of new technologies (Clark, 1998, 2003).

The lack of space for critique is clearly evident in what Henkel and Land have to say, as above, especially since the end of the 1990s when the higher education agenda of the UK began to be dominated by tighter and more accountable forms of governance (see chapter five and Clegg, Hudson and Steel, 2003). A similar lack of critique has been observed in Sweden, in the sense of educational developers aligning either with management to supporting policy-based activities or focusing principally on research and teaching development (Roxå and Mårtensson, 2005). From an Australian perspective, Andresen (2000a) concludes that attempts to 'co-opt teaching developers' into a 'managerialist culture' have been less successful because the 'ethos within teaching development' is overtly anti-managerialist. Thus, Andresen perceives 'teaching development' (or educational development) as potentially subversive since it can 'help to subvert managerialism and turn it back on its tracks' (ibid. p. 27). Thus, we can see that ethos and culture of educational development differs in different contexts.

As we have already seen, other friction points for educational developers occur in relation to learning technologists, for example Cousin (Cousin, in: Land, 2004, p. 130) suggests that emphasis on pedagogy rather than technological innovation protects academics from anxieties associated with change and the motivations underpinning it. However, Land (2004, p. 196), is more concerned with the relationship between educational developers and learning technologists and the increasingly problematic nature of learning technologies for the educational development community. Indeed,

Gosling thus raises questions about who is driving the increasing focus on e-learning and notes a number of tensions which include confusion about the nature of the role of 'academic' or 'service'-orientated professionals and the 'mixed on-off relationship with educational technologies' (Gosling, 2008, p. 27). For Land (2004, pp. 195-96), as mentioned earlier, learning technologies represent a major threat to educational development and the 'future direction and growth of the educational development community'. And, whilst Gosling is careful to point out that there is no discernible trend regarding the aggregation and disaggregation of educational development and learning technologies, he notes evidence of the dismantling of some large educational development units and also narrowed definitions of educational development as merely 'supporting learning technologies, with other kinds of educational development seen as a lesser importance' (Gosling, 2008, p. 28).

The key issue is whether it is the enthusiasts for the technology who are driving the expansion or the enthusiasts who see how to exploit the potential for e-learning. (Gosling, 2008, p. 28)

Can educational developers find a way out of this difficult situation? First it is suggested that they need skills of negotiation 'in some fashion' (Land, 2004, p. 129) in order to devise professional strategies of challenge and resistance to differing power regimes and discourses. Being identified as 'explicitly scholarly in our work' (Baume, 2002, p. 110), or having appropriate social and cultural capital however may not be enough to protect those who have chosen the educational development career path from the more centralist ambitions of others. Educational developers clearly need support in strengthening their position in the field, one such opportunity being SE-DA's recognition that career paths no longer reflect static divisions within formal higher education structures. Thus, as we have seen, new professional development frameworks have been created to make visible and accredit the work that educational developers do.

However, a downside is that professional recognition for educational developers is threatened by their centralised and marginal position outside subject disciplines and perceptions of them as tools of management. Furthermore, even though professional bodies and agencies might provide some support, there is little to suggest that educational developers are supported within their own institutions where they often face challenges to their own positions in an increasingly hard-nosed and instrumental environment.

Summary

This chapter set out to analyse and explore the literature on the background, practices and position of educational developers. We have seen the growth over recent years of educational development, as a sub-field of academic practice in higher education. Nevertheless, organisational volatility, new approaches to managing universities that directly affect the work of educational development units, changes to national agencies that affect policy-making and funding streams, lack of consensus about the core activity of educational development, the emergence of other new professional groups, such as learning technologists, all signify challenges for the educational developer.

We have also seen that specific national and institutional policies determine what is at stake in the sub-field of educational development and that educational policy and different forms of technological innovation and change determine how economic, social and cultural capital is distributed. However it has also become clear from the chosen texts that different dispositions and positions of educational developers in different contexts can have a substantial impact on ethos, practice and academic freedom.

Furthermore, given that learning technologists are seeking to establish a stronger position in the university as we shall see in the next chapter, it is naive to assume that educational development can risk not being associated with the social, political and pedagogical effects of new technologies on university practices. Greater reflection and theorisation is also needed on the knowledge-base, professional development, welfare, career prospects and workplace of educational developers.

The overall review of selected literature, thus, has raised the following issues:

- the problematic relationship between political and pedagogical contexts
- impact of governmental agendas and national policy and changing funding models
- impact of institutional policy and strategy on practice which embody Bourdieu's view of coercive agents and symbolic violence
- dis/continuity and generational shifts
- different views of the part scholarship and research plays in educational development
- value of integrative and multi-disciplinary practices
- different views on the difference between educational development and academic development
- increased effort to establish educational development as a discipline

- the use of new technologies seen as a specialism
- uncertainty regarding professional status and future survival.

Three particular areas of tension (although not mutually exclusive) have emerged which highlight difference in terms of practices and habitus. The first arises from an increased expectation for practices which primarily support policy and the implementation of strategic goals as distinct from practices which support teaching and learning and professional development of university teachers through collaboration and collegiality. The second is between perceptions of the role of educational development as including contemporary digital technologies as an integral part of work and those who wish to relegate technology to a specialism. The third area of tension is between those who include research as an essential integrated aspect of their everyday work and those who merely support others in carrying out research.

Chapter 7. Learning Technology: literature review

Introduction

The last chapter examined the background, practices and position of educational developers as new professionals in higher education. This chapter does the same for learning technologists. It first provides an introduction to the development of learning technology as a sub-field of academic practice, and then provides an overview of activity and changes in the sub-field. This includes, as in the last chapter, a structured literature review of selected texts on practice and an overview of perspectives and approaches to research. The chapter explores the position and capital learning technology holds at national and local levels and concludes with a discussion of the tensions and trends faced by learning technologists, who have nevertheless developed a strong power-base in higher education over a relatively short period.

We have already noted that information and communication technology has had a major impact on universities (Laurillard, 1993; Castells, 1996; Gibbons, 1998). It is against this backdrop of pedagogical change through technology, seen by some as a paradigm shift, that learning technology is regarded as a new field ‘emerging’ in the mid-1990s when learning technologists appeared as a significant professional grouping in the UK and elsewhere (Conole, 2004b). However, as we shall see, e-learning professionals have been identified as the new emergent grouping (Conole, 2004a, Conole and Oliver, 2007) and technology enhanced learning (TEL) as a ‘new’ area of research (ESRC, 2009).

This understanding of ‘recentness’ and ‘newness’ and the unproblematised adjective ‘new’ provides the flavour for how new professionals working with new technologies perceive themselves, for example, as ‘emerging’, ‘little understood’, and/or ‘hybrid, marginal’, yet ‘central to institutional processes and change’ (Oliver, 2002, p. 245).

Background to learning technology

This section traces the background to learning technology and includes the establishment of associated fields and professional associations and struggles for position and capital. Thus the aim is to provide a picture of social and cultural trends rather than a detailed account of the historical development of technology.

Learning technology in fact has a long history (Hamilton, et al., 2004); for example, awareness of the potential for education of visual media such as slides, radio and motion pictures existed in the USA as early as the 1920s

when the National Education Association (NEA) established the Division of Visual Instruction (DVI) (AECT, 2008). From then onwards the potential of technology to enhance and transform educational experience has been a variable of the mainstream educational agenda.

By the end of the 1940s the DVI had expanded its interest in media, resulting in a name change to the Division of Audio-Visual Instruction (DAVI). Interest in the use of radio, television, film and audiovisual media continued to grow; the 1940s saw the arrival of the prototype of the personal computer (Memex) which laid the foundations for hypertext, artificial intelligence and multimedia (Paulsson, 2008). In the 1950s the introduction of 'teaching machines' (Skinner, 1955) and interest in 'self instruction systems', learning theories and instructional design provided an interlude before the era of the personal computer when the focus moved away from helping teachers to use media towards the design of self instructional systems. New paradigms and a proliferation of sub-groups emerged within DAVI such as the 'communications movement'. At the same time the NEA (the funding body for DAVI) was reorganised, membership was broadened and tensions, mounted which led to what was described as 'the first of several identity crisis' in years to come' for the membership of DAVI (AECT, 2008). In the 1960s, and following a major reorganisation, DAVI became the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) (as it is known today). This brief overview drawing on the history of AECT educational technology in the USA, shows the impact of technological innovation on practice and professional identity in the USA – and has some similarity to what was to occur in the UK and elsewhere.

In the 1960s in the UK, for example initial interest in the educational benefits of the computer was expressed by the Flowers Report (1965), particularly in relation to the needs of universities and research councils. The report's primary concerns were the urgent acquisition of 'several large American computers' and how they might be maintained. However it also stressed the likelihood of rapid technological change and the need for a regulatory 'body' to keep a watchful eye on technological developments (*ibid.*). The report led to the establishment of the Computer Board for Universities and Research Councils (CBURC) which during its 25 year existence saw rapid changes in the affordability, availability and sophistication of computer-based technology and its spread across different academic subjects (Smith, 2005).

The late 1960s and 1970s saw the emergence of large multi-media 'open' higher education institutions and the development of distance education as a field of research (see Moore and Kearsley, 2005). Most notably at the UK Open University, educational technologists (as they were then called) sought

innovative ways to teach and learn by means of technology, and to develop effective forms of distance education (Lawless and Kirkwood, 1976).

Educational technology was by now an established academic 'field' in the USA and the UK. In the USA in 1972, AECT defined educational technology as two dimensional. It was both:

- a field involved in applying a complex, integrated (technological) process to analyse and solve problems in human learning
- a profession made up of an organised effort to implement the theory, intellectual technique, and practical application of educational technology. (AECT, 2008)

Educational technology continued to strengthen its position by incorporating concepts and ideas from existing disciplines such as education, psychology, communication and instructional design. Scholars such as Piaget (1962) and Papert (1980) prompted a shift in thinking from what were predominantly behaviouristic approaches to learning towards constructivism which asserts that learners are the main constructors of their own knowledge. Drawing on a theoretical framework for educational research, constructivists began to explore users' interactions with computers and to develop an appreciation of the benefits of computer programmes and tools for learners.

The increased interest in technology and learning theories prompted the creation of several professional journals. For example, in the UK the *British Journal of Educational Technology* was established in 1970 to support a broad range of interests relating to the impact of new technologies on teaching and learning including 'theory, applications and development of educational technology and communications' (Hawkridge, 1999, p. 394). Similarly, in the USA, AECT's journals included *Educational Communication and Technology Journal*, *Instructional Innovator* and the *Journal of Instructional Development*, while the Australian Society for Educational Technology (ASET), established in 1975, published the *Australian Journal for Educational Technology* (AJET).

Towards the end of the 1980s interest in the future direction of the 'field' of educational technology in the USA prompted a 'state-of-the art' analysis based on a review of the educational technology literature (Ely, et al., 1988). 11 'trends' or indicators of activities and direction were identified:

1. design, development, and evaluation of instructional materials and procedures
2. professional education of teachers in the use of educational technology

3. development of distance education
4. computer as the dominant medium in the field
5. telecommunications and video, including interactive video, as major media delivery systems
6. changes in the role of the educational technologist
7. implementation of educational technology drawing on successful practices
8. educational technology as an established field
9. integration of educational technology principles, products, and practices into courses and curricula
10. relationship of educational technology to society and culture
11. research activities.

(adapted from Ely, et al., 1988, pp. 5-20)

Later in this chapter we shall see similar trends identified in Conole and Oliver's (2007) more recent characterisation of e-learning. Ely, et al. draw attention to confusion regarding job titles and the various attempts to define the roles and functions of those working in educational technology and also that gaps have emerged between generations of learning technologists in terms of status and purpose, and also a growing unease about individuals entering the 'profession' directly from business and industry.

The "old timers" are concerned about preserving their status, and the "newcomers" are trying to justify their existence. In some cases there are "turf" battles, but by and large, the literature does not reflect these conflicts, which occur mainly at a local level.

(Ibid., p. 22)

By the end of the 1980s telecommunications and video, including interactive video had become popular generally, accompanied by increased interest in how they might enhance learning. Also evident at this time, was collaboration between higher education institutions and business and industry prompted by a number of large scale government-funded projects, for example the Interactive Video in Education Awareness Support Scheme, 1988, and later the Teaching and Learning Technology Programme, 1992-2000 (see also chapter five).

By the 1990s the potential impact of 'interactive' technology on academic practices, teaching and learning and institutional processes raised challenges for higher education in terms of professional development and capital investment (Laurillard, 1993). In the UK, as we have seen, the emphasis in higher education shifted from support for teaching towards support for

learning, and as we saw in the autobiographical narrative, the potential of interactivity and learner control added a promising new dimension to teaching and learning. Interactive programmes often combined behaviourist and constructivist learning design and were considered to have the potential to enhance levels of student-centred learning and group work (Dillon, Tearle, and Hudson, 1999).

Thus by the mid-1990s the term, 'learning technology' became part of the discourse of higher education, and as Conole (2004b) suggests 'learning technologists' emerged 'as a distinct group' encouraged by funding which went from a trickle (primarily for research and development into early multimedia technologies) to a flood (primarily targeted at improving and applying information and communication technologies). Government funding was also funnelled through different agencies such the Joint Information Systems Committee, established in 1993, and the Higher Education Funding Council's Teaching and Learning Technology Programmes launched in 1992, which had 22 million pounds plus to distribute. In addition, as we have seen, funding was available through the European Commission. Quasi-government funding agencies also came into existence in the early 1990s, for example the National Council for Educational Technology (NCET) (reconstituted as the British Educational Communications and Technology Agency in 1998 and now known as Becta) was to provide a national focus of expertise for technology in learning.

As previously mentioned, the Association for Learning Technology (ALT) was launched in 1993 with the explicit aim of promoting 'good practice' and collaboration across higher education, and brought together practitioners, researchers and policy makers. The opening paragraph of the editorial of the first volume of the ALT journal (ALT-J) alluded to 'propitious circumstances' as well as potential struggles in the field.

One of the aims of ALT is to promote good practice in the use of learning technology within higher education. Few would not subscribe to this aim, but proclaiming it without a full awareness of the problems it entails is of the same order as proclaiming one's commitment to Peace without further comment.

(Jacobs, 1993, p. 2)

Thus an aim of the new association was to ensure that circumstances were favourable for the promotion of learning technology.

The 1990s also saw a number of influential reports emphasising the potential impact of ICT on higher education as already noted. For example The Follett Report (1993), on libraries and information provision in

higher education, made recommendations on ICT infrastructure – as we saw in chapter five. Thus the wide-spread adoption of connected desk-top computers became necessary to support the integration of new technologies and new media in higher education. Recommendations arising from my MPhil study into *Issues Affecting the Introduction and Implementation of Educational Multimedia* identified a need for: institutional/faculty strategy, appropriate management and leadership, appropriate support for professional development, multi-disciplinary working practices, and research on teaching and learning and new technologies (Hudson, 1997).

Towards the end of the 1990s the Dearing Report further emphasised the potential impact of communications and information technology on academic practice in higher education, highlighting in particular the need to redefine staff roles.

Job descriptions, reward structures and career patterns will need to be reviewed to take into account the developments in C&IT, [.....] there is a particular need for institutions to recruit or develop staff with experience in C&IT and management skills, many of whom are in short supply at present.

(NCIHE, 1997: Full report, ch. 14.19)

Following Dearing, other reports raised concerns about the extent to which the wider use of new technologies in society was ‘outstripping the skills’ of the university teacher (Beetham, et al., 2001, p. 3). Thus, during the 1990s, as we saw in the previous chapter, the number of educational development units increased substantially (Gosling, 2008) as ‘new professionals’ (Gornall, 1999; Beck, 1999), including learning technologists, now clearly came to be seen as possessing valuable capital.

Thus similar to the 1970s, the 1990s marked a period of technological innovation that impacted on higher education and resulted in increased funding opportunities, the emergence of learning technologists as a staff group, formation of new professional associations and shifts in the value placed on specific forms of social and cultural technological capital.

The start of the new millennium was marked by the introduction of virtual and managed learning environments and a subsequent shift towards policies concerning the implementation of technology and the commodification of knowledge. Academic staff came under pressure from government bodies and university management to be innovative in their use of ICTs for a mass education system (Steel and Hudson, 2001; Clegg, Hudson, and Steel, 2003). New technologies were also seen as useful for university organisational processes as well as for teaching and learning.

Once more hyperbole was employed, here in relation to the introduction of e-learning, identified as ‘the’ mode of communication ‘that will transform all forms of education and learning in the twenty-first century’ (Garrison and Anderson, 2003, p. 2). According to Conole and Oliver (2007, p. 4) e-learning was ‘the term most commonly used to represent the broader domain of development and research activities on the application of technologies to education’, characterised as having the following properties:

- ‘*Interdisciplinarity*’, meaning its adoption and use in different disciplines often with different research perspectives
- ‘*Accessibility and inclusiveness*’ in relation to a commitment to widening participation and reducing the ‘digital divide’
- ‘*Change*’, in relation to the development of technology in parallel with institutional strategy
- ‘*Commodification*’, in terms of the buying and selling of knowledge and the convergence of systems and standards
- ‘*Interactivity and social interaction*’, meaning that technology impacts on roles, identities and organisational matters. and finally,
- ‘*Political aspects*’ which include awareness of the power relationship between technology, politics, strategy and practice

(adapted from Conole and Oliver, 2007, p. 4)

With the exception of the commodification of university knowledge, the ‘themes’ identified by Conole and Oliver are remarkable similar to ‘trends’ in the 1980s identified by Ely, et al. (1988). Indeed, Ely and Plomp’s (1986) reassessment of the promises of educational technology over a fifty year period, highlights the importance of historical and cultural contexts, and of interpretation.

Some historians believe that events are cyclical over time; some psychologists believe that the best indicator of future behaviour is past behaviour; some philosophers say that we learn from our mistakes. All of these viewpoints seem to describe the activities of educational technology over the past fifty years. (Ibid. p. 246)

More recently Technology Enhanced Learning (TEL, 2009) was introduced as a new area of research in UK higher education under the Teaching and Learning Research Programme. According to its website TEL is particularly concerned with identifying how technology enhanced learning can contribute to: Personalisation (individual needs), Inclusion (wider access), Flexibility (openness to change) and Productivity (economic outcomes).

Thus, by looking back over events leading up to the identification of learning technology, e-learning and technology enhanced learning, we can see recurring patterns associated with new technologies in higher education. It is thus difficult to pinpoint precisely the metamorphosis of the learning technologist from the educational technologist, and to appreciate such nuanced distinctions.

However, the emergence of the learning technologist in the UK reflected an increased emphasis on learning as well as the following:

- increased level of sophistication and accessibility of desk-top digital technology
- development of accessible, controllable media for teachers and learners
- development of collaborative software applications for teachers and learners
- the increased emphasis placed on the knowledge society
- information and communication technology becoming a major industry in the knowledge economy
- explosion of funding aimed at integrating new technologies into educational work.

This was a distinctive phase in the emergence of learning technology as a dynamic movement in which old and new professionals were both able to explore the affordances of technology for teaching and learning, and also exploit the economic capital available. We shall see later in this chapter that targeted funding continues to influence the development of educational technology and indeed the habitus of the learning technologist.

Review of selected empirical studies of practice and professional awards

This section considers seven texts chosen to identify the practices and characteristics underpinning the work of learning technologists and thus further determining the active characteristics and properties of the sub-field. The texts chosen (and literature generally on the practices of learning technologists) are mainly commissioned empirical studies and reports. All texts are from the UK and are interconnected; for example some studies and reports were commissioned and used to inform the development of professional standards (also included in this review). The review uses the conceptual framework (discussed in chapter three) of scholarship, principles of university teaching, change and transformation.¹⁴⁴

¹⁴⁴The framework used to guide the analysis, the selected texts and the approach taken to the analysis are discussed in chapter three on methodology and methods. A list of the texts can also be found in Appendix I.

However, as explained in chapter three the scope and time period covered by the texts on learning technology are somewhat narrower than those on educational development (see chapter three and Appendix I).¹⁴⁵ Thus recent job titles were scrutinised and are discussed in the summary of the review at the end of this section.

The review on the practices of learning technologists produced five main themes:

- supporting teaching and learning
- research-based activity
- integration, application, design and development
- supporting strategy and change
- management and organisation.

Following these, two subsidiary areas are technical issues and concepts related to identity and integrity.

Supporting teaching and learning

A central focus of learning technologists is how to support teaching and learning and staff development. According to the chosen texts, practices are wide ranging, for example: enabling and advising, providing consultancy, increasing awareness, mentoring and training. While 'training' frequently appears, particularly in relation to the accreditation of learning technologists (CMALT, 2005; SEDA, 2005), not all texts refer explicitly to training. For example, one text includes a job description for learning technologists, which contains terms such as 'advising' and 'assisting' with the following activities:

...the introduction of technology-supported learning, through workshops, teaching on courses for new lecturers, one-off consultations or (in most cases) through collaborative project work that can be framed as 'action learning'. (Oliver, et al., 2004, p. 46)

Thus while practices associated with supporting teaching and learning are wide ranging, there is a strong stress on project orientated activity and work-

¹⁴⁵The week this thesis was sent to the publisher two new studies into the work of learning technologists were launched. The first is a survey led by Lynne Gornall, who was the author of the 1999 study on new professionals. She describes the new study as part of ongoing research and interests in the employment and working life of learning technologists, and related staff in HE. The second, funded by the Higher Education Academy, is a review of the literature pertaining to: *The positioning of educational technologists in enhancing the student experience*.

based projects such as action learning which suggests that practices are essentially practical and context specific.

Research-based activity

Research-based activity which emphasises contributing to knowledge is prominent in the texts. However, the type of activity covered is varied. For example, gathering and disseminating information and 'keeping up to date' are mentioned as central to the work of learning technologists (Beetham et al., 2001; Oliver, 2002; Oliver, et al., 2004; CMALT, 2005; SEDA, 2005). Research into teaching and learning also emerges as an important activity. One text, offers a generic framework for accrediting professional development in C&IT, and states that 'participants must be able to demonstrate that their work has been informed by, among other things, 'scholarship', 'continued reflection on professional practice' and 'an understanding of how people learn' (EFFECTS, 2003, p. 1). However the criteria, which are described as 'values', are depicted as predominantly learning from others and being informed by current local and national agendas.

The basis of embedding learning technologies should be an awareness and acknowledgement of the ideas and theories of others. The use of learning technologies should be underpinned by a searching out of new ideas and learning from the examples of others. This should also be informed by a wider awareness of the current agendas locally and nationally. (ibid.)

