



SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Professional Development of Academics in Public Colleges of Education in Nigeria: A Case Study

Adie, Julius Undiukeye

**Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

April 2024

Declaration

I confirm that the work submitted is my own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

This copy has therefore, been submitted on the understanding that it is copyright material and that no quotation from the thesis may be published without proper acknowledgement.

Adie, Julius Undiukeye © 2024

Dedication

I specially dedicate this work to my late parents, beloved wife
[Stella], and lovely kids *[Desmond, Dinan, and Denzel-David]*
whose wishes and prayers have always been that I attain this
academic height in life.

Acknowledgements

Alas, I have reached the end of this demanding academic journey successfully to the glory of God Almighty! This would not have been possible without God's enduring grace and enablement, because indeed, it was a journey full of challenges. So, with utmost humility, I return all praises to God Almighty ... Amen!

I want to also, specially acknowledge and thank my amiable and dependable supervisory team (Professor Vennessa Kind and Professor Diane Pecorari), not forgetting my initial supervisors (Dr Harry Kuchah and Dr Michael Wilson) in the early years of this programme. The opportunity they gave me to tap into their academic expertise and wealth of experience, in addition to the excellent professional guidance, support, and encouragement they provided throughout this research process, enabled me to complete this thesis. I am eternally grateful to you all for your roles.

Also, I want to greatly appreciate my wonderful family and in-laws, especially, my darling wife [Stella] and kids [The 3Ds] for their love and immeasurable support during this period of my study. I can only but imagine how difficult it would have been for my dream of having a PhD to be actualised without your unflinching support. You guys are the best! Thank you so much for all the sacrifices you made. Honestly, I know it wasn't easy, but I believe we can now, proudly say with all sense of joy that everything we did for this, was worth it.

Furthermore, I recognise and salute staff and colleagues in the School of Education, and Leeds Doctoral College for their contributions, inspirations, and support in different ways throughout the course of my research programme. Thank you sincerely!

Additionally, I appreciate these special beings: Mrs Magdelene O. Adie; Asso. Prof Mrs Florence Undiyaundeye; Lt. Col. Bamiteko PhD and his dear wife Mrs Sarah Bamiteko (EVS), for their role in my life. You have been like mothers and a father to me, a source of inspiration and motivation in my academic journey and career in the academia. Your advice and counsel have contributed immensely towards my life's success story too. May God continue to bless and reward you ... Amen!

Finally, I acknowledge TETFund and my friends in the UK and abroad, who are so numerous to mention, for their encouragements. Thank you all so much and God's blessings!

Abstract

This qualitative case study examines the experiences of academic staff in public colleges of education in Nigeria with the aim of understanding professional development policy and practice within that context. My motivation for this research stemmed from the personal thoughts and questions I had about my PD as an academic, and the assumption in and outside the academia that education policies (including PD policy) no matter how well-intentioned, are often not translated into action as planned at the institution level. The study which was underpinned by the constructivist-interpretivist philosophy, have four questions that were formulated to guide this research. The theoretical perspectives were derived from the review of relevant literature, while the empirical evidence was obtained through critical analysis of the relevant PD policy documents and conducting of semi-structured interviews with 22 participants from two case study colleges. The participants were selected through the purposive sampling technique. The study data was analysed using inductive thematic analysis, and significant findings emerged which could help in deepening insights about PD policy, how it is practiced, academics' attitude towards it, and its impacts on Nigeria college of education academic staff's development. Among the findings is one which indicate that there is poor understanding of the policy especially among academic tutors, occasioned by the ambiguous nature of the policy, and the dwindled interest in reading/studying of the policy document because of the perception that the responsibility of actioning the policy lies majorly on the shoulders of academic leaders. The study suggests the need for policy reforms to address the identified issue of policy ambiguity, and a shift from the current practice of a single top-down PD approach to *A 3-stage bottom-up framework*. This framework will promote a robust democratic process that allows for multiple iterative engagements and discussions across the different levels of department, faculty/school, and college management committee, that will accommodate the diverse voices of academic leaders and tutors, in the interpretation and implementation of the academic staff PD policy. This will practically address the identified issues in this research, including poor understanding of the policy by most academic tutors, concerns about the policy implementation, and involvement of tutors in the PD policy interpretation and application.

Table of contents

									page
Acknowledgement	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	iv
Abstract	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	v
Table of contents	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	vi
List of figures	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	xi
List of tables	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	xii
List of abbreviations	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	xiii
 Chapter 1 – Introduction									
1.1 Background to the study	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
1.2 Research aim and questions	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
1.3 Significance of the research	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
1.4 My career background and positionality	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
1.5 Thesis structure	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10
 Chapter 2 – Research Context									
2.1 Introduction	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12
2.2 Nigerian higher education	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12
2.2.1 Nigerian Colleges of Education	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15
2.2.2 College X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20
2.2.3 College Y	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	21
2.3 PD policy context	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	23
2.3.1 NCCE Condition of Service for staff of CoE in Nigeria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	35
2.3.2 NCCE Staff Development Manual for CoE in Nigeria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	37
2.4 Summary	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	38
 Chapter 3 – Literature Review									
3.1 Introduction	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	40
3.2 Academics’ understanding of PD in HE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	41
3.3 Exploring the implementation of academics’ PD policy in HE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	46
3.4 Academics’ attitude towards PD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	54
3.5 Impacts of PD activities on academic staff	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	60
3.6 Summary	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	64

Chapter 4 – Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction	-	-	-	-	-	-	67
4.2 Philosophical orientation	-	-	-	-	-	-	67
4.3 Research approach	-	-	-	-	-	-	72
4.4 Research design	-	-	-	-	-	-	74
4.5 Study site and participants	-	-	-	-	-	-	76
4.6 Data collection	-	-	-	-	-	-	82
4.6.1 Documentary sources	-	-	-	-	-	-	84
4.6.2 Semi-structured interviews	-	-	-	-	-	-	85
4.6.3 Pilot study	-	-	-	-	-	-	86
4.6.4 Data collection procedure	-	-	-	-	-	-	88
4.7 Analysing data	-	-	-	-	-	-	92
4.7.1 Familiarisation with the data	-	-	-	-	-	-	93
4.7.2 Generating initial codes	-	-	-	-	-	-	94
4.7.3 Generating themes	-	-	-	-	-	-	95
4.7.4 Reviewing potential themes	-	-	-	-	-	-	97
4.7.5 Defining and naming themes	-	-	-	-	-	-	98
4.7.6 Producing the report	-	-	-	-	-	-	98
4.8 Research quality	-	-	-	-	-	-	99
4.8.1 Credibility	-	-	-	-	-	-	99
4.8.2 Transferability	-	-	-	-	-	-	101
4.8.3 Dependability	-	-	-	-	-	-	102
4.8.4 Confirmability	-	-	-	-	-	-	103
4.9 Research ethical concerns	-	-	-	-	-	-	104
4.9.1 Ethics approval	-	-	-	-	-	-	105
4.9.2 Informed consent	-	-	-	-	-	-	105
4.9.3 Confidentiality and anonymity	-	-	-	-	-	-	106
4.9.4 Researcher's insider influence	-	-	-	-	-	-	107
4.10 Summary	-	-	-	-	-	-	108

Chapter 5 – Finding 1: Understanding PD concept and the policy.

5.1 Introduction	-	-	-	-	-	-	110
5.2 Academics' understanding of PD	-	-	-	-	-	-	110
5.2.1. Qualification and certificate-based activity	-	-	-	-	-	-	110

5.2.2 Training institutions and professional associations led activity	-	-	-	-	-	-	111
5.2.3 Activity requiring deliberate and active engagement	-	-	-	-	-	-	112
5.2.4 Implicit development experiences	-	-	-	-	-	-	113
5.2.5 Other administrative roles and responsibilities	-	-	-	-	-	-	115
5.2.6 Self-learning activities	-	-	-	-	-	-	116
5.3 Academics' understanding of PD policy	-	-	-	-	-	-	117
5.3.1 What the policy intentions are	-	-	-	-	-	-	117
5.3.2 Policy implementation procedures	-	-	-	-	-	-	119
5.3.3 Forms of PD	-	-	-	-	-	-	120
5.3.4 Criteria for staff PD	-	-	-	-	-	-	122
5.4 Summary	-	-	-	-	-	-	126

Chapter 6 – Finding 2: PD policy implementation at the college level.

6.1 Introduction	-	-	-	-	-	-	128
6.2 Compliance with policy guidelines	-	-	-	-	-	-	128
6.3 Participatory implementation	-	-	-	-	-	-	131
6.4 Contextualised implementation	-	-	-	-	-	-	134
6.5 Skewed and selective practice	-	-	-	-	-	-	136
6.6 Influences on PD policy implementation	-	-	-	-	-	-	141
6.6.1 Implementers' understanding of the policy	-	-	-	-	-	-	141
6.6.2 Favouritism and victimization	-	-	-	-	-	-	143
6.6.3 Politicisation of staff PD	-	-	-	-	-	-	145
6.7 Summary	-	-	-	-	-	-	146

Chapter 7 – Finding 3: Academics' attitude towards PD participation.

7.1 Introduction	-	-	-	-	-	-	148
7.2 Belief and less enthusiasm	-	-	-	-	-	-	148
7.3 Influence factors	-	-	-	-	-	-	149
7.3.1 Academic's involvement in the PD process	-	-	-	-	-	-	149
7.3.2 Supportive environments and networks	-	-	-	-	-	-	153
7.3.3 The need to maintain satisfactory official employment and PD records	-	-	-	-	-	-	157
7.3.4 The influence of academic's perception of PD	-	-	-	-	-	-	159
7.3.5 Academic's agentic power	-	-	-	-	-	-	161
7.3.6 Influence of academic's demographic variables	-	-	-	-	-	-	165
7.4 Summary	-	-	-	-	-	-	167

Chapter 8 – Finding 4: Impact of academics’ participation in PD activities.

8.1 Introduction	-	-	-	-	169
8.2 Improvement on academics’ professional competencies	-	-	-	-	169
8.2.1 Instructional competency	-	-	-	-	169
8.2.2 Research competency	-	-	-	-	170
8.2.3 Lecture room management competency	-	-	-	-	172
8.2.4 Technological competency	-	-	-	-	173
8.2.5 Adapting to dynamic work environment	-	-	-	-	174
8.2.6 Leadership competency	-	-	-	-	174
8.2.7 Self-confidence	-	-	-	-	175
8.3 Career, financial, and social benefits	-	-	-	-	176
8.3.1 Career benefits	-	-	-	-	176
8.3.2 Financial benefits	-	-	-	-	179
8.3.3 Social benefits	-	-	-	-	180
8.4 Collegiality, professional collaboration, and work ethics	-	-	-	-	181
8.5 Students’ academic achievements and institution’s reputation	-	-	-	-	183
8.5.1 Student academic achievements	-	-	-	-	184
8.5.2 Institutional academic reputation	-	-	-	-	185
8.6 Summary	-	-	-	-	187

Chapter 9 – Discussion

9.1 Introduction	-	-	-	-	189
9.2 Academics’ understanding of PD and the policy	-	-	-	-	189
9.2.1 Understanding of PD concept	-	-	-	-	189
9.2.1.1 Qualification and certificate-based activity	-	-	-	-	192
9.2.1.2 Training institutions and professional associations led activity	-	-	-	-	192
9.2.1.3 Activity requiring deliberate and active engagement	-	-	-	-	194
9.2.1.4 Implicit development experiences	-	-	-	-	195
9.2.1.5 Other administrative roles and responsibilities	-	-	-	-	196
9.2.1.6 Self-learning activities	-	-	-	-	196
9.2.2 Understanding of PD Policy	-	-	-	-	197
9.3 Academics’ experience of PD implementation	-	-	-	-	200
9.3.1 Effective Implementation	-	-	-	-	201
9.3.1.1 Compliance with guidelines	-	-	-	-	201
9.3.1.2 Participatory implementation	-	-	-	-	202

9.3.1.3 Contextualised implementation	-	-	-	-	-	-	204
9.3.2 Ineffective Implementation	-	-	-	-	-	-	206
9.3.2.1 Skewed and selective practice	-	-	-	-	-	-	206
9.3.2.2 Favouritism and politicisation of PD practice	-	-	-	-	-	-	207
9.3.3 Influence of implementer's understanding of the policy	-	-	-	-	-	-	208
9.4 Academics' attitude towards PD participation	-	-	-	-	-	-	211
9.4.1 Belief and less enthusiasm	-	-	-	-	-	-	212
9.4.2 Influence factors	-	-	-	-	-	-	212
9.4.2.1 Academics' involvement in the PD process	-	-	-	-	-	-	212
9.4.2.2 Supportive environment and networks	-	-	-	-	-	-	215
9.4.2.3 Maintain satisfactory official employment and PD records	-	-	-	-	-	-	216
9.4.2.4 Academics' perception of PD	-	-	-	-	-	-	217
9.4.2.5 Academic's agentic influence	-	-	-	-	-	-	219
9.4.2.6 Academics' demographic variables	-	-	-	-	-	-	220
9.5 Impact of academics' participation in PD activities	-	-	-	-	-	-	222
9.5.1 Improvement on academics' professional competencies	-	-	-	-	-	-	223
9.5.2 Career, financial, and social benefits	-	-	-	-	-	-	225
9.5.3 Collegiality, professional collaboration, and work ethics	-	-	-	-	-	-	228
9.5.4 Student's academic achievement and institution's reputation	-	-	-	-	-	-	229
9.6 Summary	-	-	-	-	-	-	231
Chapter 10 – Conclusion							
10.1 Reflections	-	-	-	-	-	-	232
10.2 Contributions to knowledge	-	-	-	-	-	-	236
10.3 Study implications	-	-	-	-	-	-	239
10.4 Limitations and suggestions for further research	-	-	-	-	-	-	240
10.5 Closing thoughts	-	-	-	-	-	-	241
References	-	-	-	-	-	-	243
Appendices							
Appendix 1. Ethical review approval	-	-	-	-	-	-	276
Appendix 2. Fieldwork risk assessment approval	-	-	-	-	-	-	278
Appendix 3. Permission letters	-	-	-	-	-	-	279
Appendix 4. Participant information sheet	-	-	-	-	-	-	281
Appendix 5. Consent form	-	-	-	-	-	-	285
Appendix 6. Interview guide sample	-	-	-	-	-	-	286
Appendix 7. Sample of coding process	-	-	-	-	-	-	287

List of figures

Figure 2.1	Structure of higher education system in Nigeria	-	-	14
Figure 2.2	Organogram of administrative structure of Nigerian CoE	-	-	19
Figure 2.3	Academic management structure of CoE	-	-	19
Figure 3.1	Categories of variables influencing policy implementation	-	-	52
Figure 10.1	A 3-Stage Bottom-Up Framework	-	-	238

List of tables

Table 2.1	Nature of ownership and types of CoE in Nigeria	-	-	-			17
Table 4.1	Participants' distribution	-	-	-	-	-	81
Table 4.2	Participants' description	-	-	-	-	-	82

List of abbreviations

CoE – College of Education
CPD – Continuous Professional Development
FME – Federal Ministry of Education
FRN – Federal Republic of Nigeria
HE – Higher Education
HEI – Higher Education Institution
IAT – Initial Academic Training
MCPE – Mandatory Continuing Professional Education
NBTE – National Board for Technical Education
NCCE – National Commission for Colleges of Education
NCE – National Council on Education
NCE – Nigeria Certificate in Education
NPE – National Policy on Education
NTEP – National Teacher Education Policy
NUC – National Universities Commission
PD – Professional Development
PSNT – Professional Standard for Nigerian Teachers
SDC – Staff Development Committee
TETFund – Tertiary Education Trust Fund
TRCN – Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria
UTME – Unified Tertiary Education Examination

Chapter 1

Introduction

This research study explores academics' professional development (PD) in Nigerian public colleges of education (CoE). This focus was motivated by the concerns from my professional experience and the rising frustrations expressed by colleagues about the actualities of interpretation of the PD policy for academics in Nigeria CoE. This chapter presents the study background, research aims and questions, significance of this study, researcher's value position, and overview of the structure of thesis.

1.1 Background to the study

The place of quality higher education in advancing the frontiers of socio-political and economic development of a nation cannot be overstated. However, this cannot be accomplished without the involvement of qualified teachers or academics (Abeli, 2010). Academic staff are primary agents in the translation into action of higher education policies and programmes at the local college level; meaning that the success of such policies and programmes significantly depends on their active involvement (Hunter et al., 2018). The people who make up higher education institutions are the only reason why the institutions have life and existence, and it is these individuals that embody the institutional norms, culture, and discourse (Crawford, 2009); and may be "agents who in some way influence how others in the organization think, act, and learn" (Marsick and Watkins, 1990, p.42). Academics' roles in higher education are not only diverse but the approaches they adopt in performing these roles are also constantly changing, especially with the emergence of the twenty-first century knowledge society driven by globalisation and information technology. These changes in teaching and research approach in

response to the demands of the contemporary knowledge society, have also increased the need for new research and pedagogical skills by academics, thus requiring them to engage in PD activities (Tera, 2010).

The significance of academic staff's PD, especially in a constantly changing higher education environment, has been widely recognised and documented in the literature. For instance, according to Egwuyega (2000), academic staff development is that critical component of an institution's strategic plan that creates the opportunity to improve the performance of the workforce, which then translates to the quality of output. Aligning with Egwuyega's position, Shem and Ngussa (2017, p.1), notes that "qualified staff are key ingredients for the effective running of institutions of higher learning, and institutional performance is dependent on employees' professional development." Caena and Punie (2019, p.1) also acknowledged this in the forward of the JRC Technical Report: "staff professional development is known to be one of the key determinants for improving the quality and relevance of education and learning." A World Bank (1993) report emphasised the need for a high-quality and well-motivated teaching staff and a supportive professional development culture, as a panacea to the challenges facing higher education, particularly, in developing countries. Similarly, Evans, Thornton, and Usinger (2012) assert that institutions' leadership must "engage in professional development to enhance the critical skills necessary to orchestrate effective change" (p. 169). Moreover, Buckler explains that given the pivotal roles of academics in the provision of quality education across all levels of education, their initial training and continuous development throughout their career are crucial. He added that there are new and inexperienced academics who require capacity-building assistance to progress from novice to experienced academics and deliver quality education more efficiently and sustainably (Buckler, 2011). Researchers (Ken-Maduako, 2011; Al-Mzary, Al-

rifai, and Al-Momany, 2015; Jacob, Xiong, and Ye, 2015; Assalahi and Rich, 2016; Cameron and Woods, 2016; Hall and Green, 2016) all agree that a major strategy that higher education institutions employ in promoting and sustaining the quality of education that they offer, is the continuous building and improving on the knowledge, skills, and aptitude of their academic staff, who are the primary drivers of the teaching and learning process.

Scholars (Green, 2010; Mundy et al., 2012), also believe that PD is very imperative for academics in higher education institutions (HEI), given the pressure of change from global trends such as internationalisation of higher education, the league tables or ranking of HEIs, information and communication technology, the quest to attract students for admission, and the demands from government and private organisations, such as quality manpower supply, and providing research solutions to societal problems, that they face. Makoji (2016) further adds that the demands include that academics should display high-stake accountability to students' learning and be able to handle efficiently the issue of diversity among their students in terms of the age differences, motivations, level of experience, cultural and educational backgrounds. Similarly, Browell (2000), acknowledging the important role of PD, argued that HEIs need to take seriously the issue of staff development within the framework of their strategic objectives, and make concerted efforts at applying it as planned if they are to continue to experience human and organisational growth and development. Green and others all agree that for academics to be able to satisfactorily address the trending expectations in the education environment, they need to regularly refresh their knowledge and skill set through professional development activities.

This relevance of PD has equally been hailed within the Nigerian context. For instance, the Federal Ministry of Education (FME) at the national teacher education programme note that, "like all professionals, teachers must constantly upgrade their knowledge and skills if they are to

remain relevant in a rapidly changing world” (FME, 2014, p.14). Also, consensus emerged from studies by Adegoroye et al. (2018), Amaechi and Obiweluzor (2020), Ukpere and Naris (2009), TETFund (2016), which suggest that academics’ PD is a key ingredient that academics need across the span of their careers, because it is what strengthens and sustains their knowledge base, and, skills, and builds more confidence in them, which in turn impacts on their productivity. According to Musa (2017), the CoE, like any other organisation, has set objectives that it works towards achieving. Whether it will succeed or fail in achieving those objectives depends significantly on the ability of the CoE to retrain and develop its academic staff into a more productive, competent, and skilled workforce that is capable of, and willing to work towards, the realisation of the set objectives. Idoniboye-Obu (2014) also notes that the goals of CoE are very laudable policy prescriptions for the development of the Nigerian teacher education; but according to Adeosun et al. (2009), achieving the goals will remain wishful thinking unless CoEs ensure both the recruitment of quality academic staff, and their regular development.

Despite the widespread acknowledgment of the importance of academics’ PD as seen above, my experience working as a lecturer within this study’s context has shown that there is still an overarching question regarding how the Nigeria higher education, and particularly, CoE, have carried on with the PD of its academics in relation to the policy. Before commencing my PhD research, in some of my past interactions with academic colleagues, I observed that there is a mix of preconceptions and beliefs that they often express, including that no matter how brilliant the intentions and design of a policy including PD policy, it is usually not executed as prescribed or planned. However, to my knowledge, these notions and prejudices do not have concrete empirical backing. It is, therefore, against the backdrop of these complexities associated with academics’ PD policy expectations and the practical realities, particularly in the CoE, that this

study was deemed necessary and apt, to interrogate these issues and provide empirical answers. This chapter continues with the presentation of this research aims and questions.

1.2 Research aims and questions.

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the actualities of PD of academic staff in Nigeria public CoEs, specifically regarding their understanding of PD policy, practice, participation, and impacts on their professional live. This investigation relied mainly on the experiential narratives of academic leaders and tutors about the PD practice within their specific contexts. To achieve this aim, formulating research questions to guide the study became necessary. The overarching question was, what is the understanding, practice, participation, and impact of academics' PD policy in Nigeria public CoEs? To address it, four research questions, were further formulated:

- RQ.1 What is academic tutors'/leaders' understanding of PD and its policy for academic staff in CoEs?
- RQ.2 How do CoEs implement the PD policy for academic staff?
- RQ.3 What is the attitude of academics in CoEs towards participation in PD activities for their own development?
- RQ.4 What impact does the participation of academic staff of CoEs in PD activities, have on their professional practice?

These questions fundamentally informed the data collection and analysis in this research. The reasons why this research study is important are stated in the next immediate section.

1.3 Significance of the research

This study was considered important for the following reasons. Firstly, it provides fresh empirical insights into academics' PD policy understanding and practice in public CoE, that will guide and support future policy reforms by relevant government and private organisations and/or

institutions. Secondly, it made profound contributions regarding practice, that encourages effective operationalising of HE policies, specifically the PD policy, for the benefit of myself and colleagues in CoE especially, and higher education in general. Thirdly, the outcome of this research also serves as a useful resource to education planners and administrators, academics, practitioners, and future researchers. Fourthly, this study significantly addresses the existing research gaps in this subject area, especially within this research context. These gaps could be in the form of confusing or conflicting research findings, neglect of key elements by previous research studies, or dearth of research relating to this topic. To my knowledge, based on the search of literature in the area under study, a very scanty number of studies exist.

For all of these reasons, a study with the focus of the present project was deemed necessary. Because the motivation for the study also sprang from my own lived experiences, some contextual information about my professional experience and value position in this project may be helpful. That is the focus of the next section.

1.4 My career background and positionality

As both the researcher and member of the academic community under study, a discussion of my relationship within this research study is important in informing a basis for a reflecting of my positionality (Sikes, 2004; Carnaghan, 2013). This is particularly the case because, qualitative research as in the current study, “is an interactive process shaped by personal history, biography, gender, social class, race, and ethnicity, and those of the people in the setting” (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, p.6), and its subjective nature is made known by clearly establishing how the researcher’s identity and contextual positionality contribute to the construction of the research process and findings (Swaminathan and Mulvihill, 2018). Hence, my background vis-à-vis beliefs that I bring to this study is crucial in determining how this research has been

conducted and my position therein. But beyond this, I also explore my positionality through the “act of position” where I subjectively established my identity and consciously expressed myself using qualifiers such as ‘I’ and ‘My’ (Roulston, 2010), in my contribution to the development of knowledge in this research.

Prior to starting my research at the University of Leeds, I worked as an academic staff member for almost 10 years in a higher education institution in Nigeria, specifically, one of the case studies CoEs. But before joining the CoE, I had started my teaching career with the secondary school where I was employed by the Secondary Education Board as a Grade I teacher and posted to a rural school where I taught Economics for five years. All of my professional teaching experience in the Nigeria higher education industry, has let me into the workings of the higher education system and academic staff development. My experience of PD has been basically that of employee’s personal commitment and funding, and employer funding support. Most of my PD engagements were self-funded, while some came through the support of my college, although it was never possible to be certain of the regularity of employer support. Following reflexive consideration, and review of my experience, I developed the interest in researching this subject of academics’ PD, in my master’s studies programme. However, after understanding how broad the topic is for a master’s dissertation, also considering the limited time for a master’s programme, which was not going to allow for in-depth study that I wanted to conduct, I decided to research on a different topic which was not as broad and that I could finish within my programme timeframe. Given my sustained interest in exploring experiences about academics’ PD, when I enrolled for a research programme (PhD), I decided to make it my research focus.

In this research study, I occupy a hybrid position (Reed and Procter, 1995), that is, I have approached the research from both an ‘insider – emic’ and ‘outsider – etic’ perspective. I am an ‘insider’ because aside from the fact that I am the researcher, I am also an academic staff in one of the CoEs within this study context, as articulated in an earlier paragraph. Being an insider comes with some advantages, however, not without disadvantages. Just as Tickle (2002, p.46) notes that the position of the practitioner researcher can “open windows and close doors” with the micro-politics and relationships within institutions, leading to complexity with issues of access, consent, and confidentiality. The advantages of my insider position in this research, therefore, include that it gave me an up-close background understanding of the workings of the higher education system and particularly the CoE, privilege access to the key stakeholders in Nigerian CoEs that made it easy for me to recruit my study’s participants. Also, I had unhindered access to so much information, including those termed confidential, about activities of the case study colleges. This was because throughout the research interview process my colleagues were very open and supportive because they had confidence and could trust me with their information.

The disadvantages, however, relates primarily to breach of ethical codes. There is the possibility that my insider position could undermine or compromise some critical elements of the research process, like not insisting on the official consent of participants before they could be allowed to participate in the research, or not ensuring confidentiality and privacy in the data collection and management. This could happen under the premise that we (I and participants) are colleagues who trust ourselves and they can freely discuss about any topic with me without the fear of me compromising their data. Also, there is the issue of researcher’s bias. This research has been profoundly informed by both my personal constructs and convictions, described as “researcher’s positionality” (Cousin, 2009, p.32), because I interpret and give meanings to all the

resource materials used in this research and the data of individuals and colleges that took part in the research. Inevitably, every aspect of this research study has involved interpretation anchored on values and my experiences; hence, it is safe to say that it is not free of bias. However, being aware of these potential ethical issues associated with insider position (Greene, Caracelli, and Graham, 1989), I made a conscious commitment to uphold research objectivity throughout this study by being clear about biases and value assumptions and open to contradictory evidence, dissenting opinions, and criticism from colleagues and research users. I equally ensured that I do not influence my participants and ‘contaminate’ the data when making my valid judgment on the conclusion and reporting of the research findings (see chapter 4.9.4). By this I believe that my influence will be a positive addition rather than the negative (Usher, 1996).

Aside from being an insider, I also considered myself as an outsider in this research. This was because even though I am a researcher from within the higher education academic community, I had been away from active service for about four years since the time I began my current postgraduate study programme. Moreover, while in active service, I was not practising in one of the two case study colleges. As a result, there was some level of distance between me and that particular college, such that the participants from the college saw me as any other researcher that was visiting from outside of their college to conduct research. The major challenge with being an outsider researcher was that it took the participants a bit of time and convincing to develop some level of trust and confidence in me, before they could freely and truly respond to the interview questions. My position in this research was also supported by the argument that the researcher cannot be completely detached or separated from the research he/she is conducting (Hellowell, 2006), because the boundaries between the insider and outsider positions of a researcher in a research study are practically very faint or blurry (Moore, 2012). It is imperative

to note that exploring my professional background and experiences have provided a level of personal knowledge of the research subject to help understand and question the views of others. However, I believe that in order to gain a better perspective of the different experiences and assumptions about the practice of PD, it is necessary to seek the views of all the major stakeholders involved, particularly academic staff. This speaks to the ontological and epistemological interpretivist orientation of this study (see chapter 4.2). This review also shows the relevance and connection between this research focus, philosophical orientation, research strategies, and my professional career experience.

1.5 Thesis structure

This thesis has been organised into ten chapters. In this first chapter, I have provided a background to this study. I also articulated the aims, research questions and significance of the study. I went on to highlight my professional career experience, beliefs, and position in the study, and their relationship to this research. Chapter two provides a contextual review of the Nigerian higher education with focus on the teacher education (i.e., CoE) and PD of academics. It highlights the historical background, policies and practices that have influenced and shaped higher education in this setting. This chapter is organised into two main sections. The first section briefly describes the higher education system, the CoE in Nigeria, and particularly, the case study colleges. The second section explores the major policy framework and interventions that have been made by the federal government of Nigeria for the PD of academic staff in CoE. Chapter three presents a review of the local and international literature on academics' professional development under four cardinal subthemes (understanding, practice, participation, and impact of academics' PD policy), which emanated from the leading research questions of this study.

Chapter four explores the research methodology. It begins with a discussion of the philosophical assumptions that have underpinned and influenced the development of this research study. Within this, my axiological, ontological, and epistemological stance and their influence on the methodology are made clear. Also presented in this chapter is a description of the overall research procedure including a pilot study which was conducted prior to the actual data collection, data collection methods, strategies for the actual data collection, how the data was analysed, and details of ethical considerations. Chapters five to eight report findings that emerged from analysis of the research data generated from the two case study colleges. Each chapter analysed data and presented findings related to one of the four guiding research questions and aims of this study. Chapter nine discusses major findings of this research more broadly with sufficient reference to the wider literature to support the findings, as well as a reflecting on the entire research process. Chapter ten presents this study's conclusion. It summarizes the key contributions of this study, provides suggestions for policymakers and practitioners, and makes recommendations for further research in this subject area. In the chapter that follows immediately after, I present a contextual overview of this research.

Chapter 2

Research Context

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a contextual overview of Nigerian higher education with focus on the teacher education (i.e., CoE) and PD of academics. It highlights the historical background, policies and practices that have influenced and shaped higher education. This chapter is organised into two main sections. The first section briefly describes the higher education system, the CoE, and particularly, the case study colleges. The second section explores the major policy framework and interventions that have been made by the federal government of Nigeria for the PD of academic staff in CoEs. It is noteworthy that, it is likely that quite a lot of detail in this chapter is very directly relevant or could reflect relative levels of importance to the findings that this research will present, and part of it is less directly relevant, but still important because it is hard to understand one part of a system without understanding the whole of the system in overview.

2.2 Nigerian higher education

This review looked at the Nigerian higher education system as a whole, but with greater focus on the CoE. Higher education, also referred to as tertiary education, is the education acquired post-secondary, and in Nigeria, it is offered by institutions of higher learning such as universities, polytechnics, CoEs, monotechnics, and other specialised institutes. HEIs can be established by either the federal government, state government, private individuals, or organisations (Federal Republic of Nigeria - FRN, 2013, p.36). The first HEI in Nigeria, the Yaba Higher College, was established in 1932 and officially started admitting students in 1934. The aim of establishing the College was to provide post-secondary education to the citizenry in

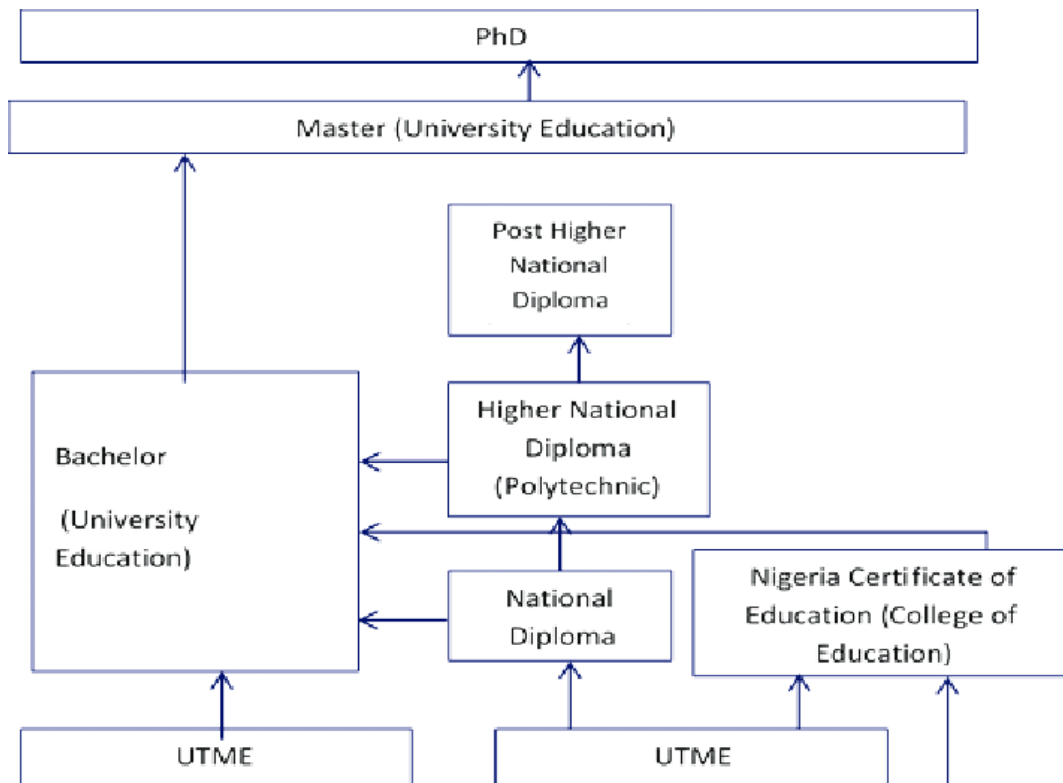
core disciplines (for example, teacher education, agriculture, engineering, etc.) that could drive societal development. During this era, there were agitations from Nigerians for a more comprehensive higher education provision, and this led to the constitution of the Asquith and Elliot Commission on higher education, and their reports presented in 1943 favoured the establishment of tertiary institutions in Nigeria (Iruonagbe et al., 2015). Consequently, in 1948, the University College Ibadan was founded as an affiliate of the University of London, and the College continued as the only University institution in Nigeria until 1960 (Jibril, 2003). In April 1959, the Nigerian government commissioned an inquiry (the Ashby Commission) to advise it on the higher education needs of the new nation for its first two decades of independence. Prior to the submission of the Commission's report on 2nd September 1960, the Eastern Region government established its own university called the University of Nigeria at Nsukka in 1960. The recommendations of the Ashby Commission's report favoured the establishment of more universities including Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife (formerly, the University of Ife) established in 1961; Ahmadu Bello University Zaria and University of Lagos both established in 1962. In the same year, 1962, the University College Ibadan was transformed into a substantive university, while the University of Benin was established in 1970 (Adesulu, 2014; Iruonagbe et al, 2015). From then on, the number of higher education institutions in Nigeria (universities, polytechnics, and colleges of education) has increased drastically. Currently, there are 174 universities in Nigeria (www.nuc.edu.ng), 134 polytechnics (www.net.nbte.gov.ng), and 187 colleges of education (www.ncceonline.edu.ng). This drastic increase in the number of higher education institutions after independence in 1960 is because the Nigerian government saw education as a critical instrument that can engender the rapid development that the new nation

needs (Abdulkareem, Fasasi, and Akinubi, 2011). Specifically, the goals of higher education in Nigeria, as contained in Section 5 of the National Policy on Education (FRN, 2013, p.36) are to:

- (a) Contribute to national development through high-level relevant manpower training, (b) develop and inculcate proper values for the survival of the individual and the society, (c) develop the intellectual capability of individuals to understand and appreciate their local and external environments, (d) acquire both physical and intellectual skills, which will enable individuals to be self-reliant and useful members of the society, (e) Promote and encourage scholarship and community service, and (f) Forge and cement national unity and promote national and international understanding and interaction.

The higher education system in Nigeria is represented in this diagram in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1.



Adopted from: Uthman, Sanni, and Salami (2019).

The responsibility for the management of higher education institutions in Nigeria is vested in the Federal Ministry of Education (FME). The FME coordinates and directs the affairs

of education in all the States of the federation through the National Council on Education (NCE), which is the highest policymaking body in matters relating to education in Nigeria. Specifically for higher education, the department of tertiary education and three other parastatals/agencies under the FME, are directly responsible for all its regulatory framework and supervision. These agencies include the National Universities Commission (NUC), which is in charge of the affairs of all universities in Nigeria; the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) supervises and regulates all technical institutions in Nigeria such as polytechnics, monotechnics, and specialised institutes; and the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) is the parastatal responsible for maintaining and promoting quality assurance in Nigeria's teacher education sector, through the supervision and regulation of the activities of colleges of education and national teachers' institute (FME Yearly Digest, 2013). Having x-rayed broadly the Nigerian higher education, I, in the section that follows immediately after, narrowed the discussion to CoEs which forms the focus of this present research study.

2.2.1 Nigerian Colleges of Education

The CoE in Nigeria is regarded as the first tier of tertiary institutions that offers full-time teacher education and professional development (Titilayo and Uwameiye, 2012), covering courses in teaching methodologies or pedagogies, instruction, classroom management and students' assessment (Ebisine, 2014). The colleges basically award a non-degree, but highly specialised, quality professional diploma certificate in education known as the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE), which is the recognised minimum professional teaching qualification in Nigeria (Teachers' Registration Council of Nigeria - TRCN, 1993). The training programme leading to the award of the NCE by CoEs takes a rigorous study period of three years; with each year having two semesters of about 15 weeks (NCCE, 2012). Also, students are required to take

and complete both the mandatory general courses on the theory and practice of teacher education, as well as courses in their respective fields (departments) of specialisation. The admission requirement for the NCE programme is the Senior Secondary School Certificate (SSSC) or its equivalent with passes in five subjects including English language, and a Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME) score. The NCE curriculum is detailed in the National Commission for Colleges of Education Minimum Standards. The CoE students' workloads are represented as credit units, and to obtain an NCE, students are expected to earn a minimum total of 130 credit units (NCCE, 2012).

The CoE is primarily responsible for the realisation of the broad goals of teacher education as stated in the Federal Republic of Nigeria's (FRN) National Policy on Education:

- (a) To produce highly motivated, conscientious, and efficient classroom teachers for the primary and junior secondary levels of the Nigeria educational system.
- (b) further encourage the spirit of enquiry (research and scholarship tradition) and creativity in teachers.
- (c) help teachers fit into the social life of the community and the society at large and enhance their commitment to national goals.
- (d) provide teachers with the intellectual and professional background adequate for their assignment and to make them adaptable to changing situations.
- (e) enhance teachers' commitment to the teaching profession. (FRN, 2013, p.39).

The CoE has experienced different phases and forms of transformation in their proprietorship, supervision, programmes management, including their nomenclatures and designations. They started out as Advance Teacher Colleges (ATC) before metamorphosing into what is today known as colleges of education. The oldest of the first-generation colleges started between 1960 and 1970 at the inspiration of external aid from the UNESCO to the Nigerian government. The colleges that were established within the said period as part of the second National Development Plan of 1975 include the colleges of education in Zaria, Kano, Akoka and Adeyemi. This actually set the tone and basic foundation for the National Policy on Education. The second-generation colleges which include the ones in Kontagora, Gombe, Okene, Katsina, Abeokuta,

Yola, Oyo (Special) and Pankshin were established between 1971 and 1980 on the recommendations of the Ashby Commission that were made to the then Federal Military government. Between 1981 and 1990, the third-generation CoEs which are the ones located in Obudu, Asaba, Omoku, Umunze, Bichi, Gusau, Potiskum and Ilorin (Military) were established. Within this period, when there was civilian administration, some state governments through their respective parliaments enacted laws establishing state colleges of education (Lassa in Musa 2017, p.58), and currently, there are 52 state-owned CoEs spread across Nigeria (www.ncceonline.edu.ng). It is important to state that all the Nigerian CoEs which are classified as conventional, technical, and special, came into existence either by means of acts of parliament or military decrees. The federal and state governments account for 42.2% ownership of all the CoEs, with the private sector having a large share of 57.8%. A description of the ownership structure and types of CoEs in Nigeria is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Nature of ownership and types of colleges of education in Nigeria

Ownership types	Types of colleges of education			Totals
	Conventional	Technical	Special	
Federal Government	17	9	1	27
State Government	48	4	Nil	52
Private	108	Nil	Nil	108
Totals	173	13	1	187

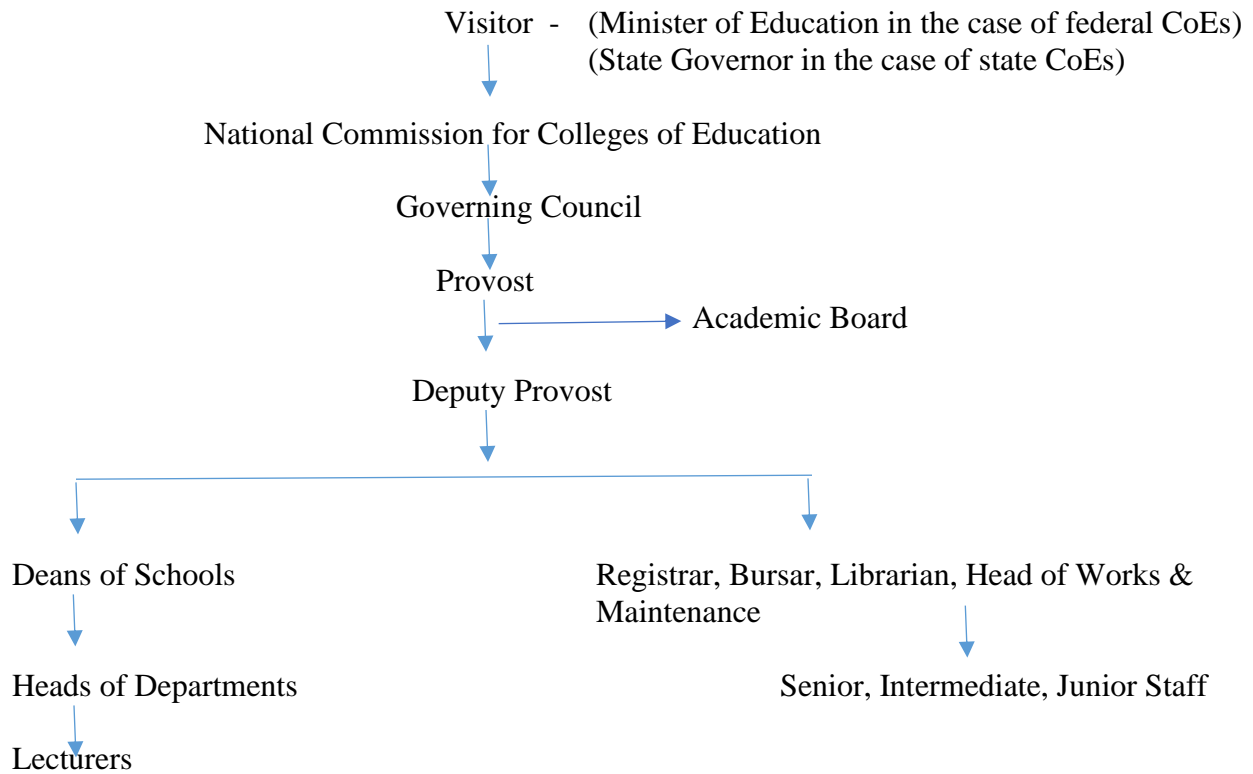
Source: National Commission for Colleges of Education (2022).

CoEs in Nigeria are supervised and regulated by the National Commission for Colleges of Education. The Commission was established by Decree (now Act) No. 3 of January 1989 (Amended Act 12 of 1993) and is responsible for the maintenance of quality assurance in teacher

education in Nigeria. The Commission advises the federal government on all aspects of teacher education falling outside the remit of universities and polytechnics, and other matters ancillary thereto. Its jurisdiction is limited to teacher education below the degree level. The Commission coordinates all aspects of teacher education including setting of minimum standards for the teacher education and accreditation of certificates and other academic awards issued by CoEs; sets guidelines for the accreditation of CoEs and the criteria for the approval of the establishment of new CoEs; determines the teacher needs of the country; determines and advises the federal government about financial needs of the colleges of education; receives and allocates block grants to CoEs; determines the entry qualifications into CoEs and the duration of courses; collates, analyses, and publishes information on teacher education; and recommends visitation to CoEs. With many CoEs running degree programmes (what is known as dual mode system), the NCCE tend to share jurisdiction with the NUC in such colleges (FME Yearly Digest, 2013).

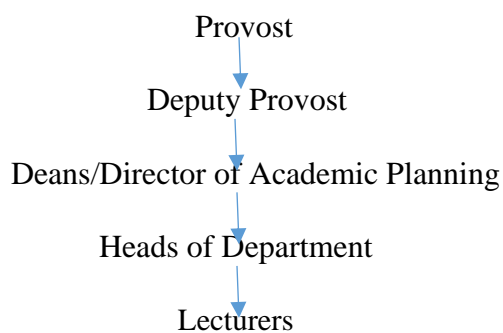
The resources available for PD, as well as the willingness of institutions to promote or require it, depend to a great extent on the policies set at higher levels. It is therefore important to understand the structures of governance in Nigerian CoE. The laws that established CoEs, provided for administrative and management structures in every college. The composition of the administrative structure, for example, flows from the visitor, to NCCE, to the governing council, to provost, ... down to heads of departments, and other members of staff, as presented in Figure 2 below. If there are any differences with regard to these structures, that exist between colleges, whether federal or state, it will be more of the different nomenclatures used in describing the various constituent units of the structure. The academic management structure as in Figure 3, as well as the required operational procedures, are also the same because they are bound by one CoEs Establishment Act of 1989 and regulated by same government agency, the NCCE.

Figure 2. Organogram of the administrative structure of Nigerian CoEs



Source: College Library Publication (2008).

Figure 3. Academic management structure of CoE



Source: College Library Publication (2008).

In this study, the focus was on two case study colleges given the pseudonyms College X and College Y, drawn from the federal and state-owned colleges. The description of these colleges follows, and I consider this relevant because it would help in understanding if any significant differences or similarities exist between the two CoEs.

2.2.2 College X

College X is a federal college of education, that is, a HEI established and managed by the federal government of Nigeria. It was established alongside other third-generation colleges in 1982 by the President Shehu Shagari-led federal government, and it started operations as an affiliate of a neighbouring federal university until it was granted full autonomy by the government of General Ibrahim Babangida (the then Military Head of State) in 1986, through the promulgation of Decree No. 4 of 1986 (as contained in the extraordinary official gazette of the Federal Republic of Nigeria No. 14 Volume 73, dated 21st March, 1986). Information available on the college's official website indicates that it has seven schools/faculties and twenty-nine academic departments under which it runs all its accredited NCE programmes, including pre-NCE, which is a remedial programme. In addition to this, there are two other special units/departments under which it offers programmes such as a bachelor's degree in education (BEd) and Professional Diploma in Education (PDE) Certificate, in affiliation with a university. The college operates administrative, and management structures as provided in the policy establishing CoEs in Nigeria, as presented in Figures 2 and 3 above. The leadership recruitment process of the college is two-pronged, that is, by appointments and elections.

The college's mission is to promote learning for service through the production of competent professional teachers for Nigerian primary and junior secondary schools. To achieve this, the college believes that its academic staff (lecturers) must be at their best form, hence its

support for PD. Information from the college's internal policy documents such as the Condition of Service, and Staff Development Committee Manual, indicate that the college promotes staff (academic and no-academic) professional development through annual sponsorship and funding support to attend and participate in development programmes that would add more value to them and increase their level of effectiveness and efficiency in the discharge of their duties. It also reveals that staff PD is encouraged, especially among academic staff because it is a *sine qua non* for their career progression (i.e., promotion or advancement to the next level in their career).

According to the staff Nominal Roll of the college obtained from the Senior Establishment Unit of the Registry Department, there are a total of 346 academic staff, and the eleven participants in this study from the college, are drawn from this pool of staff. The college over the years has had its own fair share of challenges, although not peculiar to it, prominent among which is leadership succession and recruitment. There have been experiences of instances where the tenure of a particular principal officer of the college like the provost, registrar, bursar or librarian elapses and it has taken months and even years for a new substantive one to be appointed. Subordinates would be asked to step in and hold brief pending when a substantive one is appointed, and this has had serious negative effects on the college's wheels of progress, because the person in acting capacity has some limitations on the full exercise of the powers of the new position when discharging his/her duties. The college's official language of instruction, research activities, and assessment of students is English.

2.2.3 College Y

College Y, on the other hand, is a state college of education, established and managed by the state government. It was first established by State Edict No. 4 of 1990. It was later converted to a campus of the state-owned university but was again re-established in 2008 via a

promulgation by the then governor of the state. Although owned by the state government, its operational procedures are the same as that of the federal colleges. This is because, in a bid to control the quality of education offered across the country, the Nigerian government through its ministry of education formulated a national education policy known as National Policy on Education to serve as a benchmark and guide to the operations of all HEIs whether federal, state, or privately owned. However, the FME, in its guiding policies for state and privately owned institutions operations, factored in the different concerns, for example, a proprietor's style of management and administration of an institution, funding pattern, and approach to the implementation of the national curriculum, by the harmonization of the educational policies (by-laws) and procedures introduced by all the states of the federation through the instrumentality of the National Council on Education which has each state represented by its Commissioner for Education. This college operates with the NPE, and benefits from the federal government's funding of higher education for infrastructural and human capital development through its agency, the Tertiary Education Trust Fund. Information available on the college's official website indicates that it has six schools/faculties and twenty-three academic departments under which it runs all its accredited NCE programmes, including pre-NCE, which is a remedial programme. Unlike its federal counterpart, the college does not run degree and professional diploma certificate programmes.

The college's administrative and management structures seem to bear strong similarities with the federal CoEs described in Figures 2 and 3 above. The only observed difference is that unlike the federal CoEs where the Honourable Minister for Education is the visitor, in the case of the state CoEs, it is the state governor that is the visitor. The leadership recruitment process of the college is also the same as that of the federal CoEs. The college's mission is also to produce

well trained professional teachers for the Nigerian primary and junior secondary schools. Information from the college's internal documents on staff development revealed that the college annually sponsors the further studies of academics as well as provide funding support for academic staff to attend and participate in development programmes (such as conferences and workshops) that would boost their level of effectiveness and efficiency in their job role. According to the staff nominal roll of the college obtained from the Senior Establishment Unit of the Registry Department, there are a total of 204 academic staff, and the eleven participants in this study from the college, are drawn from among them. English is the college's official language for teaching, research activities, and assessment of students. Just like its federal counterpart, the college over the years has also had its own fair share of challenges especially in the areas of appointment of the institution's administrators and funding. It is worthy to note that the regulations and procedures for academic staff PD (I returned to this in the later part of this chapter), are the same in the two case colleges, probably because they are both guided by the same NCCE condition of service and staff development manual, and the TETFund guidelines. The only difference I suspect might be the composition of the committee set-up by each institution to handle the process, and the number of times the committee meets.

2.3 Professional development policy context

Although this study situates in the context of higher education in Nigeria, particularly the CoE, it was also explicated from the broader perspective, outside of higher education. This is because PD is a concept that is used by a wide range of disciplines that may possibly have their own understanding of PD, which could be useful to this study. PD in the Nigerian context has been described differently by scholars (Okotoni and Erero, 2005; Aroge, 2012; Idoniboye-Obu, 2014; Gani, 2013), but there seem to be a consensus in the various definitions that PD is about

the institutional policies, programmes and procedures that facilitate and support staff to improve their professional competencies and capabilities and serve the need of both their organization and individual self, effectively and efficiently. Some of the activities they engage in include further educational training, attending conferences, workshops, seminars, etc.

The idea of training and professional development of staff of public service in Nigeria, which includes academics, can be traced back to 1896 when some educated persons in Lagos proposed the establishment of a training college and industrial institute. However, this idea was terminated because of lack of required funds by the initiators (Okotoni and Erero, 2005). The ineffectiveness and inefficiency in service delivery by the public service workers again necessitated the need for reforms in the public service, which identified staff training and professional development as one of the key measures in addressing the poor service delivery. So, the Public Service Review Commission of 1974 was setup as part of the reforms agenda to review the activities of staff, and it was its recommendation that led to the creation of enabling policies and establishment of training institutions to drive the training and development of staff in the public service. The Commission in the recommendation emphasized on specific manpower policy objectives, and stated explicitly that: “Of all the aspects of personnel management, perhaps the most important for us here in Nigeria is training and development... This will be the most urgent consideration in accepting and implementing our report” (p. 7). A major policy that was birthed because of the reforms in the Nigeria public service is the Public Sector Rules and Regulations. This document, which within the public and civil service is referred to as “worker’s bible,” serves as the central guide, with all the rules and regulations for staff of all government MDAs (i.e., Ministries, Departments and Agencies), parastatals and institutions. Each of these government establishments draws from the Public Service Rules to design their own specific

policies (Rules, Regulations and Conditions of Service). Also, the second National Development Plan (1970 – 1974) made recommendations that gave considerable attention to the concerns for training and development of public servants, led to the establishment of training institutes and manpower development centres by the government (Ozurumba and Amasuomo, 2015; Okorie and Odo, 2014; Adiele and Ibietan, 2017). Since after the year 1974, successive civil service reforms in Nigeria have continued to underscore the value and need for development, training and retraining of staff (Inyang and Akaegbu, 2014). For instance, the 1998 Civil Service Reforms provided that an amount corresponding to 10% of the annual salary of each staff be set aside for the continuous training and development of staff of federal and state government organisations including higher education, because of the impact their development would have on the productive capacity of those organisations. Even though this was implemented by the federal and state governments, it was not sustained (Okotoni and Erero, 2005). The Ayida Panel (1994, p.201) stated that: “Training and development ensures the acquisition and updating of the right skills needed for improved performances. Hence, it is a right of every civil servant and an obligation on the government as the employer of the civil servant.” Currently, various universities, polytechnics, colleges of education, monotechnics, and specialized institutes across Nigeria have been nominated to serve as training and development centres for manpower development. Most of them have either designed new or modified their programmes to accommodate the training and development needs in the public services, as a significant percentage of public servants undergo training and development annually (ASCON, 2020).

