Survey of Literature Relating to Tertiary Teacher Development and Qualifications:

Summary

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Acknowledgement:

Summary of Survey of Literature Relating to Tertiary Teacher

Development and Qualifications

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Introduction

This paper is an overview of key points from a longer literature survey. The survey began as part of a PhD research project (Viskovic, 2005), which focused particularly on teachers' informal experiential workplace learning about teaching and how to teach, but identified that formal courses were also needed for a balanced professional education. In March-April 2009 the survey was updated, and a section added on research into aspects of formal courses and qualifications for tertiary teachers. The sections following are those used in the full survey.

1. Aspects of the NZ tertiary education context

An overview of trends in the NZ tertiary sector since 1989 referred to major changes that have occurred, for example in policy, funding, management and accountability, assessment, quality assurance. The establishment of bodies such as the New Zealand Qualifications Authority and the Tertiary Education Commission has had significant effects, as have increased student diversity and numbers. The Tertiary Education Strategy 2007-2012 expects quality teaching to support student learning, and expects institutions to support ways of achieving this (p. 18).

Some factors identified to be considered when planning and implementing professional development or courses for tertiary teachers in NZ contexts include:

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

2. Studies of tertiary teaching and educational development

Much of the literature that teachers and educational developers have drawn on to date has come from research into conceptions of learning and teaching in higher education (e.g. Ramsden, 1992; Prosser and Trigwell, 1999); guides to teaching practice (e.g. Fry et al, 2000; McKeachie, 2002); or teachers' accounts of their work (e.g. Brookfield, 1995). Fewer publications focus on teaching in further/adult education (e.g. Jarvis, 2002; Curzon, 2003; Gravells, 2008) or look at perspectives on teaching across sectors (e.g. Pratt et al, 1998).

Several studies have noted that many academics lack formal understanding of learning and teaching (e.g. Murray and MacDonald, 1997; Ballantyne et al, 1999), while others have emphasised the importance of reflection and making teachers' tacit theory and practice more explicit (e.g. Kane et al, 2002).

Different approaches to studying teachers' perspectives or conceptions of their roles result in different ways of describing tertiary teaching. Phenomenographic analyses (e.g. Prosser et al, 1994) produce hierarchical conceptions of university teaching. Other analyses, such as those of Pratt et al. (1998) or Zukas and Malcolm (1999), are not hierarchical, and are more useful for considering teachers' perspectives across a variety of contexts. There are also differences in emphasis or examples cited, resulting from the research approach adopted, for example: studying experienced or novice teachers, or looking for links between teachers' conceptions of teaching and students' conceptions of learning, or analysing other researchers' findings.

Tertiary teachers are usually appointed on the basis of their knowledge, qualifications and experience in their subject areas, and lack pre-service teacher education (Beaty, 1998). Many people teach in comparative isolation from colleagues (Massy and Wilger, 1994), and teaching-related professional development has to compete with other work pressures, such as administration and research (Johnston, 1997). Knight (2002) concluded that, "If early socialisation is deficient, then the longer term prospect for higher education is a worrying one" (p. 37).

There has been little discussion of how teachers' conceptions of learning and teaching or attitudes or practices have developed: one example is Viskovic (2006) on tertiary teacher development in NZ. Several writers have observed that tertiary teachers appear to rely mainly on tacit experiential knowledge and do not have a strong theory-based understanding of their own teaching (e.g. Murray and Macdonald, 1997). Some writers commented on the effects of educational development, or lack or it, for teaching: but studies that are more concerned with teacher development are addressed in sections 5 and 6, below. While there is a wide literature of teaching and learning in higher/tertiary education, Ballantyne et al (1999) found that many tertiary teachers do not appear to have a deep understanding of or familiarity with that literature (Ballantyne et al, 1999).

The studies surveyed yield a range of findings that can contribute to the content and/or delivery of educational development and/or formal courses on tertiary teaching, for example:
- Research on topics that can inform the content and delivery of workshops and courses, for example:
  - conceptions of learning and teaching, deep and surface learning
  - approaches to assessment that focus on student learning
  - rationale for the importance of student-centred learning
  - studies of teaching and learning strategies
  - responsiveness to students' needs in different contexts
  - principles for evaluating teaching and courses
  - concept of the critically reflective practitioner
- Research that establishes the importance of helping teachers to develop their own teaching identity, reflect critically on their development as teachers, and look for deeper understandings of their tacit, experiential learning about teaching;
- Research on the needs of newer teachers
- Research on the scholarship of teaching and learning.