Similarly, the CMALT prospectus categorises 'research' as a 'specialist option', referring to research only in general terms as follows:

Learning technologists are people who are actively involved in managing, researching, supporting or enabling learning with the use of learning technology. (CMALT, 2005)

Thus we can see that research on learning technologies and on relationships between learning technology, teaching and learning are acknowledged features of learning technology work. However while research activity is wide ranging in both practice and purpose, the texts suggest a lack of theorisation and critical analysis, although we shall see later that recent job titles suggest that this may be changing. With imperatives to generate knowledge on new technologies, teaching and learning, and bolstered by research funding, learning technologists are in the process of shifting their practice towards research. Nevertheless, questions still remain about how learning technologists view scholarship in relation to their own practice.

Integration, application, design and development

Integration and application of new technologies including support for pedagogical work and the design and development of material and curricula are all mentioned frequently in the chosen texts.

Integrative and multi-disciplinary practices are frequently mentioned in terms of encouraging collaboration and networking. Oliver, for example, places particular emphasis on the collaborative nature of learning technology practice, with a key characteristic 'centred on collaborative curriculum development ...' (Oliver, 2002, p. 251). Working across boundaries and encouraging the exchange of ideas is also a strong dimension of practice. For example, Oliver, et al., characterise learning technologists as:

...Undertakes[ing] a range of networking activities, such as liaising with other units within the institution that have related interests and objectives, increasing colleagues' awareness of existing practice, enable exchange of ideas and experience in technology-supported learning and teaching and so on.

(Oliver, et al., 2004, p. 46)

The texts indicate that applying knowledge about new technologies and making connections between people and practices are important and interconnected characteristics of practice.

Closely related are the application, design and development of content and material (Oliver, et al., 2004). Indeed the professional awards framework for staff supporting the use of learning technology specifies the 'design [of] a learning resource' as a specialist outcome both for 'embedding' and 'eXploring' learning technology (SEDA, 2005). This broad area of practice also includes customising, reconceptualising, adapting, and designing curricula and developing learning activities as well as creating 'materials' (Beetham, et al., 2001; Oliver, et al., 2004; CMALT, 2005; SEDA, 2005). However, Beetham, et al. point to a movement away from in-house production to the use of generic software.

Focus groups supported the hypothesis that there had been a shift of emphasis in the use of learning technology away from developing new computer-based materials towards supporting access to existing materials. A similar shift was observed away from developing specialist educational software towards supporting the use of generic software for learning and teaching, and the integration of managed learning environments.

(Beetham, et al., 2001, p. 9)

Supporting strategy and change

All the chosen texts indicate that the work of learning technologists aims to support institutional and/or departmental teaching and learning strategies and change. Specifically learning technologists are characterised as promoting, facilitating and supporting change (Beetham et al. 2001; Oliver et al. 2004) and thus are change agents.

A Learning Technologist: [...] Acts as consultant, mentor or change agent for other staff within their institution.

(Oliver, et al. 2004, p. 46)

The professional accreditation texts identify supporting strategy as a feature of practice (CMALT, 2005; SEDA, 2005). 'Institutional development/ [and] strategic work' are identified as a 'specialist option' of the CMALT scheme (CMALT, 2005), while SEDA-PDF specifies the implementation of a 'development strategy' as a 'specialist outcome' of a professional award (SEDA, 2005). Thus the 'job' of a learning technologist is seen as contributing to the 'development of strategy and policy' (Oliver, et al., 2004, p. 46).

Management and organisation

Organisational and administrative tasks and management responsibility, i.e. managing projects, people and resources and ensuring access to resources and technical support, are central features of learning technologists' work. For example, they may facilitate 'access to expertise, services and resources related to technology-supported learning' (ibid.) or manage projects (Beetham, et al., 2001; Oliver, et al., 2004; CMALT, 2005). Much of this type of work is a direct result of a reliance on income generation, project funding and project-based teaching support. Thus as Beetham, et al. point out:

Resources are either distributed across departments or made available for bidding to undertake specific learning and teaching development projects.

(Beetham, et al., 2001, p. 47)

Strategic activity also requires management and organisational skills. Thus, activity related to 'implementing a development strategy' includes 'ensuring the project is running to the agreed plan and taking measures to ensure completion' (EFFECTS, 2003). Project work is also hierarchical; for example the work of an established learning technologist is described as follows:

Established Learning Technologists would take a greater responsibility for their own work, either setting or negotiating

operational priorities. They might be given responsibility for projects, initiatives and/or groups of staff, and may be expected to provide an input into strategic or policy-related discussions.

(Oliver, et al., 2004, p. 47)

A 'senior' learning technologist has a different level of responsibility, such as 'defining, scoping and bidding (either internally or externally) for projects and/or staff' (ibid., p. 47).

Thus learning technologists are likely to be involved in informing institutional policy and strategy, and implementing coordinating and managing a wide range of activity.

Practices of a more technical nature

Technical production and providing technical support are also mentioned in the texts. While job descriptions include activity which 'typically focuses on educational or organisational implications', they also include competence in technical issues (Oliver, et al., 2004). Responsibilities include providing support and advice on a wide range of activity to staff. For example, learning technologists are often expected to provide help with software, VLEs and technical infrastructure (Oliver, et al., 2004; ALT, 2005). As noted in the previous chapter learning technologists have both a 'support role' and a 'development role' (Gosling, 2008, p. 20).

Role, professionalism and values

As we have seen in the previous chapter role, professionalism and 'values' carry significance in terms of guiding practice. In a study of staff supporting learning technology, values are mentioned frequently in relation to practice. When asked about the benefits and risks of using C&IT in learning and teaching it is claimed that 'the values of learning technology staff emerged'. Such values include:

- A strong focus on quality student learning, often expressed as personal commitment arising from their own experience as learners
- A positive orientation to change (excitement, challenge, adaptability)
- Belief in collegiality and teamwork, though a sense that academic colleagues sometimes undervalue their contribution
- Commitment to building networks and working across boundaries
- Disapproval of cost-cutting and time-saving measures in higher education.

(Beetham, et al., 2001, p. 6)

Beetham et al. also suggest that commitment to collegiality is particularly strong.

In many respects they [new specialists] already constituted a research or professional community with inter-institutional networks and a strong sense of common values. (Ibid.)

A review of accredited schemes for learning technologists similarly emphasises the notion of shared values.

...this group believe that their role is becoming a professional one; also, whilst their work varied considerably, there was evidence that their values were shared. (Oliver, 2004, p. 3)

Values are clearly important in three texts, (EFFECTS, 2003; SEDA, 2005; CMALT, 2005). For example, all texts linked to professional accreditation, frame professional practice in terms of values. The notion of 'shared values' seems to be a symbolically unifying concept and particularly prominent in discourses of professional accreditation of learning technologists.

Review of job titles

Appearing five years ago or earlier, the studies which form the basis of the review of learning technologists are representative of 'first generation' practitioners (Conole, 2004b) – a concept which we will return to later in this chapter.

In terms of current work of learning technologists, of approximately 112 jobs listed over one year (2008-2009) few job titles were the same. Job titles included: E-technologist; Net Developer; Instructional Design Specialist; eContent Developer; Learning Technology Officer; E-Learning Facilitator; VLE Application Manager; Associate Professor of Educational Technology; Professor of Learning Innovation and Director of Information and Communication Technology (see Appendix III for list of job titles). I want to suggest that the wide range of job titles confirms the varied activity of the learning technologists identified by Beetham, et al. (2001). Indeed Beetham et al. identify 58 different work activities which included the coordination, development, use and support of learning technologies (ibid).

Nevertheless, despite the diversity of the job titles, the five categories identified in the literature review of 'first generation' learning technologists are apparent. For example jobs could easily be classified as teaching related, research related, management and leadership, coordination and organisation and design and development.

The high number of generic or nonspecific job titles, such as learning technologist and E-technologist suggest that learning technology is an occupation demanding a wide range of skills and knowledge. In contrast, the

specificity of some jobs titles indicate that distinctive and specialist skills are required, in relation to 'the Net', VLEs,¹⁴⁶ 3-D virtual environments, artificial intelligence, personal development planning, E-Assessment, immersive worlds, eContent, etc.

However, traditional academic and research related posts persist also such as, chair, professor, research fellow, research associate research assistant, PhD studentship and lecturer, as do conventional managerial posts such as manager, officer, advisor, coordinator and developer. The software designer is also in demand, contradicting the suggestion by Beetham, et al. (2001) that universities are moving away from development of applications and content. One reason for the appointment of designers could be the arrival of Web 2.0 which has influenced a shift away from proprietary VLEs to locally-based solutions.

Summary

Being a learning technologist clearly involves multiple (and composite) roles. Nevertheless the selected texts suggest overall that many practices of learning technologists are much the same as those of conventional university teachers, and educational developers, and other new professionals who aim to support academic practice. For example, to mentor colleagues learning technologists draw on their interpersonal and teaching skills, 'keep abreast of development', draw on information and dissemination skills, and read up on secondary research.

From the review it is clear that 'learning technologists' are occupied principally with supporting the core activities of the university (teaching and research) and with institutional strategy. Integration and application appear as key characteristics associated with the interdisciplinary nature of their work. The review of recent job titles also suggests a trend towards research-based activity; however it is also clear that the diverse and multi-faceted practices of learning technologists identified in earlier studies are evident in current practice.

Perspectives on research

This section explores different perspectives and approaches to research in the sub-field of learning technology.

The form and range of research which illuminate the incorporation of new technologies into higher education has already discussed (Ely, et al., 1988; Schön, 1995; Land and Bayne, 2005; Price, et al., 2005, p. 72; Selwyn, 2006; Conole and Oliver, 2007). For example, Price, et al. (2005, p. 5)

¹⁴⁶The NET refers to the Internet; VLE, refers to Virtual Learning Environments.

suggest that research on the impact of technology on education is 'diverse with no well established methodologies' and Selwyn (1997, 2006) argues that the literature on learning technology remains marginalised, for example escaping the critical eye of sociologists. Meanwhile Oliver, et al., suggest that the learning technology community has adopted techniques from other disciplines without fully understanding 'the values and assumptions from which they have been deployed' (Oliver, et al., 2007, p. 22).

As technology has become more embedded in the knowledge society, research interests have challenged the conventional research/practice dualism, by focusing on 'the knowledge-technology-society nexus as an *object* of investigation' (Oliver, et al., 2007, p. 21), an important relationship identified by Ely in the 1980s. Thus, as the focus of research shifts, the terminology used for the subject of the research also alters. For example, Conole, et al. (2003) define learning technology itself as a research area, and four years later, Conole and Oliver (2007) identify e-learning as the 'field' of research. Conole (2004b) recognises that, as new research communities form, they are likely to create fault-lines through the home discipline (or field) as well as difficulties in gaining acceptance by the broader academic community. Thus the 'fields' of educational technology, learning technology, e-learning, technology enhanced learning (TEL) and distance learning either overlap or are closely related to each other – and therefore may not be well understood outside the 'field'.

As we have seen, the hyperbole surrounding technologies in higher education bolstered by the establishment of organisations such as JISC, present universities and other institutions with the continuing task of keeping up with the pace of change. For example, a briefing paper from JISC is clear about its priorities.

The sector is investing in a diverse range of solutions under the e-learning banner, some of which are moving towards maturity whilst others represent research and development activity. However, the challenges to institutions, and the education systems more broadly, are significant if they are to keep pace with the developments in technology which have so much to offer. Continued investment and innovation in the field of e-learning is essential if the UK is to remain a world leader in education.

(Joint Information Systems Committee, Briefing Paper, 2008).

Such a statement resonates with Schön's view that the main danger is that 'technological innovation belongs to us less than we belong to it' (Schön, 1967, p. xiii).

The pace and interests of learning technology development in the UK prompted a proliferation of research strategies such as the launch of a research strategy by Association for Learning Technology (ALT), the aim of which is to 'work to establish LT as a research discipline in its own right and to enhance the status of Learning Technology and Learning Technologists'. (ALT, 2005). Another research development in the UK was the launch of the e-Learning Research Centre (eLRC) funded by the Higher Education Funding Council of England (announced 2003). The aim was to 'identify and investigate research problems in the field of e-learning that are of strategic importance for the sector as a whole'. This remit was later extended by the creation of an e-Learning Research Observatory, supported this time by the Higher Education Academy (2007) (mentioned in the previous chapter). The main task of the e-Learning Research Observatory was to become the national centre (described as 'one-stop-shop'), for identifying, collating, assessing and disseminating national and international e-learning research. At the time of writing the final section of this thesis (June 2009), it proved impossible to access the website of the Research Centre and the Observatory (previously available). A spokesperson at the Higher Education Academy confirmed (by phone) that both have been absorbed into EvidenceNet (hosted by the Higher Education Academy). EvidenceNet, launched in June 2009, is a service aimed at promoting and exploring the use of 'practice and research-based evidence in teaching and learning in Higher Education'. However, at the time of writing¹⁴⁷ there was little evidence of any research findings accumulated by the e-Learning Research Centre and the Observatory and little trace of their short history.

We have already seen that the JISC has provided substantial funding for e-research projects and programmes. In addition the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC), the main funding council for social science research, has worked in collaboration with the Teaching and Learning Research Programme's Technology Enhanced Learning Phase (TLRP, TEL) to support mainstream research on 'digital technologies' and their potential for learning. The aim of the collaboration is stated as follows:

To support innovative interdisciplinary research collaborations focusing on the creation, development and exploitation of digital technologies for learning through a better understanding of their capability to transform the quality of learning experiences and lead to enhancements in learning outcomes. (ESRC, 2009)

¹⁴⁷Launch date set for 30.06.2009, last accessed 15.08.2009.

The complexity of this task can be seen in the large number of characteristics associated with the development of digital technologies and the emphasis placed on interdisciplinary research and the various institutional collaborations between ESRC/EPSRC, the Teaching and Learning Research Programme (TLRP), the JISC, Becta and the HEA. Furthermore, the following footnote to a funding call which explains the relationship between Technology Enhanced Learning and e-learning suggests a certain amount of ambiguity regarding the two terms.

This call uses the phrase ‘technology enhanced learning’ to refer to what has recently been termed ‘e-learning’. The European Commission is currently using the phrase ‘Technology Enhanced Learning’ for Framework VII, and will promote it as a ‘new’ research area. This call uses the same phrase in order to support that vision, and to ensure alignment with European research groups working in the same field. (ESRC, 2009)

The swift changes in terminology suggest a volatile field. For example in a short space of time ‘eLearning’ research has declined to be replaced by Technology Enhanced Learning as the key area for policy and funding.

We have already seen in the UK that different agencies can work together productively. For example, the JISC has currently (at the time of writing) collaborations either with ALT, Becta, ESRC, TLRP and HEA, the latter of which also works closely with the HEFCE. However, the organisations themselves acknowledge that each of them has different priorities which emphasise different forms of activity. For example ALT reserves particular criticism for research on learning technology; as generally ‘irrelevant’, failing to address the problems facing practitioners and ‘resource controllers’, and using incomprehensible ‘pedagogical language and terminology’. Rather, ALT has sought to achieve “‘embedding” of e-learning’ (ALT Research Strategy, 2005, p. 1). Thus the ALT research strategy identifies a number of issues for learning technology researchers, practitioners, developers and resource controllers which include:

- personalisation and diversification in relation to mass systems and global markets;
- access and equal opportunities;
- completion and drop-out of students;
- appropriate assessment;
- integration;
- reusability;
- cost effectiveness and efficient learning;

- quality assurance;
- relationship between informal and formal learning;
- ‘student control of the learning’.

As already noted ALT is particularly critical of the form of pedagogical language used. It could be argued however that language in its own strategy documents is too ‘management-speak’ in discourse and style.¹⁴⁸ In the ALT research strategy document, for example, terminology includes ‘harnessed’, ‘mechanisms’, ‘bolted on’, ‘deployment’, ‘retrenchment’, and ‘drive’. Moreover the document implies the existence of consensus as in, for example, ‘an agreed set of knowledge, values and strategies that are used by practitioners’ (ibid.). Such ‘management-speak’ appears mechanistic and authoritarian and fails, it seems to me, to communicate the interpretive and dialogic nature of much practice and knowledge generation among learning technologists.

Management-speak predominates as do research questions about ‘how’ rather than ‘why’, for example: ‘How do we ensure ...?’ ‘How do we make ...?’ and ‘How do we deliver ...?’ ALT claims to want to pose research questions ‘in a form and language to which institutional managers will relate’; however, the framing of the questions is mostly instrumental and technical reflecting, it seems, a closed and positivist stance towards what is termed ‘scientific’ research. Thus, the focus of learning technology research for ALT is largely practical and mainly directed towards enabling users to apply hardware and software.

As already noted, scholarship and how educational technology impacts on society and culture is of little interest. Because of this perhaps there is a danger that research on the application of new technology in higher education is being co-opted by managerialist discourses (see also Trowler, 1998; Deem, 2001; Clegg, Hudson, and Steel, 2003) or being separated from practice by generation gaps (Conole, 2004b).

The range of research issues noted in this section indicate both a maturing of a research sub-field and continuing fragmentation and division as each phase of technological development generates a different policy agenda. Either way, fragmentation provokes struggles over social, cultural and economic capital, paralleling other changes in the contemporary university (Barnett, 2005).

¹⁴⁸Management speak is seen to be highly skilled persuasive communication techniques and is an expression used in relation to making something seem more impressive than it actually is. See also Plain English Campaign, <http://www.plainenglish.co.uk/mgmt-speak.htm> (accessed 04.05.2008).

Position and location in the field

As we have seen, the emergence of learning technology as a strategically important sub-field within higher education has prompted formal (funded) research studies into the role, practices and career development of its practitioners (Beetham, et al., 2001; Oliver, 2002; EFFECTS, 2003; Oliver, et al., 2004). This section explores the trends emerging from the studies, and in particular their impact on the positioning and capital of learning technologists.

National position

Studies of what learning technologists do suggest that learning technologists are an established entity in Higher Education. The creation of the Certificate of Membership to the Association for Learning Technology (CMALT) in 2005, an accreditation scheme specifically tailored to learning technologists lays out principles, values and definitions of core areas of work and specialist areas. Prompted by requests for a 'simple' accreditation process for learning technologists, CMALT aims to be 'a simple, economical, voluntary, peer-based structure to accredit individual members as Learning Technologists, in collaboration with HE, FE, and industry bodies.' (CMALT, 2005). Developed over a period of two years and based on a study of university staff involved in communication and information technology (Oliver, et al., 2004), CMALT was initially welcomed by learning technologists because it offered 'specialist recognition', and a framework for professional reflection and development and bridged the divide between further and higher education (Lessner, 2007). Professional Development Framework Awards established by the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA, 2005) also enabled learning technologists to gain national recognition for their particular specialist capabilities, in particular awards entitled *Embedding Learning Technology* and *eXploring Learning Technologies*. However, the existence of different accredited routes through different professional bodies raises questions. For example, about the value of the accreditation in terms of cultural capital or whether different professional routes were complementary or competitive? Later, in chapter eight, we shall see that navigating an array of associations and networks and awards has been problematic, particularly for newcomers to the field.

ALT and SEDA also provided various arenas for discussion including seminars, annual conferences, research journals, newsletters, and regular information digests. However, unlike SEDA, which remains focused on 'promoting innovation and good practice in higher education' (SEDA, 2008), ALT moved to broaden its membership to include in addition to higher

education staff: representatives from large and small suppliers of technology services and content, government agencies, standards and specification bodies, and sponsoring members (ALT strategy, 2007-2010). ALT thus displayed wider commitment to providing support for practitioners, and to increase membership outside HE and FE (ALT Strategy, 2007-2010, p. 3).

Support for learning technology in other European countries varies from that in the UK. For example, in the Netherlands, the Dutch collaborative organisation for higher education institutions and research institutes (SURF) has a strong focus on innovations in ICT and a remit to provide an advanced ICT infrastructure to enable higher education institutes to improve the quality of learning, teaching and research. In Sweden, as noted in the last chapter, the Agency for Networks and Cooperation in Higher Education (NSHU) aimed to encourage scholarship and collaboration, improve the quality of support for teaching and learning and support the employment of IT in distance education. However, dissolution of the NSHU has left little co-ordination at a national level for ICT. This offers a contrast to the UK where a number of national government funding agencies and professional associations have acquired a remit to provide guidance, advice and funded opportunities to support and promote the use of ICT in teaching, learning, research and administration.

European-wide associations and societies have tended to take a broader approach to representing those engaged in applying ICT to education. For example, the European Distance and E-Learning Network (EDEN), established in 1991, is a network and meeting place for the open, distance and e-learning community in Europe. EDEN emphasises its collaborative non-hierarchical role, i.e. 'fostering developments and collaboration in the constantly evolving field of e-learning and distance education by shaping European policy and offering services in a non-hierarchical manner' (ibid.).

Whilst there is strong support across Europe, particularly from the European Commission for innovative practice and knowledge building, in learning technology,¹⁴⁹ the impact and implementation of new technologies on European higher education institutions suggest tensions between policy and practice (Cousin, et al., 2004). Educational developers and learning technologists together are identified as mediators or meaning-makers in resolving some of these tensions with 'the complexity of the relationship between technology and changes in roles and practices' much emphasised (Price, et al., 2005, p. 72). The need is expressed for appropriate research

¹⁴⁹For example at the time of writing the fifth ICT call under FP7, objective ICT-2009-4.2: Technology-enhanced Learning, was announced.

methods for studying how and why these tensions occur and the extent to which they can be addressed (Price, et al., 2005). Thus, in Europe as well as the UK, learning technology is well supported by networks, funded initiatives and is strengthening its position. However, its status and position in different national contexts is variable.

Local positioning: centralised support and integrated activity

The presence of new technology professionals is reported by JISC in a study entitled *Career Development of Learning Technology Staff* (Beetham, et al. (2001) and reveals the extent of the spread of this new professional grouping:

...around 7500 learning technology specialist staff (not including academic staff) were working in UK universities [in 2000]. Around 4500 of these were found in central units and around 3000 in non-central locations, though the latter figure is likely to be an underestimate due to the difficulty of identifying these staff.

(Beetham, et al., 2001, p. 4)

The study also noted that 10 per cent (around 8000) of academic staff in institutions that took part in the survey described themselves as 'actively working to embed learning technologies into their learning and teaching activities' (ibid.). A more recent study of educational development units suggests that educational development posts (which include learning technologists), are becoming more integrated into faculty and departmental structures rather than based in specified central professional development or educational development departments (Gosling, 2008). Both studies reinforce the perception of learning technology as simultaneously specialist and multidisciplinary and thus likely to become part of mainstream university activity.

Conole (2004b) identifies 'first generation' learning technologists in the UK as having multi-faceted roles, and a commitment to working across boundaries, e.g. subject departments, though often based in subject disciplines. Beetham, et al. (2001, p. 37) similarly suggest that learning technology 'roles' are 'highly complex and multiply-determined' and often embedded within a wider remit, as, for example, staff developer, lecturer/tutor, researcher, librarian, etc. However, in some cases, learning technologists are located in specialist learning technology units and centres, for example educational development units (see chapter five and six and also Beetham, et al., 2001; Oliver, et al., 2004; Conole, 2004b; Gosling, 2008). Learning technologists thus seem more of a 'loose affiliation of individuals' working in diverse locations (Oliver, 2003) than a distinctive 'community of practice'.