Beyond the broad perspective, PD within the Nigeria higher education context describes a set of programmes or development units such as conferences, workshops, scholarships, research, seminars, and study fellowships on leave with or without pay, that are designed for

staff (academic and non-academic) to engage in for their upskilling and all-round development, and prove of their regular development (Uzochukwu et al., 2016). For example, an academic staff member who is recruited based on subject area qualification but without the full requisite teaching qualifications, through PD is encouraged to undertake further educational training and short courses to acquire either a postgraduate diploma in education, master's in education, and/or doctor of philosophy (NCCE, 2012). In addition to study fellowship, staff in Nigerian CoE are also exposed to various activities such as staff meetings at various levels, serving in different college committees, coaching by more experienced staff, working on delegated authorities, and induction training programme for newly employed staff (Musa, 2017; Alabi, 2005). The focus of PD in higher education has mostly been about the development of research and teaching skills; with centres and units such as Centre for Research, Documentation and Academic Publications (CRDAP), setup in most tertiary institutions to promote this development. Increasingly, academics' professional development has remained a subject of interest in higher education following several concerns by stakeholders and researchers (Okemakinde, 2014; Yusuf and Oluwakemi, 2012; Venatus, 2013), about the decline in the standard of HE in Nigeria, and the potential negative consequences on the nation's growth and development. It is surprising that with all the staff development reforms aimed at producing a more reoriented, effective, efficient, and responsive workforce for the higher education sector, the expected results of high-quality education have not been achieved (Gyong, 2012; Imam, 2012; Obi-Anike and Ekwe, 2014; Okoroma, 2006; Peretomode and Chukwuma, 2016). In fact, Okotoni and Erero (2005) reveals that despite the recognition accorded training and development in Nigeria by management experts and the government, as evident in various public sector reform white paper reports, the practical experience in the Nigerian public service still leaves much to be desired. The situation

in the CoE is even more problematic, because according to the National Teacher Education Policy (2014, p.2), “lecturers in CoE have very limited opportunities for continuous professional and academic development.”

Worried by this trend, especially the low quality of teachers produced in Nigeria by the CoEs and universities, the federal government of Nigeria identified “aggressive” staff professional development reforms to promote academic staff efficiency and effectiveness in the discharge of their basic duties. These reforms agenda in the higher education sector reflected policy pronouncements and establishment of institutions, as well as interventionist agencies. The specific policies, with regard to the CoE, include the National Policy on Education (NPE, 2004); NCCE condition of service for staff of CoEs (2015); and NCCE staff development manual for CoEs (2006). Other reform efforts include the federal government’s directives through its Ministry of Education to HEIs to have staff PD programmes in their strategic plans, which tertiary institutions have complied with, with some having dedicated PD blueprints, and others having it in their vision and mission statements. Also, was the FME’s acceptance and implementation of the resolution of the National Summit on higher education that it organised in year 2002, which proposed the establishment of National Higher Education Pedagogy Centre for the training of academic staff of HEIs, mostly those who are new entrants into the academia at the various institutions basically to enhance and sustain efficiency (FME Digest, 2002).

Furthermore, as part of the resolve to support the PD of academic and non-academic staff in HEIs, in 1990, the federal government set up the Longe Commission which recommended the establishment of a board on staff training and development in universities, polytechnics, and CoE, which was accepted by the government. Based on this, tertiary institutions were directed to setup such boards and committees (Musa, 2017). This provided a broader opportunity to set the

agenda and design policy frameworks for implementation of human resource development (HRD) programmes in HEIs. In compliance with the federal government's policy directives on HRD and the quest by tertiary institutions' management to provide a formidable, all-embracing, and focused approach to issues of HRD, most of the institutions upgraded their existing ad hoc committees and boards to substantial ones, while those that never had, established new ones (Gani, 2013). For example, the University of Jos upgraded the secretariat of Academic Policy Research and Publication Committee (APR&PC) which was domiciled in the senior staff establishment to staff training and development division. From that period, the process of skill upgrading, and capacity building has been receiving some level of attention through conferences, seminars, workshops, and provision/approval of the following leaves (study leave, training leave, research leave, post-doctorate fellowship, special leave, sabbatical leave) for academic trainings towards the acquisition of new and further qualifications (Gani, 2013). In a further effort to improve the quality of teacher education, especially in CoEs, a toolkit that contains several resources used in developing teaching and supervisory skills which are beneficial to the teaching experience of both educators and student teachers, was produced through a collaboration between the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), and the Teacher Education in Sub-Sahara Africa (TESSA) team. TESSA is a network of teachers and teacher educators working in concert with the Open University, UK, to improve the quality of classroom practice and access to teacher education resources across Sub-Saharan Africa (Kenneth, 2018). The Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) which was established in accordance with the Teachers Registration Council Act of 1993, was another interventionist effort of the federal government. It recognised the importance of professionalising the teaching profession in Nigeria, and thus, beginning in 2007 all professionally qualified and certified teachers are mandatorily

required to register with the council. This initiative is accompanied by in-depth training seminars and workshops held across Nigeria's six geopolitical zones for registered teachers. NPE (2013) Section 8(b) paragraph 72, provides that “all teachers in educational institutions including universities shall be professionally trained”, and the TRCN has started implementing this provision. However, these efforts at improving the quality of teacher education, were criticised by both practitioners and researchers (Oni, 2008; Obiunu, 2011) as not being very effective.

Another notable aspect of the government reform efforts in HEIs’ staff PD, is the creation of an interventionist agency known as TETFund, primarily for the rehabilitation, restoration, and consolidation of higher education institutions in Nigeria for effective and efficient functioning. This could be described as a further boost to the government’s aggressive staff development agenda for HEIs. The TETFund Act (2011) is a product of several years of agitation by stakeholders of Nigeria education industry particularly, Academic Staff Union of Universities, seeking improvement in the quality of higher education which was fast deteriorating, as evidenced by infrastructural decay (obsolete infrastructure), poor staffing and resources, lack of regular training and development of available staff, rapid personnel turnover, unrest in the form of student riots and staff industrial strike actions. The agitations became necessary when it was obvious that the Education Tax Fund which catered for all levels of the education system was overburdened and overstretched, and as such made no significant impact on tertiary education institutions especially (Bogoro, 2019). Following the agitations, the Education Tax Act, CAP E4, Laws of the Federation of Nigeria, 2004 and Education Tax Fund (Amendment) Act No. 17 of 2003 were repealed and replaced with the TETFund Act No. 16 of 2011. With the new Act in place, TETFund started providing funding for educational facilities and infrastructural development, promoting creative and innovative approaches to educational learning and services,

and stimulating, supporting, and enhancing improvement activities in the education foundation areas, such as PD of academic staff, teaching practice, library development and special education programmes in higher education institutions (Makoji, 2016). To address the challenge of academic staff underdevelopment in tertiary institutions in Nigeria, Section 7, subsection (1) of the Act, commits specifically to “academic staff training and development; and any other need that is considered critical and essential for the improvement of quality and maintenance of standards in federal and state tertiary educational institutions”. To give effect to that provision, the TETFund introduced the Academic Staff Training and Development (AST&D) programme to support the training and development of academic staff within and outside of Nigeria, along the establishment of a special department to be in charge, in the year 2012. The department’s specific responsibilities include carrying out inspection visits to academic intervention programme/project sites, human resource capacity building and training intervention programmes in beneficiary institutions (TETFund, 2016). TETFund annually allocates funds specifically for the training and development of academic staff; and according to the Fund’s guidelines (2016, p.17), there are some conditions and requirements for accessing and utilizing such funds, and these are presented in the below quoted section:

(i) The amount of funds is for academic staff training and development only, (ii) the funds shall be used for: sponsorship of academic staff for postgraduate training within and outside Nigeria, and academic staff development through sponsorship for short term doctoral research (i.e., Bench work for PhD candidates in pure and applied sciences for exposure and access to state-of-the-art facilities) for lecturers already pursuing their doctoral degree courses in Nigeria. ... (v) the list of nominated academic staff should be forwarded to TETFund using some designed forms for vetting and reconciliation.

In addition to academic staff training and development programme, the TETFund also provides funding for conference and workshop interventions for academic staff, to promote research and innovations. The implementation of these PD programmes at the level of the

institution, is the responsibility of each institution's leaders, who are however, expected to act in line with the provisions of the policy. It is noteworthy that, most institutions depend solely on their faculty development programmes and centres in addressing their PD needs, which is commendable; however, they do very little or nothing about cross-institutional or international development experience.

With regard to policy, CoEs in Nigeria operates under four major sets of national policies among others formulated by the national government: National Policy on Education (NPE), Public Service Rules (PSR), The National Commission for Colleges of Education Condition of Service for staff of CoE, and The National Commission for Colleges of Education Staff Development Manual for CoEs. Two of these policies (NPE and PSR) are general policies for all higher education institutions and public service organizations in Nigeria; while the other two (NCCE Condition of Service for staff of CoE in Nigeria, and NCCE Staff Development Manual for CoEs) which actually derives from the NPE and PSR, are specifically for CoEs. The National Policy on Education (2013) states the goals, status, modes of operation and processes of attaining the predetermine aims and objectives of all levels of Nigerian education (i.e., primary, secondary, and tertiary). The Public Service Rules (2008) on the other hand, is the policy that guides and regulates the activities and actions of all public servants in Nigeria with the aim of ensuring that staff of the public service are treated fairly and justly, as well as given the right environment and necessary tools which includes their regular development and training, to do their assigned work. All these policies deal with staff development, for example, the National Policy on Education makes a clear statement encouraging professionalism at all levels of education and note that it can only be attained through training and development of the teaching staff, as seen in this quote:

Efforts towards the improvement of the quality of education at all levels and across the different forms of tertiary institution shall include putting in place a coherent national framework for teacher development and professional teaching standards that sets out what teachers should know and be able to do at all levels of education and at the various stages of their professional development ... with regular opportunities for updating their knowledge and skills. (NPE, 2013, p.29).

Even though the various policies mentioned above emphasise on staff PD, my focus was on those policies that are more relevant to this study, such as the NCCE condition of service for staff of CoE (2015) and NCCE staff development manual for CoEs (2006). This is because the current research study is particularly interested in the PD of academic staff in CoEs. Also, the NCCE staff development manual and condition of service for staff of CoE have very specific policy prescriptions which are lifted from the National Policy on Education (2013), and Public Service Rules (2008). In addition to these major policies, I also looked at the staff development policy of the case study colleges, known as the Staff Development Handbook. However, I could not deem it necessary to have a separate section for this, as that will only amount to a repetition of the national policies which has already been reviewed. And this is because it was obvious from my review of the Staff Development Handbook of the two colleges, that it is an extract summary of the national policies that was produced verbatim.

It is important at this point to clarify the difference and relationship between the national and institutional policies. National education policies are policies made by the national (federal) government which has the statutory mandate, in collaboration with the sub-national (state) governments through the instruments of the National Council on Education (NCE), and/or the supervising agencies of the various education subsectors, such as the National Universities Commission (NUC), National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), National Board for Technical Education (NBTE), Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) (Oyedepi, 2015; Yaro, Arshad, and Salleh, 2016). Examples of these policies include the National Policy

on Education (2013) formulated by the NCE, and the staff development manual for CoE (2006) by the NCCE.

Institutional policies, on the other hand, are all policies kept by a HEI including national policies, and bye policies which the institution is empowered to make (mostly to address their specific circumstance, and for the smooth administration and operation of the institutions), but which must primarily derive from the relevant national policy as its source. For instance, the contents of the staff development handbook of the case study colleges must derive from the NCCE staff development policy for CoEs. Although the institution is permitted to rephrase the wordings, however, the original intent as contained in the national policy must be retained or not be lost. Also, the institution is given the right to reproduce copies of the national policy without necessarily rephrasing the words and adopt it as its own policy (NCCE, 2006 and 2015; Oyedeki, 2015). According to Akinwumi and Adepoju (2009) and FRN (2013), the reason for this centralised practice of policymaking, is to ensure uniformity in the general philosophy and goal, implementation procedure, eliminate overlaps, and promote effectiveness in achieving the goal of quality education nationally.

As revealed above, even though the national PD policies for CoEs provides room for certain adjustments to accommodate local circumstances of the various public HEIs, this practice whereby institutions have to work with an externally framed policy, still create gaps (i.e., some sort of missing link or distance between those who make the policy and those to implement it or those it is made for) in the policy development and implementation process with its attendant effects. Therefore, to address this concern about staff PD policymaking and implementation, it has become imperative to move away from the current practice where the policy is made by the NCCE and handed to institutions to implement, to a new model where the policymaking is fully

localised or contextualised. This means that, the various HEIs should take direct responsibility or play more crucial roles in the framing and implementation of their policies than what they currently are allowed to do.

A policy that is the product of a particular institution or people that are the direct beneficiaries and implementers, has a high chance of success. That is because, with the institution/people as the policymakers, they would have very good understanding of the policy in terms of its objectives and implementation approaches and will be willing to take full ownership and support the success of a policy that clearly reflects their specific needs and aspirations. Many researchers and practitioners (Makinde, 2005; Marope and Sack, 2007; Ball, Maguire, and Braun, 2012; Maguire, Gewirtz, Towers, and Neumann, 2019) have also advocated for the contextualising of policy development and enactment. For instance, Ball et al. (2012, p.19), in their study on how schools do policy, emphasised on the need to contextualise policy development and enactment, which policymakers tend to neglect, by arguing that policies are “shaped and influenced by school-specific factors which act as constraints, pressures and enablers”. Furthermore, Maguire et al. (2019, p.1), argued for a “contextually sensitive approach towards policy making and policy enactment that takes account of some of the more nuanced distinctions among schools’ contextual positionings ... because in practice, a range of situated factors influence how schools enact policies”.

Sharing similar view, Makinde (2005) also posited that public policy-making and implementation should be completely localised in the specific institution in order to promote inclusiveness of the staff as major stakeholders, and their motivation to embrace the policy and ultimately ensure its effectiveness in practice. Review of the two focal policies is next.

2.3.1 NCCE Condition of Service for staff of CoEs in Nigeria (2015)

The condition of service for staff of CoEs is a product of the NCCE, which is the supervisory agency for CoE in Nigeria. The condition of service derives its impetus from the Public Service Rule, and this is because CoEs are a part of the Nigerian public service and thus, are statutorily under the Rule. It was first promulgated in the year 1989 and has undergone several reviews with the latest revision in 2015. These reviews became necessary to ensure that the policy provisions are in tune with those of the Nigerian Federal Public Service and sister institutions, as well as reflect the contemporary work environment. The policy's goal is to ensure the smooth running of the CoE system, and that CoEs in Nigeria are better positioned in a way that they are not just able to attract quality academic staff and professionals, but to also retain them. In order to achieve this goal, the policy provides for a number of action plans and strategic programmes, one of such is staff development, which is of specific interest to this research study. It is instructive to note that even though this study focuses on academic staff, the provisions in Chapter 13 of the condition of service for staff of CoEs that deals with staff development, applies to both academic and non-academic staff of CoEs. The condition of service acknowledges the significance of staff development in achieving high level efficiency in the administration of CoEs as well as fulfilling its mandate and charges all CoEs to key into it by identifying their staff development needs and designing appropriate programmes with priority on the ones that will bring about the greater good of the institution, as seen in the below quote:

Manpower development is one of the foremost approaches for achieving efficiency in any organization. Therefore, it is imperative that the institution after identifying its needs should prescribe a suitable programme for training its staff for maximum contribution to the development and progress of the institution. (NCCE, 2015, p.66).

For CoEs to identify their staff area of need for training and development, it is expected to conduct staff appraisal using what is known as Annual Performance Evaluation Report (APER). A process whereby staff are given questionnaire-like forms and are required to fill them out indicating their roles and responsibilities, successes and progress recorded in the discharge of their duties, and challenges and areas where they require development to help them perform their duties optimally. The condition of service for staff of CoE, specifically note that “to ensure the efficiency of the service of the institution, confidential reports shall be detailed, objective and candid” (NCCE, 2015, p.19). It further emphasized the need to ascertain the desirability of an employee being suitable for any training in order to develop his/her potential, remedy observed deficiency or specialize in a particular field during the APER. Having identified the staff development need, the condition of service demands that the college makes effort in terms of either granting a Study Fellowship to such a staff with a view to helping him/her realize his/her full potentials and enhance the level of contribution to the institution, or just providing any kind of assistance that may be requested by a staff who wish to undertake self-sponsored training or development. However, the policy emphasizes on the need for all staff development efforts to have a direct bearing with the primary aim of the college which is to promote teacher education and training in support of manpower development of the country. The implication of this provision of the policy is that staff may only be sponsored or permitted to proceed on a self-sponsored training or development programme when the college management is convinced that upon the completion of such programme the affected staff will become a great asset to the college by contributing more effectively to its success and progress.

As a matter of policy, staff development should be geared towards achievement of the aims of the institution ... Thus, priority should be given to the sponsorship of programmes, which will enable staff contribute more effectively to the success of the institution. For the purpose of the above, the staff of the institution should be

given the opportunity to benefit from the training programmes of the institution. (NCCE, 2015, p.66).

As a way of creating the needed opportunities for the realization of the policy provision in Chapter 13, subsection 1.1&2, the policy further provides for various categories of leave which includes study leave, training leave, research leave, post-doctorate fellowship, special leave, and sabbatical leave, through which the staff can benefit from the different training and development programmes (study, training, research, acquisition of higher degrees or professional qualifications, intellectual development and the general improvement of the individual). This also comes with generous packages such as full salary and allowances for the staff while on PD. Leave as used here refers to the authorized absence of a staff from duty for a specific period (NCCE, 2015).

2.3.2 NCCE Staff Development Manual for CoE in Nigeria (2006)

The NCCE in its quest for the growth of staff in CoEs and improvement in the quality of education it provides, identified the staff development as key, and thus, designed and published a staff development manual for CoE in 1995 with the sixth edition in 2006. The manual is to guide the college management and administrators on the best practice standards to adopt in their staff development and emphasized that it is a mandatory document which all colleges must abide by. The manual specifically identified five standard pillars on which the staff development practices in CoEs in Nigeria is anchored, and they include, (i) the benefits and utilitarian values of staff PD; (ii) effective planning and organization of staff development activities, and those whose direct responsibility it should be; (iii) criteria for sponsoring and supporting academic staff's PD; (iv) availability and/or types of staff development activities, and (v) factors that can influence either the quantity and quality of a staff's PD (NCCE, 2006).

Public CoEs in Nigeria implement the PD policy through a Staff Development Committee (SDC). The committee which is domiciled in the Establishment Unit of the Registry department, is specifically created to handle the training and development needs of the members of staff from the selection process to funding, and supervision. The process leading up to the nomination for college funding support for staff PD, for example, the award of study fellowship, normally begins with a circular from the Registrar through the Establishment Unit to the various schools and departments calling for their staff training and development needs. All submissions are then collated by the Establishment Unit and presented to the College Management Committee for further considerations, and after the College Management Committee has met and taken a decision, the Establishment Unit will again communicate the approval of the College Management Committee to the various schools and departments. Any interested member of staff can then be invited to make an application through his/her head of department and dean who also makes recommendation to the SDC through the Registrar. The SDC then sits and review all applications received, and any of the applicants (staff) who meet the specific criteria as contained in the relevant policy document will then be recommended for the staff development funding support (NCCE, 2006 and 2015).

2.4 Summary

This contextual overview was considered important because of the idea that reflections on practice are framed by the local context, and it helps in connecting statements about what is effective or ineffective, and what can be achieved to the local context where the policy is formulated. The perceived importance of PD is underscored by the very generous terms and conditions, such as individuals on PD leave are entitled to essentially the same conditions as if they were not on leave, including full salary and various allowances. The willingness to create

opportunities for staff to develop themselves as well as commit so many institutional resources to PD is eloquent testimony to the value set on it by institutions. Although institutions commit significant resources to PD activities, as earlier noted, it is nevertheless the fact that PD may cause some staff members to be out of pocket if, for example, their housing allowance does not cover the full cost of housing themselves and their family in another location. This can inhibit the uptake of PD.

The overview highlights the reform efforts in terms of policies and programmes that had been introduced by the government, targeted at the professional development of academic staff in Nigeria higher education, particularly, CoEs, for the improvement of the quality of teacher education. The procedure for staff development as revealed in the relevant policies, demand that certain institutional structural arrangements, for example, the Staff Development Committee, must be put in place by CoEs for the effective practice of the PD policy for academics. Despite these efforts by the government, some scholars (Suleiman, 2015; Obiunu, 2011), argued that most of the government's policies have not actually yielded the desired results as the quality of teachers produced by CoEs are still questionable. Hence, I believe it is pertinent to take a critical look and understand what actually is responsible for the issues with these interventions especially policy intervention in the teacher education sector (CoE). Whether understanding the PD policies and practices, is crucial to academic staff improvement and the attainment of quality teacher education in Nigeria. This contentious issue that has been thrown up from this contextual review, is what this research project set to explore. I will, therefore, in the chapter that follows immediately after, review relevant local and international literature to appreciate the current trends and practices.

Chapter 3

Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I reviewed relevant literature bearing in mind the research objectives as stated in chapter one of this thesis (see p.5). This review provides a theoretical background about the nature of academic PD in higher education, with focus on staff understanding of its meaning, the policy implementation, academic staff participation in it, and its impacts on the professional practice of academic staff.

The Alvesson and Sandberg's (2011) framework was a helpful tool. The framework identifies three types of potential research gaps – confusion, neglect, and application – that could be spotted from the review of existing literature, as well as the concept of problematisation. The confusion gap relates to situations where there are contradictory pieces of evidence or competing explanations from research on a particular topic. The neglect gap has to do with under-research or overlooked areas in research; that is, spotting an aspect in the research literature that has not been given critical research attention with empirical support, despite a great number of studies in such field. The application gap is about extending and complementing existing literature, by providing alternative perspectives or theory to further the understanding of the subject-matter under review. While problematisation as a framework deal with a significant way of challenging assumptions that underlie existing literature, and this could either involve questioning the whole assumption or just some part of it.

At the end of the chapter, there is a summary which highlights key points, and areas in the literature that this research intends to investigate further.

3.2 Academics' understanding of PD in HE

In reviewing literature relating to the concept of PD and its policies for academics in the higher education context, I consider it useful first of all to discover how academic researchers who write about PD understand it. This is because it could guide or support the findings that this research will produce. Also, because even though PD theory has in recent years continued to gain global attention in higher education research as a critical element for educational reform, attracting huge investments from governments, educational institutions, and other organisations, in PD initiatives and interventions covering a wide range of development activities (Mourshed et al., 2010; Kennedy, 2014; OECD, 2019; Patfield, Gore and Harris, 2021), its meaning is still being contested (Blackwell and Blackmore, 2003; Crawford, 2009; Geleta and Raju, 2023). Much of the literature consulted in this study revealed a plethora of definitions, and alternative terms such as academic development, professional learning, staff training and development, continuing professional development, and lifelong learning, that are considered to be similar in meaning and are often used interchangeably with PD (e.g., Crawford, 2009; Dysart and Weckerle, 2015; Darling-Hammond, Hyler and Gardiner, 2017; Inamorato dos Santos et al., 2019). For instance, Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) define PD as a special programme with centrally designed, organized, structured, and planned methods of learning which could be provided either externally or on-the-job, aimed at skills development. Similarly, Malik, Nasim, and Tabassum (2015) and Kneale et al. (2016) describe PD as encompassing intentional and unintentional or passive learning programmes and approaches that improve the skills of workers.

Professional learning suggests that learning occurs in a wide range of both formal processes for example, workshops or academic programmes, as well as informal processes via the tea-room, reading articles that one chooses, from engagement with students (Leibowitz,

2016). Limeri et al. (2020) also see it as models of training and support to develop teaching-related knowledge, skills, and abilities and encourage reflection about teaching practices and student learning. The goals of PD in academia can vary, but often focus on creating teaching excellence at an institution, responding to the teaching needs of individuals, or advancing new initiatives in teaching and learning (McKee et al., 2013). Within the Nigerian context, a similar narrative of multiple interpretation exists. For example, while some researchers (Okotoni and Erero, 2005; Awodiji, 2020) consider it as a formal programme that requires active engagement of staff (teachers and academics) on a certificate-based course or its equivalent usually offered by professional organizations or institutions teaching people how to be more effective and efficient in their work, others (Oduaran, 2015; Peretomode and Chukwuma, 2016) see it more from the lens of informal arrangements requiring mere communication, interaction, and collaboration between colleagues and institutions which provides opportunities for them to share expert knowledge and professional experiences.

According to Mulnix (2016) and Limeri et al. (2020), PD exists in a multitude of forms: it can be local (e.g., programmes run by institutional teaching and learning centres) or national (e.g., summer institutes on scientific teaching); and formal (e.g., pre-semester orientation, pedagogical class, or workshop) or informal (e.g., peer mentoring, participating in a learning community, or reading articles on pedagogy). Reacting to the model of CPD, researchers (King, 2004; Herbert and Rainford, 2014; Kennedy, 2014; Swaffield, 2014; Smith, 2014), have suggested some fundamental ways of thinking about CPD such as: it should be evidenced at all stages of every academic's career; professional learning should be related to institutional contexts, and supported by institutional structures and rewards; any programme of professional learning should be self-directed and related to the needs of the individual; and the need to have

opportunities for simple forms like collaboration and communication between colleagues, and not be seen as a case where a particular group of persons must be made to teach others.

Lofthouse (2018 & 2019) also revealed that CPD for teachers could include a long list of activities such as waves of coaching, mentoring, action research, online training, and lesson study, which for example, are learning processes in the workplace (which are often described as informal form of PD), as well as high profile conferences and workshops across the professional career landscape. The above review shows that PD does not yet have a specific consensus description.

It is important at this stage to note that, whilst I consider a review of the definitions of PD by research scholars who write about PD helpful, for the same reason that I stated earlier in the opening paragraph of this section, the point remains that it is not just about definitions. Beyond and above that, I am interested in knowing how academics working at the chalk face of educational institutions (i.e., the recipients of PD) understand PD and the policy prescriptions, and the implications that holds for practice. I will return to the part on how academics understand the policy, later in chapter 5 of this thesis, but for now, I examine the literature on why it is important for academics to understand policy contents.

There is a growing assumption within academic discourses and literature (Brynard, 2010; Chase, 2016) that links academics' understanding of a specific education policy (e.g., PD policy) with how it is translated into action. This is because understanding and interpretation has been adjudged as a critical element to the enactment of a policy (Ball, Maguire, Braun, and Hoskin, 2011). Ball et al. believe that interpretation is the beginning of the process of enacting a policy, because it is where the implementer(s) decodes the meaning or makes sense of the policy text, and that it is with deep insight about the policy that it can be effectively translated into action.

Similarly, Crawford (2009) in a study on CPD in UK higher education argue that, to develop a meaningful understanding of CPD practices in academia it is necessary to start with an exploration of how academics understand CPD, what they do and why, considering the context within which it happens. Also, Field cited in Crawford (2009, p.14) in a critical discourse of lifelong learning policies, expressed concern about the implementation, outlining the incongruity between policy rhetoric and policy achievement, and conception and delivery, and concluded that the situation maybe insufficiently explained because of the apparent lack of understanding of the meaning and scope of professional development and its policy. Inamorato dos Santos, et al. (2019) equally maintain that there are still contestations in the research literature about the practice of higher education academics' PD programmes at the local institutional level basically because of how the major stakeholders and practitioners perceive and interpret the concept and policy programmes. In the same vein, Anyangwa (2012) claimed that it is important for university leaders to understand education policies and how there are formulated so as to be able to effectively interpret same policies in their institutions, and that they can achieve it by operating in the political world and engaging in policy discourse with the framers. If policymakers and other major stakeholders in the field (school level) who act as implementers of those policies "want policies to be effective and improve education, they need to share a common understanding of implementation to be able to work together on the process" (Viennet and Pont, 2017, p.9), because to take a stand against a certain national policy, in terms of whether to reject or fundamentally revise the policy proposals, as well as comply with it effectively and meaningfully, implementers must first know what it is that the policy message or directive is asking them to do. Brynard (2010) also acknowledged the importance of

understanding of a policy message or directives when he revealed the requirements as involving cognitive skills, processes of interpretation, and the role of the implementing agents.

Coffield et al. (2007) while exploring how policy impacts upon practice in higher education, describes how policies fail to impact because of how educational institution managers and tutors who act as mediators translate or sometimes mistranslate policies into action in their local context. Sharing similar sentiments, Comstock et al. (2022) revealed that teacher changes in practice depend in part on teachers' understandings and interpretations of instructional standards, which are shaped by their prior beliefs and experiences. Hunt, Wright, and Gordon (2008) also conclude in their research on PD in a US University, that the most predictive factor of the success of faculty development is the depth of understanding that both the leaders and faculty members as stakeholders have about the policy and programmes. Hence, they suggested that these stakeholders should first try to understand and appreciate the content and value of PD policy and programmes, before contemplating its interpretation. Studies in South Africa (e.g., Volbrecht, 2003; Mankayi and Cheteni, 2019) also indicate that misconception of the PD policies in higher education results in the reduction of its impacts. Volbrecht specifically notes that "the shallow understanding of the policy and inconsistencies in its practice has obviously affected PD" (p.15). Adu and Okeke (2014) show from a questionnaire-based survey that lecturers in University College in Botswana are more likely to take part in CPD if they understand its contents to be relevant and realistic. Chabaya (2015) equally reveals in a study on academic PD in Zimbabwe universities, that a major factor that constitutes and promotes effective implementation of PD is the teachers and university leaders' knowledge and appreciation of its policies and programmes. Insisting that most of the education policies fail not because of the policy contents, but due to the implementer's limited understanding of some policy decisions or

prescriptions. A similar research study by Mugwagwa, Edwards, and de Haan (2015) which assess the implementation and influence of health sector policies that support research and innovation in three countries of Mozambique, Senegal, and Tanzania, reveals among the key reasons responsible for the failure of those policies to include incoherence in the policies, and lack of understanding of the policies by those who are to implement them.

Some researchers (e.g., Yoon et al., 2007; Borko et al., 2010; Sims and Fletcher-Wood, 2021; Patfield et al., 2021; Gore et al., 2021) have, however, criticised the claim that policy understanding influences its practice, stating that it is problematic owing to weak evidence, as those authors relied more on conjectures and theoretical literature than empirical evidence to underpin their claims. From the review so far, it is obvious that despite some of the divergent views, there is a common dominant thread across the different contexts considered, which indicates that the understanding of a policy has implications for practice. As will be seen, while there are gaps of all sorts in some portions of the PD literature, the application gap (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2011) is most significant, because the contentious stance on the influence of implementers' understanding of PD policy on practice, as has been revealed in this review, raises the need for further research to produce new empirical information that will complement existing literature on the subject.

3.3 Exploring the implementation of academics' PD policy in HE

The success of a policy is measured by how well it is implemented.
Even the finest policy will be of little value unless it is successfully or
properly implemented (Khan, 2016, p.3).

The above quotes simply implies that the indicator of a successful policy is effective implementation. This is owing to the belief that notwithstanding how well-intentioned a policy

is, it amounts to nothing if it cannot be effectively translated into action (Ugwuanyi and Chukwuemeka, 2013; Tezera, 2019). But before taking a dive into policy implementation, it is important to first look at policy-making.

The development of education policy in several developed and developing nations including Nigeria, typically follows a multi-stage cyclical process involving agenda setting, formulation, adoption, implementation, and evaluation (Jega, 2003; Mwije, 2013 Tamas, 2017). These different stages are explained using the Nigerian context. In the Nigerian education sector, the National Council on Education (NCE), a body made-up of the federal ministers of education, all states commissioners for education, and the heads of the relevant supervising agencies such as the NUC, NCCE, NBTE, and UBEC, is responsible for the development of the national education policy, for example the National Policy on Education (2013), while the relevant supervising agencies like the NCCE is empowered to also make some subsector specific national policies such as the PD policy for staff of CoE (Akinwumi and Adepoju, 2009).

The making and implementation of the PD policy for staff of CoE, for example, start with the NCCE setting of the *policy agenda* which involves a preliminary diagnostic analysis of the CoE system and staff needs assessment to identify the contemporary issues within the education subsector that needs to be addressed for improvement in the quality of education (FRN, 2013; Oyedeki, 2015). The policy agenda is then translated into appropriate recommendations in the form of draft policy proposals. It is at this stage that they craft the objectives, identify various policy alternatives, the tools needed to execute the policy, and the budget estimates or costs involved – *policy formulation* (Yaro et al, 2016; Iyanda and Bello, 2016). The policy recommendations or draft proposals are then legitimised through an *adoption* and approval by the NCCE, and it becomes policy. However, in some cases, the policy proposal will require the

ratification of the national assembly (a body originally empowered by the constitution to legislate and make laws and policies for the good of Nigeria) through the act of legislation, and the assent of the president of the country to become an implementable policy. In which case, the policy proposal will then be transmitted through the federal ministry of education to the national assembly.

After the policy formulation, the *implementation* is what follows next. This is the stage in the policy process that deals with how the policy is being actioned at the level of the institution; and it is at this stage that the various institutions key stakeholders, for example, academic leaders, usually become part of the process, as they are the ones responsible for implementing the policy in their specific settings. The next stage of the process involves the *evaluation* of the effectiveness of the policy at implementation by the NCCE. This is done through routine visits to the various HEIs to ascertain if the policy is making the desired impacts or not, and recommendations are made as to whether the policy should be retained or that it requires further improvements (reviews and amendments) or should be changed completely.

Education policy implementation according to Viennet and Pont (2017), is a “purposeful and multidirectional change process aiming to put a specific policy into practice, and which affects an education system on several levels” (p.3). It is also perceived by Ball, Maguire, and Braun (2012) as “the process of interpreting and translating of policy texts into action, and the abstractions of policy ideas into contextualised practices” (p.3). The process of ensuring successful higher education policy implementation according to Hudson, Hunter, and Peckham (2019) include four sequential steps of preparation, tracking, support, and review of the implementation action. However, the implementation of education policy is considered as a complex, contested, and evolving process that involves many stages and stakeholders in the

movement of a policy, from the government agencies saddled with education policy formulation to the actual settings (i.e., schools and classrooms) where they are being enacted, and can result in failure if not well targeted, because throughout this process, the policy is given varying interpretations by the different institutions and actors along these stages (Ball et al., 2012; Hill and Hupe, 2022). In fact, Fixsen et al. (2005) argued that “there is broad agreement that implementation is a decidedly complex endeavour, more complex than the policies, programs, procedures, techniques, or technologies that are the subject of the implementation efforts” (p. 2). Expressing similar views, Taylor (1997) explained that a specific education policy could originate or be sent out from a central source to all school organisations; however, the interpretation and translation given to it by those responsible for the implementation might differ from one school context to another. Indeed, several literature accounts seem to indicate that the implementation of PD policy in HE is a major challenge to the success of the policy. For instance, scholars (e.g., Crawford, 2009; Kilfoil, 2012; Inamorato dos Santos et al. 2019) investigate academic PD practice in higher education and their findings revealed that PD policy for academics like many other higher education policies have good intentions that are well-articulated, especially that it provides the opportunity for academics to expand their knowledge and skills in addressing the internal and external pressures that they face in their job. However, they equally found the implementation of the policy at the local school level to be a challenging issue, which was said to be influenced majorly by the interpretation of the various institutions’ managers, and the peculiar conditions of those institutions where the policy is being implemented. Studies in Zimbabwe (e.g., Abeli, 2010; Chabaya, 2015a, Chabaya 2020b), and Uganda (e.g., Nakimuli and Turyahebwa, 2015; Kasule, Wesselink, and Mulder, 2016; Nabunya, Mukwenda, and Kyaligonza, 2019), and South Africa (e.g., Volbrecht, 2003; Quinn, 2012;

Letsekha, 2013) which also investigated PD policy and practices in higher education, revealed from their findings very little criticism for the PD policy content, but in terms of the implementation at the various institutions, there was a general indication that it is problematic.

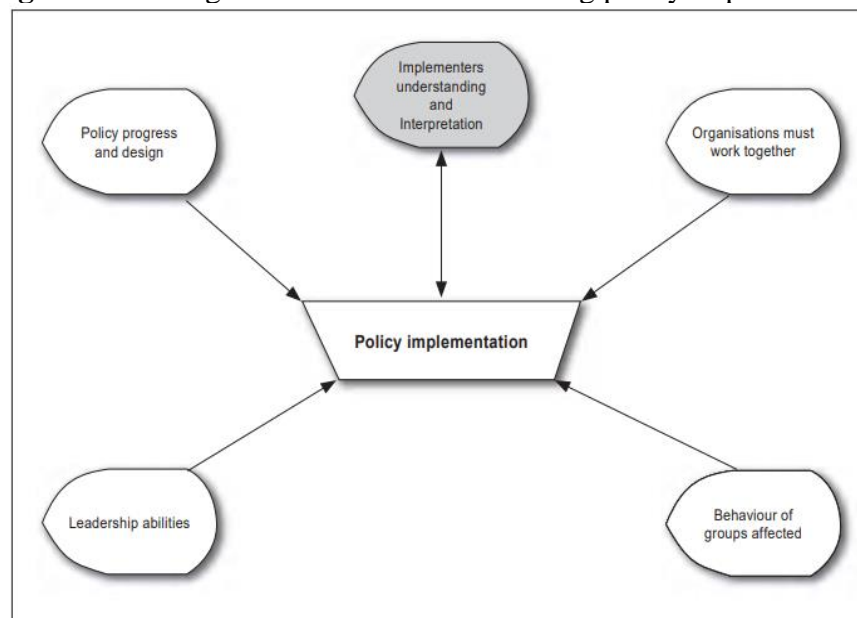
The situation is not any different in Nigeria, because in spite of the brilliant PD policy initiatives and efforts of the national government (see examples in chapter 2) aimed at the progressive development of academics, who in turn will lead positive reforms in the higher education sector, there seem not to be any significant success in terms of achieving the policy initiatives, because the implementation leaves much still to be desired (Adetunji, 2015; Odukoya, Bowale and Okunlola, 2018; Ogunode, Ajape and Jegede, 2020). Ayoola (2017), for example, revealed in her study that the major problem with teachers' development is in policy implementation: "having explored the concept and prevailing position of CPD in Nigeria, I have come to the understanding that there are express provisions for CPD for teachers in both the NPE and PSNT, but a wide gap exists between the formulated policy and its implementation" (p.39). Concurring, Makoji (2016) in an investigation of human resource development policy for academic staff in Nigerian polytechnics, equally signalled that the policy has not been well implemented in the actual sense of the document provisions, when he noted that "even though there has been series of academic staff development policies and interventions under the current democratic dispensation in Nigeria, however, their effective implementation for the benefit of academic staff is still fraught with a plethora of challenges" (p.3). Another study by Amaechi and Obiweluzor (2020), on human capital development in colleges of education in the North Central zone of Nigeria revealed a poor state of affairs in staff development which has accounted for the many industrial strike actions embarked upon by staff over the years. They emphasised that although staff development policies exist in these colleges, but the extent to which the

provisions of those policies are complied with is largely unknown. Similar sentiments were expressed by Adebisi (2014) who posited that most Nigerian HEIs do not implement the content of the NPE as prescribed: “Surprisingly, there has not been a serious and rigid adherence to the implementation of the recommendations in the NPE” (p.2219). It even appears that academics within this study context seem to have doubts about PD existing in practice in HEIs. This was revealed in the report by Oluniyi (2013) where it was stated that from the perspective of higher education academics, PD is seen more as fiction rather than reality, something which exists more in theory than practice.

Scholars believe that there are internal and external influencers to the PD policy implementation success or failure in higher education, and some of these have been explored in the literature (e.g., Mohammed, 2001; Spillane et al., 2002; Hill, 2003; Brynard, 2010; Chase, 2016; Viennet and Pont, 2017; Hudson et al., 2019; Comstock et al., 2022). Spillane and colleagues (2002) for instance, identified among other issues, two major variables that influence policy implementation: understanding and experience. Policy implementation in their view depends to a great extent on the repertoire of existing knowledge and experience of the implementer. Their understanding of the policy is key because the possibility exists that implementers can interpret a policy message different from what was intended by the policy-makers. Policy implementers can fail, not because they are unwilling to implement, but perhaps their ability to implement is hampered by the extent of their understanding that do not align with the policymaker’s intentions. It is observed that even when education reforms do have an impact(s), stakeholders are easily dissatisfied with the outcomes and they tend to hold policymakers accountable for them (Gallup, 2017), probably because there is little knowledge about the actual processes that produce or are supposed to produce the expected outcomes. So,

the role of human sense-making can easily contribute to unintentional failures in implementation. Also, an implementer's prior knowledge and learning experience brings value to their understanding of new ideas, as individuals assimilate new experiences and information through their existing knowledge structures and could even augment traditional theories of implementation (Spillane et al., 2002). According to Hill (2003), there are four main categories of variables that influence policy implementation: policy design and the process, institutions and their milieu, implementers, and agents whose preferences and leadership abilities may further shape policy outcomes, and conditions (e.g., behaviour of groups affected by the policy, economic conditions, and public opinion) within the policy environment. Hill equally emphasise on the implementer's understanding of a policy (often gained through learning and practice experience) being fundamental to implementation and thus suggested its addition to the other four main categories of variables. The figure below shows a simplistic summary of the categories of variables that influence policy implementation.

Figure 3.1: Categories of variables influencing policy implementation.



Source: Adopted from Hill (2003:267)

Exploring how practitioners make sense of education policy transfer, Chase (2016) identified five key factors that influence practitioner policy interpretation to include the identity and history of the institution, the perception of a policy's target population, new national narratives, a fear of a loss of power, and finally a concern for equity. Similarly, Hudson et al. (2019) looking at the issues around policy implementation, also discovered the some of the factors behind policy implementation gap and failure to include overly optimistic expectations, implementation in dispersed governance, inadequate collaborative policymaking, and the vagaries of the political cycle. Viennet and Pont (2017) equally revealed the elements with positive and negative influences on policy implementation to include: smart policy design, inclusive stakeholder engagement, conducive context, a coherent implementation strategy, contextual determinants (e.g., institutional settings, existing policies and the events originated outside of, but connected to, the implementing system), and institutional structure (this involves structures beyond the local school system to include those at the national/federal, state, or regional levels, and the control they have over the policy implementation process), lack of focus on the implementation processes when defining policies at the system level; a lack of recognition that the core of change processes requires engaging people; and the fact that implementation processes need to be revised to adapt to new complex governance systems.

Another interesting dimension of this review is that contrary to some of the above reports of PD policy implementation failure within the study context, some research (e.g., Ugwuanyi and Chukwuemeka, 2013; TETfund, 2016; Adegoroye et al. 2018) revealed that the majority of HE policies (including academic staff PD policy) have been sufficiently and satisfactorily implemented at the school levels in Nigeria. Also, studies from Australia (e.g. Southwell and Morgan, 2009; Grant, Dollery and van der Westhuizen, 2012; Gore et al., 2017) have indicated

that there has been a significant level of success in the practice of PD for staff in higher education, because some of the institutions, like The University of Western Australia, adopt a comprehensive approach to staff development in addressing the widening role and ever-changing demands on the academic, even though some academic staff were found to show low interest and enthusiasm towards PD that primarily supports the teaching component against other aspects like research. Again, as will be seen, from the many narratives that the literature on the implementation of education and specifically PD policy has thrown up, different limitations seem to exist in the policy implementation, but again, the most prominent is the application gap (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2011). This gap calls for further investigation of the subject to provide for alternative perspective about the phenomenon under review. A fundamental factor to consider when examining the performance of a specific policy, in this case, PD policy in higher education, is the participation in the activities/initiatives provided in the policy by those it is designed to serve. Hence, in the section that follows right after, I examine the literature on the participation of higher education academic staff in PD.

3.4 Academic staff participation in PD

Providing effective teaching professional development for faculty is second in the order of importance to motivating faculty to participate in it – you can build it, and build it well, but they will not necessarily come (Bouwma-Gearhart, 2012, p.559).

This review continues with the exploring of higher education academics' participation in PD, and what influences their participation. I use 'participation in PD' in this research to refer to both attending and engaging in PD with the aim to improve upon teaching and research competencies and outcomes. This definition is deemed necessary so as to ease understanding of

this section given that it is the main subject here. Research literature (e.g., Barth and Rieckmann, 2012; Guskey, 2014; King, 2014) seems to suggest that the need for academic PD has grown substantially over the years, linking it to the claim that PD has positive implications for staff, students, and institutional reforms. Research also emphasises that to achieve these changes, it requires academics to be willing to participate regularly in PD and be supported by their institutions (Connolly et al., 2016; Derting et al., 2016; Owens et al., 2018; Pelletreau et al., 2018; Limeri et al., 2020). However, contrary to the expectation that academics should appreciate participating actively in PD because of its perceived positive benefits, the literature reveals that most academics are less enthusiastic and rarely engage in PD; adding that besides specific development activities like induction and orientation that are always mandatory for academic staff, especially early career academics/novice, they do not voluntarily participate in PD (Bouwma-Gearhart, 2012; Goodwin et al., 2018; Lane et al., 2019; Inamorato dos Sanctus, 2019), because it is within their rights to choose whether to engage in PD or not. For example, Bouwma-Gearhart (2012) in a study indicated that only a small proportion of STEM faculty at a research university regularly attend TPD and suggested that there are barriers that need to be overcome for broader systemic TPD participation. Similarly, a study by Goodwin et al. (2018) which interviewed 32 biology graduate students who were also teaching assistants, found that only 59% sought out opportunities to learn and practice evidence-based teaching practices. Also, another study which explore the sources of teaching self-efficacy among academics in three science departments at a particular research-intensive university found that most academics rarely accessed information sources to learn about new teaching practices (Lund and Stains, 2015).

Many researchers (Brownell and Tanner, 2012; Lowenthal et al., 2013; Sabagh and Saroyan, 2014; McCourt et al., 2017; Bathgate et al., 2019) who have studied the determinants of academic staff participation in PD revealed a number of reasons why academics may not take advantage of available PD opportunities to upskill and improve on their competencies. Prominent among them is the motivation of academics, which is considered to be strongly related to behaviour, and interventions that can increase the desire and willingness to attend or engage in effective PD (Bouwma-Gearhart, 2012; Leibowitz, 2016; McCourt et al., 2017). It has been revealed by psychologists that human (i.e., individual academic) behaviour towards participation in any activity including PD, is either intrinsically or extrinsically motivated (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Applying this to PD practice, Leibowitz (2016) in her research on professional academic development and learning to teach, revealed that the motivating factors for academics' participation were basically linked to either intrinsic or extrinsic forms of motivation. Some of the catalysing conditions (Ryan and Deci, 2000) of intrinsic motivation revealed by Leibowitz (2016) included inherent rewards like a feeling of a sense of value and fulfilment in teaching (that is, the joy that comes with knowing that you will positively impact people's lives with your acquired knowledge and the respect earned from them), enjoying teaching and learning, social relatedness, availability of opportunities to teach. For the extrinsic forms of motivation their trigger factors are mostly material or status incentives namely recognition and status (especially when there are more policies advocating for recognition of good teaching), availability of financial compensation (e.g., incremental salary and bonuses) for staff who regularly undertake PD, compulsion with regard to attendance of short courses and satisfying the request of a leader or the employer, workload, poor work conditions (e.g., infrastructural and material support), and available social and learning support in departments and faculties which could include encouragements and moral support from

same-level or more senior colleagues including heads of departments and deans, boosted academics' enthusiasm to engage in professional development. This collegial approach to teaching and learning has been described as learning through social networks (Roxå and Mårtensson, 2015).

It is noteworthy that among these factors, while some positively motivate academics, others negatively affect their motivation. Academics' belief system is also a very critical motivating factor to their participation in PD (Adu and Okeke, 2014; Robert and Carlsen, 2017; McCourt et al., 2017; Gibbons et al., 2018). It is argued that their intuition of PD is such that makes them believe that participating in PD is worth the time and effort. Probably based on their judgment of the quality of PD being offered in terms of its potential to add something new that will improve upon their professional life (e.g., teaching skills). This could be in terms of how it helps them to frame the perceived causes of problems encountered during teaching or addressing personal anxieties in relation to teaching; then they may choose to attend despite any barriers.

Caffarella and Zinn cited in Limeri et al. (2020, p.2), categorized the factors that enhance or impede the PD of faculty members into four main domains: people and interpersonal relationships, institutional structures, personal considerations and commitments, and intellectual and psychosocial relationships. They point out that the four domains work in concert, meaning that internal motivations can be subverted by influencers like department chairs who do not support PD, reward structures that do not support PD, or personal issues that erode time to commit to PD. The motivation of academic staff at most higher education institutions, to participate in PD may also be related to other work demands and responsibilities that they have (Goodwin et al., 2018; Lane et al., 2019), however, many successful PD programmes overcome barriers to participation by using external incentives, such as heads of departments personally asking

academics to participate, acquiring funds to financially incentivize participation, or collaborating in a publication (Owens et al., 2018; Pelletreau et al., 2018).

Limeri et al. (2020) in their study proposed two psychosocial principles that should be employed to promote teachers' intrinsic motivation to participate in PD: (a) interventions should be persuasive and not controlling, and (b) intervention should promote self-reinforcement. Regarding the first principle, studies have shown that, academics are selective and may sometimes be hesitant to attend PD activities because of the perceived threat to their professional identities, feelings that those interventions are controlling or prescriptive and not persuasive. This means that participants should not be aware that the explicit purpose of the intervention is to get them to engage in PD, or they may feel they are being manipulated (Bouwma-Gearhart, 2012). The second principle revealed that self-reinforcing processes are related to academic staffs' interest in participating in PD. An interview study by Bouwma-Gearhart (2012), revealed that STEM faculty members at a research institution initially did not indicate interest in PD, but as they participated in PD programs, they became more interested in continuing to participate in PD, because they realized positive outcomes and experienced PD as a safe space to improve without feeling judged. This suggests that a positive experience with PD sparks interest and enhances motivation for continued future participation in PD. Another influencing factor identified in the literature was the recognition and inclusion of the higher education sector critical stakeholders in the policymaking and enactment process.

While reviewing education policy implementation effectiveness in higher education, Viennet and Pont (2017) emphasise on the need for inclusive stakeholder engagement as critical to ironing out areas where there maybe conflict of interest and ideas, as competing interests could affect a policy's implementation process and academics' buy-in by creating ongoing conflicts

between stakeholders. Stating further that whether and how key stakeholders are recognised and included, for example, engaging teacher unions in discussions early on in the policy process will have long-term benefits, as it will motivate and encourage their participation in PD activities as well as promote effectiveness in the policy implementation. Crawford (2009) in her research also maintains that the absence of the voices of academics in the PD programme for which there are the direct beneficiaries affects their participation and the programme success at the level of the institution. Similarly, other researchers (e.g., Healey, 2012; Gani, 2013; Aslam, 2013; Chabaya, 2015a; Akpovire, 2015; Darling-Hammond et al, 2017) suggested that academic staff involvement in the PD planning and implementation process is one thing that can make it receive an enthusiastic embrace and support from academics. It was argued that staff involvement develops a high sense of performance as it creates for the recognition of individual academic's differences regarding development needs and aspirations, which helps in directing the purpose of the programme, content, methods, and application tools, during the design. Norway's Assessment for Learning reform, for example, indicates that the dialogue between the ministry and stakeholders was facilitated because a large majority of the actors sitting at the table shared common views and experience of education (Hopfenbeck, Flórez-Petour and Tolo, 2015). Staff involvement is so important as many lecturers' experiences of PD are those of a learning activity that is highly fragmented and not responsive to their needs, and this negatively impacts not just their motivation to participate but the identity formation of the academic as a teacher (Sipuka and Motala, 2023).

Academics seem to be compelled to engage in PD especially in universities that prioritises promotions, performance, and publications over teaching (Clarke, Hyde, and Drennan, 2012); so, with such increasing pressures and competing priorities, academics are more likely to engage in activities on which they are appraised and for which they are rewarded (Sipuka and Motala, 2023).

In a study that explored academics' motivation for PD in a Nigerian polytechnic, Gani (2013) revealed that the well-intended PD programmes of the institution never had many of the staff participating in them, as they were not motivated to take up those opportunities due to the stringent conditions guiding their participation, which were put in place solely by the policymakers and institution's management team without the involvement of the staff who were the supposed major beneficiaries. They believe that, perhaps, if they were involved in the policy process, those conditions would have been given proper and fair consideration at the formulation stage of the policy.

3.5 Impacts of PD activities on academic staff

This section reveals perspectives about the changes that participation in PD activities offers academic staff and by extension, their students and institution, since some impacts can lead to the others (REF, 2014). The term 'impact' has very broad meaning that transcends conventional changes, both positive and negative; hence, it is important to clarify its operationalisation. So, in this study, I adopt the description of the term as offered by HEFCE (2010) and UKRI (2022), 'as a demonstrable contribution ... something with a change, an effect, or benefit ...' and its different dimensions – instrumental, conceptual, and capacity-building. While *instrumental impact* is the influence on policy development, practices, plans, actions, decisions, and behaviours; *conceptual impact* is the alterations in knowledge or understanding of policy issues, attitudes, emotions, and the reframing of debates. *Capacity-building or social capital impact* is the advancements in skills development (both technical and personal) and expertise. Based on these definitions, my focus, therefore, is on evidencing the instrumental and social capital impacts of engaging in PD activities.