3. Expertise, excellence and professionalism

In studies of expertise I found two main areas of interest: stages in the development of expertise (e.g. Dreyfus and Dreyfus, 1986), and characteristics of expertise and expert performance (e.g. Glaser and Chi, 1988). They conclude that expertise is domain-specific – and so assumptions that people who know their subject (one domain) will necessarily be able to teach it (another domain) are unfounded.

Dunkin's (1995) study of teacher excellence found novice-expert differences similar to those described by Dreyfus and Dreyfus, but did not directly consider the development of teaching expertise. Some studies have considered education for the professions (e.g. Eraut, 1994), but not education for tertiary teaching as a profession. Current thought on education for the professions (e.g. Eraut, 1994, 2000; Beckett and Hager, 2002) suggests that formal propositional learning (from taught courses) needs to be matched by informal learning in the workplace. Schon's work (1983) on reflective practice also contributes to this area. Gossman (2008) has applied the Dreyfus stages to tertiary teacher development in a NZ context.

Much of the discussion of excellent or expert teaching has been concerned more with ways of recognising it than with ways of developing it (e.g. Ramsden and Martin, 1996). Concerns were also expressed that excellence in teaching was perceived by many university academics as being less important than their disciplinary expertise and excellence in research. Such views were generally already held in the communities that new teachers joined, and likely to be transmitted and kept alive through the process of social enculturation. Studies also suggested that many staff did not perceive their teaching as a 'professional' activity.

As a professional occupation, tertiary teaching has lacked some of the depth of preparation required by other professions. While teachers may have substantial knowledge, expertise and experience in their subject-area domain, there has been little expectation of a similar level of preparation for the teaching domain, except in some areas of further education. Baskett et al. (1992) and Eraut (1994) have argued that formal propositional learning needs to be matched by informal learning in the workplace. In tertiary teaching, however, the emphasis has arguably been mainly on the latter, with little agreement on the value of the former, or how and when it will be achieved. In effect, most tertiary teachers have received their 'teacher education' through forms of activity that would be considered 'professional development' in other professions, such as short courses, conferences, professional interactions, networking and learning by doing (Becher, 1996). Growing interest in the concept of the scholarship of teaching and learning (Badley, 2003) also contributes to professionalism.

These findings from studies surveyed can contribute to educational development and/or courses on tertiary teaching:
- Recognition that expertise is domain-specific – expertise in teaching is different from expertise in one's discipline, research or prior occupation;
- Tertiary teaching needs to be seen as a professional occupation, requiring professional education that relates to skills, knowledge and attitudes for that domain of expertise;
- Tertiary teachers can be expected to develop expertise in teaching over a period of time, moving through a series of stages from novice to expert, influenced by both formal propositional knowledge and informal workplace learning;
- Formal courses and workshops are needed to complement people's informal workplace learning about teaching;
- Developers and heads of departments (HODs) can help reduce the potential isolation of teachers by promoting collegial activities such as mentoring, peer observation and feedback, reflective groups, team-building;

- Individual teachers also need to identify learning opportunities for their continuing professional development; portfolios offer a mechanism for recording and reflecting on professional learning;
- Institutions need to have ways of recognising and supporting excellence in teaching;
- The scholarship of teaching and learning can inform both the potential content of courses, and a sense of professionalism and collegiality in teaching.

4. Workplace learning and community of practice

Studies of workplace learning (e.g. Billett, 2001) have emphasised the social context in which expertise is developed. Expertise is *relational* to a particular workplace or community of practice; is *embedded* in social practice over time; requires *competence* in the community's discourse, activities and ways of behaving; is *reciprocal*, as people shape and are shaped by the community of practice; and requires *pertinence* – knowing what behaviours are acceptable (Billett, 2001, p. 64-5).

Cognitive apprenticeship (LeGrand Brandt et al., 1993) fits well with workplace learning, as it "provides access to knowledge that traditional forms of instruction cannot offer. This is knowledge normally held tacitly about how to perform in the real world" (p. 167). Cognitive apprenticeship involves activities such as modelling, coaching and scaffolding. Billett (2004) also considered the management of workplace learning, emphasising factors such as the quality of guidance, access to a pathway of activities, and the willingness of experts to guide/mentor and learners to participate. He concluded "that participation in social practice is synonymous with learning and that participatory practices offer a fresh way of considering workplaces as learning spaces…" (p. 121).