Oliver further suggests that the term learning technologists is often applied to part of a portfolio of duties. Nevertheless, Oliver, et al. (2004) claim that a group of professionals in UK HE exists which is comfortable with the title of learning technologist as the prime signifier of what they do.

Summary

In summary, there has been a high level of complementary activity among associations and national agencies aiming to support learning technology in higher education in the UK and elsewhere. Learning technology as a sub-field has benefited from strong centralised support and from large amounts of funding from national and European agencies, not least because of the role new technology is expected to play in underpinning the increased business orientation of higher education in the knowledge economy. Whilst, strategic targets and specific institutional themes seem often to dictate the specific nature of learning technologists' work, the strong position of learning technology at a national level is accompanied at a local level, by more unevenly distributed working practices and relationships.

Learning technologists: struggles in the field

Consideration of the background of learning technology reveals recurring social, cultural and educational factors which influence the application of new technologies to learning. Thus, we have seen that the rapid pace of technological development, and its impact on the economy, society and the educational community in the 1920s, prompted the emergence of the educational technologist in the USA. A similar development took place in the UK in the 1960s, and 1970s with the onset of large multi-media 'open' higher education institutions. Likewise, globalisation, widening participation and the widespread use of the internet created a different type of educational technologist in the 1990s. Similar sets of technological, economic and social factors are predicted to have an impact on the global profile of higher education in the 21st century, the outcome of which is difficult to determine (Daniel, et al., 2006).

Another recurring factor has been struggles and tensions over position and capital. For example, the emergence of educational technologists was marked by struggles over how to give voice to a new movement and new force within the larger university organisation (AECT, 1977). Likewise, over the past 15 years or so we have seen similar struggles over how the voice and activities of learning technologists are represented, and the extent to which they are autonomous or influenced by the demands of government funding.

Learning technologists have been shown to have various identities: for example, as part of a 'community' (Beetham, et al., 2001), as members of a discipline and/or 'field', or as individual professionals (Oliver, 2002; Conole, 2004b; Smith, 2005). Thus there have been differences whether to specify individual learning technology characterisation in terms of establishing professional standards (CMALT, 2005) or whether it is a broad, self-determining field. Conole (2004b) favours the latter in suggesting that learning technology has matured as a 'field' and is moving into a second phase of development. The 'first generation' learning technologists Conole argues, had diverse disciplinary backgrounds and though were well qualified and highly motivated, had the ability to collaborate across 'institutional silos' and acted as change agents by adopting multi-faceted roles (ibid.). Conole's second generation is characterised by a 'diversification of interests', increased specialisation, greater interest in providing direct practitioner support, and better professional accreditation (ibid.). The two generations or 'waves' reveal distinct characteristics which have impacted at institutional and national levels, for example, in widening the gap between researchers and practitioners and in first generation practitioners having a correspondingly greater impact on policy and research imperatives in HE (ibid.).

The discourse used to promote learning technology as a field, sub-field, discipline and/or profession is frequently contradictory as already noted. Thus the Career Scoping Study mentioned above suggests that there is always going to be a need for a 'core group' who can 'communicate with all the different specialisms of learning technology' (Beetham, et al., 2001, p. 68), yet the ubiquity of learning technology in higher education renders obsolete any attempt to narrow definitions. Other studies into the roles and practices of learning technologists (Oliver, 2002; Oliver, et al., 2004) likewise highlight the difficulty of defining a professional grouping that spans all aspects of university practice. Instead, they identify different issues for example:

- position, in terms of the professional status, of the individual and the sub-field within the broader field of academic practice
- practice, in terms of the nature of activity, and tendency towards short term-ism and overly wide-ranging activity
- professional pathway and the nature of career, which remain fragmented and unclear despite the introduction of accredited schemes.

Studies suggest, as we have seen, that learning technology is a dispersed, diverse and divided sub-field, yet is influential in terms of policy and strategy with a certain amount of autonomy as exemplified in the autobiographical narrative. Thus, 'headstrong learning technologists' are viewed with suspicion by 'thoughtful bibliophilic academics' (Cousin: in Land, 2004, p.

130). However it could be argued it is the latter who have borne the brunt, of the struggles between faculty and management. So, while learning technologists are often seen as peripheral to the core work of the university even if protected by 'mystifying' terms and discourses and practices not totally understood by senior managers (Oliver, 2002), they have evolved and strengthened their position in the university.

As new technology becomes more pervasive and important to universities, the social, cultural and economic capital of those working with technologies is likely also to increase. Together, the prioritisation of learning technologies in government policy, the drive to establish activity related to teaching, learning and digital technology as a research field, the role of new technologies in the branding and marketisation of universities, and the position and status of leading learning technology practitioners on national committees; then all signify the rising position of new technologists within higher education, as perhaps the most highly political 'animals' of the current era (Smith, 2005, p. 94). However, as we have also seen, the lack of critique in the learning technology literature (Ely, et al., 1988; Land and Bayne, 2005; Selwyn, 2006) reinforces the sense of insularity and positivism and also suggests that learning technologists are more concerned with keeping pace with technological innovation, than with influencing academic values, practices and systems as a whole. Thus learning technology lays itself open to accusations of technocentric determinism or being just an instrument or 'arm' of management.

Summary

In this chapter, we have seen that, learning technologists have held varying views about their identity and practices. Whatever their assumptions, the nature of the professional group has changed with increasing efforts made to establish learning technology as a new research discipline and field of study with its own set of professional values and standards. However, learning technology is not new in the sense that it is a long standing academic field with interests similar to the newer fields currently being established. Although it is often described as new by today's advocates, it is also evident that current learning technology practitioners are able to build on the knowledge gained by previous generations. However, questions remain regarding the diversity of practices and the uncertainty of professional career routes and position within the broader context of the higher education community today. For example, the implications of establishing learning technology (and latterly e-learning and technology enhanced learning) as 'new' research fields prompts issues of formal recognition and impact on those working with new technologies and researching practice in broader

university settings. More particularly, it is uncertain how the sub-field and the sub-sub-fields will resonate with more established fields such as educational technology, distance learning and higher education studies as well with the higher education sector generally?

The overall review of selected literature, thus, has raised the following issues:

- generation gaps
- confusing and often unproblematised efforts to establish new fields of research and new disciplines
- struggles for power, capital and position in the broader university setting and at a national level
- differing perspectives of research as either about keeping up with technology, implementing technology, developing ideas about practice or critical research on the impact of new technologies on education, culture and society
- uncritical approaches to research and practice which embody Bourdieu's view of coercive agents and symbolic violence
- uncertainty about professional career routes.

Clearly the use of new digital technologies in higher education is multifaceted as the demands placed on the new university render it susceptible to the promise of technological solutions. Accordingly, the position and practices of staff working with new technologies are subject to constant change as technological trends come and go and national and institutional imperatives appear. Initially enthusiastic and curious teachers committed to supporting and working with colleagues on how best to use new technologies in courses and programmes, their habitus has become increasingly politicised as practice is inextricably tied to areas of funding and to the promotion of the 'entrepreneurial university' and the knowledge economy.

Chapter 8. Interviews with practitioners

Introduction

This chapter seeks to gain an understanding of the relationship between the two sub-fields of educational development and learning technology through an analysis of interviews with practitioners, seen in this study as 'knowing agents' who have actively contributed to the construction of the field (Bourdieu, 1998, p. 25). An exploration and analysis of habitus, social, cultural and economic capitals are thus seen as central to understanding 'the new professional game' and indeed the 'logic of the new professional field' (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 108). The interview questions are framed by Bourdieu's concepts of habitus, position and capital (which are discussed in some detail in chapter two). The questions are also designed to probe themes which emerged from the autobiographical narrative and the literature review. The analysis of the interview transcripts is approached with a secondary aim of identifying issues and perspectives which have not been previously identified in other parts of the study.

As discussed, in chapter three, nine practitioners were interviewed who have experience of working in educational development and/or learning technology. All have cross-institutional roles. Some have held relatively stable positions, whilst others have moved around the sub-fields and the broader field of academic practice. Indeed the paths and positions of the practitioners interviewed are all different. Included in the sample are experienced practitioners in senior roles and those relatively new to the sub-fields, men and women.

The coding of quotations is based on the initial criteria used to select the practitioners, and takes into account the multidisciplinary nature of the work and a certain amount of repositioning which came through during the interviews (see chapter three). Thus for respondents who work in an educational development role which incorporates responsibility for learning technologies, the classification of hybrid is introduced. The coding of quotations and an explanation of the tags used in the quotations can be found in chapter three. Throughout this chapter practitioners who took part in the interview process are referred to as respondents.

The chapter is divided into six sections. The first section sets the scene by exploring current job titles and roles. The second section explores habitus, in terms of early experiences, interests and beliefs, with the aim of gaining an understanding of how initial capital is developed and how internalised disposition is reflected in the practice and actions of agents. Section three focuses on social capital as a resource identifiable in terms of social networks

and position, and the interpersonal skills accumulated through habitus, education systems and workplace experiences. Section four explores cultural capital in terms of accumulated, specified knowledge and skills which can be found in practices, tacit knowledge and formal certification. Section five investigates economic capital, in terms of funding and resources, while the final section, offers a brief synopsis of the chapter as a whole.

Job titles and roles

Previous chapters of this study have already shown variation in job titles and roles. In this section, the job titles, views of role and personal orientations of the respondents are explored and discussed.

In order to safeguard anonymity, job titles are not described in full. However, to provide an indication of the sample of practitioners interviewed, different terms used in the job titles are identified. The jobs of the practitioners interviewed include titles such as: technologist, coordinator, executive, architect, Professor of [.....] and Head of [.....], other terms in job titles include eLearning, learning technology, learning and teaching, academic practice, education development, research and strategy. As the practitioners were chosen to reflect difference in terms of sub-field, gender, age, and specialism, it is not surprising that the job titles vary. However, it is clear from the quotations below that both experienced practitioners and newcomers are often able to negotiate, shape and mould their own roles.

It's a post that's really being shaped and moulded at the moment...
[.....] ... so I am now sort of developing in my role ... (F2H)

There isn't really a job description of what I'm doing' [.....] I've
always seen the job description like a blank sheet. It's just something
to develop. (F1LT)

Thus, for some respondents, role as defined by activities and practices assigned from formal or informal sources, is developmental.

Uncertain boundaries

Whilst a job title may indicate a formal position within an institution or organisation and a localised position and identity, the articulation of role beyond the local setting is often problematic. A key issue is one of clarity; how boundaries are defined. For example a respondent working in educational development describes his senior role as being 'quite vague' (M1ED). Lack of clarity is often seen as affording a certain amount of autonomy, an indication of privileged status amongst 'old professionals' (see also chapter

one). Respondents also highlight the wide range of activity encompassed by their role. For example, an experienced learning technologist, whilst seeing a 'broad remit' as being 'the nature' of the job also indicates that it 'feels a bit too broad' (M1LT).

Most respondents refer to the complexity associated with their role, position and professional identity. Below, a newcomer to educational development clearly finds the ill-defined nature and broad remit of her work frustrating:

I guess I've always struggled with educational development [.....] you say you're an educational developer and spend the next fifteen minutes explaining what that is, and why people don't value it and all this kind of thing. [.....] I feel often that I'm all over the place. I have to know about everything. And actually, just for a bit I want to become an expert in an area. (F2ED)

Similarly, an experienced learning technologist and a relative newcomer to a hybrid role express respectively uncertainty regarding professional identity:

...my area is technology assisted learning, [.....] if there is one, you know. [.....] But I see myself as being an educationalist... [.....] So a learning technologist isn't quite right really. I'm not a technologist as such. ...I'm an educational developer I suppose, with a strong interest in technology. (M1LT)

I seem to sit between our existing learning technology team, where they're administrating [the VLE] and delivering training [.....] and the educational developers and I feel that I'm a bit of both, sitting in the middle. [.....] So I don't see myself, I don't see myself as a learning technologist to be honest. [.....] I think I'm a bit of a hybrid. (F2H)

The central feature of the work of both the above respondents is supporting the use of learning technologies. However the quotations suggest that both have reorientated their position towards 'educational development'. Both respondents identify two groupings, technological and educational. In the first quotation the respondent positions himself in the educational developer camp, whilst the second respondent positions herself as a 'hybrid', 'sitting in the middle' between the learning technology team and the educational developers. The notion of hybridity and 'sitting in the middle' give a sense of overlap; however, a position 'between' can also signify a space of

struggle, and indeed Becher (1989) suggests that the overlapping interests of academic disciplines can result either in unification or division.

The perceptions of the respondents indicate that a reorientation and struggle over position and identity are taking place. Indeed Bourdieu (1990, p. 136) understands such struggles as over 'symbolic capital'. That is to say that agents struggle over their job titles in order to establish identity, adopt the identity of a group and/or make themselves distinguishable within the established social order. Thus, all respondents show a strong inclination to emphasise academic and educational practices rather than technological. The strong leaning towards education may reflect personal disposition; however, it may also be a response to the symbolic value and status of different types of occupational capital. This will be explored later in the chapter.

New Professionals?

All respondents found the concept of a 'new professional' problematic. Most indicate that being 'professional' is important to them, and there was a general consensus that professional qualifications and professional associations such as SEDA and ALT are indicators of a 'profession'.

Understandably the argument by Beck (1999) that new professionals are merely tools of management provokes mixed reactions. Indeed the notion of new professional raises a number of contradictions for respondents in terms of identity, position and practice. One respondent working in educational development agrees that practitioners may 'come over as handmaidens of management' (M1ED), yet another, working with learning technologies, challenges the idea that new professionals 'are [just] there to support change and reformed universities' (interviewer), arguing strongly against the idea and describing it as 'risky as a concept' (M1LT). The same respondent went on to explain that he was involved in writing, implementing and monitoring strategy and policy and was in the process of looking at how the integration of the virtual learning environment into the student management system 'can yield quantitative data which can be used more effectively for on going institutional audit'. He later suggests that 'there is a connection but not one which should be emphasised'. Such a response could be seen as a failure to understand or even denial of the true relations of higher education forces and an individual's position. This exemplifies Bourdieu's identification of the misrecognition of power and, as such, of the impact of symbolic violence.

Some respondents associate the notion of being a new professional with the newness of their jobs. An experienced learning technologist considers that his work was really about 'understanding fundamentals and then just simply adapting the technology of the moment', but also that he might

have seen himself as a new professional ten years ago (when he entered the sub-field) but wasn't sure that he did now. However, he went on to suggest that his current 'multidisciplinary' position 'of some authority in the institution' may be new (M1LT), and that a learning technologist in a position of power is possibly new.

In contrast a newcomer to learning technology seems more confident that he is a new professional.

Yes is the short answer to that. [.....] Because the need has only been in the last two or three years. The need for a role like this has only just started to be recognised. It's not that it hasn't been there for quite some time it's just the actually process of defining the role, putting the job spec out and asking for people to apply, has only just started. (M2LT)

For others there is more uncertainty about the use of the term. A newcomer to educational development is unsure about the status of her role, its history and its position within the university.

I don't know I'm not sure. I don't really think so. It depends [.....] I mean there has been something here for the last eight years where they've had people doing my job. I mean I guess it's new in terms of that I guess it grew, didn't it out of the Dearing Report – so it's not massively old but [.....] I feel like here at least it's established. [.....] So for me [.....] they see it as a profession within their institution. So it's embedded I guess. [.....] but yeah it's new as in 1997 – not old. I mean don't know enough really about what happened in institutions before then. I certainly know that when I was a student I [.....] I find it difficult to see any evidence of any kind of educational development activity, certainly with the people that taught me. (F2ED)

The same respondent also suggests that her position as 'kind of stuck in the middle' and her practices that 'drive a lot of strategic activity' are indicative of a new area of work.

It was also argued by an experienced respondent that the hybridity and distinctiveness of 'academic development', its focus on teaching and learning in higher education which, as a space had been created 'over a relatively short period of time', could position it as one of the new professions (F1ED). Another experienced respondent reflects on the use of the concept as a way of claiming a position within the established social order.

...but sometimes I wonder whether this sort of language of new professionals is a way of trying to justify your existence when you position – reposition yourself within a hierarchy or an organisational structure. Perhaps we need to pursue it a bit further for me make sense of it. (M1ED)

Thus it seems that there is uncertainty about the concept of new professional, concern about the positioning and perception of work within the university and limited knowledge and understanding of the social and cultural conditions which shaped current roles. However, some respondents indicate that the multidisciplinary nature of the work, the position it occupies between policy and practice, the recent increase in emphasis on teaching and learning in higher education and positions of ‘authority’ directly linked to learning technologies are characterisations of new professionals.

Habitus

At the start of each interview the respondents were encouraged to talk about their education and professional route through to their current position, rather than their early childhood experiences. Thus it is not possible to derive conclusions about family and class. Also whilst most respondents worked in a variety of settings outside mainstream higher education, respondents only mention these experiences briefly.

The respondents, describe their experience of education and early work experiences in higher education to varying degrees. Some were more revealing about their practical world as a system of intuitive and motivational structures. They tended not to dwell on their school education. However, the impression gained was that most had traditional middle class English education; that is to say they completed advanced level examinations at school and attended university or college to study at degree level. Interesting stories emerged regarding professional journey, habitus and initial accumulation of various forms of capital. For example one respondent emphasises the transition from a working class background to study in an ‘elite’ institute of higher education.

...I’m first generation into university from, sort of, local, working class background. And so I think a lot of my framings come out of that. [.....] I went to [.....] College, which was very, in class terms, a very elite sort of place. It had been an all women’s college... (F1ED)

In contrast, another describes a journey marked by an orientation towards work opportunities which have been predominately shaped by a steady accumulation of different forms of capital in the workplace.

...I came to the university 23 years ago after having left school with four 'O levels' [.....] I came as a clerk typist. [.....] ...I moved into web training [.....] which was a fairly steep learning curve [.....] and it was a sort of baptism of fire [.....] and that was how I got introduced to web materials. [.....] ...whilst I was doing the web training I had the opportunity to start teaching part-time [.....]. So I started teaching skills modules, IT skills modules. I've been doing that probably about 13 years or so, and that was part time in the evenings... [.....] and I'd already done a teaching certificate by that point as part of the training I was doing. (F2H)

The two cases above highlight differences in terms of educational background and habitus, and also that significant transitions are marked by the accumulation of different types of capital. For example, while the first (woman) talks about an 'elite' schooling, which, as Bourdieu points out, is a key source of capital and privilege, the second (woman) shows that formal qualifications may be gained and technological knowledge accrued in the workplace. The formal qualification, what Bourdieu (1986) describes as 'institutionalized capital', is an important indicator of status; however, gaining knowledge and skills related to contemporary technologies and the web also began to accrue cultural capital in higher education in the 1990s. One reason, as we have seen, was that during the 1990s 'entrepreneurial' universities began to value and integrate a range of non-traditional knowledge and skills into traditional academic practices (Clark, 1998). Initial capitals accrued by respondents are thus wide ranging.

Prioritising independence, autonomy and creativity

For some respondents university education was a positive formative experience, while others found their experience of being a student, and of studying at university, constraining and frustrating. For example a senior practitioner in educational development explained how he found an alternative and unconventional way of 'negotiating' his university programme because it was not meeting his 'needs' (M1ED). In the quotation below a newcomer working in educational development talks about her initial frustration with university life, and her struggle to find a learning experience that allowed her to be more independent.

...I was absolutely certain that was what I wanted to do. [.....] Ironically of course when I got there [.....] for me the experience [.....] wasn't what I expected University to be like. I didn't like it at all and it made me decide that I wanted to try another university because, I'd always wanted to go to University and I felt like I hadn't had a University experience. So then I went to [.....] and did their Masters [.....]. And for me it was absolutely ... I felt like I'd found myself. I really enjoyed it. We had independence in terms of choosing our essay titles we had project work and all of a sudden it just seemed to make sense. This was what University is about. It's about going away and finding things out, and discussing with my tutor, and I really, really enjoyed it. (F2ED)

Similarly, an experienced learning technologist talks about feeling 'frustrated' and constrained by her experience of taking the traditional academic route through to PhD level:

My background: very traditional in terms of school base, [.....] went straight to university. Classic: was, was torn between doing arts or [sciences]. When I look back now I can see where I've ended up, where I am. [.....] Did a degree. [.....] Took a year out... [.....] Did a traditional PhD, but I guess always felt slightly frustrated and I wanted to ... it was very much in the traditional [.....] apprenticeship mode, you follow the perceived wisdom, and I was always trying to think outside the box and come up with new ideas and new theories and stuff like that. (F1LT)

The respondents' reflections on their experiences of learning in higher education provide useful clues to their individual habitus. For example, they show a strong desire, respectively, to be able to negotiate their own study route, to have more independence to make decisions, and to be more imaginative.

Symbolism of teaching

Also notable was how respondents in senior positions, from both sub-fields, talk about their early experiences of teaching. For example, below, an experienced female respondent talks passionately about her interest and love of teaching.

...so a lot of my ideas about teaching come from that very democratic, very buzzy period [.....]. I taught on a really wide range of courses so I've always had this very strong interdisciplinary

orientation. So I taught, I team taught [.....] You know I really, I really enjoyed teaching. I loved teaching. (F1ED)

Similarly, an experienced male practitioner working with learning technologies is enthusiastic about an early teaching experience in higher education:

I think my favorite experience of all those was working in [.....] University [.....] where I taught [.....] a group of students there, and they were very, very good students. [.....] I was able to teach [.....] in a way that I had never been able to do, [.....] in a way that I'd never actually seen possible in other places. (M1LT)

In contrast, newcomers in both sub-fields had less experience of teaching and less confidence about their teaching skills. The quotations below, from two newcomers working in educational development and learning technology respectively acknowledge this lack of university teaching experience as a difficulty.

...as an educational developer [.....] I've always felt, well what right do I have to tell somebody how to teach. You know I don't have massive experience of teaching. (F2ED)

...I'm almost positioning myself as a teacher, as an academic, and I'm not. [.....] ... but I also recognise that in my role as a learning technologist, at least here, that I do need those skills. (M2LT)

This offers a contrast to those in senior posts who accumulated teaching experience at an early point in their career and showed a consequent strong disposition towards teaching. Newcomers feel more need to develop as teachers, particularly in terms of knowledge, skills and experience. The emphasis placed on teaching in higher education and the orientation of respondents towards educational aspects of their work thus suggests that teaching has symbolic value for new professionals in both sub-fields.

Respondents claim to have entered higher education with a range of capitals, although were less concerned with social networks and resources, what Bourdieu describes respectively as social capital and economic capital. This indicates that these types of capitals may not be as developed, or are not seen as important in the early stages of a career.