Academics are constantly being faced with both the challenging demands of their profession (that is, teaching, research, administrative roles, increased competitive campus climates, and adapting to emerging technologies) and having to live their personal life (Vajoczki et al, 2011), which seem to instigate discourses about their continuous development. It is believed that the huge investments by governments, educational institutions, and other organisations in various PD initiatives and interventions, is ultimately because PD is seen as an element that can engender educational reforms through the enhancement of teacher knowledge and practice, and improved student outcomes (Patfield et al., 2021; OECD, 2019).

According to Kennedy (2014), the focus of CPD is to impact on learning, as the expectation for participants is to develop “technical, role-focused knowledge and skills” (p.695). Similarly, Lofthouse (2018) also found from her study that majority of the participants firmly agreed that the CPD sessions that they participated in had “enhanced their knowledge and understanding of the topics” (p.6). Furthermore, other research evidence on the impacts of higher education academic staff PD, emerged with the consensus which suggest that when an academic staff engages in PD, it can significantly boost their self-confidence and a firmer belief in themselves which in turn promotes efficiency in teaching (Wall, 2013; Postareff and Nevgi, 2015; Kneale et al., 2016), promote good practices in teaching that motivate students wanting to learn (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017), and improve on their pedagogical knowledge and classroom management skills, attitudes and behaviour, research skills, career progression, and academic staff personal talents and resourcefulness (e.g. Brazer and Bauer, 2013; Stes et al., 2013; Guskey, 2014; King, 2014; Chalmer and Gardiner, 2015; Keichner, 2010; Leigh, 2017; Inamorato dos Santos et al., 2019). Emphasising the significance of PD, the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) guidelines for staff career development, states that in order

to acquire the needed academic competitiveness, every higher learning institution is required to put in place capacity building and development plans supported by training policies and programs on pedagogical skills and teaching methodology (TCU, 2014). Also, Crawford (2008) notes that qualified staff (academic and management) are a key ingredient for effective running of HEIs, and prioritising their continuous training and development ensures that they are prepared to cope with the changes that the evolving new models of teaching and learning in the educational process have produced, and the increasing expectations to be competent, in terms of integrating content, pedagogy and new technologies. Similarly, it is believed that CPD can promote engagement with development opportunities and higher career aspirations, hence, organizing training and development activities for academic staff is one of the best ways to significantly improve their competencies and enhance performance and productivity (Usman, 2014; Amaechi and Obiweluzor, 2020).

Beyond sharpening the academic staff's teaching skills, PD influences students' academic success and achievements (which could manifest in the form of excellent academic grades, critical thinking, and problem-solving), because it increases academics' ability to understand their students' level of comprehension and deciding on the teaching approach that can effectively carry along the various groups of students during teaching and learning (Prebble et al., 2004; Wall, 2013; ; Luft and Hewson, 2014; Ravhuhali, Kutame, and Mutshaeni, 2015; Jacob et al., 2015; Kneale et al., 2016). Conversely, Inamorato dos Santos et al. (2019) contend that it is also extremely unlikely that a student's academic success and achievements may not be directly influenced by the PD of academic staff, because there is a possibility that such achievements could be as a result of the student's personal efforts in learning, and the manner in which he/she grasps and processes information at his/her disposal. Sharing similar views, Yoon

et al. (2007), Whitworth and Chiu (2015), and Cordingley et al. (2015), equally argue that there is no sufficient concrete evidence which confirms that PD for academics enhances students' academic achievements. After all, assessing the value of PD is complex, because PD lacks a specific comprehensive evaluation framework and cannot be seen as a mere linear process: "there is not necessarily a causal relationship between PD and changes in teaching and learning" (Inamorata dos Santos et al., 2019, p.19).

It is believed that tracking the impact of PD in higher education seem to be a difficult task because it depends on certain factors which includes that learning and developing is something that is usually long-term, PD takes varying forms, the approach to PD practice adopted by implementers also differs, class size and classroom organisation (King, 2014). Even when specific standards adopted in evaluating PD impacts may provide some feedback, they contribute very little to understanding the impact of PD on academics' career and teaching skills, or on student learning outcomes (Kneale et al., 2016), because there may not have proven to have the sufficient capacity to conduct a realistic impact assessment of PD. For example, the measurable standards method of evaluation adopted by both OFSTED and the internal evaluators, was criticise by Davies and Preston (2002) for lacking the sufficient capacity to realistically assess the impact of PD on teachers' professional practice, because it anchored only on the 'achievements of students' as its basis of assessment. Expanding this argument on the complexity of the impact, researchers (e.g., Jacob, Hill, and Corey, 2017; Lindvall, 2017) insist that academic staff engagement in PD does not only yield positive benefits, but also impacts negatively on their professional and personal lives.

Research studies that have explored the impact of PD in the Nigeria higher education, have also concluded that PD has an all-round positive impact, as it enhances the productive level

of the academic staff in terms of effective lessons delivery and classroom management, research, and community service; as well as the ability to address any contemporary challenges associated with the performance of their job (Gambo, 2015; Musa, 2017; Ukaegbu and Ekpeyong, 2017; Duru-Uremadu, 2017; Ohia, 2018; Abdullahi, Gwadabe and Ibrahim, 2018), develop and improve their capacity to be able to confidently interact and communicate with their students and colleagues, and versatility within their professional area (Ofojebe and Chukwuma, 2015; Falola, Abasilim and Salau, 2016), significantly contributed to increasing the quality of research and innovations in tertiary institutions, better work ethics, helps academics in gaining promotion on the job, as well as special appointments into some internal and external positions of responsibilities, and better pay package (Adeniji, Falola and Salau, 2014; Ozurumba and Amasuomo, 2015), ensures student's learning success, increase in personal value, helps the staff to easily adapt to and flow with the dynamism in their profession, and psychological fulfilment (Alabi, 2005).

Interestingly, some scholars also held contrary views, as they revealed that the impact of PD on academic staff is not absolutely linear, because not all the development activities that academic staff participate in, have positive influence (Husseina, 2015), or has contributed to their effectiveness and efficiency in the performance of their job role (because, its provisions sometimes do not actually accommodate their needs and aspirations) but the personal efforts they invest in doing the job (Bingilar and Etale, 2014; Ayoola, 2017).

3.6 Summary and expectations

This literature review was guided by the research objectives, and it has shown some of the existing PD practices and influences in different contexts. The review has equally thrown up some overarching issues with practice implications, that requires further research attention. This

begins with concerns about how academics make sense of PD policy, which is something that seems to be characterised by multiple and diverse interpretations between the different research scholars.

Added to this is the indication that education policy implementation across all forms of higher education is problematic, because while some scholars have wondered if the formulated policies take effect “in the world of action” (O’Toole, 2000, p.4), others argue that “in education, there is often a vast distance between policy and practice” (Hess, 2013, p.5), as most education policies seem to be developed with little consideration for the practical mechanisms necessary to their implementation, and implementation modalities most times are left for the implementers to work out, thus, effectively leaving the process half-way through (Viennet and Pont, 2017).

Furthermore, the review revealed that contrary to the assumptions that many academic staff will be very enthusiastic and willing to grab any available opportunity to engage in PD following its considered benefits to the academic staff, many never seemed interested due to some school level and external influential factors. Additionally, the literature reveals debates about the impact of engaging in PD being a complex thing for a linear evaluation and noting that while some research scholars associate academics’ PD with a positive impact, others hold contrary views that it also comes with negative influences.

Other observations from the literature, particularly those within this study’s context, which have also instigated this research included, empirical evidence-based limitation, and contextualisation. The review shows that some of the claims either lack or have very limited concrete empirical evidence, as there were more opinionated, less critical, and theory based. The evaluative nature of most PD studies is what makes its understanding problematic (Webster-Wright, 2009), and the lack of solid research evidence can have implications for its practice in

higher education (Kennedy, 2014). Furthermore, evidence in the literature points to the different contexts where PD is practiced, for instance, university, polytechnic, and CoE, having their own peculiar features, implying that a generic judgment cannot be made with the outcome of a research conducted within any of these specific contexts as representing other contexts, because it would be like imposing interventions that have worked ‘somewhere’ else for ‘someone’ else without considering their uniqueness (Bryk, 2015). For example, like adopting the outcome of a study on universities for colleges of education. So, I think that rather than drawing a conclusion on PD practice in CoE based on studies about universities, it is pertinent to directly investigate the practices in CoE; especially as Singh, Thomas, and Harris (2013) drawing on Bernstein’s work on recontextualization, submit that contextualising policy discourse or study, brings a better understanding to the interpretation and translation.

As has been noted earlier in some sections of this chapter, while it is obvious that different types of gaps exist in previous PD literature, in my view, the application gap (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2011) is most significant, and thus underscores the need for this present research, where I intend to empirically gain insights into the practice of PD in CoE using the case study colleges, as would be seen in the later chapters of this thesis.

Chapter 4

Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methods including pilot study, data collection methods, strategies for collecting the research data, how the data will be processed and analysed, and details of ethical considerations. In a study of this nature, I need to examine my philosophical assumptions that have underpinned and influenced this research study. Within this, my axiological, ontological, and epistemological stance and their impacts on the methodology are made clear. This further supports and buttresses the discussion on my positioning in this research as earlier presented in chapter 1.4.

4.2 Philosophical orientation

Every research is undoubtedly underpinned by a given tradition of thinking and knowledge making (Pring, 2015), and “to be located in a particular paradigm is to view the world in a particular way” Burrell and Morgan (1979, p.24). Hence, in this research, a consideration of my philosophical orientation is significant, as it has the potential to inevitably impact the framing of this research, in terms of the choice of design, methods, procedures, and enhancing the quality of the research findings (Jackson, 2013). Several research paradigms exist; however, research within the social and behavioural sciences mostly follow two main paradigms: positivist and interpretivist-constructivist (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010; Corbetta 2003; Howell, 2013), and hence, the focus is on them. These research traditions are differentiated by the distinct beliefs they hold in terms of ontology, epistemology, axiology, and methodology. I discuss these in relation to this research beginning with the axiological assumption.

Axiology explores how researchers deal with their own values and those of the study participants (Saunders et al., 2009). Personal values in research within interpretivist framework play a great role as it is what determines what the researcher studies and guides the process (Heron, 1996). In this study, I recognise that the process is inherently value-laden because it has been informed by my experience, constructions, and beliefs, and those of the individual academic staff participants. As a lecturer within the same context for almost 10 years, it is rational to conclude that some of my experiences and value judgements may have prompted and shaped the conduct of this research, and my interpretation of the data, thus resulting in some form of bias. Inevitably too, every element of this research project has involved my interpretation which is influenced by values and experience. For these reasons, I placed importance and maintained a commitment to being transparent, to maximise research objectivity, by ensuring clarity in relation to values and bias assumptions and being open to conflicting evidence, alternative views, and critique from this research participants and colleagues. It is in doing this, that I made clear in chapter 1.4 of this thesis, my “positionality” (Cousin 2009, p.32). My axiological stance was further demonstrated by the decision I made from the onset regarding the choice of the current research topic including the intention to explore and establish in-depth understanding of the topic as made known through this research aims in chapter 1.2.

Ontology relates to a researcher’s view on the nature of reality of what is to be studied and what needs to be known or whether reality can exist prior to being discovered (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 2005). The positivist researcher’s orientation is rooted in natural sciences and objective reality with a dominant belief that objective truth is a single concrete given and it is by scientific activities that it can be revealed. Reality is viewed as something “external to, imposing itself on, and even determining individual behaviour” (Cunliffe, 2011, p. 649), with empirical

observation seen as generating knowledge in the form of measurable regularities, laws, and patterns. In contrast, the interpretive researcher is associated with subjectivist–relativist assumptions, argues that there is no single shared reality, but that knowledge is socially and experientially constructed and relies on the human mind and interpretation (Merriam, 1998; Ormston, et al., 2014). Constructivists believe that subjectivity is an essential aspect of understanding, and understanding a phenomenon demands looking at multiple contexts and methods for data collection and analysis under each of the methodologies (Stake, 2005). This relativist ontological assumption is relevant to my research in the sense that I drew mainly on the multiple subjective experiential narratives of individual academics about professional development practices in their specific contexts to construct a holistic understanding of the PD practice.

Epistemology is the study of what knowledge is, how it can be known, and the nature and forms of true knowledge. Maynard cited in Crotty (1998, p.8) explains that epistemology is concerned with providing a philosophical grounding for what kinds of knowledge are possible and how we can ensure that they are both adequate and legitimate. From the constructivist perspective, the reality of how knowledge is created is oriented by the assumption of relativist epistemology. The belief that “reality is not an objective entity; rather, there are multiple interpretations of reality” (Merriam, 1998, p.22), which are “created from the perceptions and consequent actions of social actors” (Saunders et al., 2009, p.111). Merriam (1998) further maintained that epistemologically, “the key philosophical assumption upon which all types of qualitative research are based is the view that reality is constructed by individuals interacting with their social worlds” (p. 6). That is, knowledge is personal, resides within people’s minds,

and “can only be understood from the point of view of the individual who is directly involved in the activities which are to be studied” (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p.5).

These constructivist epistemic assumptions situate well within this research, because in seeking understanding of academics’ PD practice, I immersed myself in the actual research setting (colleges) and interacted closely with the participants through semi-structured interviews, critical reading of necessary policy documents, and observations over a prolonged period of four months and two weeks to generate information about their individualistic perception of the existing PD practices. This interaction with the participants in their real world, allowed me to capture more of the dynamics and complexities around this research phenomenon (academics’ PD). Moreover, following my intention in this study to give deep meaning ‘thick description’ to the data collected through personal interpretation, explanation, and discussion, I collected the information that answered the research questions (or described the study phenomenon) from multiple sources such as interviews, documents analysis, and observation. This is consistent with the epistemological assumption that what constitute valid knowledge should come from or be represented by a wide variety of sources including but not limited to texts, documents, images, interviews, numbers, and interpretations. Stake hold that “knowledge is constructed rather than discovered” (Stake, 1995, p.99), and “there are multiple perspectives or views of the case that need to be represented” (p.108). In his assumption, Stake sees qualitative case study researchers as interpreters, and gatherers of interpretations which require them to report their construction of the constructed reality or knowledge that they gather through their investigation. This is also consistent with this research process where I personally analysed and inductively interpreted the research data to generate this study’s findings. Since research paradigm is all about thinking of the world around us, and the steps taken to understand the world (Cohen, Manion and Morrison,

2018), the methods we use (methodology), in doing so is very important because it shapes what we can see.

Methodology describes the practical nature and general process that research follows (Howell, 2013). The methodological assumption answers the question what is the process of research used to gain knowledge about the research phenomenon? The constructivist methodological treatment identifies with data collection and analysis procedure that involves the use of inductive logic and thematic analysis (of narratives or textual data) in the interpretation of research data, to gain meaning and understandings, because the goal is understanding, with interpretation being the primary way. This process falls within a subjectivist ontology and epistemology (Stake 2005; Pring, 2015; Howell, 2013). Supporting this, Rocco et al. (2003) notes that “the constructivist-interpretivist paradigm employs inductive logic and qualitative research methods” (p.21). The interpretivist methodological beliefs discussed here, have implications for my study, because the methods I employed in collecting data – semi-structured interviews and document analysis, as well as the procedure for analysing and interpreting the collected data – inductive thematic approach, all have a subjective nature and requires inductive reasoning to find answers, thus aligning with the assumptions discussed above.

Following the above highlighted assumptions, in this research study I have established that I commit to the constructivist-interpretivist philosophy, regarding my methodological choices: research strategy, data collection techniques, and analysis procedures, which are explored in subsequent sections. I find this quite relevant to this research, where I seek to explore participants’ understanding of the practice of PD based on their lived experience in the specific case study colleges. This is because as already established, interpretivist tradition appreciates

study context, in-depth narratives, multiple realities, and meanings, with findings that are observer dependent, and the personal engagement of the investigator.

4.3 Research approach

Research methods reflect the paradigmatic position adopted in a study and are the way of collecting and analysing data (Merriam, 1998). Following the constructivist philosophical assumptions that underpin this research study, I considered qualitative method as the most appropriate to address the research purpose and questions. The aim of this study is to gain deep insight into academics' PD rooted in the participants' experience within their specific college setting. Qualitative research is a naturalistic, interpretative activity that considers human behaviours as a product of deliberations, planning, reflexivity and ascribing of particular understandings and values to reality within their social context (Cohen et al., 2018b). Stake mentions four defining characteristics of qualitative research and case studies which are compatible with the constructivist epistemology:

“Holistic,” “empirical,” “interpretive” and “emphatic.” Holistic means that researchers should consider the interrelationship between the phenomenon and its contexts. Empirical means that researchers base the study on their observations in the field. Interpretive means that researchers rest upon their intuition and see research basically as a researcher-subject interaction. Lastly, emphatic means that researchers reflect the vicarious experiences of the subjects in an emic perspective. (Stake, 1995, p.2).

These defining attributes of qualitative research as discussed by Stake are consistent with this research's relativist assumptions and has been espoused here. For example, the assumption that reality is socially constructed, and knowledge, as a construct of the human mind, is subjective, personal (individualistic), and unique – *emphatic* as Stake puts it – is acknowledged in this research study. Because in my investigation I profoundly relied upon the individual

participants' subjective narration of their experiences and the interpretation of actions and inactions relating to academics' PD policy and practice in their respective colleges to construct a holistic understanding of this research subject. As has been established, qualitative research from the constructivist standpoint is a situated activity that locates researchers in the natural settings and their interrelatedness with the phenomenon that is being researched – *holistic* as described by Stake. Hence the method was considered suitable given that it allowed for a substantial sociological inquiry into how I as the human researcher, interacted with the participants (individual academics) and their social environment (PD policy, college structures), to understand and represent their experiences and perceptions (Cruickshank, 2003). For instance, I actually learnt and gathered rich information about academics' PD in the case study colleges by interacting with the participants right in their colleges and examining the topic from their viewpoint rather than from my own standpoint.

The qualitative study's support for extensive data collection and use of specific sources and procedures that require the researcher to generate the findings directly from the participants in the field – *empirical* (Stake, 1995; Kahlke, 2014; Creswell, 2014) aligns with this study's procedures and strategies for data gathering, which is through multiple sources: documents and interview with observations. I obtained this study's findings through a practical or interactive heuristic approach, by examining the relevant policy documents. In doing this, I had to immerse myself in the documents and think deeply to deduce meanings from the 'letters' of those documents that I read – *interpretive*. I equally interviewed academic tutors and leaders who were the participants to gather information that I used to confirm how the policy has been translated into action within the case study colleges. Also, the qualitative research's emphasis on inductive approach to data analysis – *interpretive* (Stake, 1995; Silverman, 2013), which this study

reflects. I analysed the data following a dynamic iterative and recursive movement between the data in order to have in-depth understanding of the data and was able to develop themes and analytical contents that were used to provide a holistic and “thick description” about the actual practice of the PD policy in the case study colleges. Furthermore, the pilot study (see 4.6.3) and theoretical literature (see chapter 3) respectively, proved that the qualitative approach was most appropriate for a study of this nature that aims for an in-depth understanding of the research phenomenon. Specific examples in the literature include Stake (2005) and Merriam (1998), etc. Additionally, the ‘how’ and ‘what’ nature of this study’s research questions (see 1.2) calls for a method that favour depth over breadth, which is a major characteristic of qualitative research. Miles and Huberman (1994) notes, “we [need] to get inside the black box; we can understand not just that a particular thing happened, but how and why it happened” (p. 434).

4.4 Research design

Several research strategies exist in qualitative research (Cousin, 2009), and the selection of a specific design is determined by how well it allows full investigation of a particular research problem or question (Hancock and Algozinne, 2006). In this research, I adopted a case study design, specifically multiple case study. Cohen et al. (2000a, p.182) stated that, “case studies strive to portray ‘what it is like’ to be in a particular situation, to catch the close-up reality and ‘thick description’ of participants’ lived experiences of, thoughts, about and feelings for, a situation”. This design was chosen following its agreement with this study’s underlying interpretivist paradigmatic stance established in section 4.2, and my belief in its suitability in addressing this research purpose which seeks in-depth and holistic understanding of academics’ PD policy and practice based on the participants’ account within their original colleges.

The qualitative case study focuses on depth and particularity rather than breadth (Yin, 2018b), and enables researchers to gain “an intensive, holistic description and analysis of the research problem” (Merriam, 1998, p. xiii) in its natural context. These attributes also align with this study’s constructivist philosophical assumptions of interpretation (hermeneutic) and individuality (idiosyncrasy). This study is idiosyncratic because I probed into the individual academic’s personal experience to be able to know how PD policy is actually been practiced in their unique contexts. This involved the inductive analysis of the data to generate themes or categories relating to academics’ PD, supported with extracts from the interview transcripts of participants to develop findings. Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2006, p.74) mentioned that “case study data is drawn from people’s experience and practices and so it is seen to be strong in reality” and that “because case studies build on actual practices and experiences, they can be linked to action and their insights contribute to changing practice”. The hermeneutic aspect is defined by my search and collection of information from a variety of sources beyond just an individual participant and aggregating them to make a deep and holistic understanding of this study’s phenomenon. I spent a good amount of time (3 months) with the research participants in their respective colleges (i.e., being immerse in their original context) to collect first-hand, rich descriptive data, using semi-structured interviews and analysis of relevant documents. As Baxter and Jack (2008) note, a case study enables the researcher to spend more time in the environment being investigated and gather data from a variety of sources and to converge the data to illuminate understanding about the case. They are complemented by Merriam (1998) who notes that it is advisable to use several sources of data when doing a case study in order to gain a deeper understanding of the case. I equally acknowledge that the amount of data also represents a weakness of this strategy as there are possibilities of bias when handling the data (Weinreich,

2009), but I have committed to being careful and treating all the data fairly to avoid bias (see chapters 1.4 & 4.9.4).

The design has further been criticized for its limited coverage, however, the aim of this research study which is about a deep understanding of the research phenomenon as against the breadth of the study has dealt with that criticism. Yin (2018b) categorised the case study into four designs: single-case holistic, single-case embedded, multiple-case holistic, and multiple-case embedded. Given that this study analysed multiple sample units, it has consequently been defined as a multiple case embedded design, because in an embedded case study, the analysis is either concerned with more than one unit or faceted with different perspectives of inquiry (Scholz and Tietje, 2002). In this research study the case units constitute of the two colleges, academic leaders, and tutors. Each of them is considered as a case in its distinct right even if they share homogeneous features, but I believe that collecting the individual cases together as in multiple case, provides a deep understanding of PD policy and practice in their context. This is discussed in the section next after.

4.5 Study site and participants

Given the qualitative background of this study, I applied the purposive sampling strategy in selecting the cases (sites and participants). According to Patton (2015), a purposive strategy selects a small number of important or information rich cases to “yield the most information and have the greatest impact on the development of knowledge” (p.276). So, my choice of this strategy was because I wanted to be sure that I have selected cases with the capacity to provide richly textured, trustworthy information, relevant to the subject of this research investigation – academic staff PD. Also, because I wanted to as much as possible, reduce the chances of wrong selection of the cases (Silverman, 2013; Moser and Korstjens, 2018), and ensure that the selected

cases reflect the right mix and are representative of the relevant population, thus, promoting inclusivity, consistency, comparability, and reliability of this research data. Supporting this, Merriam (2002, p.179) asserted that “in case study research the selection of the case to be studied is not done randomly but purposefully, in that, that particular person, site, program, process, community, or other bounded system to be studied is selected because the researcher is interested in the characteristics it exhibits”. However, it should be noted that the purposeful strategy has been criticized by researchers (Merriam, 1998; Matschke and Pedersen, 2009) as being prone to possible high risk of research bias, because the selection of the case units depends on the researcher’s (my) subjective judgement, which puts the credibility of the research outcome into question. This, however, has been addressed in section 4.9.4 of this chapter.

The recruitment process took a period of 2 months, from mid-February to mid-April 2021. The procedure followed a couple of interrelated phases. After my transfer viva and obtaining both the ethical approval (see Appendix 1) and the fieldwork risk assessment approval (see Appendix 2), from the University’s Research Ethics Committee, I began the fieldwork activities in February of 2021. While still in the UK, I sent out letters (see Appendix 3) to five colleges of education through my friends and acquaintances in those institutions, who served as contact persons between me and those institutions, to ask their permission to conduct the research in these colleges and request the participation of their staff in the study. Permission was granted by three colleges, but I decided to select two (X and Y) out of these three, based on the following considerations: firstly, they had the capacity to produce rich and multiple set of data that is needed to have an overview understanding of PD practice in public CoEs in Nigeria. This is in addition to the fact that they share similar contextual characteristics with other public CoEs, which they represent: federal and state. For example, they are government-owned (public

colleges), operate the same PD policy, national curriculum, and minimum standard, and are regulated by the same National Commission for Colleges of Education. Although these two colleges (see chapter 2 of this thesis) are located within the same state in the south-south geopolitical zone of Nigeria, they are in two different urban locations with 198 miles apart. Secondly, I decided for these colleges that expressed willingness to participate in the study, because they were very accessible and supportive from the onset of my negotiations with them and up to the actual data collection period, where they assisted me with all the information that they have and that I need.

After gaining access, I then made contacts (phone and emails) to the IT units of the two colleges (which I was informed is a repository for all staff contact information) and requested their assistance to send a bulk email to all academic staff with information about my research and inviting interested members to participate in the research interviews. My University of Leeds and personal emails were also shared with them so that those interested could contact me. Those who responded to the message by contacting me and expressing their interest to take part in the study, were later contacted privately and sent participants' information sheet (see Appendix 4). Questions were asked by the potential participants, and I provided them with satisfactory answers. I then travelled to the research site and had meetings with the participants, after which all the participants were asked to sign a consent form (see Appendix 5) to confirm their agreement to voluntarily participate in the study.

In the end, 22 participants were recruited (see Table 4.1) from these colleges based on the following selection criteria: firstly, participants had to be academics on fulltime employment who showed profundity and experience about the research subject from our initial interactive meetings. Secondly, participants had to be academics who could articulately share their lived

experiences on the subject with sufficient depth and are willing to do so. Thirdly, participants had to be academics who had or currently occupies a leadership position at any level in the college, for example: provost, dean, director, heads of departments, or committee chairman. Finally, participants had to be academics who had spent at least 4 years working in the college and have been able to acquire some experience about PD practice. Considering that this research aim is to gain in-depth knowledge of the research phenomenon (academics' PD) based on the collective empirical evidence of individual participants, it was just rational that only participants "who might know" (Pawson and Tilley 1997, p.160) such as academic leaders and tutors, were recruited into the study. Hancock and Algozzine add:

The most important consideration is to identify those persons in the research setting who may have the best information with which to address the study's research questions. Those potential interviewees must be willing to participate in an interview. (2006, p.40).

Academic leaders are directly responsible for the interpretation of the policy and ensuring that its objectives are achieved at the level of their respective colleges, hence, can provide useful insights into such issues. On the other hand, academic tutors are the direct beneficiaries of this policy, hence, their experiences about the implementation in these colleges can serve to triangulate the claims by academic leaders and previous studies. It is noteworthy that some of the academics I interacted with about the research, showed interest in participating, perhaps because they saw it as an opportunity to either ventilate their feeling about the PD practice in their institution or register their appreciation. However, they were not included in the study because they did not meet these basic criteria. Even though this was a purposive protocol, there were elements of criterion sampling (Creswell, 2014).

The 22 participants recruited for this study were considered as a good case size. The reasons included that the selection represented a cross-section of the specific cases in these two colleges that were needed to supply the rich experiential data that this study needed; and because the interviews were conducted with depth. Hence, the 22 participants produced rich volume of data in line with the focus of this research on deep insights into academics PD in Nigeria public CoEs, rather than breadth. Sandolowski recommends that:

The size of participants in qualitative research are large enough to allow the unfolding of a new and richly textured understanding of the phenomenon under study, but small enough so that the deep, case-oriented analysis of qualitative data is not precluded. (Sandelowski, 1995, p.183).

He is supported by Cohen et al. and Creswell who argue that there is no definite rule in qualitative research on the size of participants, but that an appropriate number is what is required (Creswell, 2014; Cohen et al, 2018b). Also, I ordinarily would have worked with a larger number of cases (participants and even sites) perhaps to gain more diverse understanding of academics' PD practices in the CoE system. But, as this is a PhD study, I was constrained by time and funds which are crucial in deciding the scope of a research (Mason, 2018b). Hence, I chose to select a small number of participants across the two case study colleges. By doing this, I hoped to gain not just a broad representation of the study target population, but wide-ranging, detailed, and rich data that would populate and provide for deep insight into the professional development of academics. Hancock and Algozinne (2006, p.7) note: "considerable time and resources may be required to adequately represent the area being studied". Further to this, this size of participants was also informed and support by my experience from the pilot study (see section 4.6.3), which showed that the small number of participants that were involved, supplied a large volume of data. Additionally, the cases selection aligns with this study's multiple case methodology and

promotes cross-case comparative analysis which deepen the understanding of the unique characteristics of the two colleges with regard to their similarities and differences.

Table 4.1: Participants distribution

Group	CoE ‘X’	CoE ‘Y’
Academic Leaders	4	4
Academic Tutors	7	7
Total	11	11

As seen in Table 4.1, there are two major categories of participants (cases) in this study: academic leaders and academic tutors. By academic leaders, I am referring to those academics who in addition to their teaching and research role, occupy leadership positions in the college, such as Provost, Deputy Provost, Dean, HoD, Director of Academic Planning, etc. Academic tutors on the other hand are those who function mainly in their teaching and research roles with no additional responsibilities from the college. Further description as in Table 4.2, showed the different ranks/positions of the participants, ranging from Lecturer III, II, I, Senior, Principal, to Chief Lecturer cadre. According to the Condition of service for CoEs (NCCE, 2015), Assistant lecturer and lecturer III are those that are at the early level of their career as academic staff (Early Career Academics), and usually would have spent between 1 and 3 years in the job. Assistant lecturer position is the starting point of the career in CoE system. Lecturers (II & I) are those at the mid-level of their career and would have spent between 6 and 9 years. Senior and principal lecturers are those at the higher level of their career. Finally, chief lecturers are those who are at the peak or highest level of their career. The position of a ‘chief lecturer’ is the highest rank for academics in the college of education system, hence, lecturers at this level do not get promoted anymore as they have reached the bar in their career. Additionally, the participants consisted of

eight females and fourteen males, that were selected across the different ranges of years of work experience, and disciplines, with interest in professional development.

Table 4.2: Participants description

College 'X'				College 'Y'			
Name	Sex	Rank/Position	Category	Name	Sex	Rank/Position	Category
Max	Male	Principal Lect. & HoD	Academic Leader	Peter	Male	Chief Lect. & Dean of Sch.	Academic Leader
Philip	Male	Chief Lect. & Dean of Sch.	Academic Leader	Chi	Female	Principal Lect. & HoD	Academic Leader
Julie	Female	Principal Lect. & HoD	Academic Leader	Camel	Female	Chief Lect. & Dean of Sch.	Academic Leader
Ken	Male	Chief Lect. & Dean of Sch.	Academic Leader	Paschal	Male	Senior Lect. & HoD	Academic Leader
Joe	Male	Lecturer III	Academic Tutor	Rose	Female	Lecturer II	Academic Tutor
Chris	Male	Senior Lecturer	Academic Tutor	Keppy	Male	Senior Lecturer	Academic Tutor
Doris	Female	Lecturer II	Academic Tutor	Caroline	Female	Lecturer III	Academic Tutor
Clems	Male	Senior Lecturer	Academic Tutor	Alex	Male	Lecturer III	Academic Tutor
Lilian	Female	Senior Lecturer	Academic Tutor	Emma	Male	Principal Lecturer	Academic Tutor
Frank	Male	Lecturer II	Academic Tutor	Gab	Male	Senior Lecturer	Academic Tutor
Roselyn	Female	Lecturer I	Academic Tutor	Fidel	Male	Lecturer III	Academic Tutor

**NOTE:* These are pseudonyms of participants.

4.6 Data collection

This study's data was collected through multiple sources with document analysis and semi-structured interview as the main sources of evidence and complemented with data from observation of the cases (sites and participants) during the interviews. My decision to use of multiple data collection methods was influenced by this research's aim (see 1.2) for a deep and

holistic understanding of this research phenomenon (academics' PD), facilitated by integrated data from different sources. Also, because the multiple data sources helped to offset the pitfalls associated with the purposeful technique that I used in selecting this study's cases, through methodological triangulation, thus enhancing the credibility of this study's findings.

Furthermore, my choice of the methods of collecting data was also based on the relevance of each of the methods to the various research questions (also see 1.2). For instance, the use of documentary data for research question one. Merriam (1998) notes that it is advisable to use several sources of data when doing a case study in order to gain a deeper understanding of the case. Yin (2003a) compliments this with the theory on six sources of evidence consisting of documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant observation and physical artifacts and declares that "the various sources are highly complementary, and a good case study will therefore want to use as many sources as possible" (p.85). It is also worthy to note that in deciding on this strategy, I took into consideration the limited time and resources I have for this research project. Because Hancock and Algozine (2006, p.7) notes that: "although these data sources would result in a wealth of rich information, considerable time and resources may be required to adequately represent the area being studied".

I started the process of collecting data with the analysis of the specific national and college-level PD policy documents that reflected their PD to generate textual data, relevant especially to RQ 1, that explores participants' understanding of the policy prescriptions. I then proceeded to interviewing the participants, with observation running concurrently, to produce the primary and complementary data with which I gained insight into participants' experience of PD (implementation, staff attitude towards their own PD, and impacts) in their specific colleges, relevant to RQ 1– 4. Following this procedure, I collected multiple data that ensured a rich broad

perspective, “thick description” (Merriam, 1998, p.29) and ‘rule-of-thumb’ analysis of academics’ PD was revealed and understood from the participants’ practical experience. This process which allowed me to contextually interact with the participants and data, further deepened my understanding of the research. In the sub-sections that follow, I justify and elaborate upon each of the methods, and the sequence followed during the actual data gathering process.

4.6.1 Documentary sources

As stated earlier, I conducted documentary data analysis, “a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents” (Bowen, 2009, p.27), to deeply understand the policy intentions, practice guidelines, and participants’ original contexts. Documentary data, according to McCulloch (2012), are symbolic representation or information about a phenomenon presented in the form of inscribed texts, that only by reading and interpreting can meaning be made. Stake (1995) add that in case study research, documents are used as a source of contextual information about events that cannot be directly observed, and for confirming or questioning information from other sources.

Documents covered in this analysis included the national PD policy for academics in CoEs and the ones kept by the individual colleges – Staff Development Handbook, which understandably, the contents were found to be exactly the same with the national policy on staff development, because they were directly extracted from national policy document (see chapter 2). This data source was considered appropriate because it unearthed some basic information about PD practices and provided me with a vista into the historical dimensions of the local contexts beyond what instant interviews and observations could provide. It equally provided data that I used to verify and confirm the interview and observational data on the policy

understanding and interpretation at the college level. In addition, the documentary data was also helpful to the framing of the ‘interview schedule’ for this study. It was easy for me to access these documents because they are available in the public domain online, specifically on the official website of the Nigerian Federal Ministry of Education and the case study colleges.

4.6.2 Semi-structured interviews

I also conducted interviews, a very common form of data collection in case study research that allows the researcher to attain rich, personalized information (Mason, 2018b), to deeply understand the research phenomenon of academics’ PD directly from the participants. Interview is an essential source of case study data where it is possible to go directly to the core of a case problem, through conversations between the interviewer and interviewee, often led by the interviewer (Creswell, 2014). Particularly, “semi-structured interviews are well-suited for case study research” (Hancock and Algozzine, 2006, p.40), especially because they invite interviewees to express themselves openly and freely and to define the world from their own perspectives, not solely from the perspective of the researcher.

I considered the semi-structured interview as a suitable source of data because it aligned “with the purpose of obtaining descriptions of the life world of the interviewee in order to interpret the meaning of the described phenomena” (Brinkmann and Kvale, 2015, p.6). Also, this method of data collection allowed me to go beyond “individual participants’ cases and compare the participant’s responses while simultaneously seeking to holistically understand their unique experiences” (Barlow, 2010, p.496). Furthermore, interviews remain a guided conversational and situational approach that minimizes the effects of interviewer biases and facilitates analysis and organization in this research study.

4.6.3 Pilot study

Before the actual data collection was undertaken in the case study institutions, I piloted and tested the process and data instruments, including practising my interviewing skills. In the trial study, which was conducted in a period of one month, between mid-May and mid-June, I recruited five volunteers who were academic staff in CoEs, and my acquaintances. The pilot college shares the same geographical region with the case study colleges but is not one of the actual colleges for this study. It was chosen because I believe that since it exists within the same geographical location, it could produce information and experiences that could be helpful to and guide the main data collection. Three of the five volunteers resided within this study context (which is their home country) and the other two resided in the UK where they were studying for their postgraduate degrees. When I contacted and shared with them my research intention for a pilot study, they all agreed to volunteer their participation. I presented them with the research information sheet and consent form (see Appendix 4 & 5), and further explained the project to them. After signing the consent form to confirm their participation, I then began the pilot exercise.

This trial study was originally planned to be completely face-to-face, but for the COVID-19 pandemic that brought about University of Leeds's temporary suspension of all research fieldwork outside of the UK in line with global restrictions on international travels, I had to make some adjustments to the protocol and included online interviews (Salmons, 2015), a data collection method that also meets the university's research ethic criteria for this study. I had online interviews with three of the volunteers who reside in the study context (their original country) which is outside of the UK, and a face-to-face interview with the other two in the UK.

This trial study was quite significant as it further illuminated my understanding about the importance of piloting data collection methods and instruments and provided some conceptual clarification in this research study. Nunan (1992, p.151) note that “it is important for all elicitation instruments to be thoroughly piloted before being used for research”. Based on the feedback received from the participants, I made subtle revisions and adjustments to the wordings of some of the interview questions, because some respondents found it difficult to understand the actual message that a question is conveying. For example, a pilot participant (Bona) complained about how I phrased a particular question (see Question 2, part B of Appendix 6a) during the interview session, that appeared misleading. I immediately rephrased the question because it may possibly be posing same challenge to other participants. Making the interview questions very easy for respondents to understand is key to achieving its goal, because according to Foddy (1993): “before a successful communication cycle can occur, a question must be understood by the respondent in the way the researcher intended, and the answer must be understood by the researcher in the way the respondent intended” (p.23). The pilot study equally led me into fine-tuning of some parts of both the research information sheet and consent form. Again, it brought to the fore the exigency of time for the interview, and I confirmed that the allotted time period of 60 minutes for interview with each of the participants, was ok. The pilot study experience equally made me understand and identify some of the challenges associated with online interviewing, which I reflected upon as I planned the actual interview. Further to this, undertaking the pilot interviews helped to prop up my interviewing skills and build confidence on how to engage with the participants. The learnings were quite useful during the main data collection, and particularly in the case study college (Y) that I was not so familiar with, being that I am an outsider – *etic*. I also confirmed from the pilot study that the use of multiple

instruments as in this study's semi-structured interview, and document analysis in collecting data, could actually give access to more information with contextual depth on the issues of this research by probing into the different aspects, and provides for comparison of data sources. I equally found that the participants were more comfortable with each interview session starting with an open-ended question like 'what is your understanding of the term, PD?', because it eases initial tension and gives them the opportunity to build some level of confidence as we got deep into the interview.

4.6.4 Data collection procedure

The actual data gathering was undertaken over a period of four months and two weeks, between April 2021 and September 2021, and January 2022. Although the entire process did not go exactly as planned due to some personal and process challenges, particularly, the COVID-19 pandemic (see details in the later part of this same section 4.6.4), nonetheless, I succeeded in achieving my objective of collecting all the data. It is important to state that this data collection was restricted to information regarding academics' PD. Anything outside of this scope and what was not consented to by the participants and case colleges was ignored, as it was considered irrelevant to this project.

I started with analysing the specific documents (see chapter 2 for these documents), and this process took a time period of one month and a week from (12 April 2021 – 20 May 2022). The documents were first downloaded from the official websites of the case institutions before I then visually scanned through each of them to get a sense of the various sections. I noted the relevant sections within the documents which I returned to them thereafter for a critical reflection that sieved out the key information about the policy (Mayring, 2014). I coded the documents and

created a journal to allow linkages between the data contained within the documents and those presented by the participants at the interview.

The next phase of the data collection was interviewing of the study participants. I conducted semi-structured interview with 22 participants across the two case study colleges (X and Y) about their perspectives on academics' PD within their respective colleges. The entire interview exercise was planned for a cumulative time period of 3 months straight, from mid-June 2021 to mid-September 2021, but unlike the document analysis phase that went on as planned, there were some changes during this interviewing phase which eventually affected my proposed data collection plan and led to an extension of completion timeline to include January 2022 (again, see reasons in the later part of this section). I started in College X, and upon conclusion, I immediately moved to College Y. I visited each of the colleges thrice a week to interview the participants; and each of them was interviewed in their respective offices on the college campus which was chosen by the participant to ensure a distraction-free and relaxed environment, for smooth and uninterrupted interview sessions with maximum responsiveness. I was guided in each interview by a list of leading questions – interview schedule (see Appendix 6), a process described by Yin (2003a, p.89) as “guided conversation”. There were five components to the interview schedule, with each developed around this research's questions: context and historical issues related to academics' PD, policy understanding, implementation, academics' engagements for their PD, and impacts of PD. The questions were broad statements, modified to suit the purpose. The interview protocol was developed through a combination of my personal experiences, and some relevant information that I gathered from the reading of the literature. Also, some of the questions were ‘prompts’ that actually emanated from some of the responses of the interviewee to the leading questions during the actual interviewing process.

I started every interview session with a general discussion that paints a broad picture of the topic, so as to eliminate gagging and gain the confidence and trust of the interviewees. Then, I narrowed down to specific interest areas (Tomlinson, 1989), with the lead question being an open-ended one such as ‘what is your understanding of the term, PD?’ The decision to have this lead question was borne out of the pilot study experience, which showed that many of the pilot participants preferred to start with sharing their general understanding of the term, before delving further into their experience of its practice. However, the overall flow of the interview mostly depended on the participant’s answers to the questions. Although, I used the ‘interview schedule’ at each interview, but the interviews generally took the form of dialogic conversations between me and the interviewees, promoting a feeling of “exchange of ideas among co-equals” (Schostak, 2006, p.50). I used prompts and probes (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009) at intervals during the interview to encourage as many details as possible from the participants as against vague or very short responses, and this helped in clarifying the responses and seeking a richer understanding of the participants’ perspectives. For example, I asked an interviewee to expand on an unclear statement he made. INTERVIEWEE: “the management is not straightforward concerning the implementation of the policy.” ME: “How do you mean when you say they are not straightforward? Can you shed more light on that please?” The interviews were conducted mainly in English language because all my participants could understand and speak fluently in English. Responses were written down (notetaking) and with the permission of participants, I audio-recorded each session of the interviews for later review and analysis, as this was one way of obtaining an accurate account in the interview (Minichiello et al, 1995; Morgan and Guevara, 2008). Asking for their permission before recording our interview sessions was in keeping with this research’s ethical considerations. Each interview session lasted an average of one (1) hour

depending on the participant's available time, response level, and flow of events. I obtained the data with an open mind hoping that the analysis will facilitate a process of reflection and discovery. It is important to reiterate that I am an academic staff in one of the case study institutions (see chapter 1.4) and so, I had some insights based on my experiences and interactions with colleagues, which I consider very useful to these interviews and research generally. However, during the interview, I was careful not to violate legal or ethical protections. I explained this in detail in section 4.9.

I also considered the collection of contextual data having recognised from the constructivist perspective the influence of the context on academics' PD in HEIs in Nigeria and CoEs in particular. Hence, observation of each of the case study college's physical environment, activities, and events (e.g., departmental meetings and staff orientation exercise), documents, official websites, and participants, ran concurrently with interviews when I visited to collect the data. It is noteworthy that some of these observations came by "accident" than by design (Mason, 2006a, p.11). The observation of the context provided descriptive information related to the research topic, particularly, contextual features, which equally helped in deepening understanding of the subject and guiding the interviews. I took notes (jotted points) in order to shed light on possible answers to the research questions. Boblin et al. (2013) asserts that during observation the researcher considers specific factors and take notes.

It is important at this point that I highlight some of the challenges that I encountered while collecting data, which were also addressed in the process. Prior to the fieldwork proper, out of the 3 proposed study sites (i.e., 2 CoE and 1 Federal Ministry of Education – FME) I was to visit and collect interview data, only 2 (i.e., CoE) had given their commitment while the third (i.e., FME) was still pending at the time. Also, the number of expected participants from the

three sites was 25, comprising of 22 academics from the two colleges (see Table 4.1), and 3 policymakers from the FME. However, as I got to the field to collect data, I was only able to access the 2 CoE and interviewed 18 out of the 22 participants. I could not get any positive response from the FME, and due to circumstances beyond my personal control (particularly my participants' private commitments) I could not interview the other 4 academic participants before I returned to the UK. However, just as was with the pilot study, I completed the interviews with the 4 remaining participants using the online format. I contacted them from the UK and discussed the option of online (telephone) interview, which they graciously accepted and volunteered participation. Although there were challenges with telephone network connectivity given the location of the interviewees, I successfully conducted the interviews. Another issue that caused some delay in the process was the Covid-19 pandemic. Even though I went to the field for data collection when the lockdown restrictions had partially been lifted due to a drop in the rate of the Covid-19 infections, there were still some challenges that it posed to my study. These included the compulsory 7 days quarantine for international travellers like me, wearing of facemask, and social distancing regarding peoples' physical interactions. In fact, I had planned to conduct the interview with each participant twice, so as to build some confidence and trust and to speak with me more freely but I could not, because of the Covid-19 pandemic. Despite these challenges, however, I successfully completed the entire data gathering in January 2022.

4.7 Analysing data

I adopted inductive thematic analysis in this research. Thematic analysis entails a description of the perceptions and experiences of participants through inductive, iterative, content-driven analytic search for themes (Guest et al., 2011). I considered it the most appropriate because it ensures findings emanates inductively and provides a thick description of

data, supported with rich contextual information and illustrative quotes, which is in line with the aim and constructivist-interpretivist philosophy of this research. Also, because in thematic analysis, the iterative movements between the phases of the data analysis helped me to become more familiar with the data and gain more understanding about the phenomena, as against an abstract interpretation of the data. This is further reinforced by Saunders et al. (2009) who asserts that the inductive approach relates more to the interpretivist philosophy and should be used when the aim of the data analysis is to develop a theory.

This analytic process involved a within-case analysis where I first considered the data from the different categories of participants (leaders and tutors) in the same case study college; and cross-case analysis where I compared the data between the two case study colleges. This helped to identify common and differing codes that informed these themes, as well as brought an important and insightful dimension to the analytic process. In comparing the two contexts, I was able to embrace the diversity in the characteristics of the cases (Neuman, 2014), thus minimising hidden biases and assumptions in the analysis of data. To enable analysis, I merged together the interview and observational data at the beginning of the process, while the documentary data was also integrated at the ‘themes generation’ stage in the analysis. Specifically, I followed Braun and Clarke’s (2012) process to doing thematic analysis, as presented below.

4.7.1 Familiarisation with the data

I familiarised myself with the data by firstly scanning through the documentary data and listening actively to each interview recording twice before transcribing the recording. As I listened, I got a fair understanding of the primary areas addressed in each interview by the participants prior to transcription. This also provided me an opportunity to take notes, recall gestures and mannerisms that were or were not documented in interview notes. I manually

transcribed each of the recorded interviews immediately after actively listening to the recording several times. When transcription of all interviews was complete, I immerse myself in the data by reading each transcripts several times, which also helped to increase my familiarisation with the data. At this point, I took note of casual observations of initial trends in the data and potentially interesting passages in the transcripts. I also documented my thoughts and feelings regarding both the data and the analytical process; a practice I adhered to throughout the entire analysis to ensure transparency. Some preliminary notes were made during the early iterations of familiarisation with the data. I found out later that some of these notes were very resourceful during the interpretation of the finalised thematic framework. After familiarising myself with the data, I proceeded to coding the data.

4.7.2 Generating initial codes

Codes are the key components in the generation of themes. Data coding is done to produce terse descriptive or interpretive names for pieces of information that are considered to be relevant to the research questions (Braun and Clarke, 2012). I started this process by systematically working through the entire dataset, dealing with each data item with the same level of consideration, and identified and coded aspects of data items that are of potential interest and could inform the development of themes that addressed my research questions. I had intended to manually code each of the transcribed data, but because of the volume, I had to use both manual and a computer-assisted qualitative research software – NVivo 11 (Wong, 2008) in this process.

In the iterations of coding, I adopted a convention of coding academic PD-related information with reference to the participants' understanding, interpretation, engagement, and impacts of PD, all of which form this study's aims and research questions. I went through three

stages of iteration. In the first stage for instance, I searched in the interview data for patterns of meaning and ideas about academics' description of PD, and several initial codes were generated. For example, phrases such as postgraduate courses at tertiary institutions like universities, participation in workshops, college officially approved programs, collaborating with fellow lecturers, presenting at seminars, attendance at conferences, mentoring and coaching of colleagues and students, deliberate involvement, acting as course coordinators, reflective learning, updating of knowledge and skills, and programmes offered by accredited institutions. Also identified are registered and recognised professional bodies, induction and orientation activities, communication and interactions with colleagues, personal observations, personal-learning activities, employer-funded development programs, institution-based training programs, activities organised in a designated environment, teaching and assessing students, researching to teach, acting as student advisers, spontaneous learning. Through repeated iterations of coding and further familiarisation, I identified codes that were more appropriate representation of what the participant seemed to be communicating and conducive to interpreting themes and discarded the ones that were not relevant. These final codes were prevalent throughout the entire dataset, and they subsequently informed the development of themes. (See Appendix 7). This is what I did next, as presented in the succeeding section.

4.7.3 Generating themes

A theme is an abstract entity, a topic, idea, and patterns of meaning that comes up repeatedly in a given data set (Caulfield, 2022). After completion of the interviewing of participants, a researcher will then examine all the interview data collected together to pull out coherent and consistent descriptions, themes, and theories that speak to his research questions (Rubin and Rubin, 2012). In generating themes from my research data, I first made use of the

voices of academics to highlight issues (codes) relating to their PD in the case study colleges. Important themes were then identified and formed from these codes, after searching the data repeatedly for common threads and basic ideas and focusing on the meaning of interviewees and commonalities and diversities of experiences. This is indicative of an iterative qualitative process, which as Rubin and Rubin (2012) said was to let ideas emerge from the interviews, from the lives and examples of the interviewees, rather than to categorize answers initially according to pre-existing categories from an academic literature. For example, using research question one, I initially considered that a narrative might develop by exploring the perception of academic staff about their professional development. At this point in the analysis, I assembled codes into initial candidate themes. I subjected these initial codes to further analysis, whereby I collated all codes with high level similarity together, and codes that are dissimilar were made to either stand as individual themes and subthemes or reviewed and subsumed into an existing one.

This process also saw me separating codes that were not particularly relevant because no other data items shared the codes which thus prevented these particular codes from being considered during the construction of themes. I also approached the analysis with the codes that I generated from the documentary data. However, I realised after revisiting the data items that these codes had only surface level description, hence, as stated earlier, I integrated them with the initial codes from the interview and observational data. I further reviewed the codes and where necessary some remained as stand-alone themes, some were subsumed under the other existing codes to form themes, while others that did not fit were completely discarded. In the end, six main themes emerged, with one as 'PD as formal activities' which shares the narrative that associate PD with mainly formal activities that academic engage in in the course of their career, and another as 'PD as formal-informal activities,' which has the narrative that sees PD as

encompassing both formal and informal activities that academic engage in in the course of their career. These themes also had subthemes: certificate programs, organised programmes at HEIs and professional associations, and activities requiring intentional and active engagement of participants; all of which are directly related to this research aims and questions. I return to this in chapters five through eight of this thesis.

4.7.4 Reviewing potential themes

This phase of the analysis demands that the researcher repeatedly examine the individual themes vis-à-vis the coded data items and the entire dataset (Braun and Clarke, 2012). In this study, I conducted a two-level review. At the first level, I reviewed the relationships among the data items and codes that informed each of the themes and sub-themes. Where it was clear that the items and codes formed a coherent pattern, I then assumed that the candidate theme and sub-theme makes a logical argument and contributes to the overall narrative of the data. The second level of review considered the candidate themes in relation to the data set. I assessed the themes to confirm how well they facilitate meaningful interpretation of the data in relation to the research questions.

In the end, I restructured some of the themes and sub-themes by revising and recoding some data items, collapsing some codes into one, removing some codes, as well as promoted some codes to sub-themes or themes. For example, when reviewing the data items that informed the narrative of PD as strictly formal activities that academics engage in, I noticed that participants gave perspectives that were quite diverse. So, for a proper analysis, I had to reconstruct the theme by splitting it into subthemes, to reflect the different perspectives. It is noteworthy that I documented all the iteration process in a notebook and special folder created in my personal computer along with the fieldnote and original transcripts. I constantly consulted

those notes to review existing themes while I searched for the interpretation of new themes, which further developed and strengthened my familiarity with the data. The records also helped me to keep track with how the themes emerged, and in identifying the themes that were changed in the various iteration process.

4.7.5 Defining and naming theme

In defining themes in this study, I conducted an in-depth review of the various data items that formed a particular theme. While in this process of review, I also started to create names that are descriptors of the theme and can communicate a key aspect of the theme. Also, I identified lucid data items that were used as quotes during the presentation of results of the analysis. After all, I reviewed the names again and came up with the final names that are used in reporting the findings in chapters 5 to 8, and in the discussion chapter 9 as well.

4.7.6 Producing the report

This phase of the analysis is often seen as the ‘final’ and stand-alone section of the thesis where mainly the writing-up is expected to be done. But in actual sense, it is not necessarily separate from the entire thesis. Braun and Clarke (2012) notes that writing up is very much interwoven into the entire process of the analysis and thesis production. They were complemented by King (2004) who also argued that “writing up should not be seen as a separate stage from analysis and interpretation, but rather as a continuation of it” (p. 267).