Community of practice
Communities of practice were first discussed by Lave and Wenger (1991), who showed that the learning of members of a community is situated - they all learn by being part of a social context of real practice. They used the concept of legitimate peripheral practice to refer to the process by which newcomers become part of a community of practice and old-timers continue to learn, and linked this to the idea of apprenticeship. Wenger (1998) argued that participation in a community of practice has implications for understanding and supporting learning, through evolving forms of mutual engagement, understanding and tuning a sense of joint enterprise, and developing their repertoire, styles and discourses. Wenger (2000) went on to discuss communities of practice in organisations, but noted that "… the organisational requirements of social learning systems often run counter to traditional management practices" (p. 243). Communities of practice evolve organically rather than being formally designed by an institution, but their evolution can be 'shepherded' by the organisation.

Fuller et al.'s (2005) review of legitimate peripheral participation found both strengths and weaknesses, the latter including Lave and Wenger's (1991) dismissal of the contribution of formal education and teaching to workplace learning, and a lack of acknowledgement of conflict and unequal power relationships in some workplace contexts.

Studies that link education and community of practice
Writers who have discussed related issues include Gonczi (2001), Eraut (2000), and Beckett and Hager (2002) on aspects of education for the professions. Gonczi (2001) proposed:
> … the best way to prepare people for professional practice is through some
> form of apprenticeship - an educational process in which the exercise of

judgement and the ability to act in the (professional) world would emerge out
of the complex interactions to be found in a community of practice… (p. 2).

Beckett and Hager (2002) noted that much academic writing, by ignoring apprenticeship as a mode of adult learning, had rendered learning-by-doing invisible. They argued that, "well-supported mixtures of formal and informal learning contribute to the development of productive, postmodern practitioners" (p. 191).

An early study referring to community of practice in relation to tertiary teachers' identities and contexts was Malcolm and Zukas (2000). Trowler and Knight (2000) studied the experiences of new academic appointees, and concluded that the concept of community of practice contributed to a fuller understanding of their findings. Knight and Trowler (2001), cited above, linked community of practice to departmental continuing professional development (CPD). Land (2003) noted that discipline-specific teaching development "can be seen as situated learning within a disciplinary community of practice" (p. 45).

Thus literature from about 2000 onwards suggests that workplace learning and community of practice are receiving growing attention, and have potential to be considered in the contexts of tertiary teachers. Viskovic (2006) used the theory of community of practice to analyse the findings of a study of how people become tertiary teachers in NZ, and proposed a framework for integrating teachers' workplace learning (see Appendix A).

The informal learning of newer tertiary teachers could well be described as a form of unstructured professional apprenticeship, involving social enculturation and development of skilled practice and a workplace identity. The nature and influence of the groups/communities in which tertiary teachers work need to be considered, and the ways by which meanings and practices are shared and maintained. The work of writers such as Beckett and Hager (2002) or Fuller and Unwin (2002) emphasises, however, that while informal workplace learning is important, it should be balanced by some more formal learning.

These findings from studies surveyed can contribute to educational development and/or courses on tertiary teaching:
- Teachers' own working environments are strong sources of informal learning about teaching – through experiential learning, situated learning, authentic activity;
- It is important to develop collegial processes for making tacit knowledge explicit, shared and continued in a community of practice;
- Research on apprenticeship-type processes suggests they can provide a valuable support for teachers' workplace learning and development – forms of support include cognitive apprenticeship, probation, mentoring and being mentored, reflection, peer observation and feedback;
- Developers and HODs providing support to newer staff need to take into account social enculturation and the development of workplace identity: it can be useful to include learning about the characteristics of communities of practice;
- Institutions, developers and HODs need to consider, when planning workshops or courses for staff, ways of achieving a balance of formal and informal learning opportunities;
- Wenger's work on communities of practice provides a rationale for conscious efforts by faculties, departments and educational development units to develop a sense of teaching community;
- Membership of multiple communities provides teachers with opportunities for learning and sharing learning through border crossing;

- Research shows that problems in workplace learning can be associated with power issues, or a lack of expertise, mentors, work opportunities, etc, in a given workplace.