Moves away from conventional academic pathways

All respondents identified 'turning points' or decisive moments in their education or early work experience which had a significant impact on academic pathway and professional practice. For example, an experienced educational developer refers to the strong influence of a tutor and the effect two seminal texts on student-centred learning and power relations had on his view of learning, and indeed, of life:

... if I could say there were two books that changed my whole view of learning, may be of life, it was those two books, and that is perhaps why I still read both authors quite regularly to try and refresh myself and remember why I do things the way I do.
(M1ED)

Another educational developer mentions becoming very interested in research.

During those three years I think it became even more apparent to me that what I was interested in was kind of the process of research. I enjoyed doing research and it didn't really matter what I was researching at a certain level. I mean I was interested in my topic but it wasn't what had driven me.
(F2ED)

Below an experienced learning technologist reflects on discovering the 'power of the personal computer' and its effect on his academic pathway.

...the reason for shifting over from [my subject] into technology supported learning, in the broadest sense, was that I became fascinated by the power of the personal computer in the late 80s and enjoyed very much writing little CAL, computer language applications for my students, [.....] and I think gradually my interest in the technology and its power across disciplines began to take the upper hand and I got a little bit fed up with the internecine strife in the world of [my subject] between various different schools of thought which never seemed to become reconciled, and I just felt that I would be better able to exploit my abilities, such as they were, in a broader area applying technology to learning across disciplines.
(M1LT)

Another experienced practitioner identifies a point in her career when multimedia prompted a move away from her initial academic discipline.

So I was very lucky to get an established career as a lecturer very early on. However, that's when things started to diverge. [.....] So there I was, quite young in my career in a research area that was becoming more of a service. So if you like, looking back, I didn't see all this totally at the time. I had a choice. If I'd tried to stay in that field [.....] the research angle would have disappeared over time. So I kind of dabbled a bit with changing research areas. [.....] ...and it was just when multimedia was happening etc. And I came across a package called Authorware Professional, which was a package for creating interactive tutorials, and was just bowled over by the sort of, ... it was so amazing.
(F1LT)

The above four cases indicate the emergence of dominant interests which led to moves away from initial academic subjects and disciplines into, for each individual, uncharted territory and unstructured roles, a risk that respondents were willing to take.

Clearly the affordances of contemporary technologies had a significant impact. For example, a respondent with a hybrid role talks about 'marvelling' at the latest computer systems and having to make decisions about 'good devices to teach on' (M1H), another talks about 'amazing things' happening when her students used a 'virtual space' as a learning environment. For experienced respondents working in roles which promote the use of learning technologies, early encounters with computers and multimedia signified turning points in terms of practice and professional pathway.

In contrast, more recent learning technologies, although just as enthusiastic about technology, present a more pragmatic view of their interest in technology. Thus, one describes the introduction of the web, as a 'critical moment', though interprets the impact on her practice as leading to a move into web training and a 'more strategic role' (F2H). Another emphasises work opportunities and the technical aspects of web (M2LT).

Respondents working primarily with learning technologies refer to taking up 'new' roles or moving into a 'new' area. Below is an example of a move to a newly created post.

...that was the moment I made the complete break with [my subject] by becoming the first learning technology support officer as it was then described...
(M1LT)

The perception of newness in relation to learning technologies is noteworthy. Earlier chapters of this study indicate a long history of development of

technologies to support teaching and learning; however, respondents tended to think otherwise. This sense of stepping into a new area and of being a pioneer is a strong characteristic of learning technologists, exemplified in a quotation below about the mid-to late 1990s.

If you like, we were mavericks, and if you like we didn't know that we were creating a new area or being part of an emergence of a new area...[.....]...okay, I'm in this new area, this new profession, which is why [we] were always so interested in this because we were experiencing it ourselves. And we were going through the transition, and, what does it mean emotionally, how does it feel and what were the skills that were changing? (F1LT)

Awareness of something changing and excitement about being involved in creating and shaping something new is particularly evident in the narratives of learning technologies.

There is an 'interest gap' i.e. between the high level of interest displayed in new technologies by some respondents and those who are more pragmatic. Moreover, even though educational developers emphasise risk taking and bringing about change, notions of newness are not nearly as strong. For example, an educational developer admits to 'risk taking and innovation', but he firmly positions himself as being part of a grouping that has 'a history' (M1ED).

Habitus can be seen at play in the interests and the dispositions shown by the respondents. For example, the respondent above implies that he is happy to take risks, and others show more interest in research, yet others are more motivated by being part of something 'new'.

Thus notions of newness and the impact of contemporary technologies point toward differences of habitus between respondents. Interestingly, Becher (1990, p. 340) refers to the 'emergence of fashionable areas of enquiry' as a feature of academic life, differentiating between soft, loosely formed structures of knowledge, where the interest tends to be more about 'enhancing understanding', and 'hot areas' arising from a 'seemingly endless flirtation with novelty' and the desire to make 'fresh discoveries'. 'Enhancing understanding' is familiar in educational development discourse and 'hot areas' which fall in and out of favour, seem to characterise the discourse of learning technology.

Shifting into what is perceived as a 'new' space, suggests greater freedom and autonomy, and more preferable than struggles associated with working in overlapping disciplines and 'internecine strife' referred to by one respondent. However, 'hot area' also suggests a site of struggle and competition.

Indeed, Bourdieu argues that it is important to know the extent of a 'new' space and to map it out in order to increase awareness of the main force lines that structure the space (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). There is a sense that some respondents took a calculated risk in decisions about career route; however it also seems that early habitus, internalised as second nature and a strongly determined disposition also contribute to such decisions.

High aspirations and enthusiasm for change

The interests and beliefs experienced by the respondents provide informative clues to understanding the aspirations of agents and the logic of the new professional fields. Here interest is interpreted in a broad sense, that is to say, where respondents indicate enthusiasm and high levels of motivation. For example, respondents talk with passion and enthusiasm about 'making a difference'. Below two women from different generations and different groupings, express aspirations to make a difference through research.

...a key aspiration that I've got is research that will make a difference, research that will be useful generally to practice. (F1LT)

...ultimately I would like to have a research group that's looking at different aspects of higher education and looking to see how that could be used – you know, not research for research sake – so research that, you know, only other higher education researchers will read [.....] ...so looking at other ways that you can make your work accessible to the people who can influence practice. (F2ED)

Below two male respondents, respectively, propose making a difference in different ways.

...and in the end what I'm interested in is making a difference and sometimes we throw big money at things when the real changes happen by very small steps, rather than big initiatives, [.....] but this is my change model, that you need the opportunity for people to talk, network, engage in small changes, to dip their toe in the water. (M1ED)

I'm really genuinely proud of the change in direction that I've managed to engineer in the eLearning strategy, which was there all along but didn't have the sort of, you know, didn't have the visibility that authorship of the strategy has enabled me to give it. So I am genuinely keen to see that through. [.....] ...it is an important role... (M1LT)

Educational developers and learning technologists, experienced practitioners and newcomers to the field, men and women; it seems all want to make a difference. However, the manner in which respondents approach this goal varies. As can be seen from the previous four quotations, the female respondents tend to place emphasis on strengthening the relationship between research and practice whilst the male respondents emphasise models and strategies to bring about change. Wanting to 'make a difference' suggests both a high level of engagement and a strong sense of agency. Indeed the following quotations suggest that these experienced respondents are highly motivated by their work and enjoy a sense of challenge.

I want to continue to remain challenged by what I do and enthused by what I do [.....] ...and continue to challenge policy, as I'm doing at the moment... (M1ED)

It's very much to do with one's fundamental philosophy and I sort of feel that, that there is quite a lot to fight for in terms of the future of the universities... (F1ED)

Whilst respondents challenge policy and fight for what they believe in, their focus is influenced by individual disposition. For some, agency and intervention are particularly important. For example a learning technologist, reinforces the importance of autonomy and independence.

...as long as I'm allowed to do what I want to do, which is typically academic. I think if I feel that I'm being directed too much, I loose motivation. I like to come up with a vision and develop it. (F1LT)

References to independence, challenge and risk tend to come from senior and experienced respondents. However, the local context proves to be a significant factor. The two quotations below show that working environment is important and that conditions in the workplace can change.

...so long as the university believes that it is an important role then I will try to continue to play it. (M1LT)

I feel at the moment, it's fine. You know I'm doing stuff that I know both the Pro- VCs are very aware of and think it's good stuff so it's okay, but if that changed then... (F1LT)

Thus, having favourable workplace conditions (a topic which is returned to later), having autonomy and independence and having a sense that one

is bringing about change and making a difference, are all referred to as motivational factors by the respondents.

Common interests and differing perceptions

The combined interests and beliefs of respondents working in educational development and learning technology are wide ranging and diverse. For example, some respondents talked about their interest in research and scholarship and some, in teaching and learning. Yet others seem particularly interested in the use of technologies or technical and aesthetic aspects of working with learning technologies. However, most respondents are multi-focused. The two quotations below illustrate the range of interests of two women respondents, a newcomer to the area of educational development and an experienced learning technologist.

I really enjoyed talking to people and finding out more about the work that they were doing. We used to do a lot of evaluation type research, so finding out what people were doing working closely with staff, seeing, you know, how the research I was doing with them would change the courses that they were delivering. [.....]
...I really, really enjoyed it. (F2ED)

...so what I was encountering is the whole approbation of technology and practice, the issue on culture and change, on strategy and policy etc. I didn't know it at the time but that's what was actually happening. And I was getting more and more interested in the issues of this and what did it mean. [.....] I mean what's always said, and it's trite in some ways but true in other ways, is that actually the technologies only ever act as a catalyst for opening up the learning and teaching debates. (F1LT)

Both focus on the relationship between research and practice and have a strong interest in working with staff and gaining a better understanding of change. In fact all respondents express an interest in change. However, there are nuanced differences in how respondents approach the same goals. For example some female respondents express a wish to understand change whilst some male respondents seem more concerned with bringing about change. A female newcomer to educational development stresses the need to question critically how new technologies are being used (F2ED). A senior male practitioner responsible for writing and implementing the eLearning strategy for his university argues that there isn't anything new about the use of technology:

...I don't think there's anything new at all about the use of technology in learning [.....] ...and I wish we could see it that way, I wish we didn't keep talking about it as if it was a revolution.
(M1LT).

Thus, we can see that respondents articulate different pedagogical, technological, epistemological and socio-cultural beliefs and perspectives, which are reflected in their practices and which are contested. Notable also is how respondents couch their interests and beliefs in terms of inquiry, teaching and learning, application, integration and change. This suggests that they have a general orientation and disposition towards the new forms of academic practice identified by Boyer (1990), Palmer (1998), and Clark (1998, 2003).

Such interests and beliefs suggest engagement in, belonging to and believing in, 'the game'. Bourdieu argues that practice is often the only source of evidence for our beliefs and that habit and practice regulate the mind 'without its thinking about the matter' (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 12). Following Bourdieu (*ibid.*, p. 75), interests may be seen both as cultural products and cultural producers and beliefs, as an 'inherent part of belonging to a field'. Thus, interests and beliefs drawn from practice, are reinvested in practice and thus create social systems which perpetuate and legitimate practice, habits and norms, which include notions of 'belonging'. (This will be returned to later in the section on social capital.)

Importance of workplace ethos

Respondents frequently refer to workplace setting and ethos. For example one describes the workplace as being 'a nice place' 'because there are other people that believe the same thing' (M1LT). The same respondent suggests that higher education institutions seem to be suffering from 'a worrying trend towards not believing in what one does', implying a sense of conflict (M1LT). Other respondents see the workplace as an environment where they should be 'valued' (F1ED) and as a place where confidence and 'trust' should be built (F2H). The quotation below illustrates the 'good' feeling generated when people come together with common values and interests (F1LT).

...and for me that was like – wow – and that was when I started to feel well actually I could be part of this – this area because there's some really interesting work happening here. (F2ED)

Respondents also recall, in some detail, experiences of tension and conflict. Such incidents are described in terms of pressure, suppression, intimidation

tion and loss of identity. For example, below, a respondent refers to processes of reorganisation and subsequently acute pressure brought to bear by managers.

...in my job [.....] I had been forced into taking some managerial responsibilities, away from [my main subject], [at a later stage] ... the [institution] reorganized and tried to lever me into a job which would have had me responsible [.....] both for its application of technology in teaching and learning and for the whole of its staff development operation and, I didn't fancy that... (M1LTb)

The above quotation illustrates how reorganisation and new regimes of management are able to impose disagreeable conditions on staff. Other respondents describe the impact of restructuring in terms of fragmentation, disorientation and professional identity. One respondent refers to the move of a unit which was initially associated with the School of Education into Human Resources (M1LT). This type of move which relocates a unit responsible for educational development into what is, conventionally, a non-educational setting is a source of much concern for respondents. University restructuring has clearly created discomfort and distress for many of the respondents, as have university shifts in general. For example one respondent remembers areas being 'split' and of not knowing where to go (M1H). The frequency of restructuring processes and the way in which they are managed seem to have been particularly distressing. For example in the quotation below a practitioner reflects on how she struggled to understand how restructuring was being managed in her institution.

...and then changes in the department the kind of set up changed... [.....] ...the scope of my job changed a little bit, well it changed a lot actually [change to deeper tone in voice]. [.....] ... and Istruggled a lot with how the process was managed sort off higher up but I think part of what I did after ... to sort of come to terms with what had been quite a difficult situation for me was to reflect on it and to think about well what had happened – why had that happened. (F2ED)

Perhaps issues of power and control are more sudden and unexpected for those who are more idealistic. Below, a female respondent describes what we might understand as suppression and intimidation, and how they led to personal crisis.

I couldn't understand what I was doing wrong. I was trying very hard but I couldn't understand what I was doing wrong. Actually I wasn't doing anything wrong, I was just politically [.....] ... clearly my days were then numbered. [.....] So there I am it was a real crisis point in my life,... [.....] ...and the more I tried to fix it the worse it got, because basically I was in a political situation where they wanted to take control of this new area. So anyway, as it happened. It was the best thing that happened to me... [.....] And that was it; that was the kind of transition point. [.....] And looking back I could see that, but at the time – all I'm trying to do was what was best for the University – so naive in terms of politics. By the time I got to [.....] I'd gained in confidence. I mean that was the best thing in terms of moving ... and the [.....] experience had hardened me. (F1LT)

The above incidents occurred while the respondents were working in roles associated with educational development and new technologies. All incidents described had major consequences for the respondents. It seems that the respondents were able to exercise their agency, move away from sources of tension or conflict and eventually move on to new posts in different institutions or, take new career routes. Symbolic violence, which Bourdieu describes as a 'soft' form of violence aimed at limiting and controlling individual agency, does not adequately capture the distress of such incidents. The events described by the respondents may be interpreted as challenging and conflicting with their various dispositions, capitals and their sense of agency. When such significant challenges occur, it is often not easy to understand which rules of the game have changed, why they have changed or how the new rules affect the 'meaning' of the game. Rhoades and Slaughter (1997) characterise trends in reconfiguration in universities as a response to the political-economic context of higher education and the emergence of academic capitalism. The pursuit of academic capitalism changes the rules of the traditional university game substantially. Ironically, it seems that the nature of change and the way that change is managed has had profound consequences for practitioners in roles which are predominantly about supporting innovation and change.

Social Capital

Positioning within institutional settings

Position, status and working relationships within institutional settings are all important types of social capital. Experienced practitioners in the interviews stressed the importance of having close working relationships with senior managers and of making considerable efforts to position themselves

and their units closely to appropriate seats of power, usually at Pro-Vice-Chancellor level. Relationships with faculty deans, heads of departments and other influential policy makers are articulated as of equal importance. Building and maintaining such relationships however takes time and effort. Below a senior learning technologist highlights the efforts that go into building social capital within one's institution.

But that's the way it's going to have to develop, by being on all the committees and, you know, deliberating every decision and being party to everything that's going on. That's the real challenge. [.....] it just means having to be there all the time [.....] ...it's very fine grained and you know. The tentacles reach out to every aspect of the University, but it does mean that it's an extremely labor intensive process for a small group of people. (M1LT)

Similarly, a newcomer to educational development highlights the importance of institutional relationships and the effect of the departure of her head of unit on such relationships and on the position of the unit within the university.

I think that sometimes the fact that we were independent was quite positive, but it depends on who you know and what kind of relationship you've got with the people above. Now I get the impression that the culture here has changed a lot. [.....] in the past [the head of the unit] was close to the former principal, you know. [The head of the unit] had a very close working relationship with him. [The head of the unit] knew all of the Deans, you know, all that kind of thing. Those networks were really, really powerful and it takes a long time to establish those kinds of relationships. [.....] And I think that it will be more difficult for us now that we've lost our, ... the director, because [.....] we don't have the same credibility, how could we possibly because [.....] we're not seen at the same level, you know all those kind of things. At the moment we are very vulnerable actually. Not vulnerable in terms of, I don't think the function will disappear but I think we will be positioned somewhere else. (F2ED)

Work which is dependent on building and maintaining such crucial levels of social capital necessitates the need for political positioning and political practice. One respondent tells how he had to become an 'institutional politics person' in order to be able to achieve his aims; but that getting to know an institution and 'the system' in order to 'play the politics', takes time (M1ED).

Positioning within institutions is an issue raised by all the respondents. For example, respondents from both sub-fields are concerned about the positioning of dedicated units outside conventional academic boundaries. Such positioning is seen as diminishing social capital and agency, and thus conveying a clear message about how their institutions value their work.

Position, social capital, 'credibility' and agency are thus interlinked in the discourse of the respondents as of the utmost importance. Indeed, most gauge their position in their institution by the depth of the relationship with line management and associated 'political power'. Discourses about line management denote hierarchies within institutions and the classification of individual position in terms of power. However, the most obvious weight was given to management's ability to support practice and access resources.

However, the struggle to gain and maintain social capital and position within institutional settings is beset by uncertainty and constantly changing management structures. Two respondents with senior positions described bewildering sets of changes affecting their management and individual appraisal processes. Following recent changes, one senior practitioner had been left uncertain about if he was still on the senior management team. Experienced and senior respondents in both sub-fields reported being faced with situations such as where they 'report directly' to one senior manager, 'have close contact with another' and are 'appraised' by someone else. Below, a senior practitioner highlights the importance of the ethical, philosophical and political perspective of those in management and leadership positions.

...if you go back over the history of the last fifteen years you see the rise and fall of these units up and down, and you see centralised units, faculty based, centralised, faculty [.....] there isn't any perfect solution, because if there was we'd have found it. It kind of depends on where the institution is, what the senior management level perspective is and who the individuals are that are driving and making a difference. So, as I said we're undergoing a review here, and it's not clear where it will go... (F1LT)

Thus position of new professionals can be seen to be determined by the field, by the successive states of the field, by the social relationship which provides access to resources, and by the amount and quality of the resource (Bourdieu, 1986). The constantly shifting context and the repositioning of individuals and units within new institutional structures suggest that for new professionals building and maintaining social capital within the university is an ongoing struggle with institutional social capital as an unstable resource.

External networking, communities and professional associations

The assimilation of social capital through external networks, external communities and professional associations is also important for the respondents from both sub-fields. Social capital has to be worked for and constructed and is manifested in terms of profit and privilege (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). Thus positions held by the more experienced respondents such as appointment to the chair of professional associations or membership of publications committees could not be achieved without social capital. However, the external arena is also described as complex and challenging. A respondent new to educational development thus finds it 'strange' that close working colleagues are involved in such a wide range of unconnected external networks and communities (F2ED). A newcomer to learning technologies is also perplexed by the multitude of networks and professional associations vying to occupy positions in the field, and is rather perturbed by the norms and expectations conveyed by such 'bodies':

...it seems to be there's a lot of different bodies, trying to become the professional body, you know, of learning technologists. [.....]
And I find that these academic bodies, these bodies are ... you are supposed to speak that language. And so I don't enjoy them as a process even though I know I've got to maintain contact. (M2LT)

Whilst the three newcomers to educational development and learning technology are tentative about engaging with professional bodies and associations, their more experienced colleagues are fully engaged in external networking as an important feature of their work. Nevertheless, assessing the value of external social capital and deciding which associations, communities and networks to engage is a process all have to go through, for example by careful selection of relevant national and international networks, conference communities and funding agencies. Furthermore smaller networks and groupings are often seen as useful for more specific activity. For example an experienced respondent explains how a small group of people with shared interests in new technologies began to meet regularly, and then set up a journal which eventually had an impact on the field.

In contrast, to such focused activity, a senior practitioner who works in educational development with learning technologies reflects on how he traverses different agencies, societies, conference communities and professional associations in order to network and keep up to date with the field.

I'm in SEDA, SRHE, ALT ... HEA Academy obviously, well I'm a fellow of the Higher Education Academy, [.....] and in terms of

the organisations that we relate to as a group, those are the kind of main ones, plus JISC [.....]. So the Higher Education Academy, JISC, but in terms of membership it would be SEDA, ALT. [.....] it's just keeping tabs on what's going on, basically and the events give you the opportunity to network. (M1H)

Networking across professional associations, societies, agencies and communities, mentioned in the quotation highlights the overlapping nature of much of the work of new professionals and suggests that, similarly to institutional settings, effort is necessary to build external social capital. Moreover, entry often requires a monetary 'fee', which suggests that different capitals are interdependent and self-perpetuating. Thus social capital is visible at conferences and in networks and professional associations which aim to draw practitioners together with similar interests, beliefs and values.

Professional associations are thus sites of shared interests and beliefs, which form boundaries demarcated by the formal recognition and articulation of values and practices. For example, a senior male respondent working in educational development sees professional associations as particularly concerned with values which establish professional practice (M1ED). Similarly, a learning technologist identifies the function of a professional association as certifying practice related to the discipline or professional area.

I suppose at some point somebody's got to articulate a sensible, [.....] sort of say things that are influential about what to do pertaining to the discipline or the professional area... (M1LTb)

However, while all respondents express to have strong interests and beliefs, not all are enthusiastic about converting their beliefs into common agreements of goals and rules; what Bourdieu refers to as 'consensual validation' as the basis of 'collective belief in the game and its fetishes' (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 66). Indeed the interests and dispositions of individual respondents are not necessarily commensurate with the shared interests, beliefs, norms, rules and regularities of professional associations. Entering a community which has distinct properties which define eligibility for participation is difficult for experienced respondents as well as newcomers. For example an experienced educational developer describes the process as 'really hard work' after trying to get involved with the professional Association for Learning Technologies (ALT), and feels that 'it's easier to say, let them get on with it'. (M1ED). An experienced learning technologist holds similar views about the professional association for Staff and Educational Development (SEDA), such that the respondent indicates 'a certain dis-

tance from the way they carry on' (M1LTb). The specific ethos of professional associations is reinforced by another senior practitioner, who argues that neither ALT nor SEDA are 'quite right' for her (F1LT). The nature of the remarks suggests that a cultural divide exists between the two leading professional associations for educational developers and learning technologists. Whilst respondents from both sub-fields acknowledged the interrelated nature of their practices, one respondent suggests that the imperative for the two associations to work together 'hasn't been strong enough up to now' (M1ED). Thus, following Bourdieu's critique of 'the profession' as a social category with normative elements, experienced respondents reveal a personal impasse when it comes to bridging or combining membership of particular professional associations.