In this study, I started writing up some sections of this thesis even before the analysis stage where I also took notes of some of the relevant aspects in the data items. Moreover, I began drafting findings chapters alongside the analysis, which I later developed upon, and all of these contributed to greater accuracy in the report. As with other phases of this analysis, I applied the recursive approach to my writing up, and the report kept evolving to reflect any changes that I

identified in the research analytic process. This process of constructing a coherent report with relevant illustrative extracts, also helped in deepening my understanding of the participants' views and experiences about this research subject of academics' PD as expressed in the data. Building on this understanding, I structured and developed the findings chapters (5 to 8), using the themes generated from this analytic process, including relevant illustrative extracts from the data to support the analytic narrative about each of the themes. I developed on the earlier draft findings chapters and continued to draft the discussion chapter for more in-depth analysis of the data.

4.8 Research quality

A major issue about qualitative research has also been that of researcher's bias. There is the argument that during the transcription of data, there are probably some changes in the nuances that comes with the oral data (spoken words) which could result in misinterpretation and misrepresentation of data, and significantly put a question mark on the trustworthiness of such data. Hence, to establish the trustworthiness of this research outcome, I considered the qualitative research criteria proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985), which include credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. I explore these constructs in detail below.

4.8.1 Credibility

This construct is about how confident I am in the truth and accuracy of my research findings to the reading public. Case study research design principles lend themselves to numerous strategies that promote data credibility or "truth value" (Baxter and Jack, 2008, p.556). Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested some strategies that facilitates credibility including activities such as prolonged engagement, persistent observation, data collection triangulation, and researcher triangulation. In this study, I applied these techniques across the research process to

ensure the production of credible findings. In doing this, I personally planned and carried out data collection as a way of deepening my understanding, from the various college contexts to the participants' detailed experiences and in-depth perceptions (see section 4.6). The interview data collection period provided me the opportunity to spend enough time to engage and interact with the participants in their contexts to further earn their trust and confidence which made them to share their PD experiences with me freely. The prolonged engagement with the participants also gave me the room for keen observation of their individual body language, facial expressions, and the college environments. Krefting (1991) said it is important to have the opportunity to have a prolonged or intense exposure to the phenomenon under study within its context so that rapport with participants can be established, multiple perspectives can be collected and understood, and potential for social desirability responses in interviews can be reduced.

I also used data and methodological triangulation to prove the credibility of this research study's findings. I collected data from the two categories of participants (academic leaders and tutors) using two different set of instruments: documents, and semi-structure interview with observation (see section 4.6). These different sources of data allowed me to compare and verify the participants' experiences and perceptions, and the code clusters and themes that emerged, resulting in a credible understanding (Vaismoradi and Snelgrove, 2019; Scott and Morrison, 2006) of academics' PD practices in CoEs. Triangulation of data sources or types is a primary strategy that can be used and would support the principle in case study research that the phenomena be viewed and explored from multiple perspectives. Thus, the collection and comparison of data enhances data quality based on the principles of idea convergence and the confirmation of findings (Hantrais, 2009; Baxter and Jack, 2008).

A further strategy I adopted to ensure credibility of this study was peer and member

checks (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). First, upon completing my data analysis and interpretation and producing an initial draft, I check the credibility of what I have done with three doctoral studies colleagues who were more experienced qualitative researchers. I had one-on-one meetings with them and my conversations with them gave the final shape to this analysis. At the final stage of the analysis, I cross-checked with the participants to be sure that interpretation of the data collected during the interview truly reflects their thinking (Woodside, 2010; Golafshani, 2003) by sending draft copies to them and asking for their comments. They all replied to me confirming the correctness of my interpretation and representation of their views. To ensure interpretive adequacy I also used the audio recording from the interview during the analysis to enhance an accurately and relatively complete record.

4.8.2 Transferability

Transferability in qualitative research refers to “the generalizability of the findings to other groups” (Ary et al., 2002, p.455). It is about how as a researcher, I can demonstrate the applicability of this research’s findings to other contexts, circumstances, and situations. I am aware of the debate that qualitative case study is more interested in interpretation, meaning making, and illumination of ideas rather than generalisation, prediction, and control (Usher, 1996). Hence, I did not lay claim to generalization beyond the cases treated in the research. However, given that I have provided in-depth idiographic accounts, persuasive and memorable stories, consistent methodologies, cross-case comparisons, “embedded” myself in the research context (Yin 2003a, p.10), and “thick description” (Merriam, 1998, p.29) of the cases, I expected that some of the processes and outcome of this research work would prove useful in similar contexts, hence, is generalisable.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) note that the “aim of inquiry is to develop an idiographic body of knowledge” (p.38) to make “transferability judgements possible on the part of potential appliers” (p.316). Also, when I made the decision on this research cases (sites and participants), a key consideration was the transferability of the research outcome. I was convinced that the sites (colleges X & Y) and participants (academic leaders and tutors, including seniors and early career) that I choose for this research study were potentially relevant to the general research context given their mix features in terms of state and federal institutions and academics across all categories. Findings from diverse contexts of this nature would be easily transferable.

4.8.3 Dependability

Dependability is the extent that the study could be repeated by other researchers using the same or similar cases and that the findings would be consistent. In other words, if someone wanted to replicate this study, the person should have sufficient information from this research thesis to do so and obtain similar results as this study did. It is obvious that this construct shares same procedure for establishing trustworthiness or credibility. Hence, to establish dependability, I adopted and applied similar strategies as explained in (4.8.1) of this section. Because as Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.316) notes “a demonstration of the former is sufficient to establish the later”. For instance, I used inquiry audit. I recruited some PGR colleagues (as outsiders) with more research experience to review and examine the research process and the data analysis in order to ensure that the findings are consistent and could be repeated. Krefting (1991) notes that the “dependability” or consistency of the research data and findings can be promoted by having multiple researchers independently code a set of data and then meet together to have a consensus on the emerging codes and categories.

I also ensured dependability by conducting this research in line with the philosophical underpinnings of this research and the established research procedures (in terms of the design, data collection and analysis) discussed in the earlier sections of this chapter. The different data sources were equally used for triangulation which promotes dependability of the findings. Moreso, I gave detail documentation report of the entire doctoral research process in this chapter for the auditing, and reference by future researchers.

4.8.4 Confirmability

Confirmability is the degree of neutrality in the research study's findings. That is, ensuring that the findings accurately represent participants' responses (voices) and not any potential bias or personal motivations of the researcher. The researcher must make sure that personal bias does not skew the interpretation of what the research participants said to fit into a certain narrative (Gunawan, 2015). To establish and enhance confirmability in this study, I used the following strategies: "audit trail, and triangulation" (Krefting, 1991, p.217) and checked self-view. I provided an audit trail, which detailed the process of data gathering and analysis, including iterations process of the data (see 4.6 & 4.7), my experiences and thoughts in this thesis, as well as a notebook and special folder in my computer, so as to keep track with how the codes and themes emerged and show conformity and transparency of the process. I made sure I put in check, my personal subjective view and involvement in the research as stated earlier (see 4.2). This was exemplified where during the interview, I desisted from taking a position for the participants but gave them the free opportunity to do so themselves. I equally used data and methodological triangulation as earlier explained to ensure that this study's findings are consistent with the responses of the participants. I triangulated by cross-referencing the data that

was collected from semi-structured interviews, with the data obtained from the documentary evidence, and published materials like the CoE Staff Condition of Service (2015).

4.9 Research ethical concerns

Ethical considerations have been described as “a matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others” (Cavan cited in Cohen et al. 2000a, p.56). In this study, I understood my place as an independent person who got into what could be described as the privacy or restricted spaces of other people (Stake, 2005) in search of data, hence, raising some ethical concerns.

4.9.1 Ethics approval

Because this research involved human elements, I was expected to get the ethical approval from the university before embarking on the research fieldwork. This is because ethical approval helps to protect the rights of the research participants. Hence, before proceeding on fieldwork in 2021, I applied and obtained Ethics Approval (see Appendix 1) from The University of Leeds’s Ethics Review Committee (UoL – UREC, 2020). While on the field and throughout the course of this research, I ensured that I complied with the ethical standards as provided, especially regarding participants’ informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity, data management and safeguarding, etc. How this was done is discussed in the sections that follow.

4.9.2 Informed consent

Before I commenced the data collection, informed written consent was obtained from the potential colleges and participants. Informed consent is “a cornerstone of ethical behaviour” that involves “four elements: competence, voluntarism, full information and comprehension” (Cohen et al., 2018b, pp.23 & 22). The process began with messages to negotiate access and participation with the case study colleges and individual participants. To make sure that I carry out the research interview with the full knowledge, acceptance and participation of each case

study institution and the individual academics, I included a brief information about the research in the permission letter (see Appendix 3) accompanied with a detailed information sheet (see Appendix 4) to each of the case study colleges. These letters led to the colleges approving my requests to conduct the research and the participation of their staff.

After gaining access into the colleges, next step was to obtain consent of the potential participants. In this study, my participants were mature adults who are capable of making their own decisions given that they are all trained academics in HEIs. However, in spite of this, to ensure that I keep to the ethical guidelines for this research study, I made sure that they were participating in this research study voluntarily by obtaining their informed consent. The process I undertook in doing this began with providing them with sufficient information about the study through the information sheet (see Appendix 4) which was attached in the recruitment email that was sent to the two colleges. The information sheet contained information about the timing of the interview, what is expected of the participants, right of withdrawal, and how the information they provide during the interview would be used and stored.

Specifically, the participants were informed of their rights to give or refuse informed consent to participate or to discontinue participation from the study and request to withdraw their data already provided at any time/stage until the anticipated completion of the study in September 2023, without giving any reason, and they would not be any adverse consequences on them resulting from such actions. The voluntary withdrawal clause was meant to protect the right of the participant to self-determination (Burns and Grove, 2011). In that circumstance, such data were excluded and destroyed. However, after the said date, it was considered too late for such actions as data analysis had begun and data had been enmeshed in the research analysis. After the participants had read, discussed, asked questions, and seek for clarifications where needed, I

then invited them to sign the Consent Form (see Appendix 5) indicating that they understood what the study was all about (BERA, 2018; McNiff and Whitehead 2006). I also applied this same process for the pilot and online interviews.

4.9.3 Confidentiality and anonymity

These two concepts and guiding principles of qualitative research are related but differ in some important ways. Confidentiality “pertains to the understanding between the researcher and participant that guarantees sensitive or private information will be handled with the utmost care” (Bos, 2020, p.154), while anonymity is concerned with a researcher “protecting informants by using pseudonyms and inventing geographical names for his field sites” (Sandberg and Scheer, 2020, p.6).

I ensured confidentiality in this research, first, by asking potential participants who expressed interest in taking part in the study to contact me directly via my personal email address on the Information Sheet, as that will minimise the possibility of other participants knowing who is involved or knowing themselves. Also, I politely refused to answer the question being asked by some participants about the other persons involved in the research. Furthermore, all unofficial information shared by the institution and participants during the interview that they did not give their permission to be reported and made public, were never divulged, or shared with any third party (Cohen et al., 2018b). Additionally, data collection was restricted to responses on the research subject.

Although in qualitative research, it is not possible to have total anonymity, because the interviewer (me) will definitely be aware of the participant (Burns and Grove 2011). However, to maintain anonymity and protect their identity, I personally transcribed all the interview data. During the transcription process, analysis, and the presentation of findings that emerged, I used

pseudonyms in place of the real names of the cases (for example, ‘college X and Y;’ Gab, Emma, etc.). In order to carry the participants along in the research, I revealed secretly to each of them the pseudonym that is used for them. This was to make the process of cross-checking and confirming of the information supplied at the interview, quite easy for the participants. I, however, advised them not to disclose same information to a third-party (any other person) for the sake of anonymity and confidentiality. Following the standard understanding of anonymity protections, “data should be presented in such a way that respondents should be able to recognise themselves, while the reader should not be able to identify them” (Grinyer, 2002, p.1). Also, I ensured that data management and safeguarding was consistent with the University of Leeds’s data management protocol, England’s Data Protection Act 2018, and Nigeria’s Data Protection Regulations 2019. This is as the real names and contact details of the participants and institutions were stored separately under personal security protected electronic device like laptop, the University M drive, and physical devices like office lockers and file cabinets, to avoid being tampered with, theft or loss. And after the thesis has been completed, I will either destroy or securely upload into the Research Data Leeds repository the used data.

4.9.4 Researcher’s insider influence

During this research, I took on the role of a participant researcher. This is because I have been a lecturer for nearly 10 years at one of the case study colleges. With this insider position, I have had the opportunity to interact with colleagues and other critical stakeholders within the college of education sub-sector and these contacts facilitated access to the persons and institutions involved in this research work. This friendly relationship that has been created with most academic staff in the institution, built enough confidence in the potential participants to volunteer information which perhaps would have been difficult with an outsider. However, I was

also aware of the potential biases associated with my position as an insider, particularly in terms of exploiting the relationship to my advantage, and power relations. Hence, I ensured that I did not take undue advantage of my relationship with the participants by influencing the research process and outcome, either through knowingly misrepresenting the facts or imposing completely my own views. I did this by subjecting the analysed data to member checking with the participants themselves before it was reported in the final thesis. With regard to power relations, some of the participants were my junior colleagues and so there were concerns about them not being very expressive during the interview, because they felt they are dealing with a senior colleague whom they owe some level of respect. For instance, one of them (Joe) said: “the way I would have spoken ehh... but you are a senior man, so, I don’t want to sound disrespectful.” To reduce this, I was able to convince them that this is a research project that I am happy for them to express themselves and share their experiences freely. And that throughout the period of the exercise, I should be seen and interacted with as just any other academic staff in the college conducting research and not as that ‘senior colleague’ that they know. This helped in minimising the tension that comes with that initial mindset that they approached this research study with.

4.10 Summary

In this chapter, details of the research paradigmatic position and procedures that were followed in undertaking this research, including the strategy, methodology and analytical processes, has been presented. To properly address the research questions and achieve the study aims, the research was conducted using the qualitative methods and multiple case study design. I have argued throughout this chapter that the methods used in this study are the most appropriate in capturing the academic staff’s narration on PD policy and practices in the present study. Given

that the “human experiential narrative” provides “a strong basis for refining action options and expectations,” qualitative case study research can be useful in “reflecting on such experiences” (Stake 2005, p.460). Data were sourced through semi-structured interviews and documentary analysis as the key instruments and supported with observation. A pilot study was conducted prior to the actual data collection, to better inform the process and instruments. Some lessons were learnt from the trial exercise which were used to reshape and fine-tune the main data collection instruments and procedures. The research data was analysed inductively using thematic technique. The analytic procedure followed Braun and Clarkes’ (2012) process for doing thematic analysis which involved six interrelated phases of familiarising with the data, generating initial codes, generating themes, reviewing potential themes, defining, and naming themes, and producing the report. The issue of research quality was also considered, and I adopted certain measures to establish the trustworthiness of this research outcome. Specifically, I considered the qualitative research criteria proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1986), which include constructs such as credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Given that this research had to do with human element, ethical concerns were bound to arise. This chapter also highlighted some of the ethical issues that came up in the course of this research and how they were addressed.

Chapter 5

Findings: Understanding professional development concept and policy

5.1 Introduction

This is the first of four chapters that report findings that emerged from analysis of the research data generated from the two case study colleges. Each chapter analysed data and presented findings related to one of the four guiding research questions and aims of this study. Specifically, in this chapter, I report the findings regarding the first research question: What is academic tutors'/leaders' understanding of PD and its policy for academic staff in CoEs? This research question seeks to do two things: first, to investigate how participants understand PD as a concept, and secondly, to find out how they understand the PD policy for academics in their respective CoEs. Themes that emerged are presented below.

5.2 Academics' understanding of PD

The participants' responses to the question which seeks their understanding of PD revealed six themes that define PD and represents two broad beliefs of formal and hybrid 'formal-informal' activities. These themes include qualification and certificate-based activity, training institutions and professional associations led activity, activity requiring deliberate and active engagement of participants, implicit development experiences, other administrative roles and responsibilities, and self-learning activities. Each of these themes is used to form the structure of this chapter, as presented below.

5.2.1. Qualification and certificate-based activity

The research data from the participating colleges showed that about half of the participants ($n = 9$, 41%) see PD as a professionally related activity or series of activities, including short training courses or longer degree courses in a tertiary institution, for which they

earn a qualification and/or are awarded certificate(s) as concrete evidence of their attendance or participation in such activities. This could be seen in the below quotations from the participants' interview transcripts. For instance, Ken's (College X) comment about "training or development programme that [...] I can prove with some kind of certificate." Peter's (College Y) repeated remark that "only participation in certificated programmes is or should be recognised as professional development." Likewise, Alex's (College Y) reference to "activities that must earn a certificate" and Joe's (College X) statement about "masters and PhD study programmes that updates my knowledge, earn me a qualification and certificate to show for it."

These all illustrates that participants acknowledged that without a tangible proof in the form of a certificate(s) or qualification, professional development has not taken place. This finding resonates with Parsons et al.'s (2012) and Awodiji's (2020) observations about perceptions of PD, a point which will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 9.

5.2.2 Training institutions and professional associations led activity

The data also revealed that a greater proportion of the participants (n = 12, 55%) mentioned that for the activities academic staff engage in to be perceived as PD, its provider(s) has to either be the traditional learning institutions or professional associations (learned societies) with the standard structures in terms of human (professionals and experts) and material resources to effectively plan, organise, and deliver such programmes. This could be short courses or fulltime study fellowships offered by recognised higher education institutions, as Alex and Doris revealed in their responses. Alex's (College Y) mention of "PhD programme that I am currently running at the university, conferences and workshops that are organised by faculties of higher institutions, and other learned societies and organisations," and Doris (College X) allusion to "Short courses I take at the university."

Aside from short or long-time courses offered at universities, some participants also see it as academic conferences and other programmes organised by professional associations, as the interview extracts of Gab, Lilian, and Chi, illustrates. Gab (College Y) for example, remark that “It is either programmes organised by my professional association and other sister associations, any accredited tertiary institution, or nothing.” Lilian (College X) mentioned that “It is the new knowledge and skills I acquire through [...] training that are put-together or hosted by reputable training institutions and professional associations that have the requisite resources to create knowledge.” Chi (College Y) referenced “Postgraduate courses or conferences organised by accredited HEIs, as well as professional bodies.” Some of the participants do not believe in the contemplation of PD as some sort of crash activity, that is without details and established structure. Chris (College X) for example, stated that “For any activity to qualify as PD, it must have the qualities of a well-structured programme and offered by organisation with full structure of a HEI.” This finding aligns with the views of McAvinia et al. (2015) about PD, a point which I will return to in much detail later in Chapter 9.

5.2.3 Activity requiring deliberate and active engagement of participants

It was also revealed from the data that a small proportion of the participants ($n = 5$, 23%) seem to believe that developing professionally entails a deliberate action by academics to engage, either on a full-time or part-time basis, in well-thought-out activities like conferences, workshops, seminars, and induction that offer them professional growth, and not some sort of reactive or opportunistic learning that is near-spontaneous. The participants argued that the affected staff must be seen to be an active participant in the development activities that he/she chooses to undertake through his/her contributions and exchange of ideas with either the facilitator or other participating colleagues. The interview extracts below illustrate this:

What is learnt from casual interaction with colleagues is completely different from having a planned training and development programme where I attended and participated fully and actively in all the sessions. So, I can't term mere interaction as PD. (Lilian, College X)	When you talk about PD, it has to mean that you are actively participating in some sort of training, seminar, or conference taking place somewhere in some designated training centre. (Emma, College Y)
It is the set of programmes, like conferences and postgraduate studies, where you have to show full active attendance and a not passive or gate-crashing event. (Chris, College X)	It is about organised training and development events that are recognised by my institution, which I consciously decided and planned to attend. (Fidel, College Y)

Gab's (College Y) remarks that "I have attended a couple of activities [...] but I could not consider them as supporting my PD because there were not open to active engagements and interactions by participants", also speaks to the perception of some academics that a learning activity must be such that keeps the participants well engaged throughout the entire process before it can be seen as professional development.

This finding which shows that participants believe that PD is not an unwitting and passive activity, like having mere conversations and interactions with colleagues and students, but rather a very conscious and active programme, aligns with Clegg's (2003) and Eraut's (2004) understanding of PD, again, this is a point I will return to in much detail later in Chapter 9.

5.2.4 Implicit development experiences

The data equally indicate that almost half of the participants (n = 9, 41%) seem to express the view that PD is an integral part of their daily job routine (which could range from teaching and assessment of students, to research, and staff meetings, etc.), as the various activities that they engage in within and outside the work environment, bears in them opportunities for spontaneous learning of new ideas, skills, and experiences that could add to their development.

For example, Keppy's (College Y) remarks that: "I do not think that [...] is totally insulated from the day-to-day job I do as a lecturer. I know how the experiences I get from doing my job every day help me get better," and Philip's (College X) reference to "other experiences that our role as teachers and leaders exposes us to that also add value, like the things we also learn from the students while teaching them." Roselyn, (College X) also believe that other non-traditional classroom development sources like collegial [non-collegial] interactions and sharing of ideas, and observation of situations and happenings around them, can be sources of PD and not primarily classroom oriented activities, in her comment that "I consider PD to be any activity, including discussion of topical issues and sharing ideas with colleagues [...] I do not really think it must be university classroom-based stuff". The extracts from Clems and Rose below also reveals same understanding of PD:

I understand that it is about the development of lecturers and other staff, but I do not believe that it is limited to programmes or experiences gained in a school setting, because some of my experiences have come from friends and family members who are outside of mainstream academia. (Clems, College X).

If PD is seen only through the lens of structured programmes, how about the unplanned and unexpected learning that we experience within and outside of our place of work? Because there are a number of things I personally do observe when teaching my students, and I learn from them. (Rose, College Y).

This finding that academics learn and develop through the several activities that they are exposed to and engage with every day of their lives and in the course of performing their role is in tandem with the perception of Eraut (2004) and Baalewi (2008) about PD, a further discussion on this point is presented in Chapter 9.

5.2.5 Other administrative roles and responsibilities

Again, half of the respondents (n = 11, 50%) according to the data, consider other administrative roles and responsibilities aside from the actual teaching and research as also informing and contributing to their professional development. Acting as a course coordinator, student adviser, HoD, serving on various college committees, working on delegated authorities, taking students on excursions and acculturation, teaching practise supervision exercises, and supporting students in sporting events and academic competitions are some of the additional roles that they mentioned in the interview. For instance, Max notes that:

As a HoD, I engage in and carry out a lot of responsibilities outside of my main role of teaching as a lecturer [...] all these activities, formal or informal, help to develop me and, as such, I will also term them as PD. (Max, College X).

The participants also explain that the extra responsibilities of being a student adviser and head of the acculturation team have helped them develop special leadership and human management skills, hence, it is to them a way of PD, as Rose and Frank articulate:

My leadership skills have improved very significantly since I was saddled with the responsibility of taking our students on excursions and acculturation four years ago. (Frank, College X)

This position of student adviser that I am appointed to comes with unique experiences that I tap into to improve myself. For example, I now boast of very effective leadership skills. (Rose, College Y)

Caroline considers teaching practise supervision to be beneficial to his professional development:

Every year's teaching practise supervision comes with a new experience, which I build upon as I plan for the next supervision. Applying this experience has always been rewarding. (Caroline, College Y)

This finding is further discussed in Chapter 9 with the support of relevant literature.

5.2.6 Self-learning activities

The data further revealed that a few participants ($n = 4$, 18%) seem to consider self-directed learning activities to be PD. They believe that the knowledge gained from their personal readings and studies, reflective learning, researching to teach, and researching to write textbooks and papers for publications contributes significantly to their professional development, as Paschal and Roselyn demonstrate in these below interview extracts:

Before every lecture, I do a lot of reading and research to prepare myself and develop lecture notes for my students. This process helps me build up my knowledge of the subject and my confidence, which is also what PD is all about. (Roselyn, College X)

As an experienced academic, I have developed programmes and strategies that have addressed my professional needs on several occasions. I take my time to research and study to find answers or solutions to whatever it is. (Paschal, College Y)

Some participants also think that personal reflections over certain job-related issues, which give them the opportunity to appraise their strengths and weaknesses and either sustain or improve on them, are a way through which they also develop professionally. As Frank and Caroline illustrate in the below quotations from their interview transcript:

To me, it is any learning activity that can contribute to my professional growth be it instructor-led or self-led, as in personal reflections on my written works, or even the additional official responsibility I have been saddled with which has helped me to develop leadership skills. (Frank, College X)

I reflected on the entire teaching process to see what the problem was, and I discovered that the teaching method I was using for all the groups was not working well with that particular group, so I changed methods, and the outcome was fantastic. (Caroline, College Y)

This finding that participants also believe they can draw from a pool of their personal experiences and personal learning activities to develop themselves, aligns with the views of Kennedy (2014) and Hadar and Brody (2017) about PD. I will discuss this point in Chapter 9.

5.3 Academics' understanding of PD policy

Analysis of both documentary evidence and interview data related to the part of research question one which is focused on participants' understanding of PD policy (i.e., what the policy says versus how the participants understand/interpret it), produced four themes: what the policy intentions are, policy implementation procedures, forms of PD, and required criteria for staff PD. In the following sections, I explored each of these themes in detail supported with relevant extracts from the raw data.

5.3.1 What the policy intentions are

The data evidence collected from the policy documents revealed that the major objective of the policy is to make academic staff fit for the purpose of effective performance of their job:

The policy's goal is to ensure the smooth running of the CoE system, and that CoEs in Nigeria are better positioned in a way that they are not just able to attract quality academic staff and professionals, but to also retain them, through the instrumentality of 'staff development' that will ensure that they remain fit for practice by improving on their teaching and research skills as well as acquiring new ones. (NCCE, 2015, p.66).

The responses to the interview question about the aim of the policy, seem to indicate that all the participants (n = 22, 100%) understand the policy's primary objectives, with their mention of relevant points such as fitness for practice, promoting research and innovation culture, facilitating the production of high-quality graduates, etc., as some of the interview extracts below illustrate:

Is to keep the academic staff abreast of contemporary issues and practises within and around their specific area of specialisation and the general academic and educational environment. (Chris, College X)	It basically aims at supporting and improving the instructional and research capacities of academics so that we can continue to be effective and efficient in the performance of our duties. (Rose, College Y)
Essentially, updating academics in order to improve the quality of their service delivery in terms of teaching and research. (Roselyn, College X)	As I understand it, the aim is to ensure that we lecturers remain productive in our roles by providing us with the necessary training and development support that we need. (Fidel, College Y)

The participants equally note that the aim of the PD policy is to imbibe and promote a research and innovation culture among members of the colleges' academic staff community through the provision of annual research grants. Caroline, for example, responds:

It seeks to encourage us to be more interested in the search and discovery of new ideas, which is why there are funds that are made available every year for research activities. (Caroline, College Y)

It was also revealed that the policy focus is on making sure that the academic staff are properly oriented and informed about the professional standards and rules of engagement of these colleges, so as to ensure adequate compliance and provide opportunities for both the staff and college to thrive. Lilian (College X), for example, respond that: "It is to ensure career discipline and growth among academic staff," while Emma (College Y) adds that: "Ensure smooth management of the institutions for attainment of their objectives." According to Doris, the aim is also to facilitate the production of high-quality graduates for Nigeria's socioeconomic development, as he remarked:

It ensures that these colleges have the right kind of academics that can enable them to achieve their mandate of producing the manpower that the nation needs to turn it around in all spheres. (Doris, College X)

The finding revealed that all the academic staff (tutors and leaders) that participated in this study, understand the objectives of the PD policy, and I will discuss this finding later in Chapter 9.

5.3.2 Policy implementation procedures

The documentary data revealed the established policy procedures for the practice of PD at the institutional level to include basic steps of identifying areas of development needs either at the department or faculty levels, the approval of a suitable development activity through a selection process and ensuring that the staff make the best use of the development opportunity.

Manpower development is one of the foremost approaches for achieving efficiency in any organization. Therefore, to achieve it, it is imperative that the institution first identify its staff development need(s). And having identified its need(s) it should prescribe a suitable programme for training and development of its staff for maximum contribution to the success and progress of the institution. (NCCE, 2015, p.66)

The interview data again, indicates that all the academic leader participants (n = 8, 36%) and very few tutors (n = 2, 9%), appear to have a good understanding of this provision of the policy, as their responses highlighted the basic features of the practice guidelines in the policy such as development needs assessment and identification, approval, and support for staff development initiatives, etc. as demonstrated in the below quotes:

The process involves three (3) stages: beginning with the HoD or Dean of School or the provost, identifying areas of need at either the departmental or school level, publicising it for those interested to apply or directly nominating a staff member, and finally, monitoring to ensure compliance by the sponsored staff (Philip, College X).	There are a series of steps to be followed. The first is to ascertain the area of need, be it at the level of the department or faculty. After that, you move on to the second, which is to nominate any qualified member of staff immediately or invite applications from those interested in the PD, and then the final stage, which is that of supervision. (Camel, College Y)
The first step is to identify the area(s) of need of a specific department or faculty, or the institution as a whole, before approving a development programme to meet that need. (Julie, College X)	A need area is identified or established using staff APER, after which the selection process is conducted by a committee, and then, the staff will be under supervision. (Chi, College Y)

On the other hand, majority of academic tutor participants (n = 12, 55%), seem to have demonstrated poor knowledge of the policy practice procedure, as seen in the interview extracts of Alex (College Y): “To be honest with you, it is only when I am ready to apply for any of the PD programme [...], so I don’t have an idea for now”, Fidel (College Y): “I am not so sure of my answer but I think it is just about identifying the staff’s development needs and, afterwards, supporting the staff”, Frank (College X): “Sorry, I am not very conversant with the policy and may not be able to give a satisfactory answer [...] because I do not see reading that document as a priority”, and Joe (College X): “I can’t boast of a very good knowledge of the policy, and that is because I do not think it’s necessary, as the decision on what the policy says or is not mine to make or is not in my hands”.

As revealed in the illustrative extracts above, unlike the broad understanding of the policy objectives demonstrated by the participants across the two colleges, the academic tutors’ understanding of this aspect of the policy seems to be limited when compared to their academic leaders colleagues; and the situation was the same in both colleges. This finding resonates with the perceptions of Chabaya (2016) and Makoji (2016) about PD, and I will return to it later in Chapter 9.

5.3.3 Forms of professional development

Analysis of the documentary data revealed that, as a way of creating the needed opportunities for the realization of the policy objectives, the policy provides for various categories of leave as well as training and development programmes. These activities include:

Postgraduate study fellowship, training, research, acquisition of professional qualifications, part-time/sandwich programmes, post-doctoral fellowship, sabbatical programme, induction, orientation programme, coaching, seminars, academic conferences, and workshops, organized by the NCCE or professional bodies or departments/faculties of recognised higher education institutions. It was specifically stated that members of staff are encouraged to attend and shall be entitled to attendance of at least two (2) learned conferences per annum in Nigeria and one (1) International conference once every year overseas. (NCCE, 2006, p.23; NCCE, 2015, p.66).

The data again revealed that only a small number of the academic tutor participants (n = 6, 27%), showed that they know the specific PD activities mentioned in the policy, as they constantly referred to things like short courses and programmes, conferences, seminars, research and article publication, and workshops, during the course of our interview. Emma (College Y), for example, said: “The lists of PD activities include conferences, seminars, and workshops,” whereas Clems, referencing his past promotion panel experience, notes:

At the promotion interview for academic staff, emphasis is often placed on the number of articles published in reputable journals, conferences attended, and papers presented at such conferences, workshops, and seminars attended, which is all that is required of the staff to be promoted. Nothing much is usually said about teaching progress and successes. (Clems, College X)

Fidel, for instance, talked about study fellowship as a form of PD that is prescribed in the PD policy:

There are study programmes in the university with a duration of between 1 and 3 years that academic staff undertake in order to obtain diploma certificates, degrees, master's degrees, and PhDs. (Fidel, College Y)

However, all the academic leader participants again seem to have good knowledge of the specific activities which they mentioned as including sabbatical programme, induction, orientation programme, coaching, and mentoring, as seen in Julie and Paschal’s quotes below:

The policy recognises as a form of professional development, a programme in which academic staff are allowed to share and gain new knowledge and experiences by spending one academic session in a HEI that is not their original employer every ten years. (Julie, College X)

Ehm, the policy talks about induction training and orientation programmes usually organised for newly hired staff to enable them to integrate properly into the system. (Paschal, College Y)

A significant observation in the data was that, notwithstanding the mentioning of just some specific activities as forms of PD in the policy, some of the participants still believe that there are activities such as official school meetings, on-the-job learning, collegial interactions, though not listed in the policy, but can also contribute to their professional development. One of such participants is Caroline (College Y), as can be seen from her interview extract: “Talking of activities that counts as sources of professional development for academics, I consider things like academic conferences, further studies, staff job roles and responsibilities, daily observations and learnings from colleagues and students, etc.”

5.3.4 Criteria for staff PD

Documentary evidence shows that the prescribed policy conditions that academic staff must fulfil to get approval and possible institutional support for their professional development (be it college-funded or external/self-funded) includes that:

The staff must be a confirmed employee, who has been in the continuous employment of the College for at least two calendar years. Staff development should be geared towards achievement of the aims of the institution... Thus, priority should be given to the sponsorship of programmes, which will enable staff contribute more effectively to the success of the institution. There must be an identifiable need either at the department or faculty level which that staff development is to address, and not necessarily a right for staff. The development programme must be relevant to the institution, have a completion timeframe, take into consideration the job schedule and productivity level of the staff, and the availability of another staff to handle the schedule that may otherwise be vacant. (NCCE, 2006, pp.34; NCCE, 2015, p.66).

From the interview data, it would again seem that academic tutor participants do not have a good grasp of this section of the policy – criteria for staff PD. This was evident in the fact that only a few of them (n = 5, 23%) in their responses, particularly articulated some of the basic criteria. For example, the reference to the condition that the staff needs to be on full-time regular

appointment and have worked with the college for a minimum period of two consecutive years, as the below extracts from Roselyn and Keppy's interview illustrates:

If you are not a full-time staff member of the college whose appointment has been confirmed, you are not eligible or qualified for PD. (Roselyn, College X)

Your appointment with the college must have been confirmed, meaning you have completed your probationary period of between 1 and 2 years. (Keppy, College Y)

Other tutor participants that also mentioned some of the criteria in their response include Doris and Rose, when they noted that as a condition precedent to their professional development, it is required that the activity they would want to engage in must be either one of the recommended short courses or a study fellowship with a stipulated duration for completion; and having another staff member who should be able to fill in the gap(s) that the absence of the affected staff may create. Doris (College X) for example, mentioned that “before an academic can undergo a development programme like a study fellowship, there must be a colleague to be in charge of his or her duties, without which regrettably, it is not possible to undertake the PD”, and Rose (College Y), adds: “It has to be a programme on the college's list of programmes, because if it is not, it will not be recognised by the college for any funding support.”

The data equally revealed that academic leader participants again displayed good knowledge of this section as with others when they explained some of the criteria, among which includes that staff participation in PD activities, especially college-sponsored or funded programmes, is based on the college being satisfied that such a development programme will be significantly beneficial to the success and progress of the college. This was exemplified in the remarks by Chi (College Y) that “If the course or programme a staff intends to undertake for his/her development is not in a discipline where the college has a need, the study fellowship will

not be allowed” and Max (College X) who said: “before a lecturer is given approval and funding support for any PD programme, the college’s interest is first. It must be that it is addressing an area of need in the college.” I will discuss this finding with supporting literature in chapter 9.

This research data also revealed other interesting findings which I considered relevant to report in this research. Although the study data did not show any obvious difference in the way PD is generally understood across the two CoE as both institutions seem to perceive PD as involving formal and informal activities. However, it indicates contradictions amongst the participants within each of the colleges; as some participants consider PD as being strictly a formal activity, while others believe it is a hybrid of formal and informal activities.

This conflict in the conceptual understanding of PD, according to some of the participants (n = 5, 23%) was majorly influenced by specific statements in the policy, as Alex (College Y), for instance, revealed: “I do not see any need for a contention about the meaning of PD because the policy has made it somewhat clear to us by the mention of activities that we should consider as forms of PD, especially if I want to get funding support and need my effort at development to be recognised by the institution”. Also, the meaning ascribed to the term by various learning institutions and professional associations, as Joe and Doris articulate: “What I and perhaps some of my colleagues know and term as PD is what our college says it is.” (Joe, College X), and “According to the handbook of my professional association [...], PD is more about attending conferences and workshops because we believe that it is at such forums that we can find professional colleagues with whom we can share ideas and learn from” (Doris, College X).

Similarly, the data revealed diverse levels of understanding of the PD policy prescriptions between academic leaders and tutors, with leaders having more better understanding than their tutor colleagues. Three prime reasons were identified in the data, as being responsible.

The first is academic tutors' limited or lack of interest and commitment to a careful and in-depth reading and studying of the policy documents. According to the data, this is because some of the participants ($n = 5$, 23%) feel that they do not have any compelling need or reason to do so, after all the responsibility of interpreting or translating the policy into practice is primarily that of academic leaders, as these quotes from Fidel and Joe illustrates: "And its implementation is not directly within my remit. So, why should I bother myself so much about in-depth study of the policy" (Fidel, College Y), and "Why should I invest the time I am supposed to use in doing my work into reading or studying a document that I do not have any key responsibility with respect to how the policy is or should be implemented in my college" (Joe, College X).

Secondly, the ambiguous nature of the policy contents. The data revealed that an average number of the tutor participants ($n = 7$, 32%), feel that the policy is so cumbersome, and the wordings are so complex for them to easily comprehend when compared to similar education policies that they have used. The following participants' interview extracts speaks to this: Frank (College X), for example, said that "I find that each time I want to just study the policy, I find that the language and some of the terminologies used, makes it difficult for me to understand", while Caroline (College Y) notes "I wish the policy document was not that voluminous [...] I wish it was a small pamphlet document that I can easily read everything and understand in just one go", and Alex (College Y) responded that "Honestly, I find some of the contents of that document somehow tricky, such that I will require someone else to explain what they mean to

me before I can understand fully. Perhaps, that's why the policy says the Registrar is to interpret the policy".

Thirdly, academics' reliance on colleagues' interpretations of the policy. The data also indicates that what some of the respondents ($n = 4$, 18%) know about the policy is actually that which they heard from or were told by their colleagues, as Frank and Fidel's interview extracts indicates: "[...] that is what I consider it to be, because it is what I have always heard even my colleagues say about it" (Frank, College X), and Fidel (College Y) add that "Whenever there is something in the policy that I need to know or understand or well informed about, I often ask my office mate and other close colleagues whom I think maybe conversant with it." These finding corroborates Brynard (2010) and Makoji (2016), and further details are in Chapter 9.

5.4 Summary

In this chapter, the thoughts above demonstrate how the research data shows a common difficulty that exist within both case study colleges, which is having a common and clear definition of PD. As have been illustrated in this chapter, there are discrepancies in the understanding, with the participants in each case study institution seeing PD from diverse lenses which results in six themes that could be grouped under two broad areas of formal and hybrid PD. While some of the participants lean more towards formal perception of PD, others believe in PD being described as a hybrid of 'formal-informal,' arguing that some informal and unplanned networking can birth very beneficial relationships which can potentially affect PD practices.

The chapter went further to illustrate how academics understand and interpret PD policy, and this time, showing that the level of understanding differs between academic leaders and tutors, with the leaders having a more in-depth grasp of the policy than tutors. A further look at the data equally revealed some of the reasons for these differences. Still within the frame of this

thesis, an interesting question that arise from the investigation in this chapter is whether or not an academic's understanding of a policy in anyway affects its translation into action. I answered this question in the next chapter where I examine PD policy implementation in CoEs using the two case study colleges.

Chapter 6

Findings: PD policy implementation at the college level

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I present the findings on the practice of PD policy in the case study colleges, which relates to this study research question two. Based on the research data, with five themes (compliance with PD policy guidelines, participatory implementation, contextualised implementation, skewed and selective implementation) emerged which speaks to participants' experiences in terms of the practice being either effective or ineffective, and the influences on the PD policy implementation. I explored each of these themes further using relevant quotes to support the findings, as presented below.

6.2 Compliance with policy guidelines

The research data indicate that majority of the participants ($n = 17$, 77%) expressed the belief that their respective colleges have been effective in translating the PD policy into action. This stems from the actions of these colleges such as the strict adherence to the various provisions of the policy in practice. For instance, they revealed through their response that the college have over the years ensured that all activities concerning the professional development of its staff is handled mainly by the registry department/unit that is being superintended by the Registrar, which is an action in line with the provisions of the Condition of Service for staff of CoE (2015, Section 2, para. 4) which says that “the policy implementation must be guided by the college Registrar.” This can be seen in the interview extracts of Fidel and Doris below: “And as far as I know, everything about staff PD is decided by the registry department which is headed by the Registrar.” (Fidel, College Y), and Doris (College X) states that “We will normally write

to the office of the registrar to seek clarification on any of the policy items relating to our professional development that we are worried about and need clarity.”

Again, the participants seem to believe that their institutions very much comply with the prescribed policy procedure for the PD of staff, which involves: “Identifying the staff development needs of the institution and designing appropriate ways of supporting staff development” (NCCE, 2015, p.66), because these colleges conduct yearly (usually at the beginning of each academic year) routine staff needs assessment of departments and faculties and publicise the assessment report alongside available funding support opportunities through internal memos for interested academics to apply. The extracts below from participants’ interview transcripts illustrate the point that their respective colleges comply with PD policy provisions, in terms of acting in timely manner concerning staff PD, regular staff development meetings, staff development needs assessment, and strict observance of its rules:

College Management ensures due diligence and complies with all the stages in the policy template. (Max, College X).	Here, we are proactive rather than reactive when it comes to policy issues, particularly as it concerns this policy. (Paschal, College Y).
We take stock of areas of need and communicate our findings to the registry department that would then publish it for interested qualified staff in accordance with the policy requirements. (Ken, College X)	I am sure that our college implements the policy just exactly the way it. Because the SDC committee meet, I think every 12 weeks or so to discuss and address staff development matters and communicate to us any latest development. (Gab, College Y).

The data also revealed that participants seem to be satisfied with the practise because they believe that the two colleges often stick with the policy template that requires “a staff member to fulfil the conditions of engaging in a PD activity that is of relevance to the institution, has a

specified duration, the availability of a possible replacement staff member, and an acceptable timetable arrangement during the staff PD approval and nomination process” (NCCE, 2015; NCCE, 2006). Chris and Caroline confirmed this when Chris said, “I got this nomination only because I met all the PD policy requirements in the college’s guidelines. Unfortunately for some of my colleagues, they didn’t get nominated because they fell short of this” (Chris, College X), while Caroline supported that: “Getting the approval for PD is not that easy, especially if it is college-funded. Because the committee will say that you must fulfil every bit of the policy requirement, however, that is what I consider effective practice” (Caroline, College Y).

Further to this, the data showed that the two colleges have often ensured that all staff, irrespective of their status in terms of their grade level or position they occupy in the college, comply with the procedures of notifying the college through an official application, about any PD programme they intend to engage in, that will require them to be absent from their duty post for a maximum period of twelve months (NCCE, 2015). The participants see this as a strong indication of effective practice, as these quotes from the interview transcripts reveal. Joe, for instance, notes: “Although I am fully responsible for the funding of the master’s programme I am running currently, the college insisted that I follow the laid down rules by notifying them that I am undertaking the programme for the certificate to be recognised” (Joe, College X). Emma’s (College Y) comment: “when it comes to developing [...] we are made to follow the established channel with our applications, right from the HoD up to the provost, and then wait for the SDC’s decision” also reflects same, just as Alex’s (College Y) “the college is so serious about [...] not recognising the certificate that a staff brings from the programme that he/she attended without official approval.

Similarly, participants expressed the view that these colleges have, over the years, implemented the policy's provision on "Study leave with pay" (NCCE, 2015, p.67). That is, ensuring that an academic staff who is on approved study leave to undertake a postgraduate course of study that lasts for a period of twelve months or more should be paid their monthly salary or emoluments. Likewise, academics who are engaged in other development activities like conference attendance are being supported with funding and sponsorship depending on the approved conditions. This was regarded as an important index by the participants because there is a caveat in the policy: "Study leave could be granted with or without pay" (NCCE, 2015, p.67) that gives these colleges the freedom of choice, given their power and influence in the structure and agency relations. Chi's (College Y) comment "the implementation is effective. At least I can say that with confidence because I've experienced it. I applied for study fellowship naturally and I got the approval. I am in school, and my salary is coming in every month," and Keppy's (College Y) remark "because the study with pay policy is working smoothly here in my college, I don't know of others" both illustrates this point.

From the above illustrations, it was observed that the participants, both academic leaders and tutors, across the two case study colleges shared similar views on many of the elements relating to and affirming the compliance by these institutions with the policy prescriptions. They were, however, more academic leaders than tutors who supported this position. I discuss this finding in detail in Chapter 9.

6.3 Participatory implementation

The data also revealed that more than half of the participants ($n = 12$, 55%) with a significant proportion, eight out of twelve, being academic leaders, tend to believe that the policy was effectively implemented because of the inclusive stakeholder engagement approach and

constant communication employed by these colleges. They cited the creation of the Staff Development Committee (SDC) by these colleges in line with the policy prescription and the use of the Annual Performance Evaluation Report (APER) system (NCCE, 2015, p.19) as visible examples of how or the vehicles through which they encouraged and promoted staff participation in the implementation of the PD policy. This is because the SDC is a committee comprised of academic leaders, tutors, and non-academic staff under the leadership of the Registrar, that is saddled with the responsibility of executing the policy provisions as well as facilitating the achievement of the staff professional development goals of the institutions.

Evidently, the staff directly take part in the staff development process because the committee in discharging its duties carry them along through its internal communication of its activities and procedures and feedback mechanism. Confirming this, Philip (College X) notes: “we engage with and inform colleagues through our regular departmental and faculty board meetings, where we also seek to know from them what their needs are [...], actually, we make the process participatory.” This was further supported by Max and Camel in the below quotations, which kind of summarises the broader view that was expressed by the participants:

I know we are keeping faith with the policy by doing what it requires of us. For example, it's stated that the college should have a SDC that will deal with issues of staff development applications and all that, and we did (Max, College X).

I am a member of SDC and all we do every three months or so that we meet is exactly what the policy says, which is to consider submissions and requests by staff for PD and give approval or otherwise (Camel, College Y).

Similarly, some of the participants also expressed satisfaction with the policy execution process, stating that their respective colleges involve all members of staff in the annual evaluation exercise. APER is an exercise that is conducted every year in both colleges, like it is

with all public colleges, to assess the performance level of academic staff so as to determine their areas of strengths and weaknesses that PD could be deployed to address. For instance, Peter (College Y) stated that: “when we, as in the college management conduct staff performance evaluation and needs assessment in the college, we request or ask our staff to make their own inputs via the APER form. Does that not show that we consider them as partners and carry them along?”. Other participants also confirmed this when they said that during this exercise, they are invited to make their voices heard, through a set of forms that they are given to complete and mention specific areas where they think they are experiencing challenges in the course of performing their role as academics and need professional development interventions to improve.

The interview extracts of Lilian and Rose presented below, speaks to this as well as the committed and prompt nature with which their institutions attend to their development needs in compliance with the policy provisions:

When we raise our concerns especially our training needs in the APER form that we are given to fill, the college management for a fact listens, and would always take the necessary actions to address them (Lilian, College X).

We are expected to fill and submit APER form every year. And in the form, the college usually ask us to state our PD needs, and our submissions are usually given the required attention (Rose, College Y).

The reaction of some participants, mostly academic tutors, seems to suggest that although they share the view that the approach is somewhat participatory given that some academic tutors are appointed to the SDC, they also believe that it is not engaging enough. In their considered view, the participation of the direct beneficiaries, particularly academic tutors, would have been wider and deeper than what they have experienced, as the quotations below indicates:

Some of our colleagues are drafted into the SDC but it is not enough. Because [...] the engagement needs to be broader (Frank, College X).

I accept that academic leaders who together with some academic tutors make this committee are all my colleagues and so one may conclude that we are involved in the process. But how many are these academic tutor 'reps' and how much do they consult with the rest of us? That's the kind of participation am talking about (Fidel, College Y).

From the above presentation, it is evident that not all the participants, especially academic tutors, accept that the practice is participatory in their respective institutions. It was equally interesting to find from some of the commentaries of the tutors that although they agreed with their colleagues (academic leaders) that the college has a SDC in compliance with the prescriptions of the policy, they maintained that their involvement in the process has not been comprehensive. They claim that the committee is dominated by academic leaders such as deans of schools, who are more likely to support the college's interest than the individual staff. The finding in this section is in tandem with the perception of Makoji (2016) and Viennet and Pont (2017), and I will discuss this in detail in Chapter 9.

6.4. Contextualised implementation

The data also revealed that about half ($n = 10$, 45%) the participants, most of whom interestingly are academic leaders, seemed to be convinced that the case study colleges had implemented the PD policy well because of their approach, which significantly aligns the policy with the local conditions of their different contexts. This is a practice believed to be consistent with the policy prescription which provides that without prejudice to the existing provisions of the policy, institutions can modify an aspect of the policy during implementation to suit their specific needs (NCCE, 2006).

The below quotes illustrate the PD practice in these colleges where locally relevant needs and issues informed the focus or direction to which their PD for staff were tailored. College X, for instance, was more focused on the ICT training of academic staff for the digitalization of students' results and increasing the number of academic staff with PhDs and master's degrees. Max (College X), for example, mentioned that "One of our concerns was to bring our colleagues, particularly our examination officers, up to speed with the use of ICT in managing students' results" while Phillip (College X) stated, "We have fewer PhD holders as lecturers in most of our departments, and this puts some of these programmes at risk of losing NCCE accreditation, so we had to aggressively encourage our colleagues to pursue their PhDs by increasing sponsorship and funding opportunities."

In College Y, unlike their counterpart, data confirmed that the context-focused interpretation of the policy is driven by their interest in entrepreneurship and STEM-related development programmes, as well as trainings that could be easily and locally sourced, either from within the college or nearby institutions and organisations. For instance, Emma (College X), notes that "because the college now emphasises entrepreneurship education and training for our students, our funded staff development now focuses more on supporting programmes in that area", and was supported by Carmel (College Y), who added "We try to be rational about our staff's PD by making sure that we consider and concentrate on developing areas that we have a comparative advantage over other colleges. And on the training that our college provides."

Similarly, some of the participants also spoke more broadly about the policy implementation in their respective colleges, in a manner that seem to suggest context-related implementation, as can be seen in the below extracts:

We have made our best efforts at implementing the policy as stipulated, especially within our own given circumstances and available resources. (Julie, College X)	Our college is doing what is expected, and in a way that suits us as a college [...] given the uniqueness of each college, and perhaps, the different approaches that works for each college. (Chi, College Y).
I can tell you authoritatively as a member of the College Management, that, we diligently implement all policies of government. And in doing so, we basically try to accommodate our peculiarities as a college. (Ken, College X).	We are a state college located in a particular region in the country, we have our own priorities and modus operandi. So, the way we go about applying policies might slightly be different from others, especially our federal counterparts, but for us our focus is on our college. (Peter, College Y).

The above illustrations which speak to a context-based style of staff professional development policy practice, tends to align with the views of Murphy (2013) and Braithwaite et al (2018). I discuss this in detail in chapter 9.

In spite of the above evidence, which suggests effective practise of the policy in the two colleges, some of the participants, although they are mostly tutors, seem to disagree with the above position on the policy's implementation in their colleges. This is because they believe that, for implementation to be described as effective, actions taken must be exactly in line with what is stipulated in the policy document. Apparently, it was evident from the experiences they shared during the interview that what is being practiced in their individual colleges suggests a skewed and selective approach to policy implementation.

6.5 Skewed and selective practice

According to the data, almost half of the participants (n = 10, 45%), also with eight of them being academic tutors, mentioned that the practice in the case study colleges reflect some inconsistency with the policy prescriptions because the implementers seem to perhaps

deliberately ignore, oppose, tweak, or tilt aspects of the policy that do not suit their interests while they implement those that serve their purpose and agenda. These participants seem to believe that in these colleges, the policy implementation accords priority and recognition mostly to those activities that are considered to have formal characteristics, such as conferences, postgraduate studies, training, and workshops, while other forms of PD activities are not given the same level of attention. This is expressed in the following participants' interview extracts:

PD involves a lot of activities [...], but to the best of my knowledge, since I joined the job, the areas that are mostly considered and focused on have always been further studies, conferences, and workshops. Other activities are literally not given attention or recognised. (Clems, College X)	And the push and recognition for conference attendance and study fellowship or further studies is quite high, when compared to other forms of PD activities. (Fidel, College Y).
The SDC is so inclined to just certain programmes when its dealing with staff PD issues. (Frank, College X)	I agree that there may be so much focus on a certain programme, or two [...]. But we believe in prioritising. (Paschal, College Y).

Some of the participants also feel that the practice, with respect to how academics are being granted approval for both college-funded and self-funded study fellowship programmes, is a slight departure from the criteria provided in the policy. It was noted that the policy requires that before an academic staff is granted approval, there must be a suitable replacement for the staff in the role he or she is handling throughout the period of the study programme. But it is not what actually applies in practise in most cases in these institutions, as some staff are allowed to proceed on further studies without this requirement being met. The below quotations from Alex and Roselyn summarise and articulate these views:

The policy says there must be someone in my department teaching the same course that I teach, to cover in for me before I can leave for PD. But I have seen some colleagues go on study leave without having the said replacement. (Alex, College Y).

I am somehow dissatisfied with the way the college go about this policy. Because I personally have an experience which led me to the conclusion that they are cherry-picking in their implementation. Do this and don't do this. (Roselyn, College X).