5. Educational Development

The work of educational development units (EDUs) and developers has been discussed in several overviews (e.g. Brew, 1995; Webb, 1996; Eggins and Macdonald, 2003; Kahn and Baume, 2004; Fraser, 2005). Those studies suggest that EDUs have generally taken a pragmatic approach to supporting the needs of teachers and institutions. Most are centrally located and tend to focus on generic teaching topics in their workshops and courses (Hicks, 1999; Gosling, 2001). They also offer consultancy to individuals and sometimes departments, and may be involved in institutional policy-making. Some teachers respond positively to EDU programmes, but not all: Trowler and Cooper (2002) concluded that this may result from incongruities between the teaching and learning regimes (TLR) espoused by EDU programmes and individual teachers' TLR, grounded in the tacit culture and practices of their departments. A New Zealand best-evidence synthesis found that short skills-based activities were unlikely to lead to significant change; in-depth programmes were more promising but compulsory participation not yet justified; and "a greater emphasis on assisting work groups to reflect collectively on their joint tasks" was supported (Prebble et al., 2004).

Several studies have argued for a stronger focus on discipline- or department-based development. Boud (1999) recommended peer learning in professional groups. Knight and Trowler (2001) advocated continuing professional development (CPD) within departments, saying: "Central staff development provision can easily be ignored by the disengaged… The community of practice approach to CPD is about trying to distribute expertise among team members" (p. 150). Writers such as Malcolm and Zukas (2001) and Rowland (2003) have criticised the placement of EDUs in administrative or personnel departments in some institutions, saying that stronger links with education were needed to avoid a technicist training focus; Knight et al (2006) concluded that in such situations "HR specialists need to appreciate the *educational* facet of their developmental role" (their emphasis). Healey and Jenkins (2003) supported discipline-based development because of teachers' primary allegiance to their subject or profession, and for academic reasons such as 'translating' generic forms of teaching into the culture of a discipline, and linking curriculum development to a discipline's conception of knowledge.

This section of the review showed that educational development functions have been established in most tertiary education institutions, generally associated with some sort of central unit, and that those units are likely to provide a range of commonly accepted activities and services. Such provision is usually linked to the practical needs of an institution and its staff, and any theoretical underpinning has tended to be tacit (based on the teaching and learning literature) rather than explicitly stated. Writers such as Webb, Rowland, Land and Gosling have raised wider issues, but on the whole much of the literature has had a practical or pragmatic tone, suggesting that the work of many developers is more 'domesticating' than 'emancipating' (Land, 2001). Recent trends indicate a more scholarly approach to educational development is emerging, often associated with increased provision of more formal courses for teachers. There has also been concern for meeting the training needs of part-time staff (e.g. Australian Universities Teaching Committee, 2003).

Once again the literature has been largely based in university contexts and outside New Zealand. The Prebble et al. (2004) review of the literature found, however, that while there had been little research to date on the impact of educational development on student learning, key approaches relevant to teachers in New Zealand institutions could be identified.

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

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

6. Formal courses and qualifications in tertiary teaching

The literature shows that tertiary teaching qualification courses are available internationally and in New Zealand, in both further and higher education. Most have been established for some time, and some have undergone significant changes, as in the further education (FE) sector in the UK. Where in-service tertiary teaching qualifications are offered, introductory courses tend to focus on 'basic skills', while any higher level, more theoretical courses often attract few participants (Stefani and Elton, 2002). Teachers in further education contexts are more likely to complete a teaching qualification than those in higher education (Bailey and Robson, 2002). Teachers' choices (and their managers' decisions) are mainly shaped by what is available and expected in their institutional or national context.

Gaining a qualification in teaching has remained voluntary for most teachers in universities, but may be required in some areas of further education, especially in the UK. Certificates and diplomas (both undergraduate and post-graduate), or portfolios leading to some form of accreditation, are the most common forms of recognition, but rarely lead to professional registration. In the UK, the Higher Education Academy (HEA) has established standards (see Appendix B) to be met by university teachers who study accredited courses (HEA, n.d.) and teachers in the Lifelong Learning/FE sector are now required to complete courses leading to Qualified Teacher status (Lifelong Learning UK, 2007). On the other hand, the numbers of full-time TAFE teachers completing higher qualifications in Australia have dwindled, as many students are now being trained in workplaces by trainers who need only a lower level certificate in training skills (Darwin, 2007). For Australian higher education Dearn, Fraser and Ryan (2002) recommended that all staff new to university teaching should be required to complete either a formal preparation program (part of an award course) in university teaching or a portfolio demonstrating their teaching competence as part of probation requirements