Most respondents are not enthusiastic about the benefits of belonging to a professional association, interpreting the benefits in terms of recognition of the sub-field rather than personally. Smaller networks and conference communities are identified as more beneficial to individuals.

Newcomers in both sub-fields refer to pressure from colleagues, 'the people that are around you' (F2ED), to join a professional association. A learning technologist expresses awareness that 'it's important that you have some sort of professional body behind you' (F1LT); however he also seems rather reluctant to join. Another respondent working in a hybrid role claims to be being 'pushed' towards a formalised professional accreditation scheme (F2H).

Becher (1989) identifies similar issues in his study of disciplinary cultures in UK Universities in the 1980s. Becher argues that while socialisation into a particular form of academic life can create purpose and 'cohesion' out of disparate activity, at the same time it reinforces particular cultural attributes and 'group behaviors' (ibid.). Indeed, when social capital is used as a form of social control, Portes (1998, p. 15) suggests that there is an 'exclusion of outsiders' as well as excess pressure on group members in the form of norms, restriction on individual freedom (increased enforcement of local norms) and downward levelling of norms. There is thus a sense that symbolic violence is present and that social capital, in the form of social control, may clash with more positive benefits of social networking and professional associations.

Positioning within the wider educational community

In response to a question about 'belonging to' a profession, discipline or field, respondents from both sub-fields refer rather to working in 'multidisciplinary domains', negotiating overlapping and layered 'communities' and working across and between 'emerging disciplines'. For example an expe-

rienced learning technologist describes her professional position as swinging ‘backwards and forwards’ between different ‘cultures and communities’ (F1LT). Other respondents have contrasting views about the importance of community and professional identity. For example a newcomer to educational development explains how identity and community are important to her (F2ED); in contrast, an experienced practitioner working in a similar area claims that too much attention is paid to identity:

...in the end it doesn't really matter, except that people like to categorise or compartmentalise people and say they are this or this, or this and I think too much of it has gone down the route of identity and perhaps at times we ought to look more at practice and question practice, what we do and why we do it rather than who we are. (M1ED)

Nevertheless, respondents seem to build social capital through acknowledging educational development and learning technology as distinct disciplines and/or fields. Thus one experienced practitioner identifies proliferation of associated ‘job titles’ as an indication of the maturity of a ‘discipline’.

...there is a growing number of people with job titles like professor of learning technology. And that's a sign that it's becoming a discipline. [...] you can kind of see the change that someone who was, you know, senior lecturer in learning is then professor of learning technology in their next job in the same institution or somewhere else. So I suppose it, it's an emerging discipline. [...] Whether in ten years time people say well of course it's a discipline, at the moment they don't, it's a multidisciplinary domain and that's one of its problems and benefits at the same time. (M1LTb)

Learning technology in particular is described as a ‘multidisciplinary domain’ and as an inter-disciplinary ‘field of study’, which applies ‘old’ ideas of disciplinary thinking to ‘new’ contexts and new ways of working. Certainly one senior educational developer working with learning technologies, finds the notion of discipline problematic and, like Becher and Trowler (2001), classifies educational developers as a ‘tribe’:

...well most academic disciplines are political fudges and somewhat arbitrary and the results of somewhat arbitrary historical events, so I'm not a great believer in the concept of discipline. Insofar as we've got a common body of issues that we worry about and

there's a literature that supports that, you could argue that we are a discipline, but I think more of a tribe than a discipline.
(M1H)

Conceptualising and compartmentalising the knowledge areas and 'fields of study' of two sub-fields which have 'multidisciplinary domains', share 'common issues' and which have overlapping and unclear boundaries, is clearly a challenge. Becher (1989, p. 153) describes such broad areas as having 'unrestricted knowledge' whilst also arguing that epistemological structure is a way of defining disciplinary culture. Thus the nature of knowledge, role of theory and the way in which specialised techniques and findings are used, enable the definition of groups and their boundaries.

Trends and new technologies

Positioning, in relation to different sub-fields and evolving specialisms is particularly difficult for learning technologists. Thus one respondent positions himself by listing what he is 'not':

I'm not a computer scientist [loudly], I'm not a programmer or developer or a database administrator or any other classifiable role within the computer sciences, but I'm more technical than I give myself credit for [laughter], I think, and I don't have the street cred though in the computer services [.....] that would enable me to call myself as such, you know a technician or a technologist.

(M1LT)

It could be argued that new fields related to technological development are constructed alongside or within existing sub-fields although the nature of what constitutes a field or sub-field is unclear, affected as it is by short termism and continuous new trends. For example, experienced learning technologies are in accord about the demise of eLearning. One argues that 'eLearning as a field is doomed' (M1LTb). eLearning is described by another as 'massively going out of flavor' (FLT1). A third indicates that his Pro-Vice-Chancellor for Teaching and Learning states that too much energy has been spent on eLearning (M1H). The quotation below illustrates the rise and fall of eLearning within one university.

I will say that the university made a positive and strong investment in eLearning in the early stages, at the beginning of the millennium. [.....] This unit owes its existence to that development, that decision that was made at PVC level. But, you know, subsequent changes have diluted that. [.....] Well sectoral and institutional

changes. [.....] I think less money earmarked for eLearning is happening already and entirely predictable. eLearning, itself, you know the idea of eLearning, is losing ground as a separate entity ... at cost. (M1LT)

The rise and fall of eLearning as a policy priority is also evident in a policy paper produced by the European Open and Distance Learning Liaison Committee (2004), where eLearning is a policy priority over a four year period (2000-2004) although by 2004 it has been dropped from policy discourse. The report highlights a main limitation as rhetoric of 'simplified visions and over-optimistic statements on the virtues of ICT in learning' (ibid. p. 3).

My perception of the short-lived phenomenon of eLearning as a sub-field is that while it may have attracted with it funding from policy makers and may also have had a set of coherent properties on which practice communities were built, the implications of its rapid rise and demise are significant. The demise of eLearning suggests that social capital, in terms of external networks, and cultural capital, in the form of knowledge and skills, may be momentarily disrupted. However, economic capital, symbolic capital and institutional positions aligned with eLearning are likely to change. By this I mean that knowledge, skills and networks will continue to be valued but funding for eLearning will decrease and titles associated with eLearning will lose symbolic value.

Second generation web development (Web 2.0), and its social networking capacity to create and develop social spaces, communities and networks on the web, has also recently had an impact on historical traditions and institutions, the latter of which have served both to propagate and to protect social capital and cultural knowledge. Below a respondent refers to the impact of Web 2.0's on-line groups and communities on more formalised professional organisations.

...now people can kind of team up with who [.....] they like, and that actually needs linking back to the thing about people joining organisations because previously it was through joining an organisation that you were able to make connections with the people that you would do things professionally, whereas now you are much more likely to make your connections independently of organisations. (M1LTb)

Such developments and paradigm changes in new technologies change also the rules of the game, and introduce additional dimensions which may be seen as empowering and liberating, or affording new privileges and may

also be over-hyped. Respondents who have experience of using the most up-to-date information and communication technologies and who also have an understanding of how the 'logic of the field' works are thus in a privileged position. Shifts in social capital and knowledge further highlight the differential impact of new technologies on society and culture and on the sub-fields being studied in this thesis. The use of technology to reconstruct a new social reality provides an example of Lyotard's (1979, p. 14) postmodern society, in which 'historical traditions' lose their attraction and give way to variation and multiplicity which in turn leads to the formation of 'new' narratives and groupings, often on a smaller scale. Thus, 'virtual' social capital has emerged as a new area of research which draws on a number of fields of study including computer-mediated communication, sociology, anthropology and psychology (for example, Ellison, Steinfield, and Lampe, 2007).

Cultural Capital

Respondents describe a variety of practices in their work which include university teaching; research and scholarship; using technology to support teaching and learning; technical support, which includes training; and managing, leading and supporting strategic activity. Descriptors are diffuse; for example an experienced learning technologist sums up her work as a 'mixture of research, teaching and institutional service' (F1LT).

Practice: university teaching

Respondents are involved in a wide range of teaching activity albeit at different levels and in different contexts; some teaching on undergraduate and postgraduate programmes, others running courses on university teaching and learning for new lecturers and PhD students, yet others offering 'professional development' and 'workshops' (M1ED). Only two respondents both learning technologists, do not refer to being involved in teaching in any of the above categories. One, an experienced respondent, describes his practice in terms of monitoring, managing and implementing eLearning policy and strategy and 'supporting learning' (M1LT). The other, a newcomer, is mainly involved in 'support, chasing up problems fixing issues', 'developing on-line materials' and 'staff training' (which may be workshops) (M2LT). Both respondents are thus positioned in management and support roles that do not involve university teaching.

From the late 1990s, when a shift in emphasis in higher education occurred towards teaching and learning, there has been an expansion of courses on university teaching and learning. As discussed in chapter six, increasing importance of such courses has directly affected educational development

(Gosling, 2008). Below, a newcomer to educational development who had little experience of teaching initially talks about how her work demands knowledge, skills and experience of teaching in higher education.

I'd never taught on the post-graduate certificate in learning and teaching, I'd not really done many workshops with staff, yet I came into this role which was, [to] play quite an influential role in their post graduate certificate, to develop courses for PhD students who were doing bits of teaching, to do lots of workshops – so at first it was like [.....] a complete learning curve. [.....] I felt like ... wow ...this is what I imagined development to be about

(F2ED)

This offers a contrast to a newcomer to learning technology who similarly had little initial experience of university teaching and learning but whose role now involves training rather than teaching, but who is interested in learning more about education.

I don't have any skills or any knowledge in the theories of learning, those sorts of areas which I think that you'd need to have to do sort of like a teaching enhancement job. [.....] ...and that's one of the reasons why I'm doing, ... have started to take the MEd. (M2LT)

Thus university teaching is seen as a basic requirement for educational development but not learning technology. Indeed it is impossible to be an educational developer 'unless you have been a lecturer', according to one respondent (M1H). Despite variation in entry requirements and prior experience, knowledge, skills and experience in university teaching were nevertheless seen by all respondents as important.

Practice: research and scholarly activity

Research and scholarly activity are considered important for both sub-fields though were differently practiced and engaged with. For example, a newcomer to educational development claims involvement in research-based practice and also support for the 'scholarly' activity of others:

...part of it is to develop staff in more scholarly approaches to learning and teaching. [.....] That's why the work, the action research project that I did with a member of staff, has been interesting... (F2ED)

A newcomer to a hybrid role is less pro-active in the research area, but nevertheless contributes to occasional studies and evaluations, particularly

of software applications. Another newcomer to learning technology indicates that research is not part of his 'role' though it is 'something that is on the edge' of his 'thinking' (M2LT).

Differences between research practices of experienced respondents, are more influenced it seems by personal disposition, epistemological standpoint and career route. For example whilst activity related to 'higher educational research' and the 'scholarship' of teaching and learning are evident in the claimed practices of experienced educational developers, those working with learning technologies were more wide-ranging in their work and in some cases, had departed fully from 'traditional' academic practice. For example two experienced learning technologists have taken different pathways regarding 'research' and 'academic interests', the first initially moved from research and teaching into a successful management role, and then moved 'back' into research. Having enjoyed the management role, which she describes as 'a different set of skills', the respondent placed higher value on 'being an academic' and was dissatisfied and frustrated by the limited amount of time she had for researching (F1LT). The second decided to focus on 'supporting learning' and thus followed a policy and management route rather than becoming an 'academic' with 'research interests'. The respondent claims however that this decision restricted his 'career prospects' (M1LT). Both suggest that the respective decisions they took were decisive in terms of the boundary between academic and managerial career paths. This 'manager-academic' career route tension is highlighted again later by other respondents.

Whilst not directly engaged in research, the respondent who has taken a management route is responsible for a range of evaluation and research-based activity related to the use of technology. Furthermore, he emphasises the complex nature of research, such as 'the need to demonstrate to the government that the investments have had some impact'. He points also to the current 'trend' of using external consultants rather than university researchers to research and evaluate practice related to learning technologies:

...there are a whole range of different techniques being used. So it's become much more complex. [...] I mean a lot of the time it's external people, consultants. [...] So, for example, we've just recently evaluated the effect of some workshops [...] and so for that purpose we brought in a consultant, a third party, who could look at it dispassionately and say I will interview all the parties and collect data and so on and then report to you and then you can use that data. So that's a very, that's a valuable trend, it's not that it's new it's just that it's more in evidence because what we are researching is much more complex.
(M1LT)

Outsourcing research and evaluation as mentioned above raises questions about the nature and purpose of research in learning technologies. In particular, the outsourcing of research has resulted in a disruption to the scholarship of teaching and learning and raises questions about how research and scholarship are valued as cultural capital in the sub-field of learning technology and by policy makers.

For the respondents in both sub-fields, research, scholarly activity and evaluation most typically focus on teaching and learning, and pedagogical and course design. However, epistemologies and methodologies vary considerably and it is unclear to what extent research activity, in either sub-field, informs policy.

Thus, whilst research and scholarship are central to the discourse in both sub-fields, it is uncertain about what they mean in practice. One respondent suggests that research encompasses scholarship; another suggests that 'research is a sub-set of scholarly activity'. There is a general view that research and scholarship should be 'interlinked', though distinctive factors are seen to make a difference, such as the Research Assessment Exercise, as well as different methodological and epistemological approaches. For example one respondent argues that there is a danger of blurring the research boundaries in such a way that research is pulled towards 'institutional research' and ultimately ends up focusing on questions of 'how to better manage...' (F1ED). Following Bourdieu, it seems necessary, therefore, to develop a better understanding of the boundaries, and the space available for research and scholarly activity in the two sub-fields. Otherwise it will be difficult to ensure that researchers are able to adopt the positions needed in order to ask critical questions.

Practice: using and supporting the use of learning technologies

The cultural capital of learning technologists seems inextricably related, to their effectiveness in supporting teaching and learning. Having knowledge of learning technologies is also an important feature of the work of educational developers. Educational developers claim to use ICTs in a wide variety of everyday practice including teaching, research activity and communication with colleagues. For example a newcomer to educational development who teaches an on-line course for staff argues that contemporary technology is an essential part of her practice (F2ED). Thus the impact of ICTs on academic practice is acknowledged by all the respondents. Below an experienced female practitioner reflects on how technology has altered academic practices.

So that intermeshing of the experience of doing organisational work, being a teacher, being a researcher, in a sense it's all so – it gets dovetailed through the mediation of the technology. [.....] ... you know you sit there and you can get your paper down loaded to you, you can do your literature searching on-line, you know, you can email somebody the other side of the world [.....] you can set up research interview doing it, as we've done, you know there's all that. So I think it's altered how we practice. (F1ED)

Technology is thus seen as an inherent feature of university work; however it is also clear that, for educational developers, practices are wide-ranging, knowledge and skills vary considerably and attitudes towards technology differ. Two experienced educational developers take a practical but cautious view of the use of technologies regarding everyday practice.

I think many of us certainly at various points have felt that the technology has run away with our ability to, to grasp it. And that may be inevitable [.....] And so I suppose that there's always that sort of sense that when you're really unsure you go to the person who understands the techie bit first, cause it's only when you've understood what this thing is and what it can do that it liberates you to do other things. (F1ED)

I work a lot internationally and everything can happen much faster than it used to before [.....] and even things like using Skype with a web cam has improved the quality of communication [.....] when working internationally. [.....] I'm not sure I would say that email has improved the quality of my life – quite the opposite. (M1ED)

A newcomer to educational development, who teaches an online course, expresses concern about her limited knowledge of learning technologies and discomfort with the idea of supporting staff to use learning technologies. However, when discussing the design of the online course it becomes clear that she has considerable knowledge, despite her evident self-doubt.

I certainly don't have enough knowledge about learning technologies. I do at a sort of general level I know of the things that are out there I know of the ways you can use them...[.....] And of course, you know, again the joys of being an educational developer you're expected to, you know, show good practice, and I found that really difficult for me, because [.....] I can see massive things wrong with [the on-line course] and it's not at all

an example of good practice, and I feel uncomfortable about that. Because part of my role is developing staff and they should be able to see something or – or at least have experience of something that works really well. [.....] ...the original course was out sourced to somebody else and, you know, and this was before I started. [.....] ...it's the design I think, fundamentally its design. [.....] you just desperately try and change bits of it without overhauling it completely, which is what it needs, I think. [.....] We've been using blogs and wiki's [.....] ...for me, it's been like a real learning curve [.....] when we had our appraisal this year I said to [my line manager] it's something I need to have more, – I need to be more aware of better ways of designing, designing and using the different tools to support the student learning. (F2ED)

The case above suggest that being an educational developer requires a high level of competence and knowledge regarding the use of current learning technologies, which, in this case, the respondent has to convey to her line manager.

The newcomers to both educational development and learning technology have different perceptions about their technical skills. When talking about practice the respondent above places emphasis on course design and the use of different tools to support student learning. Other respondents working with learning technologies placed a stronger emphasis on skills related to technology-led concepts such as learning objects, social software, wikis, ePortfolio and branded products. Below, a newcomer shows knowledge of a range of branded software products (labeled a-f).

We've also got some add ons into [our VLE], learning objects that have wikis and blogs and those sorts of tools and we also have a tool called [b], which is now called [c], which has had a large take up and people use quite a lot, [d] as well, and other various tools like [e], other wiki tools, those sorts of things. We sometimes have staff using [f], online survey tool, that sort of thing. (M2LT)

Respondents in senior learning technology roles also convey that having knowledge and skills on the most current technology-driven concepts and products is important. Indeed, to maintain a reputation in any field it is important to keep up with new developments (Becher, 1989). One experienced respondent with a management role expresses difficulty in finding time to keep his skills up to date while another talks knowledgeably about using Web 2.0 applications in everyday working practices with colleagues and students.

I could run a course which was heavily technology based for students in this institution, without using institutional systems. So I could get them social book marking, social networking, storing their images on Flickr, you know, and staff, also staff are playing with that in the same sense as a lot of learning technologists are playing with it. [.....] if you think of the practices that we're engaged in, just our group, I mean we are using social networking in a fairly substantial way, Google docs would be our standard way of exchanging a document these days. [.....] we're using ePortfolios as a way of communicating with each other as well as trying to get it and embed it in student, student life. (M1H)

Similarly, below, a senior female learning technologist stresses the importance of keeping pace with technological development.

And I think all the signs are that things are going to get more and more complex. I certainly see it, for example, with Web 2.0 technologies. It's radically changed my practice in the last two years. [.....] And you don't get Web 2 until you do it. You can tell somebody this is what a blog's about, unless you do it and you understand how it's changing your practice, you don't get it. (F1LT)

The two examples above show that senior experienced learning technologists involved in teaching and research have a high level of knowledge and skills about learning technologies and make deliberate efforts to maintain that particular form of cultural capital. However, it is not surprising that senior learning technologists involved in teaching and research stress the importance of keeping up to date with the latest technologies.

Overlap, in terms of knowledge and skills regarding the use of learning technologies, is evident in the responses of practitioners in both sub-fields and also across different generations. For example, we have seen that a newcomer to educational development primarily involved in teaching and research, is keen to expand her knowledge, skills and understanding of learning technologies. Thus it seems that individual disposition and the nature of everyday practice are key motivational factors that inspire both the use of learning technologies and the maintenance of increased levels of appropriate knowledge and skills.

The three types of objectified cultural capital discussed so far, university teaching, research and scholarly activity, together with the use of learning technologies, are identified by respondents as the most important sets of knowledge and skills, for their work. Paradoxically, while the mission of

the two sub-fields is to support and develop these three areas of academic practice, only one respondent might be categorised as having substantial experience, in-depth knowledge and skills and being highly active across the three areas of practice.

Practice: technical support

A further category of practice to emerge from the interviews is technical support, which is differentiated from other practices by the technical and organisational nature of the skills required and being primarily seen as service, service defined as providing help and assistance in something specific.

Activities mentioned which require specific sets of technical and organisational skills include 'looking after online learning objects' (F2H), 'developing on-line materials', 'delivering training', keeping 'materials up to date' or 'administering the learning technologies' (M2LT).

There is little agreement about the practices of 'the technician', or the practitioner with a specific technological orientation, who is aiming to build a career pathway as a member of an academic occupational community (Zabusky, 1997). The technician's unfamiliar and atypical practices which transgress traditional academic boundaries, position them as caught in a struggle between competing modes of organisation and status. 'The technician' is thus likely to be positioned on the periphery of the dominant (academic) culture. In an academic setting the practitioner with primarily technical knowledge and skills is likely to remain on the periphery of the dominant culture and have low status, unless a conscious strategy is developed to create a professional pathway and the potential for acquisition of cultural capital.

Practice: managing, leading and supporting strategic activity

Another set of practices, identifiable in the narratives of respondents, is associated with managing, leading and supporting strategic activity. Experienced respondents refer to different 'corporate' concepts such as 'institutional service', 'leadership', 'management', 'implementation' and 'monitoring'; with strategic activity explicit or implicit.

Below, a newcomer to educational development highlights some of the difficulties of 'supporting staff', and at the same time as having to 'drive strategic initiatives'.

I often feel like you are in the middle actually between those two [supporting teaching and learning and implementing policy] because we are having to drive a lot of strategic initiatives. Because when we restructured the academic year moving from terms to

semesters you know a lot of the stuff to support that came out of here and this department. But of course staff don't see it as support, they combine it with the fact that actually they've got to do all this – they have to change all of their courses to fit this new pattern. But at the other side we are supporting staff because we do work closely with them. So I do feel like you're kind of stuck in the middle.

(F2ED)

The sense of being caught between conflicting cultures is most characteristic of those in 'development' roles (Henkel, 2002; Macdonald, 2003; Hicks, 2005).

Newcomers in both sub-fields do not have the same level of responsibility as their more experienced colleagues. Nevertheless, in different ways, they view their practices as strategic in terms of supporting university policy. Thus respondents in learning technology 'encourage', 'promote' and 'support' the use of learning technologies. However, each articulates a different version of strategic practice. For example strategic activity is inscribed subtly, as emphasis on 'using technology to enrich learning' (F2H), or more explicitly as 'trying to nudge people' or 'advocating learning technologies' and 'on-line solutions to teaching and learning' (M2LT).