These participants also believed that the implementation of the policy is not done in a holistic manner in the real sense of the word, which therefore suggests a negation of the actual provisions in the policy. The participants seem to express the belief that although the college was implementing the policy, it was mostly using the 'picking and choosing' approach. That is, they focus attention on those sections or aspects of the policy that they are more comfortable with and consider to be less demanding and easy to implement instead of adopting a practise that promotes and supports a wide range of professional development activities for academic staff in their respective colleges. The following extracts illustrate this point about biased implementation of policy that is expressed by mostly academic tutors:

There are still some concerns because the approach does not look holistic. When you say you are implementing a policy, it should be complete, not doing one part, and forgetting the other, perhaps, because it doesn't sit well with you. (Clems, College X)

While being selective may be to ensure that the right gaps are being filled, there are some parts of the policy that are almost totally ignored. It is as if they don't exist in practice. (Caroline, College Y).

But certain questionable issues like being 'restrictive' still hangs around the whole implementation process that would make me describe it as haphazard and ineffective. (Roselyn, College X).

Yes, as a college, we always respond practically to all national policies and promptly too, using the best approaches available to us, which may include being selective as we do in some instances, for the benefit of our institution, staff, and students. (Chi, College Y).

There was also a notion held by the participants about PD policy in the college being activated and supported mostly when it is to the benefit of the institution, for example, when there are needs or gaps in the institution to be filled, and not necessarily for the interest and benefit of individual staff. This view stemmed from past experiences of some of these participants, whereby they expressed interest in PD and initiated the process but were denied the opportunity by their college, which felt the PD activity would not have a significant impact on the college. The interview excerpts with Joe and Rose summed up this view. Joe, (College X) for instance, said “As one of those who is instrumental to the college achieving its goals, I think it is how this PD impacts me, who would then give back to the system, that should be the primary interest and not the other way around as it is presently considered”, and Rose (College Y) adds “Actually, it is true that the policy itself gives priority to the institution in terms of PD, but it also expects the college to balance the two. Because neither the college nor the academic staff can function effectively without the other.”

The above illustrations confirmed that some of the participants from both case study institutions believe that the policy implementation is skewed and not comprehensive, but this was largely dominated by the academic tutor participants, as their academic leader colleagues did not share in it. The leaders rather argued that whatever changes may have been made in the policy implementation process were to reflect their context and smoothen implementation, which they consider normal and in line with the policy provisions. Detailed discussion of this finding is presented in Chapter 9

Searching the data further, I found out interestingly, that the responses provided by some of the participants about the actual reality of the policy implementation in their respective colleges seem to have been based on two major sentiments. The first is that some of these participants are leaders (by reason of the position or role they are appointed to), who are involved in the management of these colleges, hence, they expectedly spoke in support/defence of the practice. Although they acknowledged the possibility of inefficaciousness in the process of executing the policy, they also argued that such is normal and not peculiar to their college because it happens in some other higher education institutions and organisations as well. Julie and Peter's quotations below speak to the views shared by some of the participants:

Our college Management, by the way I am a member, takes the issue of staff development very seriously, and so, does not play around with implementing the policy. It is dealt with dispassionately and excellently, and I don't think our staff can dispute that. (Julie, College X).

If it is this current college Management that I am a part of, I salute the team, particularly our leader, the provost. Because when it comes to executing policies that will impact on the staff, we don't joke with it. It is good you will interview some of our staff too to confirm what am saying. (Peter, College Y).

The second sentiment is that of 'benefits.' There was evidence in the data which suggest that some of the participants' sense of judgement in this instance were based on the sentiment that they had been either favoured or denied the opportunity that some of their colleagues had to benefit from the college-funded PD, on which a greater number of academics rely for PD. For instance, while Chris (College X) was full of commendation: "I will definitely give the college management a pass mark when it comes to the implementation of the PD policy because, at my level, I have benefited from three funding and sponsorship opportunities". Fidel and Alex, on the other hand, expressed frustrations and disappointments with the practice: "I did my master's

programme and attended some conferences with my personal money. The college never gave me any financial support, and I don't think it is supposed to be so. So, in my assessment, the implementation hasn't gone so well" (Fidel, College Y), and Alex (College Y): "I can't rate them high because I believe the implementation has had some kind of bias and is skewed in favour of certain directions and some colleagues, which I believe is wrong. So, my take is that the policy is so far being poorly implemented." This finding aligns with the views of Oduaran (2015) and Scheeren (2010) on PD policy implementation, and I will discuss this further in Chapter 9.

6.6 Influences on PD policy implementation

Further exploration of the research data also revealed trends that suggest certain influences on the practice of the policy in the two case study colleges. In their responses to the interview question which sought to know if there was any other information regarding the issue of implementation that they thought had not been mentioned or properly covered and that they would want to speak to and shed more light on, the participants mentioned implementers' understanding of the policy and college-level factors such as favouritism and victimization, and the politicisation of PD.

6.6.1 Implementer's understanding of the policy.

The significance of implementers' understanding or misunderstanding of the PD policy to how it has been implemented in the case study colleges was established through the data. The meaning that implementers attributed to the policy was considered important because, depending on what they knew about it, they either accepted, rejected, revised, or wrongly implemented it. But fundamentally, all the participants ($n = 22$, 100%) agree that to take a position about a certain policy, implementers must first know what it is that the directive is asking them to do. This is evident in some of the interview extracts presented below:

If I don't know what the policy is all about [...], how do you think I will be able to implement such a policy well? See, I believe absolutely that my knowledge of the policy is a major prerequisite for its smooth implementation. (Lilian, College X)

Actually, I think one fundamental truth about policy implementation whether within my college or at any other organisation, is that it has something to do with how the implementers understand it. (Emma, College Y)

This view was further echoed by other participants, who associated what they described as the ineffective practice of the policy primarily to the implementers' misunderstanding or poor knowledge of the policy. Contributing to the discussion, Fidel explained that sometimes the implementers are not so sure or clear about what the policy wants because it often carries vague or conflicting meanings that have consequences for implementation. Hence, what determines the policy outcome is the implementers' good judgement about what the policy means: "Some of those responsible for implementing this policy here lack a robust knowledge of the actual message in the policy, and they end up offering a wrong interpretation like we sometimes experience." (Fidel, College Y). Keppy, expounding on the discussion, likened the policy implementer's understanding to a network signal and said implementation failure results when the signal is weak or not clear, or when it does not align with the intentions and agendas of the policy. Giving an example, he notes: "If the signal you get from your internet network server is bad or fluctuates, certainly your workflow won't go smoothly without some glitches here and there. But if the internet supply is ok, there won't be issues with work. So, that's how it is with policy understanding and implementation" (Keppy, College Y). Frank (College X) adds: "And I feel the reason the policy appears not to be solidly implemented is because some of those in charge of implementing it don't have a solid idea of the policy. A chat with two of them got me unpleasantly surprised, to be honest."

The participants further pointed out that it is with full knowledge of the policy that the implementers have for many years been able to execute it effectively for their respective institutions. Responding to the question during the interview, Rose (College Y) stated that “I believe the good grasp of the basic information, that is, the ‘dos and don’ts’ in the policy, by our SDC members, coupled with the supply of required resources, is what has ensured successful interpretation over the years”. Remarks by Max and Doris were also particularly relevant and worth referencing.

As the head of my department, one of the reasons I can record great success in carrying out most of the college’s policy directives, including the PD policy, through the nomination of staff who are qualified for professional development programmes, was the fact that I often equipped myself with a detailed understanding of such policy directives. (Max, College X).

One thing is key to achieving effective policy implementation, and that is understanding of the policy contents [...] Just like for me to be able to teach very well, I must have good understanding of the subject and pedagogical skills. (Doris, College X)

The illustration above has shown that despite implementers’ different levels of sense-making about the PD policy, they reached a consensus, which confirmed that one of the key elements that determined how the policy was effectively or poorly translated into action was how the said policy was understood by those responsible in these colleges. This finding gained the support of Light and Cox (2001), and Crawford (2009), and I discussed it further in chapter 9.

6.6.2 Favouritism and victimisation

A small proportion of the participants (n = 5, 23%), seem to believe that the practices in these colleges are laced with acts of favouritism and victimization, which have impacts on the implementation. They noted that the letters of the policy are sometimes interpreted in an entirely different way [twisted or turned upside down] by those responsible for the implementation, just

to favour one or a group of staff that are seen to be in the ‘good books’ of the leader(s) and subtly victimise those who are not in the ‘good books’ because they are seen as ‘rebellious’ staff. The leaders try to justify their actions with a clause in the policy that say, “the application of any member of staff may not necessarily be granted even when they fulfil all qualifying criteria or conditions.” (NCCE, 2015). Sharing her experience, Roselyn feels the policy is beautiful and commended the government and her employers for the wise initiative that they too, as teachers, need to also refresh their knowledge and skills. But she expressed concerns about the issue of favouritism during the implementation, which she said has always been the problem with many ‘nicely crafted’ policies. Her words:

If you are not one of those in their good books, there is a high possibility that your application could be denied as many times as possible. And they reserve the right, according to the policy, to give approval or deny it. (Roselyn, College X).

Similar views expressed by a broad range of the participants during the interview are represented by the below extracts:

<p>The have been talks here and there by colleagues about the way sponsorship nominations are done, and a number of us believe that certain things are not right with the process for the obvious reasons of favouritism and nepotism. (Joe, College X)</p>	<p>I have always known and even shared with some colleagues who equally agreed with me, that envy, bias, and favouritism, is affecting PD implementation in our college. We see clearly what happens at times. (Fidel, College Y).</p>
<p>But those at the top level who oversee the implementation of the policy sometimes use it as a tool to victimise some hated colleagues or settle scores. (Frank, College X).</p>	<p>And from my assessment of the practices, it looks to me like some parts of the policy are bent or twisted in some way, just to accommodate certain interests, you know. (Alex, College Y)</p>

6.6.3 Politicisation of staff PD

There was evidence in the data indicating that few of the participants (n = 6, 27%) believed that the leaders in these colleges politicised the PD of their staff. They mentioned such political tendencies to be their interference in the official operational guidelines and procedures in staff selection and approval for training and development activities. Some of the participants revealed that both the college-funded PD and the approval for self-funded PD, were used by the academic leaders to settle their political allies, cronies, and loyalists, who are either colleagues or have people who work at the college, in exchange for political support and influence. While those outside their political circle are perceived as disloyal or enemies and are victimised in some ways as a result.

They maintained that this is a negation from the policy implementation procedure, which has affected the effectiveness, as these interview extracts below reveal. Frank (College X), for example, notes: “You may meet the selection criteria and still be side-lined for those with people in authority who can speak for them, and when you question their decision, you are referred to certain parts of the policy documents.” Supporting this, Rose (College Y) articulates: “It is even such that they sometimes withhold approval for PD if you are not a member of their political structure in the college,” while Fidel (College Y) adds: “There is a lot that goes on. For example, if you belong to their ‘political family,’ rules can be bent, stakes lowered, or in some instances, completely put aside. While for others who are not, that may not apply.”

Paschal, on the other hand, although acknowledge it, but held a slightly different opinion, claiming that while such a thing is possible, it is not a common practise at the college. Adding that it is not an offence to assist a colleague if there is the opportunity to do so, especially if there is nothing untoward or ulterior about it, even when people will always read meanings into

whatever a person does, especially if it does not go their way. His words: “I can't rule out the fact that we sometimes protect the interests of or speak for those close to us, but that is not the norm here. By the way, I don't see anything wrong with that since it's not like this is done regularly and there are no strings attached” (Paschal, College Y).

6.7 Summary

In this chapter the findings were summarised under five key themes of compliance with PD policy guidelines, participatory implementation, contextualised implementation, skewed and selective implementation, and influences on implementation. The findings revealed that the PD policy was actually implemented in the respective colleges, but mostly with some changes or modifications to the policy that reflected the wishes and peculiarities of each college. It also revealed that institutional context relating to policy complementarities, expectations, values, beliefs, and needed skills played a relevant role in how each college responded to or activated the PD policy to align with their local college's set values and priorities. The two institutions have different contextual elements that the participants believed were given prominence by these colleges during implementation of the policy, as what works in one context may not work in another or in the same way. So, each of the institutions looked at what works and what does not work for them.

Also, the analysis revealed that the implementers adopted a participatory approach to implementing the policy, a system whereby some academic tutors were brought onboard to speak on behalf of the colleagues in the whole process. However, it was also revealed that the implementers fail to notice, intentionally ignore, or selectively attend to policies that are inconsistent with their college's interests and agendas. Policies that fit their agendas are more likely to be implemented, and those that do not are more likely to be either opposed or modified

so that they align. Furthermore, analysis showed that participants across both colleges were on the same page regarding the influence of college-level factors on the application of the policy, just as they also agreed that a strong link exists between policy understanding and implementation. These factors, it was revealed, also played a prime role in their perception and judgement of how the policy is being interpreted in their individual colleges.

In all, what should be stressed is that all the themes that have emerged are common to both case study institutions; however, there is some level of disagreement between academic leaders and tutors about some of the themes, especially the participatory implementation and skewed and selective practice themes. Specifically, it showed that most of the respondents who believed that the practice was selective were academic tutors, while those that defended such a practice using contextual priorities as a reason were academic leaders. This analysis also revealed that academics in this study context rely heavily on college sponsorship and funding support for their PD, and it produced sentiments that influenced participants' responses about policy implementation in their respective colleges. As evidenced in the above analysis, their reactions focused mostly on the college-funded PD with little or no regard to self-funded (agency) PD and were driven by what they had either benefited from or been denied. Having explored the data on the practice of the PD policies in the case study colleges, the next step is to find out how academic staff engage with PD activities for their own professional development, and this is reported in the chapter that follows immediately after.

Chapter 7

Findings: Academics' attitude towards participation in PD

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I present the results on academics' attitude towards their own professional development, which relates to this study's third research question. The research data revealed two broad themes – belief and less enthusiasm, and influence factors, with six subthemes – academic's involvement in the PD process, supportive environment and networks, the need to maintain satisfactory official employment and PD records, academic's perception of PD, academic's agentic action, and academic's demographic variables. I discuss these themes in detail in the sections that follow.

7.2 Belief and less enthusiasm

The question about how academics in the case study colleges feel about engaging in PD activities elicited mixed reactions from the participants, which summarily seem to suggest two things – belief, and less enthusiasm. Firstly, the data revealed that all the study participants (n = 22, 100%) expressed belief and interest in PD, because of the value it adds to their professional and personal life, as can be seen in these quotes from the interview transcripts. Rose (College Y), for instance, stated during the interview that, “And without a doubt, me and my colleagues, I can say this on their behalf, are very interested in our professional development because we know how important it is to us.” She was supported by Chris (College X) who stressed that, “I truly do not think any academic that is worth his or her salt and knows the value of PD would not like to engage in it. Many of us do, I am sure of that.” Also, Caroline (College Y) notes that, “Is why as an academic, I place high-value on my professional development. Because like I said, I so much believe in its power.”

Secondly, the data also showed that in spite of the participants' belief and interest in PD, about half of them ($n = 9$, 41%) were less enthusiastic about engaging in PD activities. The interview extracts of some of the respondents summarily captures this view. Fidel (College Y), for instance, revealed this, when he articulated that, "Yes, I am interested in PD, but I haven't really participated in it that much." A similar opinion was expressed by Clems (College X), "And if I must say the truth, I have been somehow reluctant about engaging in PD. But that is not to say I do not believe in PD." Further to this, Chi's (College Y) assertion also suggest that many academics have been more passive than active about their PD for whatever reasons, even though they are naturally and genuinely interested in PD: "In spite of the fact that I love and support staff PD, the way I can describe my reaction towards PD activities is simply that, I haven't been that regularly active." According to the data, certain factors are responsible for these reactions by academics regarding PD, and these are explored in the next section.

7.3 Influence factors

Further exploration of the data showed trends that seem to suggest that participants' attitude towards their PD is affected by college-level structural elements and agentic influences, which are common to both case study colleges. I discuss these influences below.

7.3.1 Academic's involvement in the PD process

The data revealed that more than half of the participants ($n = 13$, 59%) expressed the believe that a broad-based consultation by academic leaders with the tutors is a healthier approach to adopt, as it helps to strengthen the whole PD process and influence their participation. The interviewees stressed that once academic staff are given a sense of belonging, with regard to the execution of the policy at the college level, they will be highly encouraged to lend their support and work as partners for the success of the programme. However, they equally

revealed that where such is only partly practiced as was observed in the case study colleges, they tend to be discouraged from participation, as Lilian notes:

The consultation about PD is not deep, and it actually makes me feel somehow about it. What I think is that there is a great need to consult widely with the key actors like us, because it will afford the opportunity for our leaders to know our exact needs as the beneficiaries while also providing us with more information about it. (Lilian, College X).

Gab also notes the influence of consultation with academic tutors, whom the PD policy and programmes are designed to serve. Emphasising that it is in that process that they get first-hand, specific information from the academic leaders, and also present their views on issues under consideration. He further stressed that most academics are hesitant about engaging in the activities for their own PD because they feel they were not fully carried along in the process:

You know, there's no gainsaying the importance of consultation with tutors by the academic leaders. I say this from experience, because I, and I am sure that some colleagues too, show some level of resentment towards PD because I feel [...] and that the process is not participatory and transparent enough to motivate me. (Gab, College Y).

Some of the participants spoke about the involvement of academic tutors specifically from the aspect of official meetings between them (as direct beneficiaries) and the leaders to discuss robustly about their PD. They believe that it is such action that gives a stamp of confidence and promote its wider acceptability and participation by academics or otherwise, as Fidel for instance, articulates:

I have never been invited to any meeting at the instance of the college management for purposes of discussing and making my input regarding PD. This kind of weakens my interest, because I feel I should be part of the conversation about what concerns me. (Fidel, College Y)

This was corroborated by Joe (College X) who said the practice in his college follows a top-bottom kind of arrangement: "It is what they decide at the top management level and present to us at the bottom that we take and work with, we don't have anything to contribute or counter,

because we are not involved in the process.” Doris shared same position and even went further to add that the only way they can present their views or opinions to the college’s staff development committee (SDC) is through a third party, that is, their colleagues who are members of the SDC.

She asserts that:

I as the academic wanting to engage in PD through the college funding support, don’t even get to meet with the committee that deals with the application and gives approval, perhaps to offer any explanation if need be. The much any of us can do is to probably speak through a colleague that is a member of the SDC. And this tends to affect my perception about the whole PD of a thing. (Doris, College X).

Other participants seem to find academic tutors’ underrepresentation in the colleges’ SDC, and at different stages in the PD process influential. They revealed that the SDC is dominated by academic leaders which obviously shrinks their own ‘voices.’ And that the practice of not fully involving academic tutors in the process has resulted in a deficit of trust among them regarding the protection of their PD interest, and the lack of conviction on why they should attach primacy to PD throughout the course of their career, as Alex articulates:

The committee is made up of mostly academic leaders, that is, deans of schools, The Registrar and just one or so, academic tutor. So, with such composition, our views and opinions can easily be drowned or sometimes side-lined. This is what some of us mean when we say, we’re not adequately represented, which is also making me feel kind of laid-back when it comes to the issue of PD. (Alex, College Y).

Similarly, Clems notes that, the fact that they as academic tutor are not being fully carried along in the process sometimes tend to dampen their morale. Citing an instance about how the handling of the process and the decision by the staff development committee made him feel discouraged about PD, because he had no opportunity for inputs:

There was a time I submitted application with all the documents that were required to the SDC for study sponsorship, and to my surprise the committee didn’t approve it based on its own reasons [...] I was only notified in writing about the committee’s non-approval of my application. Do you, in the face of such, still expect my or any other individual’s attitude to be positive towards PD? Of course not. (Clems, College X).

Whilst some of the participants seemed to express that their discouragement for PD stems from the limited involvement in the process, as has been presented, others like Chris tend to suggest affirmatively that the privilege of being a member of the SDC was his major motivation about PD, because he felt recognised by the college. Even more important is the fact that he felt involved in the process of PD practice in the college, given that the committee for which he was a member is responsible for staff development matters:

You know as a member of the SDC, I have the opportunity of making contributions during our meetings, on important issues that bothers on our development as academics. And that makes me feel encouraged you know. Knowing that I am part of the process. (Chris, College X).

Interestingly, two of the academic leaders participants, from their responses, seem to agree that consultation is key and influential to staff's interest and commitment to participating in PD activities, and that the case colleges are still guilty in that regard, as Paschal (College Y) confirm, "I completely accept with them that consultation is a great idea and that we may not have met their expectation [...]." However, they argued that the college management often consult with academic tutors on the issue of PD through those of them who are their leaders and official representatives (i.e., by proxy). They noted that despite their current leadership roles in the institution which has given them the nomenclature 'academic leaders,' they are still tutors, because that is what they were originally employed as, before whatever additional role and responsibilities they have taken which appears to separate them from their colleagues. Hence, since they are often part of the PD planning and execution process, they consider themselves standing in as the representatives of all academics. For instance, Julie articulates:

I am an academic staff even as a HoD, and I am part of the decision-making process in the college including staff PD, and that I do on behalf of my colleagues. Usually, after our meeting at the College Management level, I go back and brief my staff at the level of departmental meeting. Hence, it will not be completely true for anyone to suggest that academic staff are not consulted or carried along in the process. (Julie, College X).

As illustrated above, there were evidence in the data which suggest that the attitudes of academic tutors towards PD is largely shaped by the level of their involvement in the process. Whilst the negative behaviour was motivated by the lack of broad-based consultation, official meetings, and adequate representation in the SDC, by the academic leaders who are the policy implementers at the college level, practicing the contrast results in positive attitude regarding PD. Academic tutors believe that as the main people that the policy is meant to serve, they should not be left at the fringes, but be fully involved in the entire implementation process at the college level. Because keeping them at the fringes only suggest that PD decisions are mainly that of the institution, given that the ‘voices’ of tutors were not adequately represented. This finding which aligns with the perceptions of Murty and Fathima (2013) and Postareff and Nevgi (2015) is discussed further in Chapter 9.

7.3.2 Supportive environment and networks.

Although as will be seen in section (7.3.5), the participants revealed that they are individually in-charge of their development decision and actions. However, there is evidence in this research data which shows that for a greater proportion of the participants ($n = 13$, 59%), their attitude towards PD, sometimes is influenced by the kinds of supports they received or did not receive from their work environment and networks within and outside their colleges. Some of these participants described interacting and collaborating with colleagues as highly significant to the shaping of their professional development attitude. Rose, (College Y) for example, discussed how she picked up the motivation from a discussion with one of her colleagues about

improving teaching skills: “I became so motivated to attend a workshop on teaching pedagogy two months ago, after my interaction with a close colleague who shared with me her plans to attend same workshop, as well as supported me financially to attend.” Similarly, Clems and Fidel’s quotation below expressed a related view:

A colleague that visited our college for research few years ago, is the person that challenged me the more about PD when he told me that he makes yearly plans about his PD, and each year, he attends a minimum of three conferences, whether he gets the college funding or not. (Clems, College X).

I’m more encouraged about PD because of one of my senior colleagues that I am so close to and have taken as my mentor. To be honest, I learnt most of things I know today in this job including developing a likeness and habit for regular development of myself from him, because he takes his time to teach, share his experience with me, and guide me through a lot of things in our job that he thinks I need to know to succeed in the job. (Fidel, College Y).

Another form of support that the participants considered as influential to their participation in PD were the personal guidance and mentoring opportunities, they got from colleagues that they worked closely with in different committees that they were appointed into, for the attainment of the college’s objectives. For instance, Emma (College Y) notes that, “I was really challenged to become as better as I am now, by my other colleagues, especially the older ones, that I have served together in some committees in the college.” Further probe of the data revealed that the majority of academic staff are influenced by the college funding support to engage in their own PD. They expressed the view that their development is for the service of their respective colleges, hence, it is only reasonable to wait on the college to either fully or partly fund their PD, as Alex (College Y) said, “I make sure that I get the college’s due approval and funding before embarking on any of my PD programmes and it has been my motivation”. After all, there is annual budgetary appropriations and financial provisions mainly for that purpose by the government that is their employer, as Caroline (College Y) revealed, “Since

TETFund funding is available in the college for our PD, I am always encouraged to apply for workshops and conferences especially.” Some of the participants also admitted to attending several conferences, postgraduate studies, and workshop, local and international, mostly because they were sponsored by their college. For example, Doris articulates that,

One of the major things that have often motivated me to develop myself up to this level where I am studying for a PhD is the fact that I get funded by my college. Because I do not think I would have gone beyond a master’s degree if I was to sponsor myself. (Doris, College X)

Further to this, the participants said they have had to depend on the college funding support for their PD because of its exploitative nature given the high cost and exorbitant fees charged for some programmes which they claim they could rarely afford and considering that they are expected to engage in PD regularly. And that they are encouraged by such supports, as Joe and Frank, for instance, articulate:

My interest somehow faded away at some point because even when I am willing to engage in PD, the cost involvement draws me back, but I was encouraged when I got the needed funding from my college. (Joe, College X).

When I joined the job newly about 5 years ago, I was so enthusiastic about PD, but when I did my calculations and saw that the immediate benefit is not commensurate with my investments in terms of finances and time, that initial high interest dropped. But the interest was rekindled by the college funding support that I got for my PD. (Frank, College X).

Whereas some of the participants are encouraged by these support systems, as presented above, it is noteworthy that it also had negative influences on other academics’ attitude towards PD, especially when they do not access these supports. Perhaps because of things such as the uncertainty around the expected funding support from these colleges, due to the cumbersome nature of the application review and approval process, as Fidel explained:

I haven't been able to attend some trainings and conferences I would have loved to, especially international ones, because I haven't been able to secure funding from the college that I have been banking my hopes on. Twice I have applied and wasn't successful in both. (Fidel, College Y)

Asides the fact that college funding support is not easily accessible by academics, Roselyn also believes that some of these supports, particularly, funding for postgraduate study fellowships, are designed with tacit conditions to hold down academics in a particular institution longer than when they would wish to stay, which tends to discourage academics from embracing such PD activity. Her response:

The college funding for a PD programme like further studies is some sort of 'trap' used by our employers to restrain us from leaving our colleges when we ordinarily would have loved to because we are tied to a signed bound. (Roselyn, College X).

Speaking along similar lines, Keppy said that the funding arrangements is making PD sponsorship and funding support less attractive, especially for the postgraduate studies programme, specifically, PhD scholars who spend a minimum of three academic years in their programme, as he articulates:

Impact is more on those of us running our PhDs, because of the length of period of the programme, which is 3 years. The funds are usually approved by the college is based on the prevailing FOREX rate, at the beginning of our study programme, and with zero opportunity for upward review in case of variations caused by national and global inflation. (Keppy, College Y).

Following what has been demonstrated above, it shows that most of the participants in this study agreed to the significant influence of support systems and networks in and outside the academia, on the attitude of academics towards their PD. These supports as shown in that data came through college funding, collegiate or friendly interactions and other structural elements. This particular influence on academics' attitude was evident in both case study colleges but

mostly affects academic tutors than leaders. The finding aligns with the views of Zhang et al (2021) on the influence of supporting workplace environment on workers' PD. Further discussion of this finding is presented in Chapter 9.

7.3.3 The need to maintain satisfactory official employment and PD records.

The research data indicates that academic staff engage in PD for varying reasons, and for a greater number of the participants ($n = 12$, 55%), it seems to suggest that their motivation fundamentally is because it is a major way through which they prove to their institution during the annual performance evaluation report (APER) that they are actually keeping with or satisfying the conditions of their employment. For instance, Clems (College X) stated that, "I give you an example, when I was employed as a lecturer, I had to go through compulsory induction exercise, and mentorship trainings as conditions for my employment." Similarly, Frank shared that he was engendered by the codes of professional practice which among others include maintaining good character and conducts, loyalty to the institution, and ensuring regular professional development to keep up with the dynamism of the profession and promote effectiveness in their job performance.

As a matter of fact, my job as an academic is what majorly drives or compels me to seek PD. You see, there is a common cliché in academia which I think you may be familiar with, which is 'publish or perish.' So, these encourages me to attend and present papers at conferences and publish same. (Frank, College X).

In the same vein, Rose and Julie acknowledged that they were encouraged to engage in professional development activities like workshop and trainings, because it was one of the required criteria to function effectively and efficiently on their new roles of heading the department and students' examination results' management. This is reflected in the below extracts from the interview:

Ehm, when the provost of the college appointed me as a head of department, I was given the basic orientation and took part in specific workshops that have been of great benefits to me in my current role, were recommended for me to attend. (Julie, College X).

My new and current appointment as Examination Officer of my School is what drove me to attend some PD workshops related to examination management, results compilation, and records keeping. (Rose, College Y)

Speaking along the same lines of ensuring that they fulfil the demands of their employment, some of the participants, note that the official workload on them which they mandatorily need to execute as their employment requirement, is rather affecting their PD interest, because they hardly find the needed time to engage in it, as Gab (College Y) noted: “Actually, I have interest for PD and would love to regularly engage in it but where is the time, with all the courses I have to teach and assess every semester?” Also, Philip in his response during the interview articulates that:

The daily office work demands on me, and my colleagues are so much that there is a serious competition for my little time, including the one that I could have had for continuous professional development. (Phillip, College X).

Furthermore, Chris asserted that PD has become an entrenched academic culture among academic staff in his college, such that every newly recruited academic staff into the college, is mandatorily encouraged to embrace the culture, through induction training and making it a requirement for career growth. Adding that that has been a major motivation for him to engage in PD, as the below quote confirms:

Upon joining the academia in this college, I realised that PD is something that almost every colleague is familiar with, because of its strategic place in our employment as a sort of mandatorily requirement, and I felt motivated by that and aligned completely. This is because as an academic, I think PD is what keeps us fit for our job, just as regular fitness training is to a professional footballer or athlete. (Chris, College X).

The career progression of the academic staff also emerged as a factor that influences the attitude and disposition of academics towards PD. Academics' PD records is an official requirement that must be met before they could progress from one stage of their career to the other. The college of education places emphasis on staff maintaining 'satisfactory' records of engagement in scholarly activities when measuring their professional development and productivity for the purposes of appraisal and promotion, as confirmed by Emma and Joe:

I and most of my colleagues bother about it because it's a necessary requirement for our promotion. Whenever I am due for a promotion, I am expected to present a certain number of conference papers, journal publications, and higher qualifications in some cases to be promoted. (Joe, College X).

You know it is actually because the Conditions of Service for CoEs requires that I must present evidence of meeting the minimum requirements of three conferences attendance, three journal publications, book chapter(s) or a textbook to be promoted. (Emma, College Y).

The illustration above proved that the need for academics to justify that they have or are fulfilling the conditions of maintaining satisfactory official employment and professional development records as demanded by their employment/employers, was a key driver for their engagement in PD. the discussion of this finding with the support of relevant literature is presented in Chapter 9.

7.3.4 The influence of academic's perception of PD.

Further review of the data revealed that an average number of the participants (n = 8, 36%) said their attitude towards PD is shaped by their individual understanding of what constitutes PD, given that there is no common description for it. Roselyn and Keppy for instance, note that the description of PD within the context of the policy or institution to mean specific types of activities that must have formal orientation, contrary to their personal understanding of it as including activities that do not necessarily need formal learning structures such as their daily

job routines, and other development engagements within and outside the workplace, negatively affected their attitude towards PD. The argument was that describing PD with just few isolated activities and methods is only a subtle way of introducing limitations to what and where they can learn and acquire new knowledge and skills that can be useful to them in their career.

I feel a bit disappointed and discouraged that activities I learn new things from, each day on my job to improve myself, are not really given the attention they deserve while some others are awarded special PD status. (Roselyn, College X).

My reactions about PD for quite sometimes now have been premised on the fact that there's a serious attempt or effort at boxing academics into accepting that PD is just about formal activities, which I think is affecting our practice. (Keppy, College Y).

A similar view was shared by Rose and Clems, who both revealed that they were taken aback by the perception that perhaps the policy has created within their context that professional development must be a discipline-related and externally provided programme. They believe that any activity that can contribute to their effectiveness constitute PD:

Personally, my issue with PD has always been about the interpretation that is assumed in my college that it must have to be an engagement in development activities in my field of specialisation or subject area that I teach before it is considered that I participate in PD. Why should it be so? (Clems, College X).

From my own knowledge of the policy objectives, PD is designed to keep us up to date and efficient in our job, so, I think whatever I do that will help me achieve this is PD, and not necessary some specific stuff. (Rose, College Y).

Indeed, it was equally evident during the interviews, that some of the academics whose conceptualisation of PD within their context was majorly limited to formal activities like conferences, workshops, seminars, and further studies, do not seem to bother themselves about engaging in those activities within and outside the academia that are informal in nature, but can also contribute significantly to staff professional development. This was reflected in the remarks by Chris and Emma:

The activities I engage in for my PD are strictly those that are recognised by our employers and are stated in the college staff PD handbook. Because I don't have money and time to waste over what would not be recognised by my college. (Chris, College X).

My college recognises majorly formal PD activities like courses and conferences organised by either the college itself or any other higher education institution. So, those are the ones I consider as relevant and obviously pay very serious attention to. (Emma, College Y).

The data also shows that some of the participants perceive academic leaders' interpretation of some aspects of the PD policy in practice within their colleges negatively, presuming that leaders sometimes deploy structural powers to manipulate and suppress academics' agency, which tends to affect academics' desire and drive for PD. For example, extracts from Fidel (College Y) interview reveals that: "The way some of our leaders are exercising the leadership powers that they have regarding staff development, honestly weakens my morale."

The above illustration is indicative of the fact that the attitude of academic staff towards participating in PD, relates significantly to the way they perceive what PD represents, vis-à-vis how it has been conceptualised and interpreted in practice in their different colleges. This position was common among both colleges but mostly dominated by academic tutors. The finding is discussed in Chapter 9 with relevant supporting evidence.

7.3.5 Academic's agentic power

As revealed in (7.3.2), academics would normally want to depend on the college's decision in terms of approval and funding support for their PD which has influence on their participation. However, this research data shows that almost half of the participants (n = 10, 45%) also said that their participation in PD activities is influenced by the activation or exercise of their agentic powers, either because of their personal philosophy that appreciates human

capital development, or actions of certain structural elements within and outside their college. For instance, Gab and Chris revealed that they decided to engage in PD based on their personal conviction that PD is pivotal to positively addressing the issues affecting quality higher education delivery, particularly in this era of information and communication technology, as can be seen in the below extracts:

And because I believe that it would be completely out of place and a mis-normal for academics to teach with outdated methods in this current era of information technology and where students who are gaining admission into the various higher education institutions are IT savvy. (Chris, College X)

Because I have for the longest of times had this belief that continuous PD is the ‘fuel’ that we academics need to refill to continue to drive the teaching and research process effectively. Gab (College Y)

Similarly, some of these ten respondents, particularly those that have attained the highest-ranking position in their career, also revealed that their participation was encouraged mostly by the quest to boost their self-esteem and attain self-actualisation. They acknowledged that although it is a major requirement for progression in the academia in Nigeria, which is why some of their colleagues engage with it as noted earlier. But they insisted that their reason goes beyond that given that they have already reached the peak of their career and can no longer seek promotion. Peter for example, notes:

For me, I can’t be promoted anymore because I have gotten my final promotion. So, my participation in PD is simply for the purpose of keeping abreast with current knowledge within my professional world and refreshing my knowledge for optimal performance in my teaching and research responsibilities. And I suppose it is same with my colleagues. (Peter, College Y)

This was supported by Ken who also stated that he is driven by the personal desire to acquire more knowledge about his career and the education sector as a whole, through meeting

and cross-fertilizing ideas and knowledge with academic colleagues and other players in the education industry: “I actually like engaging in PD activities especially conferences to interact with other colleagues and keep myself informed of what is going on in the educational circle” (Ken, College X).

The research data also revealed how the disappointments that some of these ten participants have experienced from the structural elements in their college regarding their PD, especially the funding support for PD, also facilitated their agentic mindset about engaging in PD, as Keppy articulates:

Let me tell you, it was the frustration from administrative and political bottlenecks that I experienced in the search for college funding of my PhD years ago, that left me with no option but to make a strong personal decision about my PD. (Keppy, College Y).

Also, these participants, particularly the academic leaders among them, maintained that the disposition of academics towards PD, is majorly influenced by their personal belief that many of the PD activities in the offering are below their standard, intellectually unchallenging, and lacking any significant addition to their professional life. For instance, Julie (College X) said, “It is simply that some of them are not interested due to their ego. Their mindset is that they have achieved a PhD or attained professorial status, and so they can handle anything.” Another example was from Camel who in her response explained what he suspects has been responsible for academics’ deflected seriousness in participating in PD and summarily described it as “arrogance and biased perception of the value and relevance of some PD programmes by academics” (Camel, College Y). She noted that some of the senior colleagues especially, feel that most of the development programmes being offered were more of beginners’ standards, whereas they are not beginners. Speaking further, she explained how a particular senior lecturer said that he was surprised when he attended a workshop, and the instructor was talking about

‘Introduction to the teaching profession and methods’ when he was expecting something far above that level. And for that reason, the said senior lecturer immediately left the workshop and could not attend subsequent sessions. She equally narrated her discussion with some of her colleagues and noted that one of them specifically asked “what am I going to the workshop or conference to learn that I haven’t learnt?” And another colleague who was part of the discussion supported by saying:

Most of the programmes are workshop-based or conferences with very limited time that would usually not allow for robust engagements that would stretch over a wider spectrum of the subject discourse or all aspects of the needs of the academic staff and yield any serious impact for the participants.

Chi also spoke from a similar position which reveals that academic staff interest in PD is affected by their individual perception of teaching is an easy profession to practice, even without necessarily undertaking any PD programme. So, they downplay PD, with the belief that with just a degree level certificate in any discipline, anyone can teach the same course effectively without any additional training and development on pedagogical knowledge, as captured in this interview extract: “They ask, who cannot teach after acquiring training at undergraduate degree level or above? Even though any form of extra development is good, my ability is not hinged on it.” (Chi, College Y). Further to this, the research data equally revealed some academics’ personal conscious decision not to engage in any PD activities, as influential to their attitude towards PD. The participants stated that some academics even turn-down or reject official nominations to attend and participate in some development activities that required representation from each department in the college, with the claim that it is within their rights to want to engage in PD or not. The interview quotes from Alex and Max speaks to this:

As a HoD, I can tell you that several opportunities for training are available for any staff that is willing, but I can also confirm to you that there are some colleagues who are just ok with their present academic achievements and standing, and they feel unwilling about engaging in professional development. (Max, College X)

However, it is also important to note that it is within my rights as an individual to want to grow or be stagnated at a particular position in my career. Alex (College Y).

As illustrated above, it is obvious that apart from structural influences like college-funded PD, academics' individualistic decisions have dominant influence on their engagement in PD. Also, the illustration shows that although this view is shared by both case study colleges and the two groups of participants, but it is more prominent in college Y. This finding resonates with Archer (2003) and McMillan et al. (2016) perception of individual's actions regarding PD. I will discuss this in greater detail in Chapter 9.

7.3.6 Academic's demographic variables

The research data further revealed that a half of the participants (n = 11, 50%), mentioned factors such as length of years in service, marital status, and age, as key influences on their participation in PD activities. For instance, academics who have had long years in service and are at their retirement stages, feel it is needless for them to invest their meagre resources in PD, arguing that it is like a 'waste' of funds, as noted by Ken (College X), "My only concern is that since I will soon retire from the service, is it still necessary to spend money and my precious time on PD? I don't think so". Also, Keppy (College Y) adds that "It was in my early career days that I prioritised and gave high consideration to my PD, but as I inch closer to my retirement, I'm not that motivated to consider PD as a priority anymore." Responding along similar lines, Emma said:

Me, I am approaching my retirement from the job. I have barely 2 years to go. So, I think PD should be left for our younger colleagues who are just joining us and would have time to reinvest the knowledge and skill gained into the system (Emma, College Y).

Other participants, especially those who are married and have families to cater to, also confirmed that their family commitments sometimes constrain them from engaging in PD because of the competition for and conflict of time between the family and career professional development. This is even more intense with female academics as Doris (College X) notes: “Being a lady, there are a lot of other things outside of the academia that are preoccupying our minds and contending for the time we have. Especially as mothers and homemakers.” Equally, Rose (College Y) supported that, “As a woman who aside from my lecturing job, doubles as a wife and mother, I have caring responsibilities that sometimes clashes with some development programmes that I propose to participate in.”

The respondents also indicated that the academic staff’s biological age affects their interest in PD activities. They believe that just as it is with all humans, as academics continue to advance in age into old age, their capacity to learn will keep deteriorating. Adding that there comes a stage in a human’s life that in spite of all efforts, not very much can be done in terms of learning and acquiring new knowledge and skills. The following extracts from the interview clearly reflect these views: Philip (College X), for example articulates that, “Comprehension ability flows with age and time, [...] there is just very little we, as in me and colleagues of my age, can learn again.” Also, contributing to the discussion, Peter and Julie, notes:

Given my current age, which as you can see, I am an old man. Laughs. What I do most now is that I advocate for, mentor, and encourage our younger colleagues about their PD so that they can remain effective on their job, rather than myself participating. (Julie, College X).

Actually, PD is a very good and important thing for all academics and even non-academic colleagues, however, the truth must be said that personally, I am now too old to take active part in such activities especially if it involves me travelling a long distance, (Peter, College Y).

From the above illustration, it suggests that academics' demographic variables, are very influential to their attitude towards participation in PD. It was also evident that these factors are common among the most senior academics, some of whom were academic leaders, across the two case study colleges. This finding is further discussed in Chapter 9 with relevant supporting evidence in the literature.

7.4 Summary

Efforts were made in this chapter to establish how academics in the case study colleges react towards PD activities for their development. From the interview data, it was discovered that academics were highly interested in engaging in PD activities because they believed it is of great value to their professional practice. However, the data equally indicated that, in spite of their belief in PD, most academics were less keen about participating in PD activities.

The reason for this was found to be a combination of structural factors from within and outside of the college, and individualistic influences. Some of these were identified by the participants to include the involvement of academics tutors by academic leaders in the entire PD process at the college level, as manifested through the lack of broad-based consultation, meetings, and representation in the committee. The participants asserted that, working with stakeholders like tutors right from the beginning through to the end of the policy enactment process will help to avoid the challenges which would have arisen when stakeholders are not fully carried along. Other influences are supportive work environment and networks, the need to maintain satisfactory official employment and PD records, academics' perception of PD, academic's agentic influence, and academics' demographic variables.

These influential elements according to the data, manifests across the two case study colleges commonly, however, the issue of staff in the policy interpretation process was more

prominent in college X, whilst agentic factor was in college Y. It is important to also mention that, in both colleges, academic leaders seemed to disagree with tutors on their claim of limited involvement in the PD process. I return to this in detail later in Chapter 9.

Chapter 8

Findings: Impacts of academics' participation in PD activities

8.1 Introduction

Findings emerged from the data which suggest that the participation of academic staff in PD activities brings about some significant changes on their professional practice. Whilst the focus was on the professional practice of the academic staff, the findings also revealed that the effects extended to their institutions and students. Specific themes from the analysis includes improvement on academics' professional competencies; career, economic, and social benefits; collegiality, professional collaboration, and work ethics; and student's academic achievement and institution's reputation. These themes are explored further in the sections below.

8.2 Improvement on academics' professional competencies.

The data revealed that all the participants believe that their participation in PD activities have enhanced their adeptness in either one or more of these areas: instructional (teaching), research, lecture-room management, adaptation, leadership, self-confidence, and technological.

8.2.1 Instructional competency

A greater number of the participants (n = 13, 59%), expressed the view that engaging in PD offers them periodic updates on the most current subject knowledge, teaching skills, and methodology that makes the teaching of their students more effective and efficient. For instance, Gab. (College Y) notes: "Obviously, participation in several PD activities have always refreshed and enriched my knowledge and skill of quality lesson delivery." Doris (College X) also articulates:

Because of my engagements in teaching workshops and mentorship programmes, I've been further empowered to teach with more advanced but simplified approaches that makes my lectures interesting and easily comprehensible to my students.

Similarly, Joe and Fidel said undertaking PD increased their teaching value because it helped to discover and project some hidden teaching capabilities, that possibly could not have been known:

PD has really opened my eyes to a lot of things that to a larger extent have changed my initial philosophy about teaching role, as well as advanced my abilities and skills for the role (Joe, College X)	In fact, the whole thing beats my imagination because I didn't know I had these much in terms of teaching prowess to offer, but for my active participation in some special workshop training programmes that brought it all out. (Fidel, College Y)
---	--

The participants equally note that PD is a major component of academic practice which serves as a source from where academics especially novice colleagues (some of whom joined the academia with no teacher training background or practice experience), gain the basic knowledge and skills that enables them to find their footing in the career and function optimally:

Even though I am an expert in the course that I teach, I didn't quite have the skill on how to teach or impact the knowledge that I have, and it was some sort of a challenge to me then, until I undertook some pedagogical trainings. (Chris, College X)	As a young graduate who just jumped into the academia on a teaching role without any teaching-related qualification or background experience, taking part in PD activities like professional diploma in education (PDE) was my greatest help. (Caroline, College Y)
From my experience and even available records confirms that, PD have had a great impact on our academic staff. When you look at some of them that were recruited with just the minimum teaching qualifications, you will see that they now boast of higher qualifications and robust teaching experience [...], teaching effectively. (Max, College X)	It exposed me to different latest and advanced effective teaching techniques, and how to select the one that is best suited for every of my target audience and teaching situation. (Keppy, College Y)

8.2.2 Research competency

The data also showed that about half (n = 9, 41%) of the participants had mentioned that engaging in PD activities has helped to improve their research conduct and writing ability. Some

of the interview extracts presented here confirms this. For instance, the remarks by Lilian that it has sustained her understanding of contemporary academic research practices that has constructively changed her approach to academic research:

Keeps me well informed about the latest developments in and around academia, which helped me to develop new knowledge and skills that have positively affected the quality of all my research in terms of process and outcomes. (Lilian, College X).

Another participant, Alex, revealed that his current high interest in taking part in research activities mostly funded research was inspired by the research writing skills and confidence that his PD engagements provided:

I confidently apply for research grants and other funded research within and outside my institution because of my knowledge on how to write research proposals, which I acquired from Research Grants writing workshops that have I participated in. That's something I used to shy away from because I wasn't so sure about my proposals drafting skills. (Alex, College Y)

Similarly, Frank and Roselyn note that their knowledge of students' research project supervision and guidance has witnessed significant growth, following learnings and experiences from PD activities like the inhouse project supervision training and mentorship that they have had:

Knowing how to effectively supervise and guide my students in the writing of their research project and reports, is something I learnt on the job from workshops that were organised for us, and from more experienced colleagues. (Frank, College X)

It is what has also enhanced my research project supervision skills [...] My students that I supervised their final research project, always gave very positive feedback about my supervisory knowledge and approach. (Roselyn, College X)

Also, a respondent, Rose, indicated that the practice of working with experienced colleagues who lead and provide relevant guidance and support was what contributed to her being able to effectively and successfully supervise students' academic research projects:

For the first set of students that I supervised their projects, I was guided by a senior colleague whom I was paired with as co-supervisor [...]. The knowledge and experience I got from working together with him and the support he gave me, is what still guides how I supervise my students since I became a fully independent supervisor. (Rose, College Y)

8.2.3 Lecture-room management competency

The data again, indicates that almost half (n = 9, 41%) of the participants seem to believe that their participating in PD activities has helped them to gain new knowledge and experiences that has made the management and control of their lecture rooms when teaching, a much easier and less stressful task, in spite of its complexities which includes the heterogenous nature of the classes. The quotes below from the interviews, reflects this broad view of the participants:

And obviously, most of the things I have learnt through PD have made my lecture room experiences quite interesting, easy, and more effective. (Clems, College X).

I personally know that it has caused some appreciable level of improvement on the way I used to relate with my students; and I can say that it has had a positive influence on my lecture room condition and experiences. (Emma, College Y).

Sharing in this view, Paschal and Lilian, equally alluded that their PD engagements has contributed to advancing their knowledge and skills of students' management, which has helped them in developing very good professional relationship with their students, and in creating an enjoyable classroom environment and experiences:

I enjoy every moment with my students, in and out of the classroom, because I have learnt in the course of my career on how to better engage with them, and we've established this very good teacher-students relationship between us. Lilian (College X)

It provided me with the kind of support I needed at a time to ensure that I maintain an excellent teaching and learning classroom environment. Paschal (College Y).

Adding to that, a respondent, Chris, also note that he now better understands how to carry every student in the class along when teaching, irrespective of their circumstances, whether they

are slow learners or have any special learning needs and difficulties, because of the knowledge and experiences garnered from participating in several PD events:

Amongst my students, I have those with different leaning needs and challenges. So, knowledge and experiences from PD engagements have been quite helpful. Because I'm in constant touch with contemporary ideas and strategies on how to deal with their situations and carry all of them along while teaching. (Chris, College X)

8.2.4 Technological competency

The responses from half (n = 11, 50%) of the participants indicated that engaging in PD programmes have contributed positively to their technological know-how. For instance, Chi (College Y), remarked that: "It has drastically enhanced my knowledge of tech. innovations and their values in modern day teaching and learning and research." Frank, also stated that it was principally the knowledge from his PD exploits that made it possible for him to engage in virtual teaching, and attend online academic conferences, particularly when the Covid-19 pandemic caused the introduction of physical restrictions, as the below quote indicates:

My participation in ICT courses and workshops have really increased my knowledge on effective use of current technology and technological devices for virtual lectures and conference presentations, especially during the Covid-19 pandemic period. (Frank, College X)

Speaking along similar lines, Max (College X) notes that participation in PD activities boosted his knowledge about the effective use of social media and other IT portfolios for academic purposes: "Has increased my knowledge and skills of constructive use of electronic communication like emails and other social media platforms to promptly inform and respond to students' queries". Another participant who identifies as a departmental examination officer hinted that when he took up that role, he had no idea on how to use the relevant computer software packages to manage the students' academic data, but was able to acquire the knowledge after attending some IT training programmes, as captured in the below extract:

As examination officer, the several ICT trainings I have attended have supported me in the effective use of IT in managing students' personal and examination records. I now seamlessly do the e-computation and uploading of my students' results, and the likes. (Rose, College Y).

8.2.5 Adapting to dynamics of work environment.

According to the data, few of the participants (n = 5, 23%), also tend to suggest that their participation in several PD events has significantly assisted them to adapt easily and quickly to the many dynamics in their professional work environment, and function effectively and efficiently. The below extracts from Joe and Caroline's interviews, are examples that summarily reflects the views expressed by the other three participants:

It was instrumental to my being able to quickly blend and react more readily to the emerging changes that goes on within my workplace. (Joe, College X).

Helped me to work on and reduce some of the limitations I had earlier on in my career especially with regard to adjusting to the work pattern and demands. (Caroline, College Y).

8.2.6 Leadership competency

The data also showed that an average number of the respondents (n = 7, 32%), mentioned that the privilege of attending managerial level PD courses gave them the opportunity to gain broader understanding on how to adopt effective approaches and be more professional in their leadership role, to ensure greater successes for their departments and institution as whole. The quotes below from the interviews, communicates this view:

Knowledge gained from my PD voyage and experiences (laughs), has helped me immensely in the effective coordination of my staff and other resources, which is what is producing the wonderful results we're seeing everywhere in my department. (Philip, College X).

Enhanced my understanding of the various issues in the different aspects and levels of management as well as reinvigorated my aptitude and sense of professionalism as a leader. (Camel, College Y).

Adding to that, Peter (College Y), in his response stated that “It has enabled me to be able to cope and deal seamlessly with the responsibilities that comes with my current position.”

8.2.7 Self-confidence

About half (n = 9, 41%) of the participants also revealed that their participation in PD activities has stirred up the level of confidence in them when performing their professional duties; such that they never experienced prior to engaging in PD. some of the interview extracts presented below, affirms this:

After the induction and mentoring exercise that I went through in the first semester, I became very confident in myself when performing my teaching responsibilities than I ever thought I could actually do. (Joe, College X).

My presentations at conferences and interaction with colleagues has helped me to build more confidence in myself. The nervousness I used to feel back then; each time I stand before my students to teach has all vanished away. Laughs. (Alex, College Y).

A similar view was expressed by Rose and Ken who also note that it was the various PD engagements that significantly helped to build and strengthen their lecture-room and collegewide communication and interactive skills and confidence, as seen in the below quotes:

At that early stage of my career, I he never believed so much in my ability for this role as I do currently, and the change is tied to the PD experiences I was privileged to have been exposed to. (Ken, College X).

To be honest, I used to be a little timid, and somehow withdrawn to myself. My work pattern used to be from my office to the lecture room and back to the office. But I was able to breakout of that circle after some workshop trainings that I went through. (Rose, College Y).

Also, Chris and Keppy revealed during the interview that they were not so bold and audacious regarding their practice decisions and actions, but the inspirations from PD activities that they participate in, brought that out, as presented in the extracts below:

I can confidently navigate a lot of lecture room situations when teaching mostly because of the experiences I have garnered from the PD programmes that I have been involved in over the years. (Chris, College X).

I started having the confidence and self-esteem you see me exhibit now from when I began to take part in several job-related development activities where he got inspired by the instructors and colleagues. (Keppy, College Y).

As demonstrated above in this section, it is evident that there is a link between academic staff engagement in PD activities and their professional adeptness. This finding gains the support of Walls (2013) and Gibbs and Coffey (2004), and it is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 9.

8.3 Career, financial, and social benefits.

The research data further revealed that a greater proportion of the respondents (n = 18, 82%) mentioned that taking part in PD programmes has significantly bolster their prospects for career, financial, as well as social benefits.

8.3.1 Career benefits

According to the data, sixteen of the participants, said they have experienced the benefits of undertaking PD activities in the form of promotion and upgrading in their career, appointments into leadership positions in the institution, job security and retention.