A check on institutional websites (April 2009) shows that NZ universities offer post-graduate certificates or diplomas, but have no common standards like those of the HEA. Sutherland (2006) has, however, compared NZ university initial teaching courses against the HEA

standards. 12 of the 20 institutes of technology and polytechnics offer a range of certificate and diplomas, some 'local' and some national, with a wide range of credit sizes and levels. Yet from 1972 to 1991 all NZ polytechnic tutors were required to complete 12 weeks of training, fully centrally funded: that ceased to apply from 1991, since when provision has varied considerably (Viskovic, 2001).

Studies that evaluated the effectiveness of some courses concluded that such courses have direct benefits for teachers and teaching, and can therefore be expected to have subsequent benefits for student outcomes (Gibbs and Coffey, 2004; Prebble et al., 2004; Hanbury et al., 2008). Such studies are limited in number, however, as the area is difficult to research.

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

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

7. Conclusions

In continuing this literature survey since 1999 I have had the opportunity to connect ideas from many different sources and perspectives. Many of the writers and researchers whose work I cited have focused on a particular area of interest, while I have enjoyed moving in many directions, exploring, reflecting and connecting ideas from different contexts. As Nelson (1987) said, "Everything is deeply intertwingled" (p. DM31).

A number of studies have suggested that many tertiary teachers do not receive a substantial education for their teaching role, and that their teaching-related continuing professional development is also not extensive. Some factors identified as contributing to that situation include the perceived low status of teaching in some institutions, compared with people's expertise in their research, discipline or profession. Other factors include varying levels of commitment to teacher education and development found in some institutional cultures.

Those factors can be seen both overseas and in New Zealand. Yet good teaching is critical to promoting student success and meeting the government's strategic priorities.

The literature also offers plenty of ideas, however, that can be considered when developing or re-developing curricula for professional development and for formal courses on tertiary teaching. Ideas from this literature survey that are relevant for New Zealand institutions and contexts have been listed above at the end of each section. Considering them all together, we can conclude that:

- Tertiary teaching matters – modern societies need educated citizens, for social as well as economic reasons, and governments want to increase the numbers of people achieving higher qualifications.
- Tertiary teaching is a professional occupation, focused on promoting student learning and supported by a growing research base.
- Professional teachers need professional education, achieved through a well-supported mix of informal and formal learning.
- Research has shown the importance of tertiary teachers' workplace learning in their communities of teaching practice, and a need for systematic ways of supporting both the communities and the shared learning in those communities.
- While some basic skills and knowledge can be passed on during induction and in short workshops, deeper understanding and a wider repertoire of abilities need time, experience, and engagement with formal study courses to integrate theory and practice.
- Formal courses therefore need to make connections with teachers' own working practice, and vice versa: there is potential for activities in local communities of practice to be explicitly linked to courses of study (e.g. through recognition of experiential learning, mentoring, peer observation and feedback, use of student evaluations of teaching, reflective groups, team projects, action research activities).
- Courses and workshops need to include training for mentors, team leaders and educational researchers, to support departmental initiatives for teacher development in communities of practice.
- Where courses are focused on internal staff participants, and part-time staff, there may be practical constraints on the times (and amount of time) people are able to attend, which may necessitate blended delivery patterns; it is desirable, however, to include face-to-face activities and discussions, complemented by other materials and online facilities.
- A wide range of published material is available that offers ideas for the content and delivery of both educational development and formal programmes on teaching.
- Tertiary institutions have a responsibility to support the professional learning of people they appoint to be teachers, especially those who have had no prior teacher training or experience.
- Tertiary teachers have a personal and professional responsibility for engaging in informal learning with colleagues in their community of teaching practice, and participating in teaching-related development and courses of study, as well as maintaining discipline- or industry-related professional development and currency. Fitting all this in with teaching, and research responsibilities for some, makes for a very busy professional life that educational researchers will continue to study!
- The findings of Prebble et al. (2004) refer to the NZ context and support a number of the conclusions drawn here. The Viskovic *Community of Practice Framework* (Appendix A) and the Higher Education Academy's *Standards* (Appendix B) also support the approaches proposed above.

Appendix A:

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

**A communities of practice framework for supporting
tertiary teachers' workplace learning (Viskovic, 2005)**

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

Appendix B

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

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

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

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