Experienced practitioners have greater responsibility for leading or managing strategic activity. Thus an experienced male educational developer has both a university wide responsibility to 'lead' activity related to the Higher Education Funding Council of England's research-informed teaching initiative and for leading 'institutionally driven' learning and teaching strategies (M1ED). Another experienced male practitioner has responsibility for 'write[ing] and implement[ing] the eLearning Strategy for the University' describing his practice as 'managing', and 'monitoring' the 'implementation of policy and strategy', managing, implementing and monitoring strategic evaluations and 'on going institutional audit' (M1LT). This offers a contrast to an experienced female practitioner working at a senior level with learning technologies who, dissatisfied with a management role and 'the power stuff', has consciously moved away from management to focus on research and teaching (F1LT). This comparison suggests perhaps the influence of early gendered habitus in later decisions and direction of respondents as they navigate their professional field. Thus, three of the four women interviewed express strong commitment to influencing policy through research and have made strong efforts to redirect their career paths 'back' towards an earlier interest in research.

Career route is an expressed concern of several of the senior respondents. For example, one asserts that when people get to a certain level 'there's no-

where to go' other than 'down the traditional service route, heading up an institute' (F1LT). This view is reinforced by another respondent, this time working in educational development, who refers to practitioners as 'being pushed a little bit' to take up a management, administration or a 'quality role' (M1ED). Thus it seems that teaching and research carry less value at a senior level and thus may be under acknowledged as a professional option.

Tacit knowing: the impact of learning technologies

All respondents refer to the impact of computer-based technologies on university practice. In doing so they each draw on 'embodied' cultural capital a type of tacit knowing rooted in habitus and experience. This is exemplified below where a respondent argues that the technology has profoundly altered everyday practice.

I think it's profoundly altered the experience of being in an organisation and how that organisation runs. [...] So I think just actually it's so seeped into the very pores of how we function and operate and the sorts of mechanisms, just the fundamental working of the institution, and I think it's really hard to overemphasise that. [...] ...and I think you know that what's interesting, in a sense, I guess – the gaze sort of feels as though it never goes away...

(F1ED)

One experienced educational developer expresses scepticism about the impact of ICT and in particular of funded projects which focus 'just, on the use of technology and the production of materials'. He argues rather that the use of learning technologies per se does not necessarily lead to higher quality teaching and learning (M1ED). Another educational developer is critical of the low level of institutional support for those wanting to develop their capacity in learning technologies. Yet another is unsure about the value of 'instruments' such as virtual learning environments for student learning. Below, a senior practitioner refers to the constraining and controlling effect technology can have on learners.

And people's experiences of that will be very different. Some will be very comfortable with it. Others will find it challenging because they will feel that it is controlling them rather than giving them control over their learning.

(M1ED)

Reservations about the value, say of virtual learning environments, are echoed by another senior practitioner who refers to virtual learning environments being used just a 'filing cabinet' where documents are stored (M1H), and

also by a newcomer to learning technology, who suggests that VLE's are 'yesterday's news' now that attention has turned towards Web 2.0 (M2LT).

A more optimistic outlook about the growth of IT and the change in the practices of university teachers over the past few years is conveyed by an educational developer. However, though highlighting increased levels of staff competence, he suggests that only a 'small minority' of students coming to university are 'sophisticated in terms of their use of technology' and thus questions the positivistic nature of literature on competences of 'digital natives', i.e. the current generation of students who have grown up with the computer. The assumption that all students arrive at university with sophisticated digital competences which are easily applied in a formal educational setting is also challenged by other respondents.

A strong sense is thus conveyed that 'institutions are just scratching the surface' in terms of policy and practice and how technology could be used and supported. There is also frustration regarding infrastructure, working relationships and 'the politics' as can be seen below.

...so there's enormous potential but as yet institutions, as institutions haven't really grasped it because in most institutions you'll find there is the little group of enthusiasts, which is gradually expanding, and there's the educational development unit and sometimes there's a learning technology unit who don't necessarily talk to one another. So there's also the politics, the politics of it.

(M1H)

Keeping pace with technical development, ongoing issues regarding the technical infrastructure and the political tensions generated between groups who favor different forms of practice continue, seemingly permanent features of educational and technological development in universities.

Unusually perhaps, experienced learning technologists interviewed articulate a strong sense of uncertainty in terms of impact and direction of policy. Thus an experienced practitioner with a senior responsibility for introducing and supporting the use of learning technologies across the university expresses doubt about the quality of the student experience. The same respondent also claims that learning technologies and the work associated with them have suffered because of the failure of technology to fulfill the initial expectation and 'hype' of providing solutions to complex problems. He suggests that the 'failure' of technology, however, is unfairly used as a 'smokescreen' to hide more fundamental institutional problems.

...I suppose I haven't managed to say what I think deep down, which is that the technology is often used as a smokescreen [.....] for blockages in the system with the decision making processes or opportunities for development, the way in which departments and parts of the University work together. You know I think sometimes the technology is actually used to the detriment of the organisation as a whole. So things like, you know, certain parts of a university may practice what's effectively a closed shop in relation to how technologies are supported, that's common. The way in which senior academics may use the lack of hard evidence of benefits of technology to resist change, the way in which scholarly activity i.e. the researching of learning through the use of technology is not seen as an academic discipline in its own right, ... the technology itself always being the butt of criticism for failure of things. I think that is actually used as a smokescreen to hide other things and I think that's a worse problem than it was in the past ... (M1LT)

Another respondent, whilst stressing that his perception is anecdotal, points to a lack of understanding on the part of policy-makers regarding the relative slowness of change and the complexity of implementing learning technologies.

...people haven't twigged how kind of slow and complicated the change process is and they make assumptions that [.....] stuff could happen as smoothly and quickly as the pervasive presence of MP3 players in young people's hands. [.....] and you get people saying well why can't the same transformation of citizens, habits, transfer that into transformation of learners and teacher habits, just happen in the way that it did with people's music listening.
(M1LTb)

Demonstrating impact is thus hindered by things taking more time than expected and 'patchy take up'; meanwhile, technologies move on. Indeed the global context, the pace at which technology evolves and the impact on institutions in terms of policy and practice all pose major challenges to the respondents.

I think we are co-evolving with the technologies, and we get to stages where things radically shift as a result. And so I think the interrelationship of us and technologies is only going to increase. And then therefore the impact on institutions is going to be profound. But what that means in terms of policy perspectives...
(F1LT)

The perception that there has been a failure to estimate the impact of new technologies on large institutions, echoed in the views of other respondents, is certainly not new (Schön, 1967), and there is a strong sense that university systems have been slow to change over the years and that some universities have still not fully addressed the ongoing challenges of technology and change.

Formal certification: a body of interrelated knowledge

As noted earlier in this chapter, respondents entered the field with a range of formal certification, with at least two respondents having PhDs in their initial subjects of study and others having higher degrees or an intention to study at postgraduate levels.

One of the most significant shifts affecting the respondents which also places considerable value on institutional capital is the move to professionalise and accredit teaching in higher education. This move has led to the creation and accreditation of post-graduate programmes in teaching and learning and funded initiatives across the sector to raise the profile of teaching in higher education.

In addition there has been a recent proliferation of undergraduate and postgraduate courses in topics such as learning technology, eLearning, open and distance learning and learning and teaching (see for examples Bates, 2008). Below, a respondent highlights the increase in professional qualifications related to learning technologies.

But what is interesting now is that you have got a rise in new professionals who've got professional qualifications in this area. In the way that with previous more general educational developers quite often they had Masters programmes, now you're getting people who have got Masters programmes specifically to do with technology. (F1LT)

Respondents express acute awareness of the importance of formal accreditation in their own professional development, such as the Certificated Membership of the Association for Learning Technology (CMALT) and the professional qualifications awarded by the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA). However there seems a certain amount of scepticism with regard to the intrinsic value of such awards and little enthusiasm for investing too much energy in them.

I haven't done CMALT or the Learning Technology thing [.....] because it probably just gives accreditation for something that I'm doing. (F2H)

When respondents discussed their own 'certification', they attach most importance to gaining a 'Fellowship' from the Higher Education Academy (HEA) or 'being a Fellow' of the Higher Education Academy, described as being about teaching and support and 'commitment to becoming professionally qualified' (M1ED). The status of the HEA award illustrates, what Bourdieu describes as the 'performative magic of the power of instituting, the power to show forth and secure belief or, in a word, to impose recognition' (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 248). Nevertheless it seems that the 'stakes' are continually being changed. For example the HEA (2008) now has three levels of 'fellowship': Associate, Fellow, and Senior Fellow, implying hierarchy, male bias and elitism.

An experienced practitioner refers to an increase in pressure on educational developers to have doctorates. This may be due to a variety of reasons; for example increased emphasis placed on the quality of teaching in higher education, greater pressure on all university teachers to have PhDs and existing professional accreditation schemes which have implications for the work, levels of practice and position of educational developers and indeed learning technologists. Gaining a higher degree or researching one's subject are both ways of acquiring personal academic capital whilst at the same time contributing to the status of the field of study. An additional reason relates to the increased competition in the global market for higher education degrees, which has raised the stakes for universities in the developed countries to increase research capacity and build research strength (Daniels, et al., 2006).

Counter-cultures

The interviews also provide evidence of a sense of counter-culture and division. Respondents refer to a lack of day-to-day contact between the two groupings of new professionals, and a 'relatively small' 'overlap' of practice within universities related to different organisational set ups. They also suggest a lack of engagement in each others' work and the acceptance of myths about each others' work. For example, some hold strong views about the nature of research, the content of journals and norms and regularities related to the 'other' field, whilst several admit to not being 'well up on the literature' of the other field. Yet others admit to having little knowledge and understanding of the work and practice of the other grouping. All in all there seems to be considerable lack of awareness and understanding between the two groupings. One experienced respondent agreed that such a lack of awareness is not acceptable.

...maybe this is saying I need to think more about that, just it's exposing a kind of blank in my appreciation that isn't really acceptable. (M1LTb)

Respondents also point to fragmentation and division within each sub-field. For example it is claimed that practice in the sub-field of learning technology reveals a split; between those who provide support and are more 'developmental' and those who are more 'researchy'. Differences in practices among educational developers are also highlighted, for example, the contradiction between encouraging scholarly activity and organising 'training courses' from Human Resource Departments. The same respondent also identifies a split between practitioners who have moved into more senior positions and are now responsible for writing or at least contributing to policy, and those who 'may see themselves being marginalised as staff developers' (M1ED). Moreover, there is a divide in the way practice is perceived by faculty as providing support or being a tool of management.

Clearly boundaries exist between and within the sub-fields as happens for other disciplines and subject areas. Becher (1990, p. 333) suggests that such boundaries always threaten unity and press against 'the overall culture of the discipline of which they form part...'. Rather than convergence or integration of ideas and greater interdisciplinary understanding, counter-cultures emerge. Thus to gain 'overall' knowledge and understanding, practitioners are compelled to navigate the sub-fields and cross boundaries into counter-cultures, or what may be regarded as unfriendly territory. Thus despite overlap in the interests and practices of respondents and in academic practice and institutional policy, the two sub-fields lack integration, coherence and a sense of an 'overall culture of the discipline of which they form part' (ibid.).

Economic Capital

In a quest to improve teaching and learning in the UK higher education, tens of millions of pounds have been made available to universities through different bodies and agencies over a period of 10 years. As we have seen, much of this funding has supported the growth of new units and occupational categories whose primary aim is to improve the quality of teaching and learning. Respondents frequently refer to gaining sources of funding from the HEFCE, HEA and the JISC. In particular the Teaching Quality Enhancement Fund (TQEF), the Fund for the Development of Teaching and Learning (FDTL) and the Centres for Excellence in Teaching and Learning (CETL) are identified as important sources of external economic capital for both sub-fields. In addition, learning technologists have gained

especially from funding specifically targeted at supporting ICTs (such as from the JISC).

Achieving external funding symbolises success for the respondents and is often used within institutions to ‘argue for [matched] internal funding’ (M1H). External economic capital, it is claimed, is used in various ways to support practice, agency and jobs. Below we can see that fixed amounts of external funding have been instrumental in enabling the development of institute-based projects and establishing central units and jobs.

...in practical terms the opening up of TQEF funding at the beginning of the decade, for eLearning, also made a very big difference because it enabled us to set up a virtual learning environment for example, so I was able to start in my present position thanks to the use of that enhancement fund. So that’s made a practical difference. (M1LT)

External funding thus helped fund units, enabled projects to be carried out and led to an increase in the number of people calling themselves educational developers and learning technologists. Indeed, one respondent argues that without external funding ‘inroads’ into areas such as the use of new software applications, projects that were ‘quite important’ would not have been possible:

So for example we used it to experiment with [a software application] which we then were able to show to people, which we then were able to persuade the institution that it needed a [.....] so we couldn’t have done that. I don’t know what we would have done without the impetus of external funding around that. (M1H)

Most respondents acknowledge that for individual practitioners and researchers ‘who are stuck in an institution [and] wanting to get on with, in quotes, good stuff’, external funding is ‘incredibly important because it provides the kind of fuel and lubrication for many of them to do their work’ (M1LTb).

Whilst both sub-fields have clearly benefited from fixed amounts of economic capital, being inserted into their areas of work there has been a stronger emphasis on the use of technology in teaching and learning. Thus those who have specific knowledge and skills in learning technology were particularly successful in generating activity. For example one experienced respondent suggests that JISC funding is ‘very easy to go for’ (F1LT) and all seem aware of the ‘large sums of money’ of the funding bodies dedicated to ICT.

Respondents convey mixed feelings, however, about the value of external funding. For example one suggests that external funding may have diverted policy-makers from directly addressing internal funding issues, basic planning and research. Another asserts that it created an imbalance in the internal resourcing and support 'which is still not addressed' (M1LT). External funding thus seems a double-edged sword. It provides increased opportunity and autonomy for new professionals, but at the same time contributes to fundamental problems related to institutional planning, budgets and human resources. One senior practitioner thus conveys the impression that everything in his area is done on 'a bit of a shoe string' (M1LT).

Fixed amounts of capital from external sources are also used to fund temporary posts. A newcomer in learning technology explains how at the end of his two year fixed term contract he will have to be able to justify his role in order to make himself 'indispensible' (M2LT). Indeed the requirements for such funding have generally offered fixed amounts of capital based on targets and 'deliverables'. Changes in patterns of external sources of funding create anxiety, as indicated in an experienced learning technologist's expressed concern about 'new challenges ahead' in terms of 'getting money' (M1LT). Respondents imply that they are compelled to seek new territory for economic capital. For example one respondent mentions recently secured funding through a collaborative bid to a subject-based Research Council, which will 'cover a new learning technologist for three years' (M1LT). Below another respondent identifies Research Councils as a future source of income but also expresses awareness of the difficulties of breaking into new funding streams without having the appropriate cultural capital associated with their area.

What we have built up is bids to JISC and to a lesser extent bids to Higher Education Academy, and we will continue to do that. [...] partly because we've had the technology flavor to most of the bids therefore they have been the appropriate sources and because they are the only sources of money in town. Or at least other sources are either, say heavily research based, and we haven't got the track record to go into that, like ESRC, [...] the university might move more towards that over the next five years. There might be possibilities there ... (M1H).

Both respondents, look towards funding from Research Councils to support their activity, such as the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC), although it is clear that the two sub-fields are disadvantaged in that they are positioned on the periphery of the established academic research communities. Thus, experienced respondents in both sub-fields consider changes in

funding as likely to prompt new alliances and increased competition and struggle for resources.

Pessimism abounds

As already mentioned, projects and targets are arguably evaluated on the basis of impact, and questions of impact are clearly significant for respondents in both sub-fields. Below, a senior educational developer highlights the need to be aware of policy changes in funding.

And when funding finishes in the next year or two it will be interesting to see what happens then. [.....] I think one of the major challenges is going to be the removal of, or the disappearance of the large sums of money that have come in over recent years and will no longer be ring-fenced. TQEF will go into core funding so it will finish in two years. So the challenge for a lot of institutions will be whether to continue funding departments – academic development departments from their core funding. And so the challenge there is, are you making a difference, are you having an impact, because, institutions are increasingly looking to their competitive advantage over other institutions...

(M1ED)

The respondent above, points to the imminent end of a number of funding initiatives affecting the new professional area. Others suggest that the current economic downturn is an important factor and express concern about possible constraints following the ‘huge amount of funding’ which has been coming through JISC (F1LT). The following two quotations from two experienced respondents reflect a general sense of pessimism particularly among learning technologists.

I would hesitate to say dependent [on external funding] but it's been an extremely important part in what we have done in the last few years, yes, extremely important. [.....] Subsequent changes have diluted that. [.....] ...sectoral and institutional changes – I mean the fact that HEFCE is probably going you know ... that the, that eLearning is disappearing isn't it, [.....] and the TQEF is going to be dissipated to core funding probably and these sorts of things will make life hard rather than easier. [.....] ...I mean I spend most of my time trying to bid for money.

(M1LT)

...and for sure things are going to get very, very tight in the next period, and that's without the credit crunch. It's going to get much worse through the credit crunch. [.....] ...you know things like this 7.5 million pound HEFCE money for developing world class

open education resources that was announced earlier this week, that just feels like little flickers on the dying fire rather than the start of something sustained. (M1LTb)

Below a senior practitioner in both educational development and learning technology reflects on the position of his work in general and the associated political struggles.

...I mean one of the things that interest me is the whole politics of it, in the sense of the political struggles that got us here. What will happen when that targeted funding disappears? Because although we are in a better position than most we are still dependent to some extent on TQEF funding, and whether the PVC will take this opportunity to revamp priorities, and how much, how many staff, how much staff go where is a, ... it's going to be interesting. (M1H)

An experienced educational developer points out that other countries are in a similar position.

...there have been similar moves in other countries such as the United States where there was a big drive towards quality and academic developers, or faculty developers, as they were called, were seen as supporting that; in Australia with their quality initiatives, but then when some of that finished, disbanding of units and redundancies across the sector. So, I think [pause for thought] there are very few other professions that you could see disappearing over night, but chunks of [educational development] have disappeared in various countries, which ... I've never perceived this before so it's interesting, might call into question the nature of the profession and its stability. (M1ED)

Thus, it is argued that the vulnerability against which both sub-fields have struggled (Land, 2004) is likely to be exacerbated by questions of funding which have intensified because of the current global economic crisis. Respondents express awareness of struggles ahead, referring to 'a lot of change going on at the moment', 'undergoing review', 'reorganisations', 'restructuring' and 'moves'. Instability in some sense has become the norm as respondents note the different units that they have worked in that have come and gone. One respondent describes her unit as 'kind of floating', and 'not valued particularly', with 'major worries' about the future. A senior and experienced respondent concluded his interview with the following remark:

... talking about the politics and the power [.....] you know, the VC and the PVC ... can either make life incredibly positive and secure for us or they could kill us stone dead, and it's our dependence on politics that makes life difficult at times. (M1H)

Summary

In summary I briefly raise a few points here, all of which I return to in more detail in the final chapter.

The interviews showed that new technologies are regarded, by both sub-fields as an essential feature of academic practice and future university business, with a general consensus that technology will become more pervasive, and that universities must keep in touch with the 'real world' as well as providing students with an appropriate education. However, there is also an overall sense of uncertainty regarding the impact of learning technologies on the quality of teaching and learning, and also about the controlling effect of certain types of technology. Shifts in global economies and concerns about the environment are also seen as challenges for 'the market', although the 'opening up of courses' to the global context and the development of new forms of learning technologies are identified as potential solutions.

For respondents working as educational developers and learning technologists in higher education, their practices are inextricably associated with institutional policy, strategic activity and change. Roles are often short-term, developmental and work settings, complex and unstable. Whilst both sub-fields to some extent share interests and common goals, important differences are evident as are counter-cultures and various specialisms. Differences between groupings and generations can be seen in terms of their knowledge, skills and practices, with habitus playing a part in determining interests, beliefs and career orientation.

Like other academics (or old professionals), practitioners struggle over job titles and scope of work in order to establish identity, keep up with the identity of their chosen group and take their place in the established social order. Like other academics in UK universities, they also struggle with seemingly relentless restructuring. In contrast to other academics however there is little sense of belonging to an overall culture or academic discipline, and instead a lack of coherence and uncertainty about their positioning in the social order. External short-term and top-sliced university funding have formed the basis of growth of both sub-fields though now are a source of uncertainty for both sub-fields. Lack of a cohesive academic discipline, unstable sources of funding, changeable management structures, academic capitalism and the role both sub-fields play in supporting institutional policy and strategy; all serve to place new professionals in a political, sensitive position, as peripheral and yet central to academic practice.

Chapter 9. Technology and change: a feel for a new professional game

Introduction

This thesis has explored the emergence of two specific groupings of ‘new professionals’ out of a context of change and reform in higher education. It has combined different theories and methods to gain an understanding of the history, practices and position of ‘educational developers’ and ‘learning technologists’ and their respective approaches to supporting teaching and learning and the use of ‘new technologies’. The social structure and practices that govern the two groupings have been analysed by means of a range of theories, concepts and methods which include Bourdieu’s concepts of habitus, field, and capital, Boyer’s ideas about new scholarship, Palmer’s conceptualisation of the university teacher and Clark’s notions of the entrepreneurial university. The work of others, in particular Schön and Ball, has also provided insight into the powerful relationship between technology, society, education and change.

Earlier chapters provide a picture of the field (of academic practice) which has been selected for investigation and the key relationships and networks, knowledge, skills, characteristics and practices associated with the sub-fields of educational development and learning technology. The historical overview, literature reviews, the professional autobiographical narrative and the in-depth interviews show how time, setting and habitus contribute to knowledge and understanding of position, power relations, and struggles over resources, professional judgement and values.

Central to this discussion is the impact of new technologies in the university and on academic practice and policy, and how they have been used as a means of supporting teaching and learning, as well as organisational practices, educational development, processes of social change and organisational reform. Bourdieu’s analogy of game and of the principal dynamics of field and agents as holders of specific capital with the capacity and position to act in the field, has been important to this thesis as have Schön’s views on technological innovation and its effect on social systems.

In this final chapter, I reflect on the challenges of researching one’s own area of practice, discuss the impact of new technologies and change on higher education and attempt to answer the questions posed at the start of the thesis. I also raise a number of points related to the growth in importance of new technologies as tools and processes, and struggles for professionals working in this area.

Methodological issues

It is not the intention to repeat earlier discussion about the theories and methods underpinning this thesis. Rather, this section offers a reflection on epistemological, ethical and personal difficulties in researching one's own practices and the practices of colleagues.

Essentially this thesis has adopted a reflexive socio-cultural perspective on practice. The aim has been to make sense of and give meaning to professional practice and life situations and to apply analyses and interpretation. The methods used have aimed to draw together social and cultural background, life experience, professional practice and organisational change. As we have seen, professional life experience can constitute a rich research source. Similarly, my study has sought to capture the interconnectedness and complex nature of academic practice and its importance for working and researching in today's university. Structural change which generates new relationships, struggles for power and resources and the value of various capitals, are explored. The study of intersecting sub-fields has led to an identification of boundaries, overlap and gaps, and similarities and differences between knowledge, practices, positions, dispositions and allegiances.