Promotion and upgrading – for Roselyn and colleagues, they seem to indicate that participation in PD activities, which is a major criterion for their career progression, has facilitated their professional growth in terms of promotion and upgrading from one level to the next higher level and rank within their career. For instance, Roselyn revealed that her promotion

was only made possible due to her fulfilment of the PD criteria, because some known academic colleagues have been stagnated at certain ranks for years for the singular reason of not developing themselves professionally:

At least I know that it is because of my PD records that I have been able to progress to this level. Because I know of colleagues who have not been able to progress beyond certain levels because of no evidence of PD. (Roselyn, College X)

Gab equally shared similar experience about his upgrading after achieving the prescribed PD courses, adding that he left behind some colleagues that they were together at that particular level, due to their inability to meet same requirements:

PD has been very impactful I must say. Interestingly, I couldn't get upgraded during the last promotion exercise even when I was due, because I couldn't satisfy the PD requirements section. But when I got the requirement, I got double promotion, unfortunately leaving my colleagues who didn't get the requirement behind. (Gab, College Y)

In the same light, Lilian emphasised that PD plays a significant role in academics' promotion, and note that it is a box that must be checked, particularly by those who are desirous of an upward mobility in their career:

PD is a must o..., especially if, as an academic staff, I want to gain promotion up the ladder. Non-academic staff may not compulsorily need it, but for us academics, it is a basic requirement to show evidence of regularly engaging in PD to be promoted. (Lilian, College X)

Additionally, Peter and Chi, also alluded that it has been very fundamental to their change in levels and ranks within their career, as seen in their response: "And continuous PD is majorly what has brought me to the peak of my career as a chief lecturer that I am today" Peter (College Y). He was supported by Chi (College Y), who articulates thus: "Helped me to grow careerwise. The fact remains that as academics there's just no way we can bypass the PD criteria if we want to grow or be promoted, as academics."

Appointments – Paschal and other participants on the other hand, also confirmed that, their PD exploits have made quite a huge significance on them especially regarding their appointments into certain leadership roles within their institutions: “I could remember that it was the many PD activities I have undertaken including my PhD that were considered by the provost before he appointed me into this role.” (Paschal, College Y). Sharing similar views, Doris adds that, “Key amongst the criteria for selecting or appointing us to teach and supervise students’ project at our degree programme include my qualification background and level of PD” (Doris, College X), and her colleagues responded thus:

I am aware that it was a major part of what gave me and some of my senior colleagues an edge over other of our mates in the appointment into positions like HoD and DAP that we currently occupy. (Julie, College X)

I tell you something, three things were expressly stated in my letter of appointment as reasons why I merited the appointment. They are my qualification, expertise, and wealth of experience from my many local and international professional engagements. (Emma, College Y).

Job security and retention – some respondents expressed the view that their rich PD portfolio has offered them high chances of job protection and promotes the possibility of being retained on their role, as Chris and Gab, for example, articulates in the below extracts:

Indeed, my rich PD portfolio has been a major factor that has kept me in this job [...]. Because the college always thinks of how much it has invested in our development as academics when taking decisions relating to its staff. (Chris, College X)

Even when the college laid off some staff years back, I and few others were retained because of the records of our PD experience which showed that we still have so much value to offer. (Gab, College Y).

Max (College X) also revealed that the PD programmes that he has undertaken with the support of his institution is a major benefit in his career that has increased his motivation as well as helped him to remain on the job: “And the PD I have received is what is driving me to stay, else I would have left for other ‘juicy’ jobs long ago”.

8.3.2 Financial benefits

Again, based on the research data, ten of the participants said that they have benefited from engaging in PD, via a rise in their basic pay/salary, consultancy fees, and honorarium.

Pay/salary rise – the data showed that some of the participants seem to suggest that they got incremental changes in their annual salary, influenced by promotion that they received after fulfilling the required condition of regular participation in PD activities. These quotes from the interview transcripts of Fidel and colleges, speaks to this: “As soon as I got my promotion, there was a handsome change in my take-home pay. Laughs.” (Fidel, College Y), “Ah., my monthly salary and other allowances have increased following my recent promotion.” (Roselyn, College X), and “My morale became so high because of the substantial increase in the monetary benefits attached to my new promotion.” (Joe, College X).

Consultancy fees – the participants also seem to suggest that the new level and rank they have attained have positively affected the fees they charge or are being paid for consultancy services within and outside their institutions. The extracts below are examples that represents this view: “Of course, it has triggered an upward review of what I get paid for teaching on the parttime and other consultancy programmes run by my college” (Keppy, College Y), and “It also caused the fees I am paid for consulting for some private institutions and organisations to increase significantly” (Julie, College X).

Honorarium – the participants also indicated that because of how they have developed themselves over the course of their career, it earned them a level that triggered an increase in the honorarium that they get paid for the additional courses that they teach, and other services offered, under the parttime programmes of their respective colleges. Examples from the interview are presented in the below extracts: “What I am paid for the extra or parttime teaching and students’ project supervision have now been reviewed upwards” (Gab, College Y).

Those of us teaching on adjunct with the degree programme unit of our college, with very good PD records renegotiated the honorarium we get paid every semester on the grounds of our extra PD efforts and got an increment. (Clems, College X).

8.3.3 Social benefits

The research data also revealed that, six of the participants seem to suggest that their participation in PD activities has earned them social benefits including the conferment of titles, social status, and recognitions. For instance, Chi and Philip mentioned that through PD engagements, they were able to gain both new and additional professional and traditional titles, as these extracts from the interviews with them shows:

This might sound funny to you, but it is the truth. Truth in the sense that, it is my PD achievements that has earned me the two chief titles that I hold. That of chief lecturer and traditional chief. (Philip, College X).

Today I am known and addressed as a Dr and not Ms. anymore, because of how I took seriously the issue of my PD, and particularly, my further educational training. And you know that feeling of pride that comes with it. (Chi, College Y).

Also, Max (College X) notes that the efforts he has made over the years at developing himself paid off, because it has raised his academic profile and attracted to him important honours and recognitions from several quarters: “Especially since I bagged my doctorated degree it has been from one award of recognition to the other, including my local community

chieftaincy title, laughs”. Camel (College Y) equally revealed that her current academic status courtesy of PD has opened doors of numerous opportunities for her to speak at academic conferences, workshops, training events, and other platforms, within and outside of her institution: “I have enjoyed the privilege of being invited to be a keynote speaker or lead paper presenter at a number of academic conferences, as well as guest speaker at different fora”.

Furthermore, Emma notes that the PhD he acquired in the course of his career has given him the opportunity to access and interact with many highly placed persons in the society from different walks of life, that he could not prior to attaining that level of a PhD holder.

Obviously! That is because I am often invited to speak or make a presentation at gatherings where you find de crème d la crème of the society and top politicians, and I get to freely interact with them. I think this would not have been possible if not for the status I attained through PD. (Emma, College Y)

Speaking along same line, Ken (College X) said, “It has obviously boosted my personality because any function I attend, I am always recognised and given a seat on the high table, all because I have that title of a ‘Dr’ attached to my name.”

The illustration above shows that participation in PD affects academics’ career progression and protection, causes a rise in their financial status. In addition to these, is the social benefits that it brings, where academics are decorated with new professional appellations and social identities. This finding is discussed in detail with relevant literature in Chapter 9.

8.4 Collegiality, professional collaboration, and work ethics.

Further probe of the data revealed that more than half of the participants (n = 12, 55%) tend to suggest that their participation in PD activities has also engendered and promoted the culture of collaborations and networking on research-based issues between them and other academic colleagues across institutions, as exemplified by the quotes below:

A major takeaway for me anytime I attend and participate at academic conferences organised by my institution or any other institution out there, have always been that sense of friendship and collaborative working as academics across board to proffer research solutions to societal problems. (Philip, College X).	I have met with colleagues who were attendees from other institutions on the sidelines of most PD events and networked and collaborated with them to publish books and papers. And I can tell you that many of these relationships have exposed me to quite a lot of things that I know today. (Rose, College Y)
Honestly meeting and exchanging ideas on critical prevailing topics with colleagues in my area of specialty at annual conferences of our professional body have always been great impactful moments for me because it helped to deepen my knowledge of subject matter. (Frank, College X).	At various PD programmes that I have had the privileged to attend, I met with colleagues who actually challenged and motivated me to do more. There was a particular professor who told me after my presentation that with the quality of my paper and presentation, he sees me at the top in the very nearest future. And that he's open to collaborating with me in any future work. (Keppy, College Y).

The participants also expressed the view that their PD journey experience have challenged and helped to shape their professional conducts and promote better work ethics, as the extracts below reveals:

I was so much impressed and challenged by the way some colleagues I met conducted and carried themselves all through the period of the programme. Their level of professional discipline was top notch; and I drew some key lessons. (Julie, College X).	Is what has continued to remind me to firmly uphold our standard professional values and practice regulations. (Camel, College Y).
--	--

Again, the respondents seem to suggest that following their participation in development activities like departmental and faculty staff interactive meetings, there has been an increased level of teamwork spirit and cordiality among the various departments and faculties in their institution. The quotes below for example, speaks to this:

You know most of the inhouse workshops, trainings, orientations, and mentoring that we do, help to forge a bond, and strengthen existing work relationships amongst us, which ultimately results in an excellent work environment. (Chris, College X).

I like the idea of departmental and faculty meetings that is held from time to time, because it has really helped to improve the level of communication and teamwork between me and colleagues in the department. (Caroline, College Y).

The participants also spoke about how their active engagements and interactions with colleagues at professional level have benefitted their research and academic writing skills, as can be seen in the below extracts: “I learnt quite a lot from my colleagues and improved on my skills on how to produce quality research papers.” (Lilian, College X), “With the exposure to different easy ways through which I can now carry out research and produce high impact publications.” (Doris, College X), and

The things I know currently about good academic writing, I didn’t learn all of them from the university lecture room, some are from my colleagues during our research writing retreats or when we are co-writing papers for conferences and publication. (Fidel, College Y).

As demonstrated in this section, academics’ PD promotes sound academic culture and builds a professional community, because it exposes academics more to collaborative working, networking, mentorship opportunities, as well as promote professionalism and ethical behaviour when discharging their academic responsibilities. Detail discussion of this finding is presented in Chapter 9.

8.5 Student’s academic achievement and institution’s reputation.

According to the data, some of the participants tend to suggest that their continuous engagement in PD activities has led to significant improvement in students’ academic success rate as well as promoted the reputation of the case study colleges.

8.5.1 Student's academic achievement

An average number of the participants (n = 8, 36%) mentioned that their students are performing excellently in their academic studies especially in the contemporary digitalised academic environment, because they are being taught well by academics who have continuously engaged in development activities to keep themselves fit for their role. Clems and Gab made particular reference to the proficient use of information technology (IT) systems by their students, which they considered as the extended effects of the IT knowledge and skills that they as tutors have gained from the several IT workshops and trainings that they have attended:

Our students are among the best and now compete with their university counterparts in the area of IT, majorly because me and my colleagues shared the IT knowledge and proficiency, we acquired through our participation in several inhouse and external workshops with our students. (Clems, College X).

My students are doing amazing jobs in the ICT world. They have become more tech savvy and highly knowledgeable and are performing well. And this can be simply linked to the method we used in teaching them ICT courses. (Gab, College Y).

In a similar light, Chris notes that his students are excelling at different national academic competitions involving colleges of education students, which he attributed to effective preparation of the students by himself and colleagues who participated in the special PD courses that were organised by their college for such purpose:

Because recently our students have been winning laurels at national competitions back-to-back, courtesy of some of us who undertook the training to prepare them for various competitions. I think the latest was just last year when they won the overall second position at the National Essay Writing competition for CoE students. (Chris, College X)

Also, Paschal hints that his department tops the college graduation list at the yearly ceremony with students who achieved outstanding results because of the application of the

advanced teaching knowledge and appropriate skills which he and colleagues learnt during their engagements in some PD activities:

Which is why my department have consistently produced the best graduating students at both the School of Sciences level and college generally in the last three graduations and convocation ceremony of the college. (Paschal, College Y)

Furthermore, the Ken and Rose equally submitted that the high academic performance records of their students, was the direct consequences of their sound teaching approach, which is influenced by the knowledge and skills gained from the various teaching workshops they have taken part in. This is reflected in the below quotes:

Yes, the last few years have witnessed very encouraging academic performances from our students in some of our departments that were not really doing well, because the lecturers have also improved in their teaching approach, following the pedagogical training that were organised for them. (Ken, College X).

Some of those courses assisted me in understanding my students and their expectations very well, and to design my teaching using methods that have helped them perform excellently in majority of our courses in the department. (Rose, College Y).

8.6.2 Institution's academic reputation

Again, an average number of the participants ($n = 7, 32\%$) seem to suggest that their various institutions are in several ways affected by their own professional development as staff of those institutions. This is because they believe that the fresh knowledge and skills that they have acquired from engaging in PD activities, will help them to improve upon their teaching methods and ensure good practice which will also bring about a change in the students' performance outcome and project a positive image of the institution to the public. The quotes below from the interviews with Chi and Frank, reflect the view shared by some of their colleagues:

It's the advanced skills that PD offered those of us who have been involved in it that we have consistently used to facilitate the successful attainment of the college's objectives. And by so doing, we believe we have projected a good image of our institution as a home of academic excellence, which we are anyways. (Frank, College X).

It has made more success stories for my institution. Me and my colleagues who undertook some of these development programmes have carefully applied the knowledge and skills to set new students' high-performance records for our college, which has earned us more public trust and respect as an institution. (Chi, College Y).

Speaking in related terms, the participants also hint that over the last few years, their continuous PD has helped to increase the league-table ranking of their institution among other CoEs in the country. This was captured in the response by Joe and Keppy as seen below:

The recent National rankings of CoEs showed that our college is currently ranked among the first ten colleges [...]. We academics were a major component of the assessment process that led to this achievement. (Joe, College X).

I saw the latest ranking of CoEs that was released this year and realised that my college has moved about six steps upward, which is a clear departure from the position in the previous ranking. This shows our efforts are yielding positive results and attracting public attention to our college. (Keppy, College Y).

The participants equally revealed that their college's continuous support for the development of its academic staff has made the college highly famous and a reference for good academic practice, through the impact the staff are making in the life of the students and institution, as Peter and Lilian, for instance, remarked:

Our record of quality teaching and impactful research contributions in teaching practice, according to inspection reports of relevant agencies, and commendations from some professional organisations, and even our students' parents, have stood us out as a leading college in the country. (Lilian, College X).

That is a major reason why my college is popular for grooming very bright students and producing high quality graduates. I hear this always from our students and people within host community, including colleagues from other colleges who visit our college. (Peter, College Y).

A respondent, Max, further note that the periodic college organised workshop on involving students in the college's activities, and ensuring respect and protection for their rights, which he and his colleagues academic staff do attend, has contributed to building a student's-friendly image for the college:

Programmes like the students' inclusiveness and rights protection workshop has made immense impacts in me, and the application of such experience is the reason our college is well-known to be student's friendly. (Max, College X)

The above illustration in this section submits that students who study under the tutelage of academics who continuously engage in PD activities, record greater academic achievements. And that such achievements in addition to other positive performances of the college such as have been highlighted here, helps to promote the reputation of the college in the public space.

8.6 Summary

This chapter presented the findings about the instrumental and social capital impacts of academics' participation in PD activities on their professional practice, and by extension, the students and institution. The results broadly showed that within and across the case study colleges, participants seem to believe that academic staff PD as the basic channel through which academics update their knowledge bank and ensure that they are continuously 'fit for practice,' can produce many other positive changes that cannot be overemphasised. The participants likened PD of academics to a machine recharging or powering up its battery for it to continue to function optimally. Specifically, these impacts of PD were identified to include the improvement of academics' professional competencies (including teaching and research skills, lecture-room management, adapting to work environment dynamics, use of technological innovations, leadership, and self-confidence) through the opportunities it provides for academics to learn,

unlearn, and relearn best and most effective ways for performing their current and future responsibilities for better outcomes. Also, that it brings benefits to the academic staff in terms of career (upgrading and promotion, appointments, and job security), financial (increased emolument, honorarium, and consultancy fees), and social (decoration of academics with new or additional professional and social identities and recognitions), which raises their status within and outside of the academia. Furthermore, it was revealed that participation in PD engendered sound academic culture of professionalism and ethical behaviour and builds a professional community. Finally, that if staff engage in PD activities, it will result in greater academic achievements of students, promotes college's positive reputation, and favourable ranking in the national league-table for CoEs. I discuss these findings in relation to relevant existing literature in chapter 9 of this thesis.

Chapter 9

Discussion

9.1 Introduction

The research findings as presented in chapters 5 through 8, are discussed in relation to this research aim, and relevant literature to support my claims. To ensure coherence, this chapter is organised in the following order. First, I examined the various understanding ascribed to PD and its policy, and what informed the contradictions therein. I proceeded to discussing how the PD policy has been implemented in these case study institutions. I went further to explore the way academics react towards their own PD. Following this, is the section that I looked at how academics' participation in PD activities has impacted their professional practice. Finally, I presented a summary which brings together the key elements of the sections in this chapter.

9.2 Academics' understanding of PD and the policy

Bearing in mind this study's aim and the corresponding research question which seeks to do two things: firstly, investigate how academics understand PD as a concept, and secondly, how they understand the PD policy prescriptions, I discuss below the findings that emerged.

9.2.1 Understanding of PD concept

The findings from this study indicate that there are contentions about the meaning of PD. However, irrespective of the different meanings ascribed to PD, there was consensus in the about its purpose, which is to influence positive change in the professional life of academics. Among the various descriptions that emerged from the data as presented in chapter 5, some, for example, qualification and certificate-based programmes, training institutions and professional associations led activities, and activities requiring a deliberate and active engagement, linked PD

to formal development activities. This study found that PD is understood by some of the participants as strictly formal activities, that is, development programmes that are delivered or experienced through structured and instructor-paced traditional school-like setting. This perception of PD enjoys the support of researchers like Gosling (2009) who stated that since the early 1990s, academic professional development has emerged as a formal activity in most third level institutions in the UK, Ireland, Australasia, and the US. His assertion was corroborated by Lynova and Bulvinska (2020) who revealed that “most often, continuing professional development is associated with formal training courses or activities” (p.17), and King (2004) who posited that although there are many other forms of professional learning for early career academics in HE, but there seem to be much less of a feature of CPD provision, as formal ‘off-the-peg’ activities are accorded major recognition: “For many higher education institutions in the UK, CPD is synonymous with formal courses or events that provide some form of training” (p.26). As earlier noted, it would appear from the study that HEIs through their practices tend to promote the understanding of PD as a formal learning activity, which must be qualification and certificate-based, or organised and delivered by training institutions and professional associations or require a deliberate and active engagement.

The other descriptions of PD that emerged, such as implicit development experiences, other administrative roles and responsibilities, and self-learning activities, associate PD with informal learning activities. Contrary to the earlier finding which described PD as mainly formal activities, this study equally found that PD is also understood by some the participants to mean a hybrid of activities, formal-informal, that academics engage in for purposes of their professional improvement. These participants believe that PD include development activities without a structural wall and standard course curriculum, more individualistic and natural learning

experiences in and out of the work environment. The contention actually is that academics do not necessarily have to sit down in a typical classroom setting to experience PD (Akiba, 2012; King, 2004), when they can easily do that via social communication and interaction with colleagues in the academia (Postareff and Nevgi, 2015). For example, like chatting about emergent academic issues over a bottle of drink or cup of coffee, which are great opportunities for them to share and reflect upon their personal ideas and teaching experiences in an informal way, rather than from external ‘pedagogical experts’ where they are treated as students in a classroom. The argument remains that PD needs to be seen as a normal part of an academic’s professional life; and should be self-directed and planned within the relevant context (King, 2004), where academics spend most of their time or work, i.e., professional settings, research sites and departments (Boud, 1999). In fact, Lueddeke (2003) suggests that some academics’ own PD preference is to learn professionally through social networks, keep close to their areas of specialties, and that any PD they undertake is subject to the pressures of time and workload.

This finding of PD having contentious meaning, tends to resonate with researchers (Crawford, 2009; Knight, 2006; Clegg 2003; Inamorato dos Santos et al., 2019) who revealed incongruity in the understanding of PD by scholars and higher education academics. Even though it is acknowledged that there are many ways through which academics can experience professional development, it is obvious that there is “a tendency to regard professional or staff development as comprising only those sorts of activities that are formally recognised” (Clegg 2003, p.37), or those with the traditional, ‘expert’ driven training model of short-term courses and workshops (Gravani, 2007), even when it has been argued that “not all professional knowing are explicit” (Knight, 2006, p.31). I discuss further the individual themes that have emerged.

9.2.1.1 Qualification and certificate-based activity

This research finding showed that some academics are of the view that only development activities that must lead to the acquisition of a qualification(s) and/or certificate(s), that can be termed as PD. Hence, whatever activities that academics engage in for development purposes which do not earn them a certificate(s) and/or qualification(s) at the end of participation, cannot be regarded as PD, rather, it could be described as engaging in a leisure activity like reading a novel. Emphasis seems to be on evidencing or showing tangible proof of participation, specifically, through certificate(s) received and/or qualification(s) attained, for example, PGCert., Masters, Diploma, PhD, Fellowship, and conference/workshop attendance certificate (Awodiji, 2021; TETFund, 2016).

The qualification pathway is becoming a more established feature of institutional strategies for professional learning for new and other academic staff (Parsons et al., 2012), believing that as a life-long learning activity the aim goes beyond just gaining new knowledge, skills, attitude, but includes obtaining more qualifications (Sarheng, 2014; Hassan, 2011) which contributes to the growth of their professional profile. This is why Bates et al. (2011) and Kennedy (2005) describes it as ‘award-bearing model’, which is about award-bearing programmes, that are normally validated by higher education institutions, e.g., master’s level programmes.

9.2.1.2 Training institutions and professional associations led activity

The study also revealed that PD is seen by some academics as development activities that must be provided and delivered by recognised training institutions (e.g., HEIs) or professional associations in officially designated settings. This conception is underpinned by the argument that training institutions and associations have the standard structures in terms of human

(professionals and experts) and material resources to effectively plan, organise, and deliver such programmes, within specified length of time (Cordingley et al., 2015; Darling-Hammond, Hyler, and Gardner, 2017; Inamorato dos Santos et al., 2019), unlike any other possible approaches to professional development which are believed to be unstructured, infrequent, and lacking in details and specific timeframe (Tyman and Lee, 2009). For instance, PD delivery in higher education in the UK has always emphasised institutionally led strategies and provision (McAvinia et al., 2015), such as TEF and REF, as well as activities of the Higher Education Academy (HEA).

It was also observed that the recognition and value placed on externally sourced ‘expert’ led academic professional development activities by HEIs has been the driving force behind this conceptualisation of PD. For example, the TETFund (2014) guidelines for academic staff training and development, states emphatically that “only academic conferences and workshops that are organised by faculties/schools of tertiary institutions and professional associations would be recognised, approved, and sponsored by the fund” (Section 2.16). More credence was given by the Condition of Service for Staff of Colleges of Education (2015) which placed emphasis on not just the professional associations’ led PD activities but also on membership, in academic staff’s qualifying requirements for promotion: “present evidence of membership of recognised professional associations” (Chapter 3.2.1.v).

Crawford (2009) in her research observed that “the allegiance academics pay to their professional bodies” (p.193) significantly influence their interpretations of what PD might mean. For example, a body like the HEA in the UK that seeks to lead, support, and inform the PD of staff of higher education. Sharing similar views, Hadar and Brody (2017) sees professional development as structured initiatives, courses, and events that are tailored for teacher educators

by Associations for Teacher Educators that cater to the diverse needs of teacher educators from various institutions; and specific institutions offering in-service learning programmes for their own staff.

9.2.1.3 Activity requiring deliberate and active engagement

It was further found in this study that PD is conceived by some academics as a set of well-organised programmes like conferences, workshops, seminars, induction, and higher education studies requiring a deliberate and active engagement by academics either on a full-time or part-time basis. It has been argued that PD goes beyond mere passive and unwitting activities, like having brief informal conversations and interactions with colleagues and students (Clegg, 2003), as participants in a PD activity must be actively involved in the delivery process of the specific PD activity through their contributions and exchange of ideas with either the facilitator or other colleagues.

This also gained the support of Eraut (2004) and Grunefeld et al. (2022) who all believed that PD is about ‘deliberate learning’ and purposeful practice, not some sort of reactive or opportunistic learning that is near-spontaneous. ‘Deliberate’ learning is described by Tough in Eraut (2004, p.250), as a type of learning where there is a definite learning goal and time is set aside for acquiring new knowledge, and engagement in activities such as planning and problem solving, for which there is a clear work-based goal with learning as a probable by-product. Although it could be argued that most of such activities like solving ‘students’ problems are a normal part of an academic’s daily working life (King, 2004), but they are mostly regarded as formal learning activities.

Other researchers also emphasised on active learning with a recommendation that teaching staff who wants to make meaningful career impacts on their students should adopt the

approach (Moghtader et al., 2022), because it is believed that actual professional learning is predicated upon both time and a willingness to interact in repeated back-and-forth learning exchanges between facilitators and other fellow learners in activities that are long-lasting in nature (Huberman 1999; Atterbury, 2017).

9.2.1.4 Implicit development experiences

The understanding of PD as involving implicit development experiences, as another finding of this research, centres around the belief by some academics that their development goals can also be achieved by drawing from the pool of experiences garnered through the routine activities that they undertake in their workplace daily. Implicit learning refers to the acquisition of knowledge independently of conscious attempts to learn and in the absence of explicit knowledge about what was learned (Reber, 1993). This understanding of PD aligns with the position espoused by Eraut (2004), that the characteristics of informal learning include implicit, unintended, opportunistic, and unstructured learning and the absence of a teacher. Eraut argued that most learnings have some implicit aspects, and that the existence of explicit learning does not mean that implicit learning is not also taking place. Moreover, outside formal education and training settings, explicit learning is often unplanned.

It has been argued and established by Dewey and Schön cited in Ferman (2002, p.147) that professional learning takes place within work contexts, and that it is the most valuable source, because it is in the professional practice context that the knowledge that is needed in practice is learned. Also, when learning occurs within professional practice contexts, it is informed by theories of situated cognition (Daley, 2001), and these theories hold ‘that knowledge is situated, being in part a product of the activity, context, and culture in which it is developed and used’ (Brown, Collins and Duguid, 1989, p.32). Hence, academics’ development

experiences do not necessarily need to be from external ‘expert’ instructors. Just like Baalewi (2008) in her study also revealed that in the United Arab Emirates higher education institutions, the traditional method for developing academic staffs’ teaching and administrative skills that is still being practiced, is the learning through work experience.

9.2.1.5 Other administrative roles and responsibilities

I also discovered in this study that some academics consider the extra administrative roles and responsibilities that they handle, aside from their actual teaching and research roles, as possible sources of their professional development. Some of these additional responsibilities could include but not limited to acting as a course coordinator, student adviser, HoD, serving on various college committees, working on delegated authorities, taking students on excursions and acculturation, teaching practise supervision exercises, and supporting students in sporting events and academic competitions.

According to Jacob, Xiong, and Ye (2015) teaching staff often find themselves in a situation where they need to choose how to spend their time; whether it is on their core activities for which they are rewarded, or on extracurricular activities. However, they believe whichever way they spend their time, there are learnings and experiences to gain. Supporting, Musa (2017) and Gani (2013) explained that the work lecturers do is way beyond just teaching, research, and supervising students’ projects. There are other day-to-day administrative work and pastoral supports for their students.

9.2.1.6 Self-learning activities

This study equally revealed that some academics appreciate personal learning activities as possible ways through which they can develop professionally. They believe that the knowledge gained from their personal readings and studies, reflective learning, researching to

teach, learning to teach by practising teaching and watching YouTube videos, all contribute significantly to their development (Ferman, 2002; Kennedy, 2014, Swaffield, 2014), and it would appear that academics prefer this form of PD because it seem to address the issue of choice or necessity of PD that they are sometimes confronted with.

Researchers (Herbert and Rainford, 2014; King, 2004; Wareing, 2004; Smith, 2014), all argued that any programme of professional learning should be self-directed and related to the needs of the individual; just like Hadar and Brody (2017) who described it as self-guided learning, in which teacher educators engage in reflective practice of research individually or in groups. Postareff and Nevgi (2015), in their study also called for a more personalised approach to PD by universities, as the most common practice to encourage staff participation, which will also address the socio-cultural and pedagogical differences among academics. Similarly, Cordingley et al. (2015) posits that given the differences that exist between individual academic's beliefs and needs, having staff PD in the form of personal learning activities is crucial to ensuring effective development.

9.2.2 Understanding of PD Policy

On the understanding of PD policy, findings indicate that academics generally seem to be aware of the existence of the policy, however, it revealed a far more nuanced knowledge of its provisions between the two sets of academic participants. Following a comparative review of the interview responses and notes, I found that academic leaders have in-depth and broader (covering the different sections) understanding of the policy than their tutor counterparts whose knowledge particularly about some sections of the policy seemed quite limited (see chapter 5). This was evident in the fact that some academic tutors could hardly respond to some of the

interview questions without frequently consulting with or reading from the e-copy of the policy document online using their Mobile phones, iPads, or laptops.

This finding is consistent with previous research studies, for instance, Makoji (2016) who found that administrators and senior management staff of his case study federal polytechnics were well informed about the institution's Human Resource Development policy, whereas there was pervasive awareness among other academics down the line. Further corroborated by other researchers (Chabaya, 2015; Volbrecht, 2003) who also revealed from their study that, most academics possess very limited understanding of the staff development policies in which they are co-implementers. Volbrecht, for instance, notes that "the shallow understanding of the policy and inconsistencies in its practice has obviously affected PD" (p.15).

Certain factors emerged from their responses that were responsible for the varying levels of the policy understanding as exhibited by academic leaders and tutors. These include the ambiguous and cumbersome nature of the policy itself, like several other education policies in Nigeria, as confirmed by National Teacher Education Policy (2014, p.1) "while various policies exist to ensure the provision of quality teacher education, these policies are often inappropriate and complicating". The participants complained mostly about what they consider as ambiguous language used by policymakers, and contradictory explanatory notes, as what makes it difficult for them to easily understand the policy. Sometimes there are a number of different policies that makes higher education a crowded policy environment, with the possibility for these policies to contradict or misalign with each other in terms of interpretation by the implementers (Viennet and Pont, 2017). Brynard (2010), note that many conventional accounts, regardless of the variables they foreground, assume that implementers' understanding of a policy's intended messages or that failure to, results from the policy's ambiguity.

Also, the issue of academics' reliance on second party interpretation was found to be a factor. Following the ambiguous nature of the PD policy, academic tutors tend to rely on the interpretations offered by their colleagues (especially from their leaders) as against personally reading and searching the document for the exact meaning of its contents. So, their understanding of the policy depends on what they are been told rather than what they found themselves. I consider such a practice as unhealthy for the academia because it makes academics lazy and ill-informed. This agrees with researchers (Adu and Okeke, 2014; Makoji, 2016) who revealed that most academic staff of HEIs are reluctant about reading and researching to become well-informed, especially if their wordings are too difficult to interpret and there are other easy means to getting same information, such as enquiring from colleagues.

Furthermore, I discovered that the difference in understanding was due to the fact that academic tutors felt that they are not directly responsible for the interpretation of the policy, hence, it was not that necessary to invest their busy time and energy in digging for deeper understanding of the policy. Reference was made to the Conditions of Service for Staff of CoEs (NCCE, 2015), which placed that responsibility on the shoulders of the College Registrar and other Management staff:

The Registrar of the College is the one empowered to interpret the provisions of this staff manual provided that a member of staff who feels aggrieved by the interpretation shall have the right to complain. (Chapter 1, Section E).

This finding is consistent with that of Babagana (2014) who in his study of the influence of training and development on lecturers' performance in federal polytechnic Bauchi in Nigeria, revealed that there is in place a sound on-the-job and off-the-job training and development policy

in the institution even though there are “reservations on decisions by management” (p.11) on whom are sent on training and in what area particularly overseas training.

An interesting point that was noticed during the data analysis was that there are no obvious differences *between* colleges X and Y understanding of the PD concept and policy, in spite of their unique contexts. Although, there was divergence in PD conceptualisation amongst the participants *within* each case study institution (see chapter 5). This simply suggest that PD carries the same meaning irrespective of the type of institution/college, and that it is the individual participants (in this case, academic leaders and tutors) who often perceive the concept or policy from different standpoints (Mezirow, 2000). It is important to state that there is nothing strange in them perceiving it differently, given that individual implementers have different levels of knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, experience, interest, and professional backgrounds, which interfere with their ability to have a uniform understanding of the policy. Afterall, Brynard (2010, p.194) stated that “even implementers with the same language can have different interpretations of the same policy message.” Surprisingly, reasons for the lack of difference in PD concept and policy understanding between the two colleges were not so evident in the data, perhaps, the only probable reason could be that, because both institutions are guided by the same national PD policy. I, therefore, think this should form the subject of further research investigation.

9.3 Academics’ experience of PD policy implementation.

Regarding the nature of PD policy implementation in CoEs, this study found that the participants held conflicting views as demonstrated in Chapter 6. Whilst some believe that the implementation was effective on grounds of compliance with guidelines, participatory, and context-driven approaches, others contended that it was not fully effective because of skewed

and selective practice, and favouritism and politicisation. More importantly, I also found that there is a nexus between PD policy understanding and its implementation. Beyond these, it was equally revealed that the practice tends to be similar across the two case study colleges.

9.3.1 Effective Implementation

The practice of the policy was considered to be effective by some of the participants because they believed that from their experience, the practice satisfied key yardsticks: compliance with guidelines, participatory, and context-driven approaches.

9.3.1.1 Compliance with guidelines

Findings as has been presented in Chapter 6, showed that there was adherence to the provisions of the policy when translating it into action. This was evident in the fact that participants considered actions taken by these colleges, particularly as it concerns staff nomination and approval process for PD, inauguration of the Staff Development Committee (SDC), and funding support for staff development, to be in tandem with the policy prescriptions. Both colleges ensured that the SDC which was responsible for all issues relating to staff development, was inaugurated as demanded by the policy; also, that academics who participated in all college-funded and specific self-funded PD activities complied with the statutory process of application through the HoD up to the provost before getting the necessary approval. Furthermore, these colleges ensured adequate support for the development of their academic staff, through the provision of funding/sponsorship for academics' further studies, conferences, seminars, and workshops locally and internationally. On account of these experiences, participants concluded that the policy was well implemented. Interestingly, it was discovered that there were, more academic leaders than tutors who expressed this view.

This finding resonates with the position of Makoji (2016) who posits that a reasonable compliance with the dictates of any given policy by those mandated to activate that particular policy, is a fundamental ground for determining policy practice effectiveness. Also, it aligns with the views of researchers (McConnell, Greal, and Lea, 2020; Hudson, Hunter, and Peckham, 2019) who believed that policy practice can only be said to be successful when the implementers are not deliberately violating prescriptions of the policy but strictly following through with it. Although Viennet and Pont (2017) acknowledge that education policy implementation has to do with strict compliance to policy provisions, however, they equally argued that it does not only refer to the strict implementation process but should be seen in its broader context.

9.3.1.2 Participatory implementation

Again, this research revealed that policy implementation in these colleges was effective because of the adopted approach (participatory) which involved both academic leaders and tutors at several stages of the process. The practice according to some of the participants was such that decisions regarding staff PD were reached collectively with the tutors having the opportunity to make inputs, as against the aged long known practice where decisions are just handed down from the college's top management to the staff. Such a practice speaks to the bottom-up theory of policy implementation which has been argued as being the best approach that can guarantee effective policy practice in any education institution (Ake, 2020; Budd et al., 2012). This is because it provides staff with the opportunity to discuss their development needs and challenges, as well as share their experiences and ideas with the leaders. Seferoglu (2011) notes that teachers need opportunities to share what they know, discuss what they want to learn, and connect new concepts and strategies to their own unique contexts. The bottom-up approach sees management

of policy implementation as a process of interaction and negotiation, taking place over time, between those seeking to put policy into effect and those upon whom action depends.

According to Akor (2022), under the bottom-up approach to managing the tertiary education policy implementation, what matters is the reactions of those at the lower end of the line whose reactions shape the implementation process, and the policy itself, and not how policy makers at the top get their will executed. Continuing further, Ake explains that the real question in policy implementation is how to support staff, so they do not have to resort to actions that can negatively affect the quality of their service to end users of the policy. Budd et al. (2012) also revealed that the bottom-up theory insists on the continuous engagements and negotiations that take place throughout the policy process. It ensures that there is constant discussions and debates between the top management of the institution and those staff on the field who work to translate the policy into action, about what they need and how best it can be achieved.

I also found that some academic tutors disagreed that the practise of the policy in these colleges was participatory. They argued that having just a single academic tutor nominated into the SDC of the college is an underrepresentation especially when it is apparently dominated by leaders. Adding that the nominated member unlike their academic leader counterparts in the committee, is not even involved in all the stages in the process. For example, they do not have the authority to nominate or endorse applications of potential participants like HoDs and Deans do. Their position is consistent with the Report of the Presidential Task Team on Education in Nigeria (FRN, 2011) which still identified among other critical issues bedevilling the education system from primary to tertiary, the absence of participatory decision-making practice. They also contended that their institutions' development approach was based more on a "transmissive training model" (Lofthouse, 2018, p.6), than a blended and participatory form of development

activities and training. They added that in most PD scenarios they as participants are only given instructions or told what to do with little or no opportunity to make their own inputs to the process.

9.3.1.3 Contextualised implementation

Furthermore, it is evident from this study that the policy was considered to be well implemented because of the context-based approach to practice adopted in these colleges. The approach which ensured that policy implementation is tailored to addressing the specific needs of the particular institution, is believed to be in line with the prescription of the policy which allows for modification of any aspect of the policy during implementation to align with the local conditions of the different contexts (see Chapter 6). Even though the same PD policy governs all public colleges of education, each college operates in different geographical and social environments with characteristics and needs that are unique to them. Hence, it was contended that the consideration of such contextual peculiarities of the different colleges in the implementation process was critical to the effective application of the policy. Specifically, academic leaders insisted that it is a normal practice for a leader to implement a policy using an approach that is deemed suitable (i.e., towards areas of best interest) for optimal results for the institution, provided the policy objectives are not lost. Adding that it is the academic leader knows exactly what he/she wants for the institution at a particular time and how to achieve it, and not policymakers.

Researchers (e.g., Murphy, 2013; Oduaran, 2015; Crawford, 2009; Braithwaite et al., 2018; Allcock et al., 2015) have argued that context play a significantly large role in the learning and development of all its inhabitants; and to have a successful policy implementation and institutional reforms, the values, norms, and beliefs in each institution must be accommodated.

For instance, it has been contended in the literature that a policy that works in one context may not work in another, or in the same way (Murphy, 2013; Braithwaite et al., 2018; Allcock et al., 2015), because every institution looks at what works and what does not work for them. Hence, Murphy advocates for a policy practice approach that aligns policy goals and complementarities, with the settings, societal trends and shocks, values, expectations, and the skills required by a specific institution. Similarly, Crawford (2009), notes that institutional context does become relevant, though, in relation to how each institution responds, or activates, extra-institutional initiatives in setting its values and priorities. Supporting, Oduaran (2015) posits that although CPD for teachers have become a global phenomenon, its policies, principles, and practices, to a large extent differ from one institution to another. Hence, to ensure effective practice, implementers must consider the peculiarity of their context.

Also, recognising the importance of context, Matsko and Hammerness (2014) suggested that pedagogies and practices that underpin teacher preparation and development programmes should be rooted in context-specific ontologies. Ball et al. (2011) equally posited that policy interpretation and the decisions taken in the process, is guided by the specific conditions of a given context, meaning that the act of translating policies may differ between contexts.

Practitioners tend to implement national policies with some mediation to suit local conditions, making it work for the benefit of their respective institutions or learners (Nixon et al., 2008).

Drawing on Bernstein's work on recontextualization, Singh, Thomas, and Harris (2013) revealed that contextualising policy discourse or study, brings a better understanding to the interpretation and translation. In Bell and Stevenson's framework, it is noted that the socio-political environment "shapes the context within which policy is framed and enacted" (2015, p.148).

9.3.2 Ineffective Implementation

The study further revealed that, some academics equally thinks that the policy has been poorly implemented, and a couple of reasons including skewed and selective practice, and favouritism and politicisation, were advanced in the data in favour of this argument.

9.3.2.1 Skewed and selective practice

Findings as was presented in chapter 6, showed the contention that the policy practice did not comply exactly with its provisions as required, because from the responses the implementation was more skewed towards the interest of the institution than it is to the staff, and to specific disciplines over the others. Hence, it was contended that before the implementation of a policy or programme can be said to be effective, actions taken must conform in its entirety with what the policy stipulates. This quote from one of the respondents is particularly interesting because it succinctly highlights this position:

From my experience, our leaders who have more authority when it comes to implementation of the policy on staff development are more interested in how the institution or college will benefit from the programme than the staff who is involved in such a programme. (Fidel, College Y).

This is in line with the findings by Makoji (2016) which revealed that, academic staff in polytechnics in Nigeria are allowed to proceed on any training and development programmes only when the leadership of the institution is convinced that such a programme will contribute hugely to the institution's success, and not necessarily how it affects the staff personal development. Similar view was expressed by Oduaran (2015) and Scheerens (2010), that PD for academics is lopsided as it is more directed at the institutional objectives without a proportionate attention to the individual academic needs, and more towards the goal of enhancing teaching than research and service. Interestingly, I found that this view about PD practice was largely

shared by academic tutors, as academic leaders argued that whatever modifications are made to the policy in the implementation process are to reflect the peculiarities of their context and aid smooth implementation (Murphy, 2013). A practice they consider as normal on the claim that the policy like all others permits institutions to consider their unique conditions when executing the policy, and pointing out that the PD policy specifically provides that colleges should be given priority because the staff are employees of the institution and not the other way round: “And as a matter of policy, staff development should be geared towards the achievement of the aims of the institution” (NCCE, 2015, p.66).

9.3.2.2 Favouritism and politicisation of PD practice

Evidence from this study also indicate that the policy practise in these colleges was bedevilled by political patronage and cronyism, favouritism, and nepotism, making some of the participants to conclude that the implementation was ineffective. I found according to the data that these took the form of personal interest interference with the institution’s standard official procedures and policy requirement in staff selection and approval for training and development activities by leaders who have the authority to act. Specifically, it was that approvals for college-funded and some self-funded PD programmes were used to settle political allies, families, relatives, cronies, and loyalists of those in the college leadership, in exchange for continuous political support and goodwill. Colleagues who do not share the same family and relationship ties, political leanings, or support their interest during the local school elections always got their applications denied approval on the grounds of perceived disloyalty or enmity. It is believed that such practices have adverse implications on the policy implementation due process, which limits effectiveness.

This is consistent with the findings of Owo (2016) who revealed that a major reason for the recurring agitations and threats for industrial action by the academic staff’s union in some Nigerian

HEIs including CoE, is the overbearing influence of many provosts as heads of their respective colleges, on the selection and approval processes of staff development. This was corroborated by Awodiji, (2021) who noted that in Nigeria, instated of lecturers benefiting from PD based on merit or because they met the requirement(s) as prescribed in the policy, it is based on who that particular staff knows in and outside the institution or what socio-political group the person belongs. Further support was given by European Training Foundation (2008), which posits that policy tend to be implemented through political processes that reflects the relative power of influencing groups more than the relative merits of policy options.

Researchers (Ogunode, areape, and Jegede, 2020; Adegbite, 2007; Ekundayo and Ajayi, 2009) have also shown that a major challenge affecting effective implementation of the higher institutions policies are the political influence. Political officeholders which include leaders in various HEIs like to violate educational policies especially in higher institutions through their actions and activities. They interfere a lot in terms of selection processes and influence decisions in favour of their family members and allies even when they do not meet the standard requirements. This finding also agrees with those of Jongbloed (2000) who observed that higher education institutions in developing countries experience serious politicisation of their environments, and Lenshie (2013) who revealed that the education sector in Nigeria “is suffering from virulent politicisation to untoward tendencies such as ethnicity, religion and godfatherism which have become an enduring legacy of colonialism and post-colonial politics in Nigeria” (p.23).

9.3.3 Influence of implementer’s understanding of the policy

The study also revealed trends that suggest a nexus between implementers’ understanding of the policy and how it is practiced. There were dominant voices in the data pointing to the fact that understanding the actual intention(s) of the policy is very crucial to its effective

implementation, considering the ambiguous or unclear languages often used by policymakers and frequent changes, which could possibly make implementation a difficult task. For instance, it was revealed that some of the successes recorded by the case study institutions regarding the PD policy practice were a function of the implementers' good knowledge of the policy in terms of the aim, procedure, requirements, and the 'dos and don'ts.' This quote by Max (college X) is worth mentioning here:

As a head of department, one of the reasons I do record significant success when carrying out most the college's policy directives, including PD policy ... is because I often equip myself with a detailed understanding of such policy directives.

In policy implementation, the implementer's thoughts extend beyond whether to simply implement a policy or not, and pertinently include the attempt at first figuring out what the policy is about. This is so because the world of the implementer often contains variables like poor guidance for practice, incomplete and inaccurate information, or simply individualistic understandings of what policy means, influencing their implementation decisions (Hill 2003). Even though Spillane, Reiser, and Reimer (2002) argued that teachers' correct understanding of a policy intention, is not enough guarantee for its effective implementation, this study finding gained the support of some researchers. For instance, Crawford (2009) in a study on CPD in UK higher education argued that, to develop a meaningful understanding of CPD practices in academia it is necessary to start with an exploration of how academics understand CPD and its policies; what they do and why, considering the context within which it happens. Inamorato dos Santos, et al. (2019) equally maintain that there are still contestations in the research literature about the practice of higher education academic PD programmes at the local institutional level basically because of how the major stakeholders and practitioners perceive and interpret the concept and policy programmes.

Ball et al. (2011) submit that interpretation and translation are essential to the enactment of a policy. Arguing that interpretation which they describe as “an initial reading, a making sense of policy” that is, attributing meaning to the policy text, is where the process of enacting a policy begins (p.619). Light and Cox (2001) also confirmed that there are many significances of a practitioner’s understanding and interpretation of a policy or project to its success or failure. Moreso, the US Centre for Disease Control and Prevention, Office of the Associate Director for Policy, and Strategy (2021), notes that a major precursor for knowing that a policy has been successfully planned and will be so implemented is by ensuring that the people involved in the implementation of the policy understands what the policy is all about and is asking them to do. Because when they are not so sure about what the policy wants, there will be consequences on implementation. Aligning with this, Blanchenay, Burns, and Köster (2014), advance that the lack of understanding of policy communication by the main actors, in terms of what they are expected to do, is a reason for unsuccessful implementation of policies in tertiary institutions. Study by Volbrecht (2003) also indicate that misconception of the PD policies in higher education results in the reduction of its impacts: “the shallow understanding of the policy and inconsistencies in its practice has obviously affected PD” (p.15). Similarly, Coffield et al. (2007) while exploring how policy impacts upon practice in higher education, describes how policies fail to impact because of how educational institution managers and tutors who act as mediators translate or sometimes mistranslate policies into action in their local context.

My understanding of the participants’ experiences with regard to implementation as revealed through their responses and my observation of their physical expressions during the interview sessions, led me to the conclusion that the PD policy has been effectively implemented in the colleges in this study. This was because I discovered from our interactions, that some of

the ‘words’ that were used by the participants who said the policy was not implemented according to prescriptions, were those of persons who felt aggrieved that they were shortchanged by their colleges and saw this study interview as a launchpad or an opportunity to ventilate their pent-up frustrations against the college. Funnily too, I realised that these set of participants did not bother to know if the non-approvals they got on their applications were because they were not satisfying the prescribed requirements or not, because they already had the mindset that they were been shortchanged.

Furthermore, some of them are probably not familiar or do not understand or are just being mischievous about the sections of the policy which states that not every applicant’s application for study leave or any other PD activity will be approved by the college’s appropriate committee, in spite of whether they meet the stated conditions or not. And that it is within the college’s rights to make that decision and without necessarily having to offer any reason for a decision to refuse approval. “Study leave is a privilege not a right and the application of any member of staff may not necessarily be granted even when they fulfil all qualifying criteria or conditions” (NCCE, 2015, p.66). Also, Chapter 13 (1.2) which addresses the concerns about skewed implementation in favour of the institution and specific disciplines: “And as a matter of policy, staff development should be geared toward the achievement of the aims of the institution” (NCCE, 2015, p.66).

9.4 Academics’ attitude towards PD

An academic’s attitudinal disposition is one of several key factors that is believed to play a significant role in their participation in PD (King, 2014), especially in determining how much they want to engage and can benefit from development programmes (Muzaffar and Malik, 2012; Ogunmakin, 2013). This study’s results as presented in chapter 7, revealed two leading findings

of belief and less enthusiasm, and influence factors, with six other sub findings, which I discussed here.

9.4.1 Belief and less enthusiasm

This study found that majority of the participants expressed mixed reactions towards PD activities. That is, while on the one hand, they indicated belief and interest in the value of PD, on the other hand, they showed less enthusiasm and persistence for participating in PD activities, with their motivation to seek out and pursue any PD activity being influenced by some structural and non-structural elements. This finding aligns with the position of Deci and Ryan (2002), who revealed that human behaviour towards participation in any activity, including PD in this case, is either intrinsically or extrinsically motivated.

It is further supported by Bouwma-Gearhart (2012) and Goodwin et al (2018) who in their various studies found that contrary to the perception that faculty members and teachers will eagerly want to participate in PD activities for their own professional growth, unfortunately only a small number wants to participate, for some internal or external motivational reasons.

9.4.2 Influence factors

This study revealed that certain factors were responsible for the way academic staff react about engaging in PD activities for their own professional improvement. These factors according to the study data include academic involvement in the PD process, supportive environment and networks, the need to maintain satisfactory official employment and PD records, academic's perception of PD, academic's agentic power, and academic's demographic variables.

9.4.2.1 Academics' involvement in the PD process

This study found that the attitude of academics towards engaging in PD activities is largely shaped by their involvement in the PD policy and practice process. What this means is

that, when academics are involved in the entire PD process, maybe through a broad-based consultation, official meetings, and adequate representation in the SDC of the college, they become more positively motivated about PD activities (Murty and Fathima, 2013), but when they are sidelined, it ignites a negative attitude towards PD. Postareff and Nevgi (2015), note that individual or group consultations usually address concerning issues about staff development, such as a lack of awareness about the innovative teaching methods, and PD opportunities offered within and outside the HEI. Interestingly, findings indicate that PD programmes were designed and implemented with very little or no consultation and input from tutors, and the attendant consequence was either a diminishing or zero interest in PD by tutors. Literature evidence points to the fact that academic leaders as key agency (Archer, 2003), are not creating sufficient opportunities for academics to participate in the design and development of professional programmes (Scott, Issa, and Issa, 2008), as Crawford (2009) revealed that there was obvious absence of the ‘voices’ of academics from major discourses on their PD.

Academic tutors believed that as individuals that the policy is meant to serve, they should be fully involved in the entire policy chain at the college level, as the absence of their ‘voices’ tend to suggest an imposition of PD activities on tutors with the dominant ‘voices’ – beliefs, ideas, and decisions – of academic leaders. And imposing a development programme that does not reflect the yearnings, aspirations, and expressed needs of the participants is an investment that will not create any meaningful impacts because it will have either zero or low up takers (Hunzicker, 2011; Volbrecht, 2003); as they see such programmes to be irrelevant and diametrically opposed to their needs (Brancto, 2008).

Lack of or poor consultations has the consequence of having programmes that are not client driven and as such could end up lacking relevance and authenticity. Fleming et al. (2004,

p.166) notes that “a one size fits all approach” is evident with the result of having a programme product that is uninspiring and less motivating. It will be an ineffective programme because it would have missed the opportunity to capture academics’ input regarding what and how they will learn (Mdhlalose, 2020; Lieberman and Pointer-Mace, 2008) as well as academics’ learning pace (Porter et al., 2003). For example, Mdhlalose (2020) in a study found that some South African government departments spend millions of Rand’s on Training and Development of its workforce, however, these departments continue to perform poorly, because those departments provide development programmes that are not relevant to the tasks of employees.

An organisation that is highly centralised in its procedures and operates strictly a top-down system, with no opportunities for staff to contribute ideas, could impede the spontaneity and flexibility needed for internal innovation, with its concomitant negative effects being demotivation or reduced staff’s interest in participating in its programmes (Chen and Huang, 2007; Mahmoudsalehi et al., 2012). Obviously, development programmes that do not integrate the needs of academics due to lack of consultation suffers from ineffectiveness and might not pay dividends in respect of improving academics’ quality because it is highly likely to experience low uptake among academics. Hence, full involvement of major stakeholders like academic tutors in the PD process is crucial if it must achieve the desired result (Cutler et. al, 2022 Hunzicker, 2011; Adu and Okeke, 2014; Patrick and Okafor, 2021; Weli and Ollor, 2021). The adult learning theory (Knowles, 1990; Nicholls, 2005), has also proven that adults have valuable life experience that can be used as a resource in their teaching and learning, and that they are more motivated to participate in programmes in which they feel that their experiences and contributions are valued and respected.

9.4.2.2 Supportive environment and networks

Another finding from this study was that academics are motivated to engage in PD activities because of the level of support that exist in the work environment. Workplace conditions, which includes interpersonal relations and policy regulations, have the potential to either enable or constraint academics' participation in PD (Zhang, Admiraal, and Saab, 2021). While interpersonal relation describes the helpful social interactions between academics tutors, leaders, and other colleagues; school policy is about the framework of general support in the institution (McMillan, McConnell, and O'Sullivan, 2016).

It was gathered that participants benefit from a lot of structural and non-structural supports (such as guidance on the writing and publishing of academic articles, textbooks, and how to write quality research proposals, apply for and secure research grants, pastoral, etc.) from in-house colleagues and others they met at different academic fora like conferences and workshops, which has motivated and sustained their interest in PD. Studies (Kwakman, 2003; Thoonen et al., 2011; Supovitz, Sirinides, and May, 2010) have claimed that academics in higher education institutions where there is supportive culture, that is, support from both their colleagues and the institution's leadership, are more likely to engage in development activities.