Individual agency and how structures are experienced are brought together in the professional autobiographical narrative and in-depth interviews. However, exploring one's own practices and the practice of colleagues working in the same field has been challenging – if also interesting. Autobiographical narrative as a methodology has been difficult, in the sense of having to search to find an appropriate voice and having to be selective about which events to include. Bourdieu describes the difficulties in using oneself as an object of research as follows:

Working on such an object, one is reminded at every moment that the subject of the objectivation himself is being objectivised: the harshest and most brutal objectifying analyses are written with an acute awareness of the fact that they apply to he who is writing them. (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992, p. 63)

Interviewing other professionals working in the same field as me was equally challenging. Indeed Bourdieu reports on being overwhelmed, as indeed I was,

...overwhelmed by the fear that the interests of the readers (which, given what I write, comprise a large majority of academics) would be so strong that all the work I had accomplished to prevent this kind of spontaneous reading would be swept away... (Ibid.)

I use these quotations from Bourdieu to emphasise the epistemological, ethical and personal difficulties associated with using my own experiences and those of colleagues and other professionals, as a research topic. For example, my treatment of struggles and critique as applied to an area in which I have worked, continue to work, and remain committed to and fascinated by, are sources of potential misinterpretation. Here, I draw again on Bourdieu who points out that any criticism or contestation should be seen as an indication that other players are equally committed, i.e. believe in the game, and thus value and if necessary challenge any analysis provided.

New technologies and change in the new higher education

A key thread running through this thesis has been the effect of technological innovation on socio-cultural aspects of academic practice. New technologies have been discussed, as electronic tools and processes used in various educational contexts and as means of bringing about change. The attempt has been made to show that such views of technology are interlinked. However, change is not always positive as Schön explains:

The principal source of difficulty is in technical innovation and in the many forms of social change which have accompanied it and resulted from it and which now, as technical change has become institutionalized, cause it. (Schön, 1967, p. xiii)

The impact of technical innovation on society and the continuing task of organisations and institutions to keep up with the increased pace of change, illustrate Schön's argument that 'technological innovation belongs to us less than we belong to it', thus highlighting underlying concerns about uncritical acceptance of technological solutions and insufficient exploration of fundamental questions of purpose.

This thesis has shown that as the expansion of higher education moves towards industrial models of infrastructure, dependence on new technologies are accompanied by increased visibility of technical support departments, increased centralised control, and commercial interests which favour technical solutions. Furthermore, new technologies underpin the pressure on universities to be proactive and entrepreneurial in the globalised competitive market. As a result, software companies have built up considerable influence (and stakes) in the higher education sector, in developed and developing countries. Thus, new technology cannot be said to be a neutral instrument of social change.

Change has become the dominant leitmotif of new university systems as has been reiterated time and again. As universities implement cycles of restructuring, the preferred 'steady state of change' i.e. the space between restructuring processes, is inevitably disrupted due to displacement of staff as well as structures. Bureaucracy has expanded (Clark, 2003) and policy technology has been used to change existing regimes (Ball, 2003). The latter is often disguised as an ethic of change, such as the introduction of a new set of corporate values or set of targets. Following restructuring have been shifts in power, position and in accrued social, cultural and economic capital (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992).

How can we interpret these shifts in power in relation to the nature of today's university and to the deployment of new technology? We have seen in the review of literature that technological innovation and change in higher education are linked to new forms of professionalism and 'hybrid' roles. It suggests that technological innovation has become associated with new pedagogies and powerful business and commercial agendas. We have also seen how government policies determine what is at stake and how different forms of technological innovation determine the means by which economic, social and cultural capital is distributed and their impact on professional practice, position and professionalism.

In my own experience: initially as a university teacher, I accrued valuable cultural capital through my interest in using media and technology to support teaching and learning. The educational technology Centre which I led the establishment of in the early 1990s, and for which I had academic and managerial responsibility, was initially an autonomous, if peripheral, unit which focused on practice-based research and the use of new technologies to support academic practice. My early struggles involved positioning the Centre both centrally in the university and within the sub-discipline of academic development and alongside the sub-discipline of higher educational studies. This was achieved when the Centre was formally based in an academic institute with academic leadership. Thus in the mid-1990s, the Centre was based in a large central department which had as its main focus, support for learning, teaching and research and the support of students and staff.

During a later restructuring the large central department itself was incorporated into an even larger central department which included IT services, and was headed by the head of the university information systems. A so-called 'values-based' 'cultural transformation' was introduced. This used corporate 'cultural transformation tools' to propel staff through radical change. The application of change technology was, I want to argue, both a symbolic shift and a form of symbolic violence directed towards mostly

passive 'social agents', i.e. university staff who were constructed as professionally inadequate. In other words it was a process of disciplining agents and was symbolic of the efficacy of the dominant determinants (Bourdieu, 1998). By this I mean that the technology in the form of 'cultural transformation tools' were used as a form of social control in order to impose the values of the dominant group.

Such change technologies are powerful, often implicit and therefore hard to contest. Dangers for higher education are that the balance is pulled towards technologies of control and bureaucracy and away from the knowing professional judgement of university academics/teachers. The deployment of such technologies also results in the erasure of capital (social, cultural and economic) and loss of professional identity, often without any replacement.

In-depth interviews with practitioners show further how role and position may be short-term and how new professionals are particularly rendered vulnerable to new regimes of power in their struggles over job titles and scope of work. Furthermore the interviews show how the work of educational developers and learning technologists is inextricably linked with institutional policy, strategic activity and change.

Variations in change strategies and in the principles, values and ethics of those who control how judgments are made, necessarily impact on the social and cultural capital of professional groupings and the balance of power between the players involved. Thus policy technologies aimed at bringing about change are able to threaten individual professional identity, individual agency and the 'hearts and souls' (remit) of institutions. Furthermore, there is a paradox in that whilst the effects of policy technologies may be 'subtle' (Ball, 2003), various experiences reported in this study suggest that they are often overt, unsubtle and wide-reaching.

We have seen through this thesis an unfolding in terms of the status and value of new technologies as electronic tools to support teaching and learning and to become central to organisational processes and the transformation of university practices. We have also seen change become institutionalised in the form of policy technology.

Thus the relationships between technology and change and how new technologies are used to support teaching and learning in higher education are characterised by complexity, dichotomies and conflicts of interest. A danger here is that if critical debate is stifled, technology becomes technicist, an unquestioned instrument of progress, and/or an ideological tool for meeting the challenges of the market.

Research Questions

This thesis has sought to address the following questions:

- What is a new professional in higher education?
- What are the characteristics, principles and practices that distinguish the educational developer and learning technologist as new professionals?
- How do the practices of the educational developer and learning technologist contribute to teaching, learning and scholarship in higher education?
- In what ways is the notion of a new professional in higher education useful?

These questions will now be addressed.

What is a new professional in higher education?

The work of new professionals is inextricably linked to the effects of reform and the diverse nature of activity in the changing university due, in part, to globalisation, technological innovation and the positioning of nations as global economic forces within the knowledge economy.

The emergence of new professionals in UK higher education in the 1990s may, therefore, be understood in terms of changes in new management regimes of universities, and in academic work at a time of massification, reduced resources and technological advancement. The practices of the two groupings of new professionals (the focus of this study) have been ostensibly devoted to supporting and improving teaching and learning and the student experience. However, new professionals, have also been active in the development of 'the entrepreneurial university' which itself has generated a variety of new units and departments, fixed-term contracts, and non-faculty and managerial professionals. Thus, as new structures and practices emerged which continue to be reconceptualised and remodelled, the work of new professionals cuts across the 'old' disciplinary boundaries to embrace a wide range of university work which includes managerial, academic, non-academic, entrepreneurial and innovative activity which is increasingly governed by government-related discourse, accountability and the need for technical innovation. Furthermore the work environment and career route of new professionals are unstable and particularly susceptible to the demands of new power regimes for technological solutions.

Characteristics, principles and practices

Both groups primarily aim to bring about change and support professional development. Accordingly, both groups aim to support teaching and learn-

ing, the use of learning technologies, research and the application and integration of new knowledge and skills. They also share principles and values that emphasise innovation. Both groups work in complex and uncertain workplace settings and struggle over their position, professional identity and symbolic capital. However, differences have been identified particularly in terms of individual disposition and capital, which can be seen mainly in practice and career route.

Habitus and disposition

Both groupings show a strong inclination and overall orientation towards the symbolism of specifically 'educational' practices. The strong leaning towards education is rooted, it would seem, in the deeply-founded dispositions and beliefs of individuals and the symbolic value placed on different types of capital. Practitioners working in both sub-fields, for example, place symbolic value on principles of enquiry, autonomy, and creativity, with high aspirations, enthusiasm for change and a strong sense of agency. However, the main distinction between the two groupings is that learning technologists are more motivated by the relationship between information and communication technologies, media and teaching and learning, and by the challenge of exploring and bringing into being technological inventions which can be used in teaching and learning.

Networks and relationships

Social capital in the form of networks and relationships is an important political resource for both sub-fields. It is used to facilitate collaboration and support mutual interests and is therefore a crucial feature of practice. Social capital is also used by individuals in both groups as an investment which returns personal advantage. In particular, experienced practitioners utilise social capital both in institutional settings and in the wider field of higher education.

We have seen that within university settings, educational developers and learning technologists have to deal with complex and changing power regimes and management structures, which means that institutional social capital is often an unstable resource. Outside institutional settings, they seek involvement in networks, special interest groups, conferences, communities and professional associations. Fields and sub-fields, networks, communities and associations overlap and intersect, however, with boundaries marking out shared interests and norms. Thus while there is overlap between practices, between and within the two groupings, and whilst practitioners in both sub-fields follow conventional academic norms and share many interests, there are also differences, tensions and counter-cultures. For example,

collaboration between educational developers and learning technologists has been quite limited and, as we have seen, varying positions regarding research, allegiances to different journals, different conferences and different professional associations are all signifiers of distinctive workplace and 'disciplinary' (counter) cultures.

Practice, knowledge and formal certification

Cultural capital is manifest as a basis for practice, knowledge and formal certification of practitioners. Five broad categories of practice have been identified in this study: 1) teaching; 2) research and scholarly activity; 3) the use of learning technologies; 4) management and leadership; and 5) technical support. While all are interrelated; teaching, research and scholarly activity and the use of learning technologies are considered, in this study, to be most central to the work of both educational developers and learning technologists and are thus categorised as primary sets of practice.

However, we have seen that prior experience of teaching varies, and that whilst both groupings are involved in supporting professional development, which may include mentoring, consultancy, coaching and running workshops; educational development tends to involve different types of higher level university teaching whilst learning technologists are more likely to include practices such as training.

A wide range of practices including research, scholarly activity, evaluation and audit are also evident. Differences are also evident, for example in conflicting epistemological views and positions regarding research. We have seen, for example, that educational developers place emphasis on scholarship in teaching and learning in contrast to research strategies associated with the implementation of learning technologies which are framed by questions more of a positivist nature such as about 'how' things should be done. Critical 'why' questions which relate to purpose or approaches to implementation and to the broader societal and cultural questions have been less prominent. However, we have also seen that the learning technology research base extends to include a wide range of methodologies and topics.

The use of learning technology is an inherent feature of the work of both groupings; however, differences in knowledge, skills and practices are evident in both groups. Personal disposition and context (specifically job-related activity) account for different levels of engagement and different levels of knowledge and skills: some practitioners simply use technology as part of their everyday work; others are involved in teaching online courses, while others (particularly learning technologists) are involved in a wide range of specialist technology-related activity. Interestingly, there is uncertainty regarding the impact of technology on teaching and learning,

and on the quality of the student experience, with frustration expressed most strongly by respondents whose roles are primarily related to supporting the use of learning technologies. Indeed the level of frustration shown by learning technologists suggests that responsibility for bringing about change directly related to technological innovation is less simple than had been initially anticipated.

We have also seen that the practices which require technical and organisational skills, which are important both for educational development and technological innovation, remain on the periphery of mainstream academic practice.

Management and leadership of the two areas are determined mainly by context, with institutional structures determining the specific positioning of individuals units. However, this study suggests that management and leadership of educational development and/or learning technology is a site of struggle over positioning, practices, principles, beliefs, values and resources.

Professionals working in the two sub-fields have access to a wide range of formal certification, which includes certification of technical competences and 'professionalism', post graduate certificates in teaching and learning, 'certificates of cultural competence' from professional associations, Masters Degrees in education or PhDs (generally) associated with a subject discipline. The connotation and value placed on certification from professional associations vary. However, the commitment that, for example, the Higher Education Academy places on the student learning experience and on both teaching and support, sets the Fellowship it offers apart as providing a unifying 'certificate of cultural competence' for both educational developers and learning technologists. Moreover, attaining a doctoral thesis in 'the field' has cultural value for both sub-fields, and also for the broader field of higher education studies, particularly in terms of new knowledge and the strengthening of position within an academic setting.

Funding

External funding has been at the root of the growth of both sub-fields; therefore economic capital is extremely important. The source and purpose of economic capital can unite or divide the groupings. The dependency of the two groupings on external funding and 'top sliced' institutional capital constitutes a deep-seated problem and sets the sub-fields apart from other more established academic disciplines.

Institutional policy and business plans have not, in some cases, fully addressed the practices and long-term purpose of the two groupings: thus both need to find new strategies for professional stability via support in-

ternally. The recent ending of large scale funding initiatives, coupled with the current economic crisis, suggests that, while both groupings are clearly important to policy makers, both sub-fields occupy a difficult and vulnerable position. In the current climate, securing substantial economic capital is seen as at the root of the survival of both groupings, though also a source of significant disruption and a key site of future struggle.

Intellectual justification and professional status

Both groups profess to support professional development and the enhancement of teaching and learning. However educational development has contained a stronger intellectual justification for its professional status which emphasises scholarship, critical reflection and connecting teaching, learning and research, whilst for learning technology the main justification of its professional status has been based on issues of integration, application and innovation. Thus, while educational development has concentrated on practices which consolidate the relationship between teaching, learning and research, for learning technology the main concern has been the introduction and insertion of new technologies into academic practice. However, this study suggests that both aspects of practice are now shifting and indeed merging.

Power and influence

It has been shown that educational developers have more of a tradition of leading professional development and of engaging with university politics. At the same time, learning technologists have 'matured' as a professional grouping and have achieved an increasingly central and powerful role, for example in supporting professional development, shaping and implementing policy and influencing the decisions of 'resource controllers'. Thus, both groups have been to some extent influential, particularly in terms of determining learning and teaching strategy and policy at local, institutional and national levels. In addition their often, central physical location in the university has placed them at the interface of management, faculty and departments. However, long-standing tensions for both groups concern their positioning between management and university teachers, and their increasingly politicised role which may, in the future, lead either to an increase in power or a reduction in influence and agency for one or other groups.

Impact and accountability

Whilst central units have been acknowledged as useful in improving the quality of teaching and learning, their work has also been criticised as too closely linked to the business and economic imperatives of the university. Questions related to impact are raised by faculty, university managers,

and government, for both groupings, in particular, in relation to the large amounts of government and university funding which has been channelled into learning technologies.

Tensions between, the two groupings have been exacerbated by the increasingly competitive market in higher education in the UK in which professionals are assessed in terms of, for example, meeting targets, income generation, quality of research, 'benchmarking', 'e-learning progress' and improvements to the quality of teaching. Also influential, as we have seen, have been external sources of funding and the perceived importance of new technology. All of these factors have created different levels of accumulation of social, cultural and economic capital and have clearly affected the value attached to new professionals.

Increasingly blurred boundaries

Whilst both groups see themselves as multifaceted and interdisciplinary and, also to some extent 'fragmented', educational developers have a longer sense of history and a more cohesive sense of 'community', in contrast to learning technologists who are more individualistic and flexible in their positioning and practices.

Individuals within both groups self-identify in terms of 'generations', with the first generation of learning technologists, of the 1990s, perceived as having moved on to more active roles in management and research, while the second generation is described as more focused on specialisms and practice. Educational developers are not so explicit about generational differences, reflecting their sense of history and community. However, there is evidence of experienced practitioners moving into management, leadership and policy-making positions, while there are also indications that the future of the next generation of educational developers is uncertain with the possibility of further disruption, increased marginalisation and greater institutional control over their practice. There is evidence also that educational developers are becoming increasingly 'strategic' while learning technologists display signs of divisions between researchers and practitioners over symbolic shifts between learning technology, e-learning and technology enhanced learning.

Thus, following Bourdieu, both sub-fields show evidence of instability with boundaries proving difficult to maintain. Furthermore, this study shows that individual disposition is a key factor in terms of differences between new professionals. Subsequently the disposition of future leaders of educational development and learning technology will clearly influence struggles over position, practices, principles, beliefs, values and resources.

Contribution to teaching, learning and scholarship

As we have seen educational developers and learning technologists are involved in shared areas of work and both express commitment to creating effective conditions for student learning, scholarship in teaching and learning and the use of learning technologies, albeit in different ways. However, educational developers and learning technologists through practices discussed in the previous section are often allocated responsibility for implementing institutional strategy and bringing about change. Thus for both groups important activities in higher education are:

- creating effective conditions for learning (along with old professionals)
- scholarship in teaching and learning
- the use of new technologies in teaching and learning.

Correspondingly both groups thus contribute to:

- university teaching
- knowledge production
- innovative pedagogies.

Where these activities intersect is the source from which educational developers and learning technologists draw their values, principles, practices and professional identity.

Is the notion of a ‘new professional’ in the new higher education useful?

According to Schön, invention is characterised by twists and turns that affect its path and determine its course (which are not always clear at the outset), and it is difficult to foresee ‘from what disciplines or technologies answers will come’ (Schön, 1967, p. 18). Thus, as academics are required to be more professional and as newness builds on what has gone before, the application of the term *new professional* is useful because it denotes the emergence of innovative professional forms.

However, in exploring educational development and learning technology, we have seen, that the application of ‘new’ to professionalism is not straight forward. It is, therefore, perhaps more appropriate to reconceptualise the label of new professional to include all those who engage with the various new technologies, ‘innovative’ pedagogical practices and research, whilst being impelled by the policy technologies – of the entrepreneurial university. Indeed this ‘take’ on new professionalism could be applicable to almost all university teachers and staff.

Nevertheless for the two specific groups of new professionals studied, which have been pulled more obviously towards government discourse and

institutional strategy and change, it could be argued that their roles and practices are new, in the sense that they are interdisciplinary, positioned between faculty and management (and thus political), dependent on top-sliced and external funding (and thus entrepreneurial) and associated with quality indicators and notions of performance (and thus performative). It could be argued therefore that the practices of educational developers and learning technologists epitomise the struggle between the modern and the post-modern university.

Conclusion

A key aim in my own professional practice has been to work with new technologies and support educational development in a way that maintains the delicate balance between the needs of organisational processes, and professional and pedagogical practices. Thus I want to conclude by underlining a number of points.

The first is that the growth in importance of new technologies as both tools and processes has undoubtedly affected the field of play (of academic practice) and the rules of the game (norms and values) of (new) professionalism (as a type of work orientation). In some cases it has also shifted the balance of power from teaching and learning to technical rationality. Such a shift has been buttressed by successive periods of restructuring of the university, which have caused both 'old' and 'new' professionals to engage in professional and political struggles due to new forms of central governance and bureaucracies of change. Particularly evident is how new and old professionals are rendered vulnerable by the new regimes of power. Thus while the practices of educational developers and learning technologists exhibit characteristics associated with the post-modern university, the professional identity, practices and knowledge of all professionals become increasingly fragmented and governed by management and business imperatives.

Second technological innovation is not new, and will undoubtedly continue. However, the danger is that if the principles guiding change fail to recognise research, scholarship in teaching and learning and critical inquiry as essential to creative and stimulating learning and working conditions, innovation and the process of change itself are likely to be imposed artificially from the outside rather than guided by the work reality for those involved. Thus I want to argue that, to ensure the continued existence of creative and socially critical 'new professionals', the nexus that underpins every aspect of university life needs to encompass teaching and learning, research and scholarship in teaching and learning, the use of new technologies and knowledge of educational policy. Furthermore, the various elements, which are intrinsic characteristics of academic practice, should be understood not

necessarily as resistant to change but as forward-looking and compatible with commitments to innovation – forming thus a powerful union which addresses the critical issues raised at the start of this thesis by McLuhan and Fiore, Schön and Boyer.

Universities, at the very least, therefore, should ensure open, balanced and critical debate which draws on research and scholarship pertaining to the pedagogical practices needed for new technologies. By so doing:

- a balanced approach is maintained between the implementation of new technologies for pedagogical practice and for organisational processes and business imperatives
- academic practices are recognised and valued which centre on creating the best conditions for teaching, learning, scholarship in teaching and learning, and the pedagogical use of new technologies
- university teaching, research and scholarship are recognised as a necessary precondition for processes of creativity and critical inquiry
- any ‘ethic of change’ creates the most appropriate possible conditions for learning, working and professional development, in higher education.

Thirdly I want to highlight what I judge to be a disappointing level of collaboration between new professionals as evidenced in the two sub-fields of educational development and learning technology. Thus while the two groups seem to share some practices and professional values, each possesses a distinctive set of social, cultural and economic capital with differential value associated with the forms of capital held by each. This could explain competitive struggles which have resulted in separate working practices and affiliations, and, occasionally, attempts by one group to marginalise the other. Additionally, as we have seen, counter-cultures and the habitus and disposition of agents determine disciplinary boundaries. A commitment to greater collaboration could be seen as a starting point for a potentially rich partnership in educational development and improved student learning, whether or not related to technology. However, it needs to be recognised that academic practice, and thus educational development, in the new university is also dependent on specialist knowledges, skills and competencies (of educational development and learning technology) and alternative lines of reasoning.

The politicised, unstable and uncertain positions of both sub-fields, their frequent changes in leadership, erosion of agency, struggle for academic recognition and professional and personal struggles of practitioners, all are exacerbated by divisions in and between the two sub-fields, and their lack

of a cohesive definition of disciplinary status, i.e. in terms of the nature of knowledge, the role of theory and the way in which specialised techniques and findings are used. Thus my final argument is for a more cohesive approach to educational development in higher education which acknowledges its political position, encompasses the use of learning technologies and higher education policy, and strengthens it as a sub-discipline of education.

Postscript

In working for this thesis I have acknowledged the past, reflected on the present and anticipated the future. The personal benefit I have gained from this undertaking echoes Bourdieu's claim to knowledge:

'...one knows the world better and better as one knows oneself better, that scientific knowledge and knowledge of oneself and of one's own social unconscious advance hand in hand, and that primary experience transformed in and through scientific practice transforms scientific practice and conversely.'