In addition to this, it would appear that academics' engagement was influenced by the opportunities PD creates for them to network and build professional ties with colleagues across institutions and disciplines, which resulted in several collaborative works, and other academic and social benefits. PD events were seen as a gathering where the participants could reflect and process their academic practice in a collaborative way which could act as a counterbalance to the performative and competitive nature of contemporary academia (Kennelly and McCormack, 2015). Similarly, Ginns et al. (2008, p.184) have identified "collegial networks" as a very key

mechanism in the promotion of PD among higher education academics. It was further noted that PD events serve as both a place where academics can learn new things from interactive conversations with their colleagues and grow themselves, as well as where they can be challenged and encouraged about their PD by same colleagues (Pleschová et al., 2021; Moghtader, Strubbe, Stang, and Clarke, 2022). This particular influence on academics' attitude was found to be evident in both case study colleges and participants – academic tutors and leaders.

9.4.2.3 Maintain satisfactory official employment and PD records

It was equally revealed from this research that academics' participation in PD activities is influenced by their institutions' need for them to maintain satisfactory official employment and PD records. Although PD is something that academics are expected to engage in voluntarily, but in the CoE like other HEIs in Nigeria, there are 'tangential factors – controlled forms of motivation to participate in professional learning activities' (Zhang et al., 2021, p.717) in the policy suggesting PD as mandatory, with academics having no choice whether or not to engage in it, as non-participation carries some sort of repercussion or punishment. Of note is the emphasis on academic staff having satisfactory records of regular engagement in scholarly activities that support their development throughout the course of their career, as a condition for keeping their employment, gaining career progression, and college level appointments (Musa, 2017; Gani, 2013). What the CoE refers to as 'satisfactory records' are quantifiable contributions of the academic staff such as the totality of the job performance record, scholarship, academic publications in reputable journals, effective teaching and evaluation of students, research activities (NCCE, 2015). Also, the National Policy on Education (2013, Article 5.1) makes staff

development in tertiary institutions compulsory, when it stated that staff members of higher institutions must actively engaged in “research, appropriate training, resources and support”.

This condition was found to be a major driving force for the positive attitude of academics in these colleges towards PD. This is in tandem with previous studies (Musa, 2017; Gani, 2013), which revealed that academic staff in tertiary institutions are motivated to participate in PD because for them to be promoted from one level to another, there are first subjected to an appraisal system which requires that they must have quantifiable incremental evidence of significant additional contribution since their first or previous promotion. This was corroborated by Makoji (2016) who posited that most HEI academics are naturally reluctant to move away from traditional teaching practices that they have become so attached to and embrace change but are forced to engage in PD because of its role in their job retainership and promotion.

9.4.2.4 Academics’ perception of PD

This was yet another finding that emerged from this study. It showed that the way academics react towards their PD activities relates significantly to what they perceive PD to represent, vis-à-vis how it has been conceptualised and interpreted in their different colleges. As has been revealed in chapter 5 of this study, different understandings have been attributed to PD by academics (Crawford, 2009), with some of them seeing it from the lens of purely formal activities while others say it includes informal. For those who believe PD involves strictly formal activities like workshops, further studies, etc., they tend to restrict their engagements to just those activities and showed less interest for any other development activity that is not within that circle. Academics’ notion is indeed considered very critical motivating factors to their engaging in PD (McCourt et al., 2017; Robert and Carlsen, 2017; Gibbons et al., 2018), because if they come to believe that participating in PD is worth the time and effort, because it brings about

improvement in their teaching skills or addressing personal anxieties in relation to teaching, then they may be motivated to attend despite other barriers (Limeri et al., 2020). It was Mezirow (2000) who posited that learners hold assumptions that act as filters for interpreting experiences. They also have unique “points of view,” which include their expectations, feelings, attitudes, and beliefs that shape how they interpret, judge, identify the typical, and determine cause and effect. Hence, it requires shifts in these “meaning perspectives” (p.16) for new interpretations of experiences to be possible. What this means is that the meanings individuals (academics) hold about a thing determines their decision on how to approach it.

It was also discovered that the motivation of academics for PD engagements, especially the older and more experienced ones, is affected by the assumption that PD may not have anything new to offer them, given that they have been long enough in the academia to know all they need to know – self-efficacy, hence, they steer clear of activities that are focused on their PD (Deaker, Stein, and Spiller, 2016). This category of academics assumes that a teaching role like theirs is one that anyone who has a HEI degree can fill and perform very well even without undertaking any extra PD course or training programme. Adding that in any case, PD should be for novice academics, some of whom do not have background in teaching and are eager to use PD to assert themselves and legitimise their experience (Ennals, Fortune, Williams, and D’Cruz, 2015; Richter, 2013). Afterall, Hildebrandt and Eom (2011) found that inexperienced teachers showed higher needs for achievement and growth compared to experienced teachers. And to pursue greater achievements, inexperienced teachers were more motivated to participate in PD programmes. Their position is also consistent with findings of Maphosa and Mudzielwana (2014), that the discourse around HEI teaching viewed teaching as ‘all-comers’ affair, that anyone with a degree could teach. However, there are contrary views to this, as the UNESCO (2000) note that, lecturing is a professional lifelong career in which the practitioner needs to have

opportunities throughout the course of it to periodically update their knowledge, skills, and capabilities. Also, Karmel and Maclean (2007), said it is in the higher education institutions that the educators of the future are trained and those already working within higher education need to have their knowledge and skills constantly upgraded. Findings equally showed that this position was common among participants of both colleges but led by mostly the experienced academics.

9.4.2.5 Academic's agentic power

This study also revealed that besides structural – “rules and resources” (Giddens, 1979, p.64) influences around their college approval and/or funding of staff PD, academics’ individualistic decisions – agency – have dominant influence on their engagement in PD. This was demonstrated through academics’ actions including taking up PD programmes that are self-funded simply because, they probably wanted to satisfy a personal interest, for example chasing a lifelong dream of acquiring a PhD (McMillan et al., 2016; Geijsel et al., 2009), or due to frustrations from several non-approvals of PD requests and funding by their college management, as presented in chapter 7. In a motivation model by McMillan et al. (2016), personal factor was identified as a key influence on academics’ participation in PD, as it was discovered that they would express a high interest in pursuing PD activities that they valued for their own personal reasons, and in response to their own professional and perhaps personal needs.

Also, given that academics operate under the structure of their respective higher education institutions with the powers that “might impede or facilitate” actions (Archer, 2003, p.7), there is the possibility that those academics who want to engage in development activities could be frustrated by the structural factors in the workplace. However, same factors can also serve as triggers that necessitates exercise of agency, by academics converting the frustrating

situation to their own advantage by thinking out-of-the-box, exploring, and discovering other ways of developing themselves. Opfer, Pedder, and Loicza, (2011), pointed out that the more dissatisfied an individual is, the more likely it is that the individual will seek out new understandings and new ideas. Likewise, a study by Galevski (2021) found that agency is encouraged as a survival tool for early career academics (ECAs) against the pressures of constraining and unstable nature of existing workplace structures that ECAs are confronted with over the course of their career.

Bray and Russel (2016) revealed in their study how Individualised Education Programme (IEP) documents which established roles for participation in the programmes and were used as the dominant script or structure for IEP meetings, triggered participants to exert agency and go off the script, hence, breaking from the programme's meetings structural properties. Crawford (2009) equally notes that the interplay between influences from structural elements in higher education institutions and academics' exercise of agency plays crucial role in their approach to PD. This view of agency as an influence on academics' PD attitude was expressed in the two case study colleges and by both groups of participants, however, it is more prominent in college Y, and this according to the data was primary because of limited college-funded PD opportunities compared to college X.

9.4.2.6 Academics' demographic variables

Another finding that also emerged from this study as presented in chapter 7, is that demographic variables, specifically, age, length of years in service, gender, and marital status, are very influential to the attitude of academic staff towards participation in PD activities.

It was discovered that the age of academic staff and how long they have been working in their respective institutions, affects their abilities and motivation to participate in PD activities.

This is because knowledge, expertise, and the ability to reason through unusual situations increases during early life until early adulthood and then declines through the life span. Also, cognitive processing speed also becomes slower starting around age 30 or so (Salthouse, 2019; Beier, 2022). Socioemotional selectivity theory suggests, for instance, that goals shift with age, tending to be achievement oriented when people are younger, but socioemotional in later years (Carstensen et al., 1999). This shift in goals, according to researchers (Maurer et al., 2003; Kooij et al., 2011) have shown that workers' (academics in this case) age negatively affects their interest in development activities that are for the sake of receiving extrinsic rewards (e.g., pay rise and promotion), but have not found any effect of age on their interest in development opportunities linked to intrinsic rewards (e.g., enjoyment of the activity and becoming a better person).

The implication of this in professional learning is that people will increasingly value learning opportunities related to their own enjoyment and the building of relationships over professional or personal advancement as they age. Further, life-span-development theory and research suggest that as people age, they are increasingly likely to select goals aligned with their existing strengths, adapt their approach to achieving these goals by optimizing the resources that are available to them, and compensate for declines in resources by adjusting their approach or environment (Baltes and Baltes, 1990; Moghimi et al., 2017; Beier, 2022). In other studies, supporting this finding, researchers (Banzoussi et al., 2015; Anitha and Kumar, 2016), also reported about teachers' demographic factors of age, gender, and years of experience, having influence on their participation in training and development. Similarly, Agrawal and Jain (2020), Padmavathy and Premavathy (2018) and Cowman and McCarthy (2016) revealed that there is relative influence of demographic variables on teachers and other employees' perceptions and

interest for PD. It was also evident that these factors were common across the two case study colleges.

A further issue that was identified in the study is that female academics have more challenges participating in PD activities when compared to their male counterparts in these institutions because of the series of burdens associated with being a woman or female gender (Walby, 2002). Their challenge begins from the family where they have maternity and childcare responsibilities, are in charge of managing the home (domestic responsibilities) and caring for all members of the family, and other family social engagements, while at the same time they want to continue to fully participate in the activities of their professional career, but are faced with these unequal conditions which did not give them the needed opportunity to pursue their PD (Montes, 2017). A study by Asih (2022), investigated the influence of teacher demographic variables (e.g., gender, age, academic qualification, years of teaching experience, employment status, and certification status) on a mandatory teacher PD programme. Her findings indicated equal influence on PD from all variables except the teachers' gender where a difference in terms of interest in participating in PD activities was found between male and female teachers. Similarly, Dominguez and Diez (2022) stressed that women face greater barriers than men when it comes to reaching top-level positions; because of issues such as delayed motherhood, experiencing sexist behaviour and comments from male colleagues, a lack of mentorship; and the absence of consensus on an appropriate 'work-life balance', as a major approach to addressing or significantly erasing those identified barriers.

9.5 Impacts of academics' participation in PD activities.

This study has also shown that the participation of academic staff in PD activities have many significant effects on their professional practice. The ones I identified from the

participants' responses include improvement in academics' professional competencies; career, financial, and social benefits; collegiality, professional collaboration, and work ethics; and student's academic achievement and institution's reputation.

9.5.1 Improvement on academics' professional competencies

Most of this study's participants revealed that as they engage in PD activities, it enhances their all-round professional adeptness (e.g., instructional knowledge, self-confidence), because they are kept abreast with the latest pedagogical skills and methodologies, simple and workable strategies (e.g., encouragement, some amount of coaching and mentoring where possible) on how to build self-confidence. I gathered that at the early stage of their career, most of academics felt apprehensive each time they faced their students or colleagues to teach or make oral presentation but were able to improve overtime due to their regular interactions with the students and colleagues, and participation at academic fora where they gained more exposure and skills about such routines. Specific areas in which academics identified that they had experienced improvement includes confidence in public speaking and communication, preparing and delivering lectures, and writing of academic research papers. This seems to be in consonance with the findings of Walls (2013) that PD presented academics with opportunities to be constantly updated with current developments in their respective fields of professional practice, enabled them to become more familiar with diverse approaches and techniques that can be applied to different teaching situations, and help to overcome shortcomings that they may have in their practice.

Also, Gibbs and Coffey (2004) who researched the experiences of staff and students in 20 universities across eight countries and found that where teachers participated in academic development programmes, their focus became more student-centred, and lecturers' feelings of

self-efficacy and confidence grew. Sharing similar view, Patrick, and Okafor (2021) add that PD ensures that academics are better prepared for their current and future responsibilities and makes them more valuable to their employer(s) because they acquired new specialised skills and knowledge to do their job in a manner that fits the employer's specification and objectives. Through PD, academics develop in-depth and relevant knowledge that they can use with different students and contexts (Snow, Griffin, and Burns, 2005). Van Geyte and Hadjianastasis (2022) revealed that a postgraduate teaching assistant course is valuable for teaching assistants and lead to a noticeable enhancement of professional knowledge, ability, and confidence, which is beneficial for enhancing the quality of teaching in the UK. More research scholars (Babagana, 2014; Pelger, 2022; Thurston et al, 2008; D'Andrea and Gosling, 2001; Quinn, 2012; Bamber and Stefani, 2016) have also confirmed that PD programmes for HE academics basically improves upon their teaching and general academic practice skills.

Academics' participation in PD activities was also associated with their ability to adapt easily and quickly to their constantly changing professional work environment. With recent technological advances ushering in rapid changes in the way things are done across various walks of life including the academia, it is believed that academics' continuous PD is what empowers them to be or remain in tune with the new digital educational technologies and their application in teaching (de la Harpe and Radloff, 2008; and Scott and Scott, 2010). PD is also what can compensate for such other inadequacies in their practice (Wall, 2013; Megginson and Whitaker, 2007), especially as the research data and literature (Imogie 2013; Adeniji, 2011) have shown that some academics in Nigeria lacks the required knowledge and skills to effectively perform especially in today's academic environment. Because knowledge is dynamic and not static, hence, the knowledge and skills acquired at their initial training can become out-of-date,

or possibly their initial training did not provide them with the knowledge and skills for the current sophisticated academic environment.

The discourse in this study also indicated that academics undertaking PD activities was instrumental to addressing the issue about their management of student diversity (Kandiko and Mawer, 2013) which has been a major challenge for higher education academics especially in their lecture-halls (Hilra and Coheny, 2011). Empowered with sufficient insights about students' diversity, they become more aware and concerned about the issue, and thus adopted student-centred instructional approaches that promotes students' participation, and teaching and learning effectiveness (James, 2013). The impact on leadership abilities of academics in the classroom or any position that they are appointed into within the college was not left out. Academics that undertook management courses revealed that they had the unique opportunity to learn and acquire deeper knowledge about human and material resource management and most recent trends about digital resources, as a strategic factor for their institution's transformation (Frantz, Lawack, and Rhoda, 2020; Harris and Lebermann, 2012; Grunefeld et al., 2015).

9.5.2 Career, financial, and social benefits

This study again found that academics' engagement in PD activities impact on their career progression, yields financial, and social benefits. It was discovered from the responses of the participants that, apart from PD enhancing their skills and knowledge, it is an element that supports their career progression. As a practice in Nigeria, HE lecturers' promotion all through the stages in their career is tied to satisfactory job performance, and the professional training and development that has been undertaken in the course of their career (Babagana, 2014). So, academics' enhanced teaching and research skills resulting from participating in PD activities are a key component of what improves their prospects for promotion, upgrading, and other similar

reward opportunities from their employers (Wall, 2013; Gani, 2013).

In COEs, academic staff promotion is conducted every three years, and within these intervals, academics are expected to prepare adequately for promotion by ensuring effective performance of their primary responsibilities and that they satisfactorily meet the basic requirements (e.g., certificates of participation in conferences and workshops, further studies, and publications in reputable academic journals) for the position they are to be promoted to. It was revealed by Peretomode and Chukwuma (2012) and Rashid (2008) that lecturers principally attend development programmes just to get certificates which can earn them promotion on the job. Interestingly, it was equally discovered that the promotion to higher levels in their career results in financial benefits for the academic staff, in the form of an increment in pay (salary), allowances and bonuses, honorarium, and consultancy fees (Gani, 2013; Archibong, Effiom, Omoike, and Edet, 2010). The Conditions of Service for Staff of Colleges of Education (NCCE, 2015), confirms this when it states that:

An employee who is promoted shall normally enter the salary level of the new position and shall not earn a salary which is lower than the salary they earn before promotion, and which shall be equal to or above his annual incremental rate. (Chapter, 3.4.1)

It was also discovered from the study that participation in PD activities has increased the professional qualifications and certificates of most of the academic staff beyond what they started their career with, which puts them in the position to take up greater responsibilities. For instance, some academics who started out with bachelor's degree currently boast of postgraduate diplomas, masters, and PhD. Others are ICT, and pedagogical training certificates, which have all enriched their curriculum vitae (Wall, 2013; Megginson and Whitaker, 2007). Furthermore, this study found that academics' chances of appointment into some leadership positions within the institution is enhanced by a good record of PD participation, with some respondents pointing

out at the interview that it was what gave them the edge over their competitors for appointments they currently hold or held in the past. This gained the support of Denney (2022), who in her investigation of educational leadership, revealed an interesting trend in higher education, which was that the appointment of Pro Vice Chancellors was mostly based on a background in academic development. That is, academics who are well experienced in academic staff development, have themselves participated in several PD, and work in the academic development unit of their institution. Similar view is shared by Shepherd (2015), who notes that before 1992, the mode of appointments into leadership positions in UK HEIs have been to select from among the ranks of academics within the particular institution, but post 1992 the leaders can now be recruited from outside the institution, but the person(s) to be appointed must still be an academic, have a track record of stellar research publications and grant income. So, the baseline here is that the person should possess a PD experience related to research.

In addition to these, is the social benefits that PD engagement brings to academics. With the participation in PD activities such as doctoral studies, and professional associations membership admission programmes, academics get the opportunity of being decorated with new appellations (titles) which boost their professional profile and social status and give them more visibility, recognitions, and influence (Wall, 2013; Bradley, 2014) within and outside the walls of their institution. This was also corroborated by Spowart et al. (2015) who found that recognition ‘raised the individual’s profiles within the community’ (p. 8). Likewise, other studies (e.g., Botham, 2018; Eccles, 2016) confirm that successful participants of specific professional development programmes see recognition as an important factor in raising their status and credibility as teachers. Turner et al. (2013) equally found that 47% of the 95 higher education institutions that responded in their study indicated that engagement with the UK Professional

Standards Framework led to a change in practice resulting from enhanced reward and recognition.

9.5.3 Collegiality, professional collaboration, and work ethics

This study also revealed that academics' engagements in PD events provided opportunities for them to create collegial communities and communities of practice for experience sharing, collaborations, networking, and mentorship, which have contributed to the emergence of a number of initiatives and partnerships in related areas. Academics considered the rich experiences and knowledge shared with colleagues that they meet and connect with, at the various academic fora as major gains, because of the potential in such collegiality and teamwork which includes that some cases, it has helped them to achieve greater results than working individually. Research have shown that collegial communities forge conversations that are vital to effective teaching and learning development and can potentially have more valuable impacts than an individual workshop or course (Pleschová et al., 2021). PD events were seen as a gathering where the participants could reflect and process their academic practice in a collaborative way which could act as a counterbalance to the performative and competitive nature of contemporary academia (Kennelly and McCormack, 2015).

The community of practice approach was perceived by academics to offer additional benefits of collaboration, breaking down entrenched silos and barriers across disciplines. This is consistent with the view of researchers (Ryan, 2015; Leigh, 2017) who note that the value of communities of practice in higher education includes developing academics' teaching and learning practice and availing the opportunity to explore study fields. Working together with academics from other disciplines established a broader frame of reference to not only understand the work of others, but to foreground a new kind of cross-disciplinary dialogue.

This brings a greater sense of unity and shared practice among academics from a wide range of disciplines. Moghtader et al. (2022) note that paired or team-teaching where teachers have the opportunity to discuss and share ideas on the subject, they teach bring with it development experiences that are of potential benefits for the teachers. Moreso, it was discovered that PD has encouraged and promoted professionalism and good ethical behaviour among academics, as well as orientating novice academics on the academic culture of higher education institution (McLean, Cilliers and Van Wyk, 2008). The responses indicated that through the workshop events that they attend, collaborative working, and other related development activities, they were able to learn and gain more knowledge and experiences that improved upon their professional values and in the way they behave at work (Makoji, 2016; Gani, 2013; Bolivar, 2005). Especially, regarding the established code of practice, enhanced commitment, and performance, promoting good working relationship with colleagues and students with diverse background (Airaksinen, 2012; Banks, 2012). This impact is highly significant because professionalism is the most important variable in determining an organisation's success, it is such that its weakness reduces relationships and increases damage to the organization.

9.5.4 Student's academic achievement and institution's reputation

In addition to the many impacts of academics' participation in PD activities that has been discussed so far, this study also found that academics were convinced that engaging in PD has translated into noticeable improvements in students' learning and academic achievements: students' confidence, communication skills, and higher quality of work. This is because students under the tutelage and academic guidance of lecturers who continuously engage in PD activities, will benefit directly from contemporary and advanced teaching and learning experience that the academic has been exposed to (Patfield et al., 2021). Also, because with the PD experience

academics are better able to understand and predict student behaviour, correct for mistakes, and select the most effective methods of teaching that makes their lectures easily comprehensible by the students (McAvinia et al., 2015; Alabi, 2005).

Further evidence that the students have improved academically was in the positive feedback that the lecturers got from the students and some of their known parents during graduation ceremonies. They were commended for the satisfactory teaching and academic guidance that they offered which resulted in the quality of graduates that are being produced. In their research, Gore et. al. (2017) revealed that teacher professional development that is focused on quality teaching method (QTM) have proven to have positive impact on quality of teaching, teacher morale, and student academic achievement in schooling. Also, Yoon et. al (2007) reported that teachers who receive substantial professional development, that is, an average of 49 contact hours in the nine studies, boost their students' learning achievements by about 21 percentile points. Similarly, a growing body of research literature (e.g., Zhaohui and Anning 2020; Yang et al. 2014; Desimone, Smith, and Phillips, 2013; Gaertner and Brunner, 2018; Suleiman, 2015; Scherer, Nilsen, and Jansen, 2016) have suggested that institutions of learning should encourage their staff participation in PD activities because they found from their respective studies that teachers' teaching quality is one of the most important predictors of students' learning outcomes.

It was further discovered that the positive records of students' academic achievements in addition to other success stories of the college, in the areas of research output, high quality students' experience, community service, and college's social capital, which are linked to staff development, have helped to promote the reputation and collective outlook on the world outside its own walls, and consequently the college's ranking in the national league-table for CoEs.

Institutional outputs in terms of quality teaching and research capacity are measures of institutional success locally and internationally (Blackmore, 2009; Devlin and Samarawickrema, 2010), and the main source of reputation in many global university ranking scores (Gibbs, 2016). Lofthouse (2018) also argued that individual professional learning has the potential to contribute to institutional growth, noting that, although this growth does not happen automatically; it requires a deliberate integration of the individual's development with the organization's supportive framework.

9.6 Summary

The aim of this research study has been to find answer to the overarching question of how academics' PD policy is understood and practiced in the college of education. I have in this chapter, discussed concurrently findings that emerged from within and across the case study colleges as answers to the question. I began with the understanding of the policy by academics, then stretched the discussion through the implementation of the policy at the local level of the institutions, to the attitude exhibited by academics towards their own professional development, and finally, the impact that their participation in professional development has on their professional practice. In the end, the major answers were that there are contradictions about the understanding of PD within the case study colleges, however, there are no differences between the two institutions. Also, that the policy implementation was effective.

Chapter 10

Conclusions

10.1 Reflections

The study documented in this thesis investigated academics' professional development policy and practice in the context of public colleges of education in Nigeria, based on the experiences of the academic staff. As revealed earlier in Chapter 1 of this report, I was led into this study by the quest for answers to the thoughts and questions that always ran through my mind, about my PD as an academic myself in higher education. So, when I made the decision to pursue a PhD degree, I immediately decided that I will make this the focus of my PhD research.

To properly carryout this research, I transformed those earlier questions and ideas I had into prima facie research questions as presented in Chapter 1. This guided my reading and searching of the relevant resources for my literature review in Chapter 3. Having gained better understanding of the research subject from the literature review, I modified the earlier research questions to align with the focus of my research. The literature review also helped me to understand my philosophical standpoint and to ensure that the decisions I make regarding my methodology aligns with the philosophical assumptions (see Chapter 4).

Based on my chosen methods, I collected and analysed the relevant data and presented results including themes and illustrative extracts that emerged, in Chapters 5 through 8. These findings were discussed in Chapter 9, but I made further reflections in this chapter. Also included in this chapter are the study contributions, implications, and limitations and suggested areas that further studies may be required. The reflection also focused on the conclusions reached with regard to this study findings.

On the first research question which seeks to know how PD as a concept and its policy is understood by academics in the academia, particularly, the CoE, I established based on comparative review of the empirical data that, there are contentions as to the actual meaning of PD, among participants *within* individual colleges, especially in terms of what activities should be considered as constituting PD. This is because some perceive it as strictly formal types of learning, while others view it as an integration of both formal and informal development actions (see chapter 5). However, notwithstanding the fact that academics ascribed different meanings to PD, the study showed that they have a common understanding about its purpose, which they said is to influence positive improvement or change in the professional life of academics. This candid account of these participants only helped to confirm what is already known in the literature about the notion of PD. Another significant outcome is the fact that the study found that there is no apparent difference *between* colleges X and Y understanding and interpretation of PD concept and policy, in spite of their unique contexts (see chapter 5).

With regard to academic staff's knowledge of the PD policy, I also found varying levels between the two sets of academic participants, with academic leaders having better understanding than their tutor counterparts. More importantly, this study also identified the reasons for this diverse understanding of the policy between the groups of participants, with policy ambiguity leading the pack (see chapter 5). This finding seems to suggest that explicit clarity in the description and consistency of approach and terminologies is needed from the national government (employers) as the makers of the policy. Policies should be formulated and drafted in very simple words and language that can be easily comprehended by those translating it into action. This call is quite important because 'language is a meaning constituting system' (Usher, 1996, p.27), and where a policy is misunderstood by its implementers, the essence or

core objective is defeated, as it is very likely that the interpretation will be defective (Blanche et al., 2014). Also, the government (employers) must take serious interest in making sure that the implementers are very familiar and well knowledgeable about the policy by providing all academic staff with a pocket-size copy, especially during the induction exercise for new staff as part of induction pack, and they should also organise special workshops to educate academic staff on the policy prescriptions and the actual intentions of the drafters.

On the second research question, which seeks answers to how PD policy is implemented, it was also found that implementation of policies in the case colleges, particularly the policy in focus, is effective, because actions taken were seen to reflect significantly the policy prescriptions and requirements. For instance, the participatory and context-sensitive approaches which were employed in executing the policy were considered as indicators of effective practice. Although the study acknowledged that there were some dissenting voices to this position but also maintained that those voices came from a place of ‘ignorance’ about the policy provisions, and the feeling of being shortchanged by their institutions (see chapter 6). Another important outcome of this study is its empirical reveal that the understanding of the PD policy by academics as the implementers, plays a key role in determining how the policy fared in practice in the colleges under review (see chapter 6). This is a confirmation to what the existing literature have also said, which is that the ‘meanings’ attributed to a given concept or policy are influential in the implementation as well as attitude of individuals (academic staff in this case) towards it (Crawford, 2009), because individual perceptions tend to offer conventional definition about a given notion (Sayer, 1992). Hence, the suggestion that policies should be drafted using the language and terms that can be easily understood by those who are to implement them, is very important here. A further recommendation for the effective implementation of the policy, would

be that colleges should subscribe to the new practice framework – ‘*A 3-Stage Bottom-Up Framework*’ proposed in this study (see p.238). This is a product of this research data that encourages leaders to engage and discuss with staff members about their PD needs.

With respect to research question three, it also emerged that although academics belief in the value of PD, but their attitude also showed that they are less motivated towards their own development because of some structural and non-structural elements in the college environment. My exploration revealed that such factors which include especially, ‘the consultation with and involvement’ of academics, particularly tutors, in the PD process, enables or constraints academics’ interest and agentic actions towards professional development activities. A weak link was found to exist between academic tutors and leaders (top management) in terms of decision making relating to academic staff development interventions. Academics’ reaction towards PD activities was found to be negatively affected by the concern that PD programmes were not a product of broad-based consultation with the academic tutors who are direct beneficiaries, but rather some sort of imposed ideas (activities) on them by their institution’s top management. This over centralization and making of the staff development decision process mostly a top management affair, without giving significant window of opportunity for tutors to make inputs in such interventions, is one of the challenges that was recurring in the data from both colleges. To ensure that academics are motivated and encouraged to have a positive attitude towards their own development, I advocated for a review of the policy, specifically the section which gives the right of interpretation to the Registrar, and should be replaced with the provision that the academic leaders (top management) of colleges of education, should mandatorily adopt ‘*A 3-Stage Bottom-Up Framework*’ to the interpretation of this and other policies. This will enable or increase the chances of academic tutors to be involved in discussing the policy and make inputs

regarding their own development, as well as ensure that only programmes that addresses their yearnings and aspirations are brought on board. Also, considering that PD is an investment aimed at advancing both the individual academic's professional competencies and institution's goals, career-related benefits (such as appointments as HoDs or academic directors which are often based only on seniority) should be provided for academic staff who seek the opportunity for development and change. This certainly will motivate them, because many tend to show lackadaisical attitude towards PD due to the lack of incentives for participation.

Unlike the contestation about the understanding and implementation of professional development, academics seem to generally agree that PD impacts positively on their professional practice. The study confirmed that PD is considered in the case study colleges as a major source of opportunities for academic staff upscaling of their knowledge and skills, career progression and enhancement of financial and social status (see chapter 8). With the continuous improvement of their competencies, academics are better positioned to overcome any shortcomings they may have and do their job in a manner that fits their employer's specifications and objectives.

10.2 Contributions to knowledge

A review on this research work, indicate that it has made significant contributions to the field of development studies, particularly academics' PD research, that will serve as a useful resource to policymakers, the academia – especially the Staff Professional Development Unit of HEIs, practitioners, researchers, development partners, and funding agencies. Overall, this research has offered findings and insights to enhance understanding and interpretation of academics' PD concept and policy. Specifically, the contributions are in the areas of:

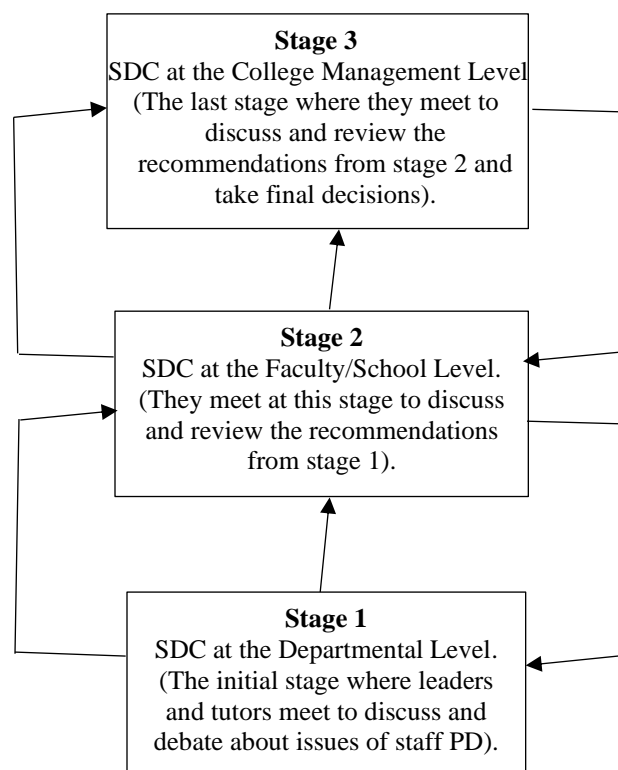
Policy reforms – this research has produced findings that will inform future policy reforms that will have direct impacts on policy understanding and interpretation by HE

academics. Examples include the finding about policy ambiguity which was identified as a major policy issue (see p. 125), that if taken into consideration when drafting policies in the future, would strengthen the quality of PD and other HE policies, and make for easy and effective interpretation. Also, the study drew attention to the need for the policymakers (government) to give official policy recognition and support to ‘informal – implicit activities or practices’ (see chapter 9) which CoE academics consider as sources of their PD; as is the common practice in other climes like UK, US, etc. (Inamorato dos Santos, et al., 2019).

Practice direction – this study also made contributions in terms of alternative practicable framework for promoting effective and sustainable PD practice in CoEs, and possible strategies on how to positively influence academics’ attitude towards PD. For example, drawing from my study data, I developed a new practice framework for staff development policy tagged as: *A 3-Stage Bottom-Up Framework* (see Figure 10.1), which is considered as a good replacement for the Single Stage Top-Down Approach that is popular among the colleges of education. This suggested framework advocates for SDC at department and faculty/school levels in addition to the central SDC at the college management level, as this will create room for a robust democratic process that allows for multiple iterative engagements and discussions across the different levels, that will accommodate the diverse voices of academic leaders and tutors, in the interpretation and implementation of the academic staff PD policy. The framework will also practically address the major issues identified in this research: (a) poor understanding of the policy – the staff involvement in the process through the multiple iterative meetings will motivate them to acquire deeper knowledge of the policy so as to be able to make informed contributions to discussions at the various meetings; (b) concerns about the involvement of academic tutors – because this model promotes a democratic process that supports broad-based consultations and adequate

participation, it will ignite in the academic tutors, a sense of recognition for their views, partnership (i.e., being carried along), ownership, and personal responsibility in the policymaking and enactment; and (c) concerns about the policy implementation – the process will also promote effective actioning of the policy, because with the staff having good knowledge of the policy and seeing themselves as partners in the process, given that they were consulted with and involved in the policy development, it will drive their commitment and willingness to supporting and ensuring its successful implementation.

Figure 10.1: A 3-Stage Bottom-Up Framework



Source: Researcher (2023)

Theoretical contribution – this research has also made significant additions to the existing body of literature in this subject area, through the gathering of fresh evidence from both the literature review and empirical findings of this study. This is seen in how the study engendered a rethinking of the notion of PD in the academia, as involving both development activities undertaken in school-like settings through a lecture-based format, as well as implicit and spontaneous learning experiences associated with the academics' workplace. Also, in how it illuminates discourses on the structural and non-structural elements influencing PD policy application and academic staff disposition to PD. Unlike previous related studies in this context (for example, Makoji, 2016; Suleiman, 2015; Ekuma, 2015) that considered the issues with academics' development to be linked mainly to poor funding, corruption, political will; this study identified other dimensions, including the rhetoric around the actual meaning of PD, lack of sufficient involvement of academic tutors, and agentic actions.

10.3 Study implications

Although this research was focused on the Nigerian CoE context, its contributions bring to the fore some critical perspectives that have implications for current and future practice in academics' professional development in HEIs, and for policy organisations. I considered the implications both in broad and specific terms, in relation to how the outcomes might affect PD practice within the context of this study.

Generally, this study has shown that PD is key to the sustenance of academics' professional improvement and growth throughout their careers. It has also made the case for a coherent approach such as the adoption of 'A 3-Stage Bottom-Up Framework', that can help to shape practice directions for PD policy in CoEs in particular, and HEIs in general. The framework guides academic staff in their quest for PD, as well as policy-makers and academic

leaders (as lead implementers), in the task of framing and effective execution of the policy, making sure that the policy and practice connects to and harness the potentials of local contexts to improve academics' capabilities. The research also sparked more critical conversations in the academia around the research subject that gave more insights into the understanding of PD and its policy, and how that understanding influences implementation and staff participation, which I believe will cure the contradictions around its perception by academics.

Specifically, this study's outcome also has implications for the major stakeholders (academic tutors, leaders, and policymakers) in public colleges of education in Nigeria especially the case study colleges, and the way they deal with the issue of staff development. For instance, while the study will help both academic leaders and tutors as lead and co-implementers of the policy to easily and successfully navigate their way around policy application and their participation in PD, the policymakers on the other hand, are also better informed about the complexities or specific issues (e.g., ambiguous nature of the policy) affecting policy understanding and effective translation into action in the respective institutions, which they need to take into consideration when reviewing the policy or drafting other policies.

10.4 Limitations and suggestions for further research

Despite the important insights and contributions in this research, I have also identified some of its limitations which could be opportunities that further research could profitably be focused.

Firstly, the study is limited in its scope. The research covered only two public colleges of education out of over seventy-nine within this study context, which makes it small-scale research, and that reduces the power of generalisation of its outcomes. Although the scope is not unconnected to the fact that this is a PhD research study that has a limited timeframe to complete, coupled with the huge financial resources that is needed to conduct such research in

large scale. So, I think further studies, especially a ‘funded group research,’ which will have an expanded scope that includes more colleges and participants across the research context is needed. This will enrich the findings of the current study, make for deeper and better understanding of the research phenomenon, and promote generalisation.

Secondly, given the qualitative nature of this study, even with all the safeguards that I have in place to ensure the elimination of bias in this research as can be seen in Chapter 4, I still believe that because this is a research that was solely conducted by me, there is a possibility that some biases may have been (unknowingly) introduced into the process through my subjective influence on the interpretation of the research data and discussion of findings, which could have effect on the quality of this research and its outcome. Hence, I suggest that future research should consider using a research group or team, so that members of the research team could help check or audit each other’s research activities, including the data collection and analysis process, before the final outcome.

Thirdly, considering that individual academics were found to have different perceptions about PD, it was surprising to find on the other hand that there is no clear-cut difference in the way PD is understood and interpreted between or across public CoE. Therefore, I believe more research is required to unearth the reason(s) why.

10. 5 Closing thoughts

As this study gradually draws to a close, I am taking this opportunity to reflect on my journey through the PhD and the very big impact the whole new experience has made in my life. Particularly, this study has opened my understanding into the different aspects of professional development in higher education and quite a lot of things about studying for a PhD generally, that I never knew prior to embarking on this study. In this process, I have learnt that research is

something that is continuous. My research is an effort to contribute knowledge to the subject of professional development in higher education and I hope this final outcome serves as a good resource to the education community, and specifically, higher education. I believe that at the end of it all I am returning a better person than I came, to serve my community.

References

- Abdulkareem, A.Y., Fasasi, Y.A. and Akinubi, O.P. 2011. Human resource utilization and internal efficiency in state-owned universities in Nigeria. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*. **1**(1), pp.26-34.
- Abdullahi, M.A., Gwadabe, Z.L. and Ibrahim, M.B. 2018. Effect of training and development on employee's productivity among academic staff of Kano State Polytechnic, Nigeria. *Asian People Journal*. **1**(2), pp.264-286.
- Abeli, W.S. 2010. *Higher education and development: a critical nexus*. A paper Presented to SARUA Workshop on Investment in Higher Education for Development: New Directions. 5th August, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.
- Adebisi, T.A. 2014. Higher education and skills development: an overview of Nigerian National Policy on Education. *International Journal of Development and Sustainability*. **3**(12), pp.2218-2227.
- Adegbite, J.G.O. 2007. The education reform agenda: Challenges for tertiary education administration in Nigeria. A paper presented at the sixth annual seminar of the Conference of Registrars of College of Education at the College of Education, Ikere-Ekiti. 12th-13th June, Ekiti State, Nigeria.
- Adegoroye, O.A, Olatokumbo, C.O and Oshionebo, E.E. 2018. Implementing strategic plans for greater productivity in universities. *Humanities, Management, Arts, Education and the Social Sciences Journal*. **6**(3), pp.33-44.
- Adeniji, A.A., Falola, H.O. and Salau, O.P. 2014. A modelling relationship between work satisfaction and faculty performance in the Nigerian private universities. *European Scientific Journal*. **10**(32), pp.63-80.
- Adeniji, M.A. 2011. Training and its multiplier effect on productivity at the Olabisi Onabanjo University Library. *Pacific Northwest Library Association Quarterly*. **75**(3), pp.12-26.
- Adeosun, O., Oni, A., Oladipo, A., Onuoha, S. and Yakassai, M. 2009. Teacher training quality and effectiveness in the context of basic education: an examination of primary education studies (PES) programme in two colleges of education in Nigeria. *Journal of International Cooperation in Education*. **12**(1), pp.107-125.
- Adesulu, D. 2014. Limited admission spaces: way out of admission problems by stakeholders. *Vanguard Newspaper*. [Online] July 6 [Accessed 4th March 2022]. Available from: <https://www.vanguardngr.com/2014/07/limited-admission-spaces-way-admission-problems-stakeholders/>
- Adetunji, A.T. 2015. Implementing government policies in university education: challenges faced by Nigerian universities principal officers. *Net Journal of Social Sciences*. **3**(1), pp.9-16.

Adiele, G.N. and Ibietan, J. 2017. Manpower training and productivity in the Nigerian public sector: an appraisal and human capital discourse. *International Journal of Innovative Development and Policy Studies*. **5**(3), pp.1-15.

Adu, E.O. and Okeke, C.I.O. 2014. Factors affecting lecturers' participation in continuing professional development (CPD). *Journal of Sociology and Social Anthropology*. **5**(3), pp.271-281.

Agrawal, S. and Jain, B.K. 2020. Influence of demographic variables on organizational commitment of schoolteachers: evidence from the Kathmandu Valley, Nepal. *Quest Journal of Management and Social Sciences*. **2**(2), pp.262-274.

Airaksinen, T. 2012. Professional ethics. In: Chadwick, R. ed. *Encyclopaedia of applied ethics*, vol. 3. Amsterdam: Elsevier Scientific Publication Company, pp.612-623.

Akiba, M. 2012. Professional learning activities in context: a statewide survey of middle school mathematics teachers. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*. **20**(14), pp.1-31.

Akinwumi, F.S. and Adepoju, T.L. 2009. Roles of educational agencies in Nigerian educational system. In: J.B. Babalola & A.O. Ayeni ed. *Educational management: Theories and tasks*. Lagos: Macmillian Nigerian Publishers Limited, pp.165-180.

Akor, I.A. 2022. Policy implementation in Nigerian higher education: implications for effective management. *International Journal of Educational Research and Review*. **3**(4), pp. 46-58.

Akpovire, O. 2015. Continuing professional development in the service of the Nation: the case of Nigeria. *Journal of Social Sciences*. **42**(3), pp.275-287.

Alabi, A.T. 2005. The relevance of staff development programmes to staff performance in the school system. *Ilorin Journal of Education*. **25**(1), pp.134-145.

Allcock, C., Dormon, F., Taunt, R. and Dixon, J. 2015. *Constructive comfort: accelerating change in the NHS*. London: Health Foundation.

Al-Mzary, M.M.M., Al-rifai, A.D. and Al-Momany, M.O.E. 2015. Training and its impact on the performance of employees at Jordanian universities from the perspective of employees: the case of Yarmouk University. *Journal of Education and Practice*. **6**(32), pp.128-140.

Alvesson, M. and Sandberg, J. 2011. Generating research questions through problematization. *Academy of Management Review*. **36**(2), 247-271.

Amaechi, A.A. and Obiweluzor, N. 2020. Impact of human resource management on teachers' productivity in colleges of education in North Central geopolitical zone of Nigeria. *Üniversitepark Bülten*. **9**(1), pp.62-72.

Anitha, R. and Kumar, M. A. 2016. A study on the impact of training on employee commitment in the private insurance sector in Coimbatore district. *International Journal of Commerce and Management Research*. 2(11), pp.73-79.

Anyangwa, E. 2012. How to influence higher education policy: developments and best practice. *The Guardian*. [Online]. 18 July. [Accessed on 5th March 2022]. Available from: <https://www.theguardian.com/higher-education-network/blog/2012/jul/18>

Archer, M.S. 2003. *Structure, agency and the internal conversation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Archibong, I.A., Effiom, D.O., Omoike, D. and Edet, A.O. 2010. Academic staff disposition to promotion criteria in Nigerian universities. *Journal of College Teaching and Learning*. 7(10), pp.25-30.

Aroge, S.T. 2012. Employee's training and development for optimum productivity: The role of Industrial Training Fund, Nigeria. *Developing Country Studies*. 2(3), pp.79-88.

Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., and Razavieh, A. 2002. *Introduction to Research in Education*. 6th ed. Australia: Wadsworth Thomson Learning

ASCON. 2020. *Brochure of courses*. [Online]. [Accessed on 5 March 2022]. Available from: https://ascon.gov.ng/ova_doc/

Asih, R.A. 2022. The analysis of significant differences based on teacher demographic variables in a mandatory teacher professional development program: implementation in a less privileged region of Indonesia. *Journal of English Education and Technology*. 2(02), pp.420-435.

Aslam, H.D. 2013. Analysis of professional development practices for schools of Pakistan a comparative case study of public and private schools of Pakistan Punjab. *International Journal of Human Resource Studies*. 3(4), pp.311-326.

Assalahi, H. and Rich, S. 2016. Reconceptualising the professional development of academic staff in Saudi higher education: a critical review of the literature. *Proceedings of the Eighth Saudi Students Conference in the UK*. pp.743-755.

Attebury, R.I. 2017. Professional development: a qualitative study of high impact characteristics affecting meaningful and transformational learning. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship*. 43(3), pp.232-241.

Awodiji, O.A. 2021. Staff development policy implementation: implications for university administration in Nigeria. *Unizik Journal of Educational Research and Policy Studies*. 5(1), pp.315-45.

Ayoola, R.O. 2017. Continuing professional development of accounting teachers in Nigeria: implications for democratic citizenship education. Master's in education dissertation, University of Stellenbosch, South Africa.

Baalawi, Z.S.S. 2008. Investigating the provision of academic development initiatives - A case study of a tertiary institution in the United Arab Emirates. Doctorate dissertation, University of Leicester, United Kingdom.

Babagana, S.A. 2014. Influence of training and development on lecturers' performance in Nigerian polytechnics: a case of federal polytechnic, Bauchi. *International Journal of Finance and Management in Practice*. **2**(1), pp.11-20.

Ball, S.J., Maguire, M. and Braun, A. 2012. *How schools do policy: policy enactments in secondary schools*. London: Routledge.

Ball, S.J., Maguire, M., Braun, A. and Hoskins, K. 2011. Policy actors: doing policy work in schools. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*. **32**(4), pp.625–639.

Baltes, P.B. and Baltes, M.M. 1990. Psychological perspectives on successful aging: the model of selective optimization with compensation. In: Baltes, P.B. and Baltes, M.M. ed. *Successful aging: perspectives from the behavioural sciences*. [Online]. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.1-34. [Accessed 9 February 2023]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9780511665684.003>

Bamber, V. and Stefani, L. 2016. Taking up the challenge of evidencing value in educational development: from theory to practice. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **21**(3), pp.242-254.

Banks, S. 2012. *Ethics and values in social work: macmillan international higher education*. USA: Springer.

Barlow, C.A. 2010. Interviews. In: Mills, A. J., Durepos, G. and Wiebe, E. ed. *Encyclopedia of case study research*. Thousand Oaks California, USA: SAGE Publications, pp.495-499.

Barth, M. and Rieckmann, M. 2012. Academic staff development as a catalyst for curriculum change towards education for sustainable development: an output perspective. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. **26**(1), pp.28-36.

Bates T., Swennen A., Jones K. 2011. *The professional development of teacher educators*. London, England: Routledge.

Bathgate, M.E., Aragón, O.R., Cavanagh, A.J., Waterhouse, J.K., Frederick, J. and Graham, M.J. 2019. Perceived supports and evidence-based teaching in college STEM. *International Journal of STEM Education*. **6**(11), pp.1-14.

Baxter, P. and Jack, S. 2008. Qualitative case study methodology: study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report*. **13**(14), pp.544-559.

- Beier, M.E. 2022. Life-span learning and development and its implications for workplace training. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*. **31**(1), pp.56-61.
- Bell, L. and Stevenson, H. 2015. Towards an analysis of the policies that shape public education: setting the context for school leadership. *Management in Education*. **29**(4), pp.146-150.
- Bingilar, P.F. and Etale, L.M. 2014. The impact of human resource development on performance of academic staff in Nigerian universities: a study of selected universities in Bayelsa State of Nigeria. *Developing Country Studies*. **4**(24), pp.82-87.
- Blackmore, J. 2009. Academic pedagogies, quality logics and performative universities: evaluating teaching and what students want. *Studies in Higher Education*. **34**(8), pp.857-872.
- Blackwell, R. and Blackmore, P. 2003. *Towards strategic staff development in higher education*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Blanchenay, P., Burns, T. and Köster, F. 2014. Shifting responsibilities - 20 years of education devolution in Sweden: a governing complex education systems case study. *OECD Education Working Papers, No. 104*. [Online]. Paris: OECD Publishing. [Accessed on 13 March 2022]. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5jz2jg1rqr7-en>.
- Blaxter, L., Hughes, C. and Tight, M. 2006. *How to research*. 3rd ed. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Boblin, S.L., Ireland, S., Kirkpatrick, H. and Robertson, K. 2013. Using Stake's qualitative case study approach to explore implementation of evidence-based practice. *Qualitative Health Research*. **23**(9), pp.1267-1275.
- Bogoro, S.E. 2019. *TETFund and the development of tertiary education in Nigeria: strategies, performance and challenges*. A paper presented by the Executive Secretary TETFund at the Institute for Security Studies Bwari, 17th May, Abuja, Nigeria.
- Bolívar, A. 2005. The place of professional ethics in university education. *Mexican Journal of Educational Research*. **10**(24), pp.93-123.
- Borko, H., Jacobs, J. and Koellner, K. 2010. Contemporary approaches to teacher professional development. In: Peterson, P., Baker, E. and McGaw, B. ed. *International Encyclopaedia of Education, vol. 7*. Oxford: Elsevier, pp.548-556.
- Bos, J. 2020. *Research ethics for students in the social sciences*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Botham, K.A. 2018. The perceived impact on academics' teaching practice of engaging with a higher education institution's CPD scheme. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*. **55**(2), pp.164-175.

Boud, D. 1999. Situating academic development in professional work: using peer learning. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **4**(1), pp.3-10.

Bouwma-Gearhart, J. 2012. Research university STEM faculty members' motivation to engage in teaching professional development: building the choir through an appeal to extrinsic motivation and ego. *Journal of Science Education and Technology*. **21**(5), pp.558-570.

Bowen, G.A. 2009. Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*. **9**(2), pp.27-40.

Bradley, S. 2014. Not a means to an end but a genuinely rewarding process – A personal response to UKPSF: a vehicle for development or hierarchical ladder? *Educational Developments – The Magazine of SEDA*. **15**(2), pp.19-20.

Braithwaite, J., Churrua, K., Long, J.C., Ellis, L.A., and Herkes, J. 2018. When complexity science meets implementation science: A theoretical and empirical analysis of systems change. *BMC Medicine*. **16**(63), pp.1-14.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. 2006. Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research on Psychology*. **3**(2), pp.77-101.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. 2012. Thematic analysis. In: Cooper, H., Camic, P.M., Long, D.L., Panter, A.T., Rindskopf, D., Sher, K. J. ed. *APA Handbook of Research Methods in Psychology, Research Designs*, Vol. 2. Washington: American Psychological Association, pp. 57-71.

Bray, L.E. and Russell, J.L. 2016. Going off script: Structure and agency in individualized education program meetings. *American Journal of Education*. **122**(3), pp.367-398.

Brazer, S.D. and Bauer, S.C. 2013. Preparing instructional leaders. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. **49**(4), p.45-648.

Brinkmann, S. and Kvale, S. 2015. *InterViews*. 3rd ed. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.

British Educational Research Association [BERA]. 2018. *Ethical guidelines for educational research*. 4th ed. London: BERA.

Browell, S. 2000. Staff development and professional education: a cooperative model. *Journal of Workplace Learning*. **12**(2), pp.57-65.

Brown, J.S., Collins, A. and Duguid, P. 1989. Situated cognition and the culture of learning. *Educational Researcher*. **18**(1), pp.32-43.

Brownell, S.E. and Tanner, K.D. 2012. Barriers to faculty pedagogical change: lack of training, time, incentives, and... tensions with professional identity? *CBE–Life Sciences Education*. **11**(4), pp.339-346.

- Bryk, A.S. 2015. 2014 AERA distinguished lecture: accelerating how we learn to improve. *Educational Researcher*. **44**(9), pp.467-477.
- Brynard, P.A. 2010. Policy implementation and cognitive skills: The difficulty of understanding implementation. *Journal of Public Administration*. **45**(1), pp.190-201.
- Budd, E.L., Schwarz, C., Yount, B.W. and Haire-Joshu, D. 2012. Factors influencing the implementation of school wellness policies in the United States, 2009. *Preventing Chronic Disease*. **9**(6), E118.
- Burns, N. and Grove, S.K. 2011. *Understanding nursing research: building an evidence-based practice*. 5th ed. Maryland Heights: Elsevier Saunders.
- Burrell, G. and Morgan, G. 1979. *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis: Elements of the sociology of corporate life*. London: Heinemann Educational Books.
- Caena, F. and Punie, Y. 2019. *Developing a European framework for the personal, social and learning to learn key competence (LifEComp): literature review and analysis of frameworks*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.
- Cameron, A. and Woods, C. 2016. A proposed 'ladder of learning' for academics' professional development in teaching. *South African Journal of Higher Education*. **30**(6), pp.176-190.
- Carnaghan, I. 2013. *Philosophical assumptions for qualitative research: qualitative inquiry and research design*. [Online]. [Accessed on 13 March 2023]. Available from: <https://www.carnaghan.com/philosophical-assumptions-for-qualitative-research>
- Carstensen, L.L., Isaacowitz, D.M. and Charles, S.T. 1999. Taking time seriously: A theory of socioemotional selectivity. *American Psychologist*. **54**(3), pp.165-181.
- Caulfield, J. 2022. *How to do thematic analysis: Step-by-step guide and examples*. [Online]. [Accessed on 13 February 2023]. Available from: <https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/thematic-analysis/>
- Chabaya, R.A. 2015. *Academic staff development in higher education institutions: A case study of Zimbabwe state universities*. Doctoral thesis. School of Education, University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.
- Chabaya, O. 2020. University senior management support and how it influences implementation of professional development programmes for academic staff. *African Perspective of Research in Teaching and Learning*. **4**(1), pp.14-31.
- Chalmers, D. and Gardiner, D. 2015. The measurement and impact of university teacher development programs. *Educar*. **51**(1), pp.53-80.