(Bourdieu, 2003, p. 289)

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Appendix I

List of texts used in analysis of practice

Educational development

1. Fraser, K. (2001) Australasian academic developers' conceptions of the profession. *International Journal of Academic Development*, 6 (pp. 54–64). Discussion paper based on a survey of 71 professionals working in the field of academic/educational/teaching development. The analysis of texts for this thesis draws on the conclusion and 'conceptualisation' of roles (pp. 61-63).
2. Gosling, D. (2001) Educational development units in the UK – what are they doing five years on? *International Journal for Academic Development*, 6 (1) 79–90. Paper based on the responses of 53 heads of educational development units to a questionnaire. Similar surveys were carried out in 1995 and 2006 (see also 8 below). The analysis for this thesis draws on 31 'remits' of educational development units (p. 82).
3. Land, R. (2001/2004) Agency context and change in academic development. *International Journal for Academic Development* 6 (1) 4–20 and Land, R. (2004) *Educational Development: Discourse, Identity and Practice*. Maidenhead: Open University Press. Paper and book draw on the results of a two year empirical study with 'practicing academic developers' on change and different 'orientations associated with their work. The analysis for this thesis draws on the 12 'orientations' to 'academic development' (2001, p. 6; 2004, p. 12-116).
4. Bath, D., and Smith, C. (2004) Academic developers: An academic tribe claiming their territory in higher education. *International Journal for Academic Development*, 9 (1) 9–27. Review and exploration of the current debate regarding the work of academic developers, drawing on other empirical studies. The analysis for this thesis draws on the 'roles' of academic developers (Table, p. 19).
5. Taylor, K.L. (2005) Academic development as institutional leadership: An interplay of person, role, strategy and institution. *International Journal for Academic Development*, 10 (1) 31–46. Paper based on an empirical study exploring the leadership experiences of 23 academic development specialists in 17 Australian universities. The analysis for this thesis draws on the personal 'characteristics' of academic development roles.
- 6/7. SEDA (2005) Staff and Educational Development Association – Professional Development Framework. The analysis for this thesis draws on the 'specialist outcomes' of the two awards:
 - (6) Leading Staff and Educational Development
 - (7) Leading and Developing Academic Practice.
8. Gosling, D. (2008) *Educational development in the United Kingdom. Report for the Heads of Educational Development Group* (HEDG). Published by Heads of Educational Development Group (HEDG). Survey of 43 institutions – see also Gosling (2001) (Paper 2). The analysis for this thesis draws on the 'responsibilities' of educational development units. http://www.hedg.ac.uk/documents/HEDG_Report_final.pdf (accessed 22.04.2008).

Learning technology

1. Beetham, H., Jones, S., and Gornall, L. (2001) *Career Development of Learning Technology Staff: Scoping Study, a final report for the JISC JCALT*. Bristol: University of Plymouth, University of Bristol. http://www.jisc.ac.uk/media/documents/programmes/jos/cdss_final_report_v8.pdf (accessed 12.11.2005). Policy report on the roles and functions of UK HE staff involved in the development of learning and teaching through the use of communication and information technologies, for the Joint Information Systems Committee. The study is based on a role analysis and audit and in depth interviews. The analysis for this thesis draws on role analysis (pp. 28-31)
2. Oliver, M. (2002) What do learning technologists do? *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 39 (4) 245–252. Research study carried out for the Staff and Educational Development Association into the identity and practices of learning Technologists. The study includes ‘an overview of research’. The analysis for this thesis draws on the ‘characteristics of practice’ (p. 251).
3. EFFECTS (2003) Effective Framework for Embedding C and IT using Targeted Support <http://www.elt.ac.uk/AboutEFFECTS.htm> (accessed 20.06.2006). Generic framework for accrediting professional development in C&IT. The original project ran from 1998 to 2001 and included an audit of 25 UK HE institutions with the aim ‘to investigate the benefits of structured programmes to support staff through the process of embedding learning technologies into their teaching’. The analysis for this thesis draws on the set of six learning outcomes designed to support professional development in embedding learning technology (p. 2).
4. Oliver, M., Sharpe, R., Duggleby, J., Jennings, D. and Kay, D. (2004) Accrediting learning technologists: a review of the literature, schemes and programmes. http://www.ucl.ac.uk/calt/alt-accreditation/Initial_review.doc (accessed 18.11.2005). The analysis for this thesis draws on the draft job descriptions for learning technologists (Appendix I, 10.3, pp. 46-47).
5. CMALT (2005) Certified Membership of the Association for Learning Technology. <http://www.alt.ac.uk/cmalt.html> (accessed 17.01.2006). Scheme to accredit learning technologists developed in collaboration with HE, FE, and industry bodies’. The analysis of texts in this thesis draws on: core areas of work; specialist options; principles and values.
- 6/7. SEDA (2005) Staff and Educational Development Association – Professional Development Framework. The analysis of texts in this thesis draws on the specialist outcomes for:
 - (6) Embedding Learning Technologies
 - (7) eXploring Learning Technologies.

N.B. See also footnote 145 (p. 149)

Appendix II

Working Documents:

Analysis of academic practice and emerging themes

Working document: Educational development practices

Framework of scholarship, teaching and change	Frazer 2001 Conceptions of the role	Gosling 2001 Study of UK Educational Development Units	Land 2001 Practices of academic developers 'orientations'
Research		Carry out and encourage research into teaching and learning	Researcher
Knowledge acquisition, understanding and application	Assist others and engaging in reflection, research and scholarship Understanding the effect of our interventions		Reflective practitioner Interpretive hermeneutic within HE
Teaching	Assist teaching Assist and engaging in the supervising of research students	Improve teaching and learning CPD Organise and implement PG Cert, staff induction and Masters programmes Provide IT training Provide staff development	Romantic (providing support to individuals) Professional competence Internal consultant
Integration		Provide community links Creating an environment in which debate can flourish	Modeller –broker
Identity and Integrity, beliefs and values			
Management and Leadership	Assist in leadership	Coordinate agreements Provide support for bids	Managerial
Strategic practices aimed at bringing about change	Changing the teaching of academics	Promote the use of ICT Coordinate widening participation and equal opps. Prepare staff for ILT Facilitate the design and development of the curriculum Encourage development of open and distance learning Organise courses and curricular Provide wide range of support for students Prepare subjects for QAA and implement QAA processes	Political strategist Provocateur
Subsidiary themes:			
Innovation	Engaging in writing grants and funding applications	Encourage innovation	Entrepreneur Vigilant Opportunist
Technical support		Support a range of technical services Monitor teaching spaces and equipment	

Bath /Smith 2004 The work of academic developers	Taylor 2005 Leadership experiences of academic developers	SEDA –PDF 2005 (1) Leading and developing Academic Practice – (2) Leading staff and Ed. Dev.	Gosling 2008 Study of UK Educational Development Units
Research into higher education Research dissemination	Research	Critical analysis Question and challenge	Carry out research into teaching and learning
	Academic disposition – knowledge and scholarly work Build teaching and learning capacity Practicing in context	Scholarship Reflecting on practice Understanding how people learn	Promote scholarship of teaching and learning
Postgraduate teaching Continuing Professional Development of academic staff and colleagues Teaching teachers about service	Facilitation, consultation Negotiated nature of learning Recognising opportunities to learn	Leading postgraduate certificate in teaching and learning Mentoring	Provide teaching and learning and professional development Initial professional development of staff Training for Post Graduates who teach
Outreach Working beyond own subject discipline Outside consultation	Team building Integrating technology in the learning environment Curriculum development Knowing the community	Working in and developing learning communities Working with diversity and promoting inclusivity	
	Identity, integrity, credibility, fairness, honesty, openness, etc. The person and the importance of personal integrity Battles over institutional values Leadership beliefs	Professionalism and ethical practice	
Management Committee work	Leadership beliefs		
Policy working groups	Developing policy Changing practice Facilitating university wide teaching development initiatives Supporting quality assessment processes	Developing processes Developing people	Implementation of teaching and learning strategy Promote use of learning technologies Encourage innovation in teaching and learning Improve teaching and learning quality Evaluate teaching and learning
Educational Development			

Working document: Learning technology practices

Framework of scholarship and teaching	Beetham et al. (2001) Career Scoping Study Role analysis Core activity of Learning Technologists	Oliver (2002) Research into what Learning Technologists do. Characteristics of practice	EFFECTS – ELT (2003) Generic framework for accrediting professional development in C&IT
Research		Research	
Knowledge acquisition, understanding and application	Consult with staff on appropriate use of LT Keep abreast of developments in LT	Reflective Keep abreast of developments	Scholarship Understanding of how people learn Continued reflection on professional practice
Teaching	Mentor Consultant	Teaching – staff development Un-assessed tutoring	Working in and developing learning communities
Integration	Liaise and collaborate with other units Enable exchange of ideas and experience Facilitating access to LT expertise and services Facilitate access to CBL resources	Collaborative curriculum development Using case studies and problems within the context of collaboration	Working effectively with diversity and promoting inclusivity
Identity and Integrity, beliefs and values		Values	Values and professionalism and ethical practice
Management and Leadership		Management function	
Strategic practices aimed at bringing about change	Advise assist intro of new technology into L&T programmes Change agent Identify needs & opportunities for development of LT	Moving the academic from issues of implementation to educational issues	Ddevelopment of people and of educational processes and systems Raising Awareness
Subsidiary themes:			
Administrative		Administrative function	
Design			
Technical support		Technical support	

Oliver, M., et al. (2004) Review of literature of accredited schemes for Learning Technologists	CMALT (2005) Principles and values, core areas of work and specialist options of Learning Technologists	SEDA –PDF (2005) Specialist outcomes eXploring Learning Technology Embedding Learning Technology
Analysis grounded enquiry Undertake research contribute to the development of understanding and knowledge in the field	Research	
Explores problems of practice to provide advice and guidance Draws on educational theory and research Evaluation of computer based material Keep abreast of developments	Exploring and understanding Understanding of LTA Understanding constraints and benefits Keeping up to date	Review Analysis Integrate appropriate C&IT Select C&IT appropriate to learning situation
Teaching on new staff courses Workshops develop skills of staff Mentor Consultant Supporting project-based action learning Provide pedagogical advice	Developing others Training Mentoring	Raising awareness Training Mentoring Developing skills
Liaising with other units Encouraging collaboration Networking	Communicate and disseminate	Disseminate findings
Values	Values	Values
	Project management	
Change agent Contributes to strategy Contributes to policy Evaluate projects	Strategic work Supporting the deployment of LT Evaluating projects	Implement a development strategy Evaluate the impact of interventions
Learning Technology		
Monitor Projects Archive, manage and facilitates access to resources and expertise	Resource management	
Design and develop applications and material	Produce learning material Designing tools and systems Interface design	Design learning resources
Support software, hardware or networks	Application of standards and specifications Technical knowledge and ability Maintenance of VLEs and MLEs Sourcing content Copyright	

Appendix III

Job vacancies (abridged) listed in the Association for Learning Technology Digest 2008-2009

<p>11 January 2008 Learning Technology Development Officer Learning Technologist Instructional Designer Research and Dissemination Manager Academic E-Learning Adviser Senior e-learning content developer Learning Technology Officer</p>	<p>18 April 2008 E-technologist Net Developer Learning Technology Officer E-Learning Facilitator VLE Application Manager Teacher of ICT Founding Director of Information and Communication Technology Senior Lecturer Senior Lecturer in Learning and Teacher in Higher Education</p>
<p>8 February 2008 Educational Technologist Research Assistant Reader in Education Professor / Associate Professor in the Centre for Learning</p>	<p>2 May 2008 E-Learning Technical Developer Lectureship in Management – E-Learning Unit Senior Lecturer/ Lecturer in Information Technology Research Officer Director of eLearning</p>
<p>21 February 2008 Director of Development E-learning Graphics Designer/Developer VLE Coordinator E-Learning Manager</p>	<p>16 May 2008 Head of IT E-Learning Multimedia Developer Lectureships to Support Innovation in Learning and Teaching e-Learning Development Officer Director of University IT Learning Technologist</p>
<p>8 March 2008 eLearning Support Officer Senior eLearning Consultant e-Learning Specialist Faculty Learning Technologist</p>	<p>30 May 2008 Head of e-Learning</p>
<p>25 March 2008 eLearning Officer</p>	<p>13 June 2008 E-Learning Researcher Skills Developer Learning Technologist Non-executive Chair of JISC Professor of Learning Innovation Instructional Design Specialist Associate Professor Ed Tec. Senior Lecturer Ed Tec. Part-time and Virtual Positions</p>
<p>2 April 2008 Research Associate Research Associate/Fellow Senior Learning Technologist Senior Learning Designer Head of the Learning Technologies Group</p>	<p>27 June 2008 Research Scientist – Learning Technology Research Associate in Learning Futures Personal Assistant and Co-ordinator Learning Enhancement Officer (TEL) Research Associate/Fellow</p>

<p>11 July 2008 Virtual Support & eServices Developer Learning Technologies Support Officer Director of Distance Learning Development Chair of Education</p>	<p>9 October 2008 Research Assistant e-Learning Support Officer Senior E-Learning Support Officer (Assessment) VLE Coordinator (Blackboard) Research Fellow (Learning Innovation) PhD studentships 1. Students' experiences of learning in immersive worlds 2. Learner identity E-Assessments Officer</p>
<p>25 July 2008 Learning Technology Development Officer Instructional Design Specialist Research Fellow in Artificial Intelligence in Education</p>	<p>3 November 2008 Senior Learning Technologist IT Training Specialist (e-Learning Technologies)</p>
<p>20/22 August 2008 Senior lecturer or lecturer 1. Research Officer (full-time) LDSE Project 2. Research Assistant (full-time) LDSE Project Senior Academic Staff Development Officer Research Associate, Design of Learning Spaces in 3-D Virtual Environments Research Fellow – Educational Development Advisor</p>	<p>17 November 2008 Senior Lecturer, Reader or Chair in e-Research & Technology Enhanced Learning (TEL) IT Training Specialist (e-Learning Technologies) eLearning Support Officer E-Learning Support Officer (MPH) E-Learning Support Officer (MMM/Pathfinder Project) Learning Technologist (MMM Project) Learning Technologist Learning Technologist Teaching and Learning Academic Researcher Teaching and Learning Coordinator (2 positions)</p>
<p>5 September 2008 Senior Lecturer/Lecturer (One Post Only) Senior Academic Staff development Office Knowledge Services Information Officer (VLE)</p>	<p>7 December 2008 Learning Technology Developer Personal Development Planning (PDP) Research and Dissemination Manager, Project Research Assistant: Technology Enhanced Learning e-Learning Adviser Director of Learning & IT Services Director of Development</p>
<p>19 September 2008</p>	<p>12 December 2008 Research Associate Learning Technologist Infrastructure and Resources Committee Appointments eContent Developer Lecturer/Senior Lecturer/Senior Research Fellow i Technology-Based Management Learning Lecturer/Senior Lecturer in Work Based Learning</p>

Appendix IV

Framework and prompts for in-depth interviews

1. Could you tell me about your educational background and your professional journey to your current position?

Where there any critical incidents, professional breakthroughs or important influences that shaped your journey?

2. What is your current role (job title) and responsibility?

How you would describe your 'position' in your institution?

How would you describe your key practices?

For how long have you worked in the area?

3. Do you see yourself as a member of a profession, discipline/subject or field?

– Expand if necessary:

What is your profession? What is your subject or field?

Are you a member of any professional bodies?

What do you feel the benefits are of belonging to a professional association?

4. Do you see yourself as a 'new professional' in Higher Education?

– Expand if necessary:

5. Looking back do you feel that there have been any significant changes or developments in HE that have impacted on your work?

6. How do you feel learning technologies have impacted

– on Higher Education?

– on your work?

– Expand if necessary.

7. Do you recognise educational developers and learning technologists as two distinct groupings?

– expand

Are there differences between the groupings?

Do you see the relationship between these two groupings changing?

8. Could you tell me about your work in relation to research and scholarship, for example are you actively involved in research and/or scholarship? Does your work involve supporting others in their research and/or scholarly activity?

Do you research or write about your own practice?

Do you see a difference between research and other types of scholarly activity?

What is your view of research in relation to the use of learning technologies?

What is your view of other types of scholarly activity in relation to the use of learning technologies?

9. What do you see as the current major shifts and trends in HE?

Will these trends impact on your work and future practice?

– Expand if necessary.

10. Do you feel well resourced?

– Expand if necessary:

How dependent is your work on external funding?

Can you foresee any funding or resource issues in the future?

11. There has been some debate about generational shifts in your area of work. Do you recognise this?

– Expand if necessary:

How would you describe the main differences between the generations?

How do you see the relationship between more experienced professionals and newcomers to your area of work?

12. What are your professional aspirations for the future?

What do you see as your main professional challenges?

For newcomers – Why have you chosen to be .../or to work in this area?

For newcomers – What are your expectations and ambition for the future?

13. Would you like to add anything else? Do you feel that I have missed anything?

Appendix V

Theoretical thematic framework for analysis of in-depth interviews

Headings	AD/LT/H	
Job title		
Time working in field		
Role and responsibility		
Identity		
Habitus		
Background		
Values and beliefs		
Perceptions and views		
Social capital – positioning, networking, inter-personal skills and practice.		
Position in university setting, and at the national level		
Position working between political and pedagogical contexts		
Position working between fields and sub-fields		
Networking		
Cultural capital: Objectified capital – specified 'scientific', knowledge, skills and practice		
Embodied capital – tacit knowledge		
Institutionalised capital – formal certification		
Learning technologies		
Research and scholarship		
Research, scholarship and new technologies		
Teaching		
Management		
Economic capital – resources and funding		
Impact and availability of funding		
Additional themes		
On the notion of new professional		
Specialisms, fields, disciplines, professions		
Perception of relationship between academic developers and learning technologists		
Generational shifts		
Change, reform and restructuring		
Vulnerability, uncertainty regarding the future		
Struggles		
Professional aspirations		
Other		

Appendix VII

Articles and papers

Introduction to papers

The papers chosen to support this thesis reflect my practice over a period of time, 1999-2006. They link theory with practice and illustrate approaches I have taken to scholarly activity and my own professional development. The papers have been chosen to show different types of activity, my development and my work with colleagues in terms of phases in a personal and professional journey and the practices of a new professional. Thus the papers play an important role in underpinning the professional autobiographical narrative. Most importantly, they represent the changing perspective of an individual (myself) as a university teacher, learning technologist, educational developer and researcher. Five papers have been chosen to illustrate the following overlapping themes:

- relationships between the university teacher, educational developer and learning technologist
- researching teaching and learning and the use of learning technologies
- pedagogical design, new technologies and changing learning environments.

For the purpose of maintaining anonymity an edited book chapter, is not included; however, its emphasis on learning environments, new roles and relationships, and on change within universities makes it, for me, an important piece of the jigsaw. It explores some of the drivers and barriers to change in higher education, and highlights approaches taken to encourage change by providing research-based support for teaching staff and students working in new learning environments with new technologies. A set of research-based case studies are presented which focus on teaching, learning and assessment and the use of new technologies. Emphasis is placed on the importance of integrative working practices and research-based practices.

A range of research methods are represented in the following papers including: responsive evaluation, action research, narrative inquiry, case study, interviews and questionnaires. Moreover, the papers draw on a range of learning theories, with a strong emphasis on social constructivism.

While the papers are referred to throughout the thesis, they are mainly referenced in the autobiographical narrative to illustrate periods of change and technological development in UK higher education. Although all the papers focus on new technologies and their use in supporting teaching and learning in higher education, they are written from different perspectives.

In this respect, it is hoped that the papers reflect multifaceted practice and development of 'scholarly attributes'.

Paper I

Dillon, P., Tearle, P., and Hudson, A. (1999) The Images for Education Project: developing multimedia resources within an integrative educational framework. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 30 (4) 359-367.

This paper discusses theory and methods of evaluation used to develop educational resources using new technologies. The development explored the potential of one of the earliest forms of computer mediated multimedia; interactive video. It is based on a collaborative partnership and, at the time, was 'leading edge' in terms of pedagogical design and development and use of resources. The paper is written from the viewpoint of teachers and learning technologists, it highlights the importance of reflective practice and integrative working relationships.

Paper II

Steel, J., and Hudson, A. (2001) Educational Technology in Learning and Teaching: The Perceptions and Experiences of Teaching Staff. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 38 (2) 103-111.

The paper explores pedagogic, technical and socio-cultural issues from the perspective of the university teacher working with contemporary learning technologies. It draws attention to the importance of integrative working practices and the need for appropriate forms of communication and support across university systems. Moreover it highlights the need for staff support and time and space for teachers to engage in pedagogical design and reflection when integrating new technologies into the curriculum.

Paper III

Clegg, S., Hudson, A., and Steel, J. (2003) The Emperor's New Clothes: globalisation and e-learning in Higher Education. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 24 (1) 39-53.

This paper marks a critical point in my professional career and makes a case for critical discourse and debate on pedagogies. The paper was written at a time when 'globalisation' and the 'knowledge economy' were dominant discourses and at the same time software companies were marketing 'solutions' in the form of Virtual Learning Environments (VLEs) and Managed Learning Environments (MLEs). The paper draws attention to the pace of change, the way in which change is managed, increase in techno-centric discourses and the need for a counterbalance in terms of reflective practice,

appropriate support and integrative working practices. The paper argues for caution regarding the hyperbole associated with new technologies and for the need for open debate, 'discursive space' and on-going research into teaching and learning and new technologies.

Paper IV

Clegg, S., Hudson, A., and Mitchell, A. (2005) The personal created through dialogue: enhancing possibilities through the use of new media. *ALT-J, Research in Learning Technology*, 13 (1) 3-15.

Paper V

Hudson, B., Hudson, A., and Steel, S. (2006) Orchestrating interdependence in an international online learning community. *British Journal of Educational Technology (BJET)*, 37 (5) 733-748.

Papers IV and V mark a return in focus to teaching and learning, and a new phase of technological innovation. The papers explore the interpersonal nature of learning and how new technologies are used to support reflection and dialogue. Both papers point to important relationships between:

- the role of the teacher in relating the subject, educational theory and new technologies to pedagogical design and pedagogical purposes
- the affordances of new technologies in supporting dialogue, collaboration, active learning, reflective practice and formative peer feedback
- the scholarship of teaching and learning in terms of relationships between theory, practice, reflection and on-going research and development.

Specifically Paper IV focuses on the theoretical developmental and research-based processes that underpin two case studies of modules using digital portfolios.

Paper V focuses on research into the experience of an internationally dispersed student cohort using new technologies to support group collaboration and peer and formative assessment practices. The paper identifies issues of language, culture and identity which provide direction for on-going research and the further development of the module design.