Chase, M.M. 2016. Culture, politics, and policy interpretation: How practitioners make sense of a transfer policy in a 2-Year college. *Educational Policy*. **30**(7), pp.959-998.

Chen, C. and Huang, J. 2007. How organizational climate and structure affect knowledge management: the social interaction perspective. *International Journal of Information Management*. **27**(2), pp.104-118.

Childress, L.K. 2010. The twenty-first century university: developing faculty engagement in internationalization. *International Journal of Educational Advancement*. **10**(2), pp.119-122.

Clarke, M., Hyde, A. and Drennan, J. 2012. Professional identity in higher education. In: Kehm, B.M. and Teichler, U. ed. *The academic profession in Europe: new tasks and new challenges, the changing academy – the changing academic profession in international comparative perspective* (vol. 5). Dordrecht: Springer, pp.7–21.

Clegg, S. 2003. Problematising ourselves: continuing professional development in higher education. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **8**(1), pp.37-50.

Coffield, F., Edward, S., Finlay, I., Hodgson, A., Spours, K., Steer, R. and Gregson, M. 2007. How policy impacts on practice and how practice does not impact on policy. *British Educational Research Journal*. **33**(5), pp.723-741.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. 2000a. *Research Methods in Education*. 5th ed. London UK: Routledge Falmer.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. 2018b. *Research Methods in Education*. 8th ed. Oxon UK: Routledge Publishers.

Collis, J. and Hussey, R. 2003. *Business research: a practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students*. 2nd ed. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Comstock, M., Edgerton, A.K. and Desimone, L.M. 2022. Connecting policy to practice: how state and local policy environments relate to teachers' instruction. *Teachers College Record*. **124**(11), pp.82-116.

Connolly, M.R., Savoy, J.N., Lee, Y.G. and Hill, L.B. 2016. *Building a better future STEM faculty: how teaching development programs can improve undergraduate education*. [Online]. Madison: Wisconsin Centre for Education Research, University of Wisconsin–Madison. [Accessed on 23 November 2022]. Available from: <https://cirtl.ceils.ucla.edu/2016/04/24/new-report-building-a-better-future-stem-faculty-how-teaching-development-programs-can-improve-undergraduate-education/>

Corbetta, P. 2003. *Social research: theory, methods, and techniques*. London: Sage Publications.

Cordingley, P., Higgins, S., Coe, R., Greany, T., Buckler, N., Coles-Jordan, D., Crisp, B. and Saunders, L. 2015. *Developing great teaching: lessons from the international reviews into effective professional development*. Teacher Development Trust. [Online]. [Accessed on 3 July 2023]. Available from: <https://tdtrust.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/10/DGT-Full-report.pdf>

Cousin, G. 2009. *Researching learning in higher education: An introduction to contemporary methods and approaches*. Abingdon: Routledge

Cowman, M.C. and McCarthy, A.M. 2016. The impact of demographic and situational factors on training transfer in a health care setting. *The Irish Journal of Management*. **35**(2), pp.129-142.

Crawford, K. 2008. Continuing professional development in higher education: The academic perspective. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **13**(2), pp.141-146.

Crawford, K. 2009. *Continuing professional development in higher education: Voices from below*. Doctoral thesis. Centre for Educational Research and Development, University of Lincoln, England - United Kingdom.

Creswell, J.W. 2014. *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach*. 4th ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.

Crotty, M. 1998. *The foundations of social research: meaning and perspective in the research process*. London: Sage Publication.

Cruikshank, J. 2003. *Critical realism: the difference it makes*. London: Routledge.

Cunliffe, A.L. 2011. Crafting qualitative research Morgan and Smircich 30 years on. *Organizational Research Methods*. **14**(4), pp.647-673.

Cutler, S., Kottmeyer, A., Heinen, R., Xia, Y., Zappe, S. and Litzinger, T. 2022. A holistic assessment of the responsibilities and areas of support of engineering faculty. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **27**(1), pp.96-109.

Daley, B.J. 2001. Learning and professional practice: a study of four professions. *Adult Education Quarterly*. **52**(1), pp.39-54.

Darling-Hammond, L., Hyler, M.E., and Gardner, M. 2017. *Effective teacher professional development*. Palo Alto, CA: Learning Policy Institute.

Data Protection Act. 2018. [Online]. [Accessed on 30 October 2022]. Available from: <http://www.legislation.gov.uk>

Davies, R. and Preston, M. 2002. An evaluation of the impact of continuing professional development on personal and professional lives. *Journal of In-Service Education*. **28**(2), pp.231-254.

de la Harpe, B. and Radloff, A. 2008. Institutional support for quality learning and teaching. In: Scott, S. and Dixon, K. ed. *The globalised university: trends and development in teaching and learning*. Perth: Black Swan Press, pp.19-50.

Deaker, L., Stein, S. and Spiller, D. 2016. You can't teach me: exploring academic resistance to teaching development. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **21**(4), pp.1-13.

Deci, E.L. and Ryan, R.M. 2000. The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: human needs and the self-determination of behaviour. *Psychological Inquiry*. **11**(4), pp.227-268.

Denney, F. 2022. Understanding the professional identities of PVCs education from academic development backgrounds. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **27**(1), pp.71-82.

Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. 2005. *The sage handbook of qualitative research*. 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.

Derting, T.L., Ebert-May, D., Henkel, T.P., Maher, J.M., Arnold, B., and Passmore, H.A. 2016. Assessing faculty professional development in STEM higher education: sustainability of outcomes. *Science Advances*. **2**(3), pp.1-10.

Desimone, L., Smith, T.M. and Phillips, K.J.R. 2013. Linking student achievement growth to professional development participation and changes in instruction: a longitudinal study of elementary students and teachers in Title I schools. *Teachers College Record*. **115**(5), pp.1-46.

Devlin, M. and Samarawickrema, G. 2010. The criteria of effective teaching in a changing higher education context. *Higher Education Research and Development*. **29**(2), pp.111-124.

Dominguez, A. and Diez, R. 2022. Gender barriers in academia: perceptions of inequality in professional development among female academics in the faculty of education, University of Alicante, Spain. *Societies*. **12**(6), pp.175.

Duru-Uremadu, C. 2017. Influence of staff professional development on teachers' instructional competence in Nigeria: a review of the literature. *i-manager's Journal of Educational Technology*. **13**(4), pp.38-51.

Dysart, S.A. and Weckerle, C. 2015. Professional development in higher education: A model for meaningful technology integration. *Journal of Information Technology Education: Innovation in Practice*. **14**(1), pp.255-265.

Ebisine, S.S. 2014. Academic quality assurance in the colleges of education: Challenges and way forward for future development. *International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences*. **2**(13), pp.1-9.

Eccles, S. 2016. *Professional development and academic careers: what needs to change?* Paper presented HEA Research Webinar 5. [Online] [Accessed on 13 October 2022]. Available from: <https://www.heacademy.ac.uk/resource/hea-research-webinar-five-professional-development-and-academic-careers-what-needs-change>

Egwuyega, E.J. 2000. *Essentials of school administration*. Benin City: Justice Jeco Publishers.

Ekuma, K.J. 2015. *Rethinking civil service human capital in a developing context: a capability development perspective*. PhD Dissertation, The University of Manchester, United Kingdom.

Ekundayo, H.T. and Ajayi, A.I. 2009. Towards effective management of university education in Nigeria. *International NGO Journal*. **4**(8), pp.342-347.

Ennals, P., Fortune, T., Williams, A. and D'Cruz, K. 2015. Shifting occupational identity: doing, being, becoming and belonging in the academy. *Higher Education Research and Development*. **35**(3), pp.433-446.

Eraut, M. 2004. Informal learning in the workplace. *Studies in Continuing Education*. **26**(2), pp.247-273.

European Training Foundation. 2008. *The challenge of policy implementation: a comparative analysis of vocational school reforms in Albania, Kosovo and Turkey*. Italy: ETF Sharing Expertise in Training.

Evans, L., Thornton, B. and Usinger, J. 2012. Theoretical frameworks to guide school improvement. *NASSP Bulletin*. **96**, pp.154-171.

Falola, H.O., Abasilim, U.D. and Salau, O.P. 2016. Strategic human resource development for enhanced job performance and universities' competitiveness. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*. **7**(3), pp.89-96.

Federal Republic of Nigeria. 2013. *National Policy on Education*. 6th ed. Lagos: Nigerian Educational Research Development Council (NERDC) Press.

Federal Ministry of Education. 2014. *National Teacher Education Policy*. Abuja: Federal Government Press.

Federal Republic of Nigeria. 2008. *Public Service Rules*. Abuja: Federal Government Press.

Federal Republic of Nigeria. 2011. *Report of the Presidential Task Team on Education*. Abuja: Federal Government Press.

Federal Ministry of Education. 2013. *Yearly Digest*. Abuja: Federal Government Press.

Federal Ministry of Education. 2002. *Yearly Digest*. Abuja: Federal Government Press.

Ferman, T. 2002. Academic professional development practice: what lecturers find valuable. *The International Journal for Academic Development*. **7**(2), pp.146-158.

Fixsen, D.L., Naoom, S.F., Blasé, K.A., Friedman, R.M., Wallace, F., and Network T.N.I.R. 2005. *Implementation research: a synthesis of the literature*. Tampa, FL: University of South Florida, Louis de la Parte Florida Mental Health Institute.

Fleming, S., Shire, J., Jones, D., McNamee, M. and Pill, A. 2004. Continuing professional development: suggestions for effective practice. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*. **28**(2), pp.165-177.

Foddy, W. 1993. *Constructing questions for interviews and questionnaires: theory and practice in social research*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

Frantz, J., Lawack, V. and Rhoda, A.J. 2020. Reflections of academic and professional leaders on leadership in a higher education institution. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, **18**(1), pp.1-6.

Gaertner, H. and Brunner, M. 2018. Once good teaching, always good teaching? The differential stability of student perceptions of teaching quality. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*. **30**(2), pp.159-182.

Galevski, M. 2021. Exploring the interplay between structure and agency in the context of higher education in North Macedonia: a qualitative study on the experiences of early career academics. PhD thesis, University of Oxford.

Gallup. 2017. Education. *Gallup Historical Trends*, <http://www.gallup.com/poll/1612/education>.

Gambo, H.S. 2015. The impact of training and development on workers' productivity in some selected Nigerian universities. *International Journal of Public Administration and Management Research*. **3**(1), pp.10-16.

Gani, S.S. 2013. Impact of staff development programmes on job performances of staff in Nigerian colleges of education. PhD thesis, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria.

Geijsel, F.P., Sleegers, P.J., Stoel, R. and Krüger, M.L. 2009. The effect of teacher psychological and school organizational and leadership factors on teachers' professional learning in Dutch schools. *The Elementary School Journal*. **109**(4), pp.406-427.

Geleta, T.O. and Raju, T. 2023. Professional learning activities in the higher education institution of Ethiopia. *Heliyon*. **9**, e14119.

Gibbons, R.E., Villafañe, S.M., Stains, M., Murphy, K.L., and Raker, J.R. 2018. Beliefs about learning and enacted instructional practices: An investigation in postsecondary chemistry education. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*. **55**(8), pp.1111-1133.

- Gibbs, G. 2016. The international context of teacher preparation: Rejoinder to “Isn’t it time we did something about the lack of teaching preparation in business doctoral programs?”. *Journal of Management Education*. **40**(5), pp.533-537.
- Gibbs, G. and Coffey, M. 2004. The impact of training of university lecturers on their teaching skills, their approach to teaching and the approach to learning of their students. *Active Learning in Higher Education*. **5**(1), pp.87-100.
- Giddens, A. 1979. *Central Problems in Social Theory: Action, structure and contradiction in social analysis*. Berkeley, USA: University of California Press.
- Ginns, P., Kitay, J. and Prosser, M., 2008. Developing conceptions of teaching and the scholarship of teaching through a Graduate Certificate in Higher Education. *International Journal for academic development*. **13**(3), pp.175-185.
- Golafshani, N. 2003. Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*. **8**(4), pp.597-607.
- Goodwin, E.C., Cao, J.N., Fletcher, M., Flaiban, J.L., and Shortlidge, E.E. 2018. Catching the wave: Are biology graduate students on board with evidence-based teaching? *CBE-Life Sciences Education*. **17**(3), ar43.
- Gore, J., Lloyd, A., Smith, M., Bowe, J., Ellis, H. and Lubans, D. 2017. Effects of professional development on the quality of teaching: results from a randomised controlled trial of quality teaching rounds. *Teaching and Teacher Education*. **68**(1), pp.99-113.
- Gore, J., Miller, A., Fray, L., Harris, J., and Prieto, E. 2021. Improving student achievement through professional development: Results from a randomised controlled trial of Quality Teaching Rounds. *Teaching and Teacher Education*. **101**(1), pp.1-12.
- Gosling, D. 2009. *Academic development identity and positionality*. SRHE Academic Development Network. October 30th. [Online]. [Accessed 21 March 2023]. Available from: <http://www.davidgosling.net/userfiles/srhe%20academic%20development>
- Grant, B., Dollery, B.E. and Van der Westhuizen, G. 2012. Locally constructed Regionalism: Western Australia. *Public Policy*. **7**(1), pp.79-96.
- Gravani, M.N. 2007. Unveiling professional learning: Shifting from the delivery of courses to an understanding of the processes. *Teaching and Teacher Education*. **23**(5), pp.688-704.
- Green, D. 2010. Words fail us: How academics view language and ideas in higher education research. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **15**(1), pp.47-59.
- Greene, J.C., Caracelli, V.J. and Graham, W.F. 1989. Toward a conceptual framework for mixed method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*. **11**(3), pp. 255-274.

Grinyer, A. 2002. The Anonymity of Research Participants: Assumptions, Ethics and Practicalities. *Social Research Update* 36. [Online]. [Accessed 16 February 2023]. Available from: <http://sru.soc.surrey.ac.uk/SRU36.html>

Grunefeld, H., Prins, F.J., Van Tartwijk, J. and Wubbels, T. 2022. Development of educational leaders' adaptive expertise in a professional development programme. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **27**(1), pp.58-70.

Guest, G., MacQueen, K.M., and Namey, E.E. 2011. *Applied thematic analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Gunawan J. 2015. Ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research. *Belitung Nursing Journal*. **1**(1), pp.10-11.

Guskey, T.R. 2014. Measuring the effectiveness of educators' professional development. In: Martin, L.E., Kragler, S., Quatroche, D.J. and Bauserman, K.L. ed. *Handbook of professional development in education: successful models and practices, PreK-12*. New York: Guilford Press, pp.447-466.

Gyong, J.E. 2012. A social analysis of the transformation agenda of President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan. *European Scientific Journal*. **8**(16), pp.95-113.

Hadar, L.L. and Brody, D.L. 2017. *Teacher educators' professional learning in communities*. London: Routledge

Hall, J. and Green, D.A. 2016. Leading an academic development unit. In: Baume, D. and Popovic, C. ed. *Advancing practice in academic development*. London: Routledge Staff and Educational Development Series, pp.245-257.

Hancock, D.R. and Algozzine, B. 2006. *Doing case study research: A practical guide for beginning researchers*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Hantrais, L. 2009. *International comparative research: Theory, methods and practice*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Harris, C.A. and Leberman, S.I. 2012. Leadership development for women in New Zealand universities: learning from the New Zealand women in leadership program. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*. **14**(1), pp.28-44.

Hassan, D.A. 2011. Analysing professional development practices for teachers in public universities of Pakistan. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*. **2**(4), pp.97-106.

Healey, M. 2012. Promoting the scholarship of academic development: tensions between institutional needs and individual practices. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **17**(1), pp.1-3.

Herbert, S. and Rainford, M. 2014. Developing a model for continuous professional development by action research. *Professional Development in Education*. **40**(2), pp.243-264.

Heron, J. 1996. *Co-operative inquiry: research into the human condition*. London: Sage.

Hess, F. 2013. The missing half of school reform. *National Affairs*. [Online]. Fall, 2013. [Accessed on 16 February 2023]. Available from:
<http://www.nationalaffairs.com/publications/detail/the-missing-half-of-school-reform>

Hildebrandt, S.A. and Eom, M. 2011. Teacher professionalization: motivational factors and the influence of age. *Teaching and Teacher Education*. **27**(2), pp.416-423.

Hill, H.C. 2003. Understanding implementation: street level bureaucrats' resources for reform. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*. **13**(3), pp.265-282.

Hill, M. and Hupe, P. 2022. *Implementing public policy: an introduction to the study of operational governance*. 4th ed. London: Sage Publications.

Hopfenbeck, T.N., Flórez-Petour, M.T., Tolo, A. 2015. Balancing tensions in educational policy reforms: large-scale implementation of assessment for learning in Norway. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy and Practice*. **22**(1), pp.44-60.

Howell, K.E. 2013. *An introduction to the philosophy of methodology*. SAGE Publications.

Huberman, M. 1999. The mind is its own place: the influence of sustained interactivity with practitioners on educational researchers. *Harvard Educational Review*. **69**(3), pp.289-319.

Hudson, B., Hunter, D. and Peckham, S. 2019. Policy failure and the policy-implementation gap: can policy support programs help? *Policy Design and Practice*. **2**(1), pp.1-14.

Hunt, G.A., Wright, A. and Gordon, G. 2008. Evolving expectations for Teaching in higher education in the USA. *Collected Essay on Learning and Teaching*. **1**(1), pp.15-21.

Hunter, D.J., Kluge, H., Bengoa, R. and Jakubowski, E. 2018. Health system transformation: making change happen. In: Jakab, M., Farrington, J., Borgermans, L. and Mantingh, F. ed. *Health systems respond to noncommunicable diseases: time for ambition*. Copenhagen: WHO Regional Office for Europe, pp.264-278.

Hunzicker, J. 2011. Effective professional development for teachers: a checklist. *Professional Development in Education*. **37**(2), pp.177-179.

Husseina, O.S. 2015. *Impact of staff development programmes on the job performance of federal polytechnic lecturers in Nigeria*. Doctoral thesis, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Kaduna State – Nigeria.

<http://www.net.nbte.gov.ng>

<http://www.ncceonline.edu.ng>

<http://www.nuc.edu.ng>

Idoniboye-Obu, S.A. 2014. *Corruption in higher education in Nigeria: prevalence, structures and patterns among students of higher education institutions in Nigeria*. Doctoral thesis, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg Campus, South Africa.

Imam, H. 2012. Educational policy in Nigeria from the colonial era to the post-independence period. *Italian Journal of Sociology of Education*. **4**(1), pp.181-204.

Imogie, A.I. 2013. *Enhancing the status of teachers and the teaching profession in the 21st century Nigeria*. A keynote paper presented at the 2nd induction ceremony of PDE and NCE graduates by the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria, 18th April 2013, at the Federal College of Education (Technical) Asaba, Delta State, Nigeria.

Inamorato dos Santos, A., Gausas, S., Mackeviciute, R., Jotautyte, A. and Martinaitis, Z. 2019. *Innovating professional development in higher education: case studies*. JRC Technical Reports. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

Inyang, B.J. and Akaegbu, J.B. 2014. Redefining the role of the human resource professional (HRP) in the Nigerian public service for enhanced performance. *International Journal of Business Administration*. **5**(1), pp.90-98.

Iruonagbe, C.T., Imhonopi, D. and Egharevba, M.E. 2015. Higher education in Nigeria and the emergence of private universities. *International Journal of Education and Research*. **3**(2), pp.49-64.

Jackson, E. 2013. Choosing a methodology: philosophical underpinning. *Practitioner Research in Higher Education Journal*. **7**(1), pp.49-62.

Jacob, R., Hill, H., and Corey, D. 2017. The impact of a professional development program on teachers' mathematical knowledge for teaching, instruction, and student achievement. *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness*. **10**(2), pp.379-407.

Jacob, W.J., Xiong, W. and Ye, H. 2015. Professional development programmes at world-class universities. *Palgrave Communications*. **1**(2), pp.1-27.

Jega, A.M. 2003. Public policy and democratization in Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Policy and Strategy*, **13**(1&2), pp. 24-31.

Jibril, M. 2003. Nigerian higher education profile. In: Teferra, D. and Altbach, P.G. ed. *African higher education: an international reference handbook*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, pp.492-499.

- Jongbloed, B.W.A. 2000. The funding of higher education in developing countries. In: Jongbloed, B. and Teekens, H. ed. *The financing of higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Utrecht: Uitgeverij LEMMA BV, pp.13-40.
- Kahlke, R.M. 2014. Generic qualitative approaches: pitfalls and benefits of methodological mixology. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*. **13**(1), pp.37-42
- Kandiko, C.B. and Mawer, M. 2013. *Student expectations and perceptions of higher education*. London: King's Learning Institute.
- Karmel, T. and Maclean, R. 2007. *Technical and vocational education and training in an ageing society*. Adelaide: National Centre for Vocational Education Research.
- Kasule, G.W., Wesselink, R., Mulder, M. 2016. Professional development status of teaching in a Ugandan public university. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*. **38**(4), pp.434-447.
- Keichner, K. 2010. Rethinking the connection between campus courses and field experiences in college and university-based teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*. **61**(2), 89-99.
- Ken-Maduako, I. 2011. Distance learning programs in Nigeria and the question of quality in CPD. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*. **2**(4), pp.79-85.
- Kennedy, A. 2005. Models of continuing professional development: a framework for analysis. *Journal of In-Service Education*. **31**(2), pp.235-250.
- Kennedy, A. 2014. Understanding continuing professional development: the need for theory to impact on policy and practice. *Professional Development in Education*. **40**(5), pp.688-697.
- Kennelly, R. and McCormack, C. 2015. Creating more 'elbow room' for collaborative reflective practice in the competitive, performative culture of today's university. *Higher Education Research and Development*. **34**(5), pp.942-956.
- Kenneth, H.A. 2018. *Learning to teach in Nigeria: a study of the initial primary teacher education system*. Doctoral Dissertation, The University of Manchester, United Kingdom.
- Khan, A.R. 2016. Policy implementation: some aspects and issues. *Journal of Community Positive Practices*. **16**(3), pp.3-12.
- Kilfoil, W. 2012. *Strategies to 'convert' academics into teachers: some international perspectives*. A paper presented at the Academic Development Leadership Forum, 10-12 May 2012, Heltata SIG, Pretoria.
- King, H. 2004. Continuing professional development in higher education: what do academics do? *Planet*. **13**(1), pp.26-29.

- Kneale, P., Winter, J., Turner, R., Spowart, L., Hughes, J., McKenna, C. and Muneer, R. 2016. *Evaluating teaching development in higher education towards impact assessment: literature review*. York, UK: Higher Education Academy.
- Knight, P. 2006. Quality enhancement and educational professional development. *Quality in Higher Education*. **12**(1), pp.29-40.
- Knowles, M. 1990. *The adult learner: a neglected species*. Houston Texas: Gulf Publishing.
- Kooij, D.T.A.M., de Lange, A.H., Jansen, P.G.W., Kanfer, R. and Dijkers, J.S.E. 2011. Age and work-related motives: results of a meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*. **32**(2), pp.197-225.
- Krefting, L. 1991. Rigor in qualitative research: the assessment of trustworthiness. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*. **45**(3), pp.214-222.
- Kvale, S. and Brinkmann, S. 2009. *InterViews: learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing*. London: Sage Publications.
- Kwakman, K. 2003. Factors affecting teachers' participation in professional learning activities. *Teaching and Teacher Education*. **19**(2), pp.149-170.
- Lane, A.K., Hardison, C., Simon, A., and Andrews, T.C. 2019. A model of the factors influencing teaching identity among life sciences doctoral students. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*. **56**(2), pp.141-162.
- Leibowitz, B.L. 2016. Professional academic development – the influence of context on motivation. *South African Journal of Higher Education*. **30**(6), pp.191-206.
- Leigh, J. 2017. Perceptions, tensions and expectations of programmes for academic and professional development. *Journal of Perspectives in Applied Academic Practice*. **5**(1), pp.31-38.
- Lenshie, N.E. 2013. Politicisation of education in Nigeria: Implications for national transformation. *Global Journal of Human Social Science Political Science*. **13**(5), pp.22-33.
- Letsekha, T. 2013. Revisiting the debate on the Africanisation of higher education: an appeal for a conceptual shift. *The Independent Journal of Teaching and Learning*. **8**(1), pp.5-18.
- Lieberman, A. and Pointer-Mace, D. 2008. Teacher learning: the key to educational reform. *Journal of Teacher Education*. **59**(1), pp.226-234.
- Light, G. and Cox, R. 2001. *Learning and teaching in higher education: the reflective professional*. London: Sage Publications.

- Limeri, L.B., Musgrove, M.M.C., Henry, M.A. and Schussler, E.E. 2020. Leveraging psychosocial interventions to motivate instructor participation in teaching professional development. *CBE–Life Sciences Education*. **19**(10), pp.1-12.
- Lincoln, Y. and Guba, E. 1985. *Naturalistic Inquiry*. London: Sage.
- Lindvall, J. 2017. Two large-scale professional development programs for mathematics teachers and their impact on student achievement. *International Journal of Science and Mathematics Education*. **5**(7), pp.1281-1301
- Lofthouse, R. 2018. Changing the landscape through professional learning. In: Netolicky, D.M., Andrews, J. and Paterson, C. ed. *Flip the System Australia: what matters in education*. London: Routledge, pp.172-181.
- Lofthouse, R. 2019. Coaching in education: a professional development process in formation, *Professional Development in Education*. **45**(1), pp.33-45.
- Lowenthal, P.R., Wray, M.L., Bates, B., Switzer, T. and Stevens, E. 2013. Examining faculty motivation to participate in faculty development. *International Journal of University Teaching and Faculty Development*. **3**(3), pp.149-164.
- Lueddeke, G.R. 2003. Professionalising teaching practice in higher education: a study of disciplinary variation and teaching-scholarship. *Studies in Higher Education*. **28**(2), pp.213-228.
- Luft, J.A. and Hewson, P.W. 2014. Research on teacher professional development in science. *Handbook of Research and Science Education*. 2nd ed. London: Routledge.
- Lund, T. J. and Stains, M. 2015. The importance of context: an exploration of factors influencing the adoption of student-centred teaching among chemistry, biology, and physics faculty. *International Journal of STEM Education*. **2**(1), pp.13-21.
- Lynova, I. and Bulvinska, O. 2020. Continuing professional development of academic staff: theoretical approaches and models. *Continuing Professional Education: Theory and Practice*. **4**(65), pp.14-22.
- Maguire, M., Gewirtz, S., Towers, E., and Neumann, E. 2019. Contextualising policy work: policy enactment and the specificities of English secondary schools. *Research Papers in Education*, **35**(4), pp. 488-509.
- Mahmoudsalehi, M., Moradkhannejad, R. and Safari, K. 2012. How knowledge management is affected by organizational structure. *The Learning Organization*. **19**(6), pp.518-528.
- Makoji, R.S. 2016. Academic staff development in Nigerian polytechnics: issues and challenges. *International Journal of Public Administration and Management Research*. **3**(4), pp.9-18.

Malik, S.K., Nasim, U. and Tabassum, F. 2015. Perceived effectiveness of professional development programs of teachers at higher education level. *Journal of Education and Practice*. **6**(13), pp. 169-181.

Mankayi, M. and Cheteni, P. 2019. Perceptions of academic staff towards academic staff development programmes in one selected university in South Africa. *Academia*. **16**(17), pp. 29-48.

Maphosa, C. and Mudzielwana, N.P. 2014. Professionalization of Teaching in Universities: A Compelling Case. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*. **6**(1), pp.65-73.

Marope, P.T.M. and Sack, R. 2007. The pedagogy of education policy formulation: Worjking form policy assets. *Perspectives in Education*, **25**(1), pp.1-20

Marsick, V. J. and Watkins, K. 1990. *Informal and incidental learning in the workplace*. London: Routledge.

Mason, J. 2006a. Mixing methods in a qualitatively driven way. *Qualitative Research*. **6**(1), pp.9-25.

Mason, J. 2018b. *Qualitative researching*. 3rd ed. London, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Matschke, J. and Pedersen, H. 2009. *The value of feedback: Improvements based on the voices of customers and dealers*. Master Thesis. Baltic Business School, University of Kalma.

Matsko, K.K. and Hammerness, K. 2014. Unpacking the “urban” in urban teacher education: Making a case for context-specific preparation. *Journal of Teacher Education*. **65**(2), pp.128-144.

Maurer, T.J., Weiss, E.M. and Barbeite, F.G. 2003. A model of involvement in work-related learning and development activity: the effects of individual, situational, motivational, and age variables. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. **88**(4), pp.707-724.

Mayring, P. 2014. *Qualitative content analysis: theoretical foundation, basic procedures, and software solution*. Klagenfurt, Austria: Beltz Publishing Group

McAvinia, C., Donnelly, R., McDonnell, C., Hanratty, O. and Harvey, J. 2015. Does accredited professional development for academics improve teaching and learning in Higher Education? In: Filipa, M., Ribeiro, Y.P. and Culum, B. ed. *New voices in higher education research and scholarship*. Hershey PA: Information Science Reference, pp.251-270.

McCourt, J.S., Andrews, T.C., Knight, J.K., Merrill, J.E., Nehm, R.H., Pelletreau, K.N., ... and Lemons, P.P. 2017. What motivates biology instructors to engage and persist in teaching professional development? *CBE–Life Sciences Education*. **16**(3), ar54.

- McCulloch, G. 2012. Documentary methods. In: Coe, R., Waring, M., Hedges, L. and Arthur, J. ed. *Research methods and methodologies in education*. London: Sage, pp.210-216.
- McKee, C.W., Johnson, M., Ritchie, W.F., and Tew, W.M. 2013. Professional development of the faculty: Past and present. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*. **2013**(133), pp.15-20.
- McLean, M., Cilliers, F. and Van Wyk, J.M. 2008. Faculty development: Yesterday, today and tomorrow. *Medical Teacher*. **30**(6), pp.555-584.
- McMillan, D.J., McConnell, B. and O'Sullivan, H. 2016. Continuing professional development – Why bother? Perceptions and motivations of teachers in Ireland. *Professional Development in Education*. **42**(1), pp.150-167.
- McNiff, J. and J. Whitehead. 2006. *All you need to know about action research*. London: Sage Publications
- Mdhlalose, D. 2020. An evaluation of the impact of training and development on organisational performance: A case study of the Gauteng provincial department of economic development. *Journal of Human Resource and Sustainability Studies*. **8**(1), pp.48-74.
- Megginson, D. and Whitaker, V. 2007. *Continuing professional development*. 2nd ed. London, UK: CIPD - Kogan Page Publishers.
- Merriam, S.B. 1998a. *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. 2nd ed. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Merriam, S.B. 2002b. *Qualitative research in practice: examples for discussion and analysis*. San Francisco, USA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Mezirow, J. 2000. *Learning as transformation: critical perspectives on a theory in progress*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Miles, M.B. and Huberman, A.M. 1994. *Qualitative data analysis: an expanded sourcebook*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Minichiello, V., Aroni, R., Timewell, E. and Alexander, L. 1995. *In-depth interviewing: principles, techniques, analysis*. 2nd ed. Melbourne: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Moghimi, D., Zacher, H., Scheibe, S., and Van Yperen, N.W. 2017. The selection, optimization, and compensation model in the work context: A systematic review and meta-analysis of two decades of research. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*. **38**(2), pp.247-275.
- Moghtader, B., Strubbe, L.B., Stang, J. B., and Clarke, A. 2022. Paired teaching in higher education: learning from science faculty. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **27**(1), pp.83-95.

- Mohammed, S. 2001. Toward an understanding of cognitive consensus in a group decision-making context. *The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*. **37**(4), pp.408-425.
- Montes López, E., 2017. The absence of co-responsibility is a hindrance to the development of women's careers in academia. *Feminismo/s*. **29**(1), pp.221-242.
- Moore, J. 2012. A personal insight into researcher positionality. *Nurse researcher*. **19**(4), pp.1-4
- Morgan, D. L. and Guevara, H. 2008. Audio-recording. In: Given, L. ed. *The SAGE Encyclopaedia of Qualitative Research Methods*. London: SAGE, pp.40-41.
- Moser, A. and Korstjens, I. 2018. Series: practical guidance to qualitative research. Part 3: Sampling, data collection and analysis. *European Journal of General Practice*. **24**(1), pp.9-18.
- Mourshed, M., Chijioke, C. and Barber, M. 2010. *How the world's most improved school systems keep getting better*. London: McKinsey & Company.
- Mugwagwa, J., Edwards, D. and de Haan, S. 2015. Assessing the implementation and influence of policies that support research and innovation systems for health: the cases of Mozambique, Senegal, and Tanzania. *Health Research Policy and Systems*. **13**(21), pp.2-7.
- Mulnix, A.B. 2016. STEM faculty as learners in pedagogical reform and the role of research articles as professional development opportunities. *CBE—Life Sciences Education*. **15**(4), es8.
- Mundy, M.A., Kupezy-Ski, L., Dellis, J. and Salgoch, R. 2012. Setting the standard for faculty professional development in higher education. *Journal of Academic and Business Ethics*. **26**(1), pp.1-9.
- Murphy, J. 2013. The architecture of school improvement. *Journal of Educational Administration*. **51**(3), pp.252-263.
- Murty, T.N. and Fathima, F. 2013. Perception and attitude of employees towards training and development in public sector unit. *Abhinav International Monthly Refereed Journal of Research in Management and Technology*. **2**(3), pp.141-147.
- Musa, M.S. 2017. *An appraisal of senior staff training and development schemes in federal colleges of education in the North-East of Nigeria, 2009-2014*. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Enugu State, Nigeria.
- Muzaffar, M. and Malik, S.Y. 2012. Attitude of teachers towards professional development trainings. *Language in India*. **12**(8), pp.304-322.
- Mwije, S. 2013. The policy cycle notion: The policy cycle, its usefulness, and criticisms. [Online] [Accessed 24th September 2024]. Available from: <https://www.academia.edu/17832158>

- Nabunya, K., Mukwenda, H.T., and Kyaligonza, R. 2019. Professional development practices and service delivery of academic staff. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education*. **10**(2), pp.133-143.
- Nakimuli, A. and Turyahebwa, A. 2015. Institutional efficiency in selected universities in Uganda. *Journal of Education and Practice*. **6**(10), pp.90-96.
- NCCE. 1992. *Conditions of Service for Colleges of Education in Nigeria*: Kaduna, Nigeria.
- NCCE. 2006. *National Commission for Colleges of Education staff development manual*. Abuja, Nigeria: NCCE.
- NCCE. 2012. *TESSA and NCE minimum standards digitisation project*. Abuja, Nigeria: NCCE.
- NCCE. 2015. *Revised terms and conditions of service for federal colleges of education in Nigeria*. Abuja, Nigeria: NCCE.
- Neuman, W.L. 2014. *Social research methods qualitative and quantitative approaches*. 7th ed. Essex: Pearson.
- Nicholls, G. 2005. New lecturers' constructions of learning, teaching, and research in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*. **30**(5), pp.611-625.
- Nixon, L., Gregson, M., Spedding, T., Mearns, A. 2008. Practitioners' experiences of implementing national education policy at the local level. Report. In: *Research Evidence in Education Library*. [Online]. London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education, University of London. [Accessed on 2 November 2022]. Available from: <http://eppi.ioe.ac.uk/reel/>
- Nunan, D. 1992. *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Toole, L.J. 2000. Research on policy implementation: assessment and prospects. *Journal of Public Administration Theory and Practice*. **10**(2), pp.263-288.
- Obi-Anike, H.O. and Ekwe, M.C. 2014. Impact of training and development on organizational effectiveness: evidence from selected public sector organizations in Nigeria. *European Journal of Business and Management*. **6**(29), pp.66-75.
- Oduaran, A. 2015. Continuing professional development in the service of the nation: the case of Nigeria. *Journal Social Science*. **42**(3), pp.275-287.
- Odukoya, J.A., Bowale, E. and Okunlola, S. 2018. Formulation and implementation of educational policies in Nigeria. *African Educational Research Journal*. **6**(1), pp.1-4

Ofojebe, W.N. and Chukwuma, E.T.C. 2015. Utilization of continuous professional development for academic staff effectiveness in the higher education sector in contemporary Nigeria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*. **6**(4), pp.306-314.

Ogunmakin, T.A. 2013. *Staff Development programmes and teachers' effectiveness in secondary schools: a case study of Ibadan South-East LGA Oyo State*. Bachelor's degree project, Obafemi Awolowo University Ile- Ife, Nigeria.

Ogunode, N.J., Ajape, T. and Jegede, D. 2020. University education policies in Nigeria: Challenges preventing the implementation and the ways forward. *JurnalSinestesia*. **10**(2), pp.66-85.

Ohia, A.N. 2018. Managing functional tertiary education for sustainable national development through continuous staff professional training and development in Delta state. *European Journal of Research in Social Sciences*. **6**(2), pp.96-108.

Okemakinde, T.P. 2014. Transformation of higher education towards enhanced quality education in Nigeria. *European Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*. **29**(1), pp.1555-1570.

Okorie, C.O. and Odo, S. 2014. A survey of public service reforms in Nigeria: 1999-2013. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*. **4**(10), pp.267-275

Okoroma, N.S. 2006. Educational policies and problems of implementation in Nigeria. *Australian Journal of Adult Learning*. **46**(2), pp.242-263.

Okotoni O. and Erero, J. 2005. Manpower training and development in the Nigerian public service. *African Journal of Public Administration and Management*. **16**(1), pp.23-35.

Oluniyi, O. 2013. Curriculum development in Nigeria: historical perspectives. *Journal of Education and Social Research*. **3**(1), pp.73-80.

Oni, J. O. 2008. Universality of primary education in Nigeria: trends and issues. *International Journal of African and African American Studies*. **7**(1), pp.23-31.

Opfer, V., Pedder, D. and Loicza, Z. 2011. The role of teachers' orientation to learning in professional development and change: a national study of teachers in England. *Teaching and Teacher Education*. **27**(2), pp.443-453.

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). 2019. *TALIS 2018 results (volume 1): Teachers and school leaders as lifelong learners*. [Online]. Paris: OECD Publishing. [Accessed on 14 November 2022]. Available from: <http://www.oecd.org/education/>

Ormston, R., Spencer, L., Barnard, M. and Snape, D. 2014. The foundations of qualitative research. In Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., McNaughton, C.N., and Ormston, R. eds. *Qualitative research practice: a guide for social science students and researchers*. London: Sage Publications, pp.1-25.

Owens, M.T., Trujillo, G., Seidel, S.B., Harrison, C.D., Farrar, K.M., Benton, H.P., ... and Tanner, K.D. 2018. Collectively improving our teaching: attempting biology department-wide professional development in scientific teaching. *CBE–Life Sciences Education*. **17**(1), ar2.

Owo, N.J. 2016. *Appraisal of staff development programmes for lecturers in colleges of education, south-east of Nigeria*. Doctoral dissertation. University of Nigeria, Nigeria.

Oyedemi, S.O. 2015. Lapses in education policy formulation processes in Nigeria: Implications for the standard of education. *Journal of Education and Practice*, **6**(29), pp. 195-202.

Ozurumba, C.N. and Amasuomo, J.O. 2015. Academic staff development and output in state universities in South-South Nigeria. *Makarere Journal of Higher Education*. **7**(2), pp.49-59.

Padmavathy, M. and Premavathy, N. 2018. Influence of demographic variables on organizational commitment. *International Journal of Research in Engineering, Science and Management*. **10**(1), pp.722-725.

Parsons, M.B., Rollyson, J.H., and Reid, D.H. 2012. Evidence-based staff training: A guide for practitioners. *Behavioural Analysis in Practice*. **5**(2), pp.2-11.

Patfield, S., Gore, J. and Harris, J. 2021. Shifting the focus of research on effective professional development: Insights from a case study of implementation. *Journal of Educational Change*. **24**(2), pp.345-363.

Patrick, O.B. and Okafor, M.U. 2021. Continuing professional development: understanding the perceptions of higher institution lecturers in Anambra State, Nigeria. *Journal of Education and Practice*. **12**(20), pp.38-51.

Patton, M.Q. 2015. *Qualitative research and evaluation methods: integrating theory and practice*. 4th ed. Thousand Oaks, California, USA: SAGE Publications.

Pawson, R. and Tilley, N. 1997. An introduction to scientific realist evaluation. In: Chelimsky, E. and Shadish, W.R. ed. *Evaluation for the 21st century: a handbook*. Sage Publications, pp.405-418.

Pelger, S. 2022. Academic development to overcome STEM teachers' challenges in teaching communication. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **27**(1), pp.17-30.

Pelletreau, K.N., Knight, J.K., Lemons, P.P., McCourt, J.S., Merrill, J.E., Nehm, R.H., ... and Smith, M.K. 2018. A faculty professional development model that improves student learning, encourages active-learning instructional practices, and works for faculty at multiple institutions. *CBE–Life Sciences Education*. **17**(2), es5.

Peretomode, V.F. and Chukwuma, R.A. 2016. Manpower development and lecturers' productivity in tertiary institutions in the Delta State of Nigeria. *European Scientific Journal*. **8**(13), pp.16-28.

Pleschová, B., Roxå, T., Thomson, K.E. and Felten, P. 2021. Conversations that make meaningful change in teaching, teachers, and academic development. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **26**(3), pp.201-209.

Porter, A.C., Garet, M., Desimone, L.M. and Birman, B. 2003. Providing effective professional development: lessons from the Eisenhower Program. *Science Educator*. **12**(1), pp.23-40.

Postareff, L. and Nevgi, A. 2015. Development paths of university teachers during a pedagogical development course. *Educar*. **51**(1), pp.37-52.

Prebble, T., Hargraves, H., Leach, L., Naidoo, K., Suddaby, G., and Zekpe, L. 2004. Impact of student support services and academic development programmes on student outcomes in undergraduate tertiary study: A synthesis of the research. *Research Report, Research Division*, New Zealand Ministry of Education.

Prings, R. 2015. *Philosophy of educational research*. 3rd ed. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Quinn, L. 2012. Understanding resistance on analysis of discourses in academic staff development in higher education. *Studies in Higher education*. **37**(2), pp.69-83.

Rashid, T. 2008. Positive psychotherapy Positive psychology: exploring the best in people. In: Lopez Shane, J. ed. *Pursuing human flourishing*. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers, pp. 188-217.

Ravhuhali, F., Kutame, A.P., and Mutshaeni, H.N. 2015. Teachers' perceptions of the impact of continuing professional development on promoting quality teaching and learning. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*. **10**(1), pp.1-7.

Reber, A.S. 1993. *Implicit learning and tacit knowledge: an essay on the cognitive unconscious*. Oxford University Press.

Reed, J. and Procter, S. 1995. Practitioner research in context. In: J. Reed & S. Procter S. ed. *Practitioner research in health care: The inside story*. London: Chapman & Hall, pp. 3-31.

Research Excellence Framework. 2014. *The results*. [Online] [Accessed 24th September 2024]. Available from: <https://2014.ref.ac.uk/media/ref/content/pub/REF%2001%202014%20-%20full%20document.pdf>

Richter, D. 2013. Professional development across the teaching career. In: Kunter, J.B.M., Blum, W., Klusmann, U., Krauss, S. and Neubrand, M. ed. *Cognitive activation in the mathematics classroom and professional competence of teachers*. New York: Springer, pp.333-342.

- Robert, J. and Carlsen, W.S. 2017. Teaching and research at a large university: case studies of science professors. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*. **54**(7), pp.937-960.
- Rocco, T.S., Bliss, L.A., Gallagher, S. and Perez-Prado, A. 2003. Taking the next step: mixed methods research in organizational systems. *Information Technology, Learning, and Performance Journal*. **21**(1), pp.19-29.
- Roulston, K. 2010. Considering quality in qualitative interviewing. *Qualitative Research*. **10**(2), pp.199-228.
- Roxå, T. and K. Mårtensson. 2015. Microcultures and informal learning: A heuristic guiding analysis of conditions for informal learning in local higher education workplaces. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **20**(2), pp.193-205.
- Rubin, H.J. and Rubin, I.S. 2012. *Qualitative interviewing: the art of hearing data*. 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Ryan, J. 2015. It ain't just what you do and the way that you do it: why discourse matters in higher education communities of practice. *Higher Education Research and Development*. **34**(5), pp.1001-1013.
- Sabagh, Z. and Saroyan, A. 2014. Professors' perceived barriers and incentives for teaching improvement. *International Education Research*. **2**(3), pp.18-30.
- Salmons, J. 2015. *Qualitative online interviews*. 2nd ed. London: Sage Publications.
- Salthouse, T.A. 2019. Trajectories of normal cognitive aging. *Psychology and Aging*. **34**(1), pp.17-24.
- Sandberg, M. and Scheer, M. 2020. Fabricating data, undermining trust, or: Why we omitted work from our digital archive: Editorial by the joint editors-in-chief. *Ethnologia Europaea*. **49**(2), pp.5-7.
- Sandelowski, M. 1995. Sample size in qualitative research. *Research in Nursing and Health*. **18**(2), pp.179-183.
- Sarbeng, I.B. 2014. Assessment of staff training and development policies of University of Cape Coast. *European Journal of Business and Management*. **6**(35), pp.68-78.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. 2009. *Research methods for business students*. 5th ed. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Sayer, A. 1992. *Method in social science: a realist approach*. 2nd ed. London: Routledge.
- Scheerens, J. 2010. *Teachers' professional development: Europe in international comparison*. Twente, The Netherlands: University of Twente, OECD Education and Culture DG.

- Scherer, R., Nilsen, T. and Jansen, M. 2016. Evaluating individual students' perceptions of instructional quality: an investigation of their factor structure, measurement invariance, and relations to educational outcomes. *Frontiers in Psychology*. 7(10), pp.110-117.
- Scholz, R.W. and Tietje, O. 2002. *Embedded case study methods: integrating quantitative and qualitative knowledge*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Schostak, J. 2006. *Interviewing and representation in qualitative research*. Berkshire, England: Open University Press
- Scott, D. and Morrison, M. 2006. *Key ideas in educational research*. London: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Scott, D. E. and Scott, S. 2010. Future trends in academic professional development. A literature review commissioned by the Institutional Learning and Teaching Committee, University of Calgary, Alberta. *Report*. June 2010. [Online]. [Accessed on 12 April 2022]. Available from: <https://live-provost.ucalgary.ca/provost/sites/default/files/teams/1/scottscott-professionallearningcommunitiesinhighereducation.pdf>
- Scott, S., Issa, T. and Issa, T. 2008. Closing the loop: the relationship between instructor-reflective practice and students' satisfaction and quality outcomes. *The international journal of learning*. 15(1), pp.109-120.
- Shem, J.M. and Ngussa, B.M. 2017. Effect of training on employees' performance: a case of institutions of higher learning in Arusha City, Tanzania. *International Journal of Science and Research*. 6(10), pp.1924-1930.
- Shepherd, S. 2015. Appointing deputy and pro vice chancellors in pre-1992 English universities: managers, management and managerialism. Doctoral thesis, University of Kent.
- Sikes, P. 2004. Methodology, procedures and ethical concerns. In: Opie, C. ed. *Doing educational research: A guide to first time researchers*. London: Sage Publication, pp.15-33
- Silverman, D. 2013. *Doing qualitative research*. 4th ed. London: Sage Publication.
- Sims, S. and Fletcher-Wood, H. 2021. Identifying the characteristics of effective teacher professional development: A critical review. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*. 32(1), pp.47-63.
- Singh, P., Thomas, S. and Harris, J. 2013. Recontextualising policy discourses: a Bernsteinian perspective on policy interpretation, translation, enactment. *Journal of Education Policy*. 28(4), pp.465-480.

Sipuka, P.B. and Motala, S. 2023. Exploring the professional identity of university academics: “becoming” a university teacher. In: Tierney, R.J., Rizvi, F. and Ercikan, K. *International Encyclopaedia of Education*. 4th ed. Amsterdam: Elsevier, pp.504-512.

Smith, G. 2014. An innovative model of professional development to enhance the teaching and learning of primary science in Irish schools. *Professional Development in Education*. **40**(3), pp.467-487.

Snow, C., Griffin, P., and Burns, M. 2005. *Knowledge to support the teaching of reading*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.

Southwell, D. and Morgan, W. 2009. Leadership and the impact of academic staff development and leadership development on student learning outcomes in higher education: a review of the literature. *A report for the Australian Learning and Teaching Council (ALTC)*. Australia: The QUT Department of Teaching and Learning Support Services.

Spillane, J.P., Reiser, B.J., and Reimer, T. 2002. Policy implementation and cognition: reframing and refocusing implementation research. *Review of Educational Research*. **72**(3), pp.387-431.

Spowart, L., Turner, R., Shenton, D. and Kneale, P. 2015. ‘But I have been teaching for 20 years...’: encouraging teaching accreditation for experience staff working in higher education. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **21**(3), pp.206-218.

Stake, R.E. 1995a. *The art of case study research*. London: SAGE Publications.

Stake, R.E. 2005b. Qualitative case studies. In: Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. ed. *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research*. 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage, pp.443-466.

Stes, A., De Maeyer, S., Gijbels, D., and Van Petegem, P. 2013. Effects of teachers’ instructional development on students’ study approaches in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*. **38**(1), pp.2-19.

Suleiman, H.O. 2015. *Impact of staff development programmes on the job performance of federal polytechnic lecturers in Nigeria*. Doctoral dissertation. Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria – Nigeria.

Supovitz, J., Sirinides, P. and May, H. 2010. How principals and peers influence teaching and learning. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. **46**(1), pp.31-56.

Swaffield, S. 2014. Models of professional learning and the global imperative of professional development in education. *Professional Development in Education*. **40**(3), pp.331-335.

Swaminathan, R. and Mulvihill, T.M. 2018. *Teaching qualitative research: strategies for engaging emerging scholars*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Tamas, A. 2017. Policy development and implementation sequence. [Online] [Accessed 16th September 2024]. Available from: <https://www.tamas.com>

Tashakkori, A. and Teddlie, C. 2010. *SAGE handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioural research*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

Taylor, S. 1997. Critical policy analysis: exploring contexts, texts, and consequences. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*. **18**(1), pp.23-35.

Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria. 1993. TRCN manual on registration procedures.

Tertiary Education Trust Fund. 2011. *Enactment Act*. [Online]. Abuja: Nigeria Federal Ministry of Education (FME) Press. [Accessed on 4th July 2021]. Available from: <https://www.tetfund.gov.ng>

Tertiary Education Trust Fund. 2014. *Guidelines for accessing TETFund intervention funds*. Abuja: Nigeria Federal Ministry of Education Press.

Tertiary Education Trust Fund. 2016. *Academic staff training and development interventions condensed annual reports (2008-2016)*. Nigeria Federal Ministry of Education Press.

Tezera, D. 2019. Factors for the successful implementation of policies. *Merit Research Journal of Education and Review*. **7**(8) pp.92-95.

Thomas, G. 2017. *How to do your research project: a guide for students*. 3rd ed. London: SAGE Publications.

Thoonen, E.E., Slegers, P.J., Oort, F.J., Peetsma, T.T. and Geijsel, F.P. 2011. How to improve teaching practices: The role of teacher motivation, organizational factors, and leadership practices. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. **47**(3), pp.496-536.

Thurston, A., Christie, D., Howe, C.J., Tolmie, A. and Topping, K.J. 2008. Effects of continuing professional development on group work practices in Scottish primary schools. *Journal of In-service Education*. **34**(3), pp.263-282.

Tickle, L. 2002. Opening windows, closing doors: Ethical dilemmas in educational action research. In: McNamee, M. and Bridges, D. ed. *The ethics of educational research*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers, pp.41-57

Titilayo, O.M. and Uwameiye, R. 2012. Reflective practice: a strategy for improving teaching practice in Nigerian colleges of education. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*. **1**(4), pp.71-83.

Tomlinson, P. 1989. Having it both ways: Hierarchical focusing as research method. *British Educational Research Journal*. **15**(2), pp.155-176.

Turner, N., Oliver, M., McKenna, C., Hughes, J., Smith, H., Deepwell, F. and Shrives, L. 2013. *Measuring the impact of the UK professional standards framework for teaching and supporting learning*. York, UK: HEA.

Tynan, B. and Lee, M.J.W. 2009. Tales of adventure and change: academic staff members' future visions of higher education and their professional development needs. *On the Horizon*. **17**(2), pp.98-108.

Ugwuanyi, B.I., and Chukwuemeka, E.E.O. 2013. The obstacles to effective policy implementation by the public bureaucracy in developing nations: the case of Nigeria. *Kuwait Chapter of Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*. **2**(7), pp.59-68.

Ukaegbu, B.C.N and Ekpeyong, O. 2017. Impact of poor implementation of welfare policies on training and development on the performance of academic staff in selected federal universities in South-South Nigeria. *International Journal of Scientific Research and Management*. **5**(12), pp.7718-7729.

Ukpere, W.I. and Naris, N.I. 2009. The effectiveness of an HR code: Staff development and training at the polytechnic of Namibia. *African Journal of Business Management*. **3**(1), pp.879-889.

UNESCO. 2000. *World education report. The right to education: Towards education for all throughout life*. Paris: UNESCO Publishing. 178pp.

Usher, R. 1996. A critique of the neglected epistemological assumptions of educational research. In: Scott, D. and Usher, R. ed. *Understanding educational research*. London: Routledge, pp.9-32.

Usman, S. 2014. Governance and higher education in Pakistan: What roles do boards of governors play in ensuring academic quality maintenance in public universities versus private universities in Pakistan. *International Journal of Higher Education*. **3**(2), pp.38-51.

Uthman, A.B., Sanni, M. and Salami, A.A. 2019. Prospect for accounting academics: examining the effect of undergraduate students' career decision. *Management and Accounting Review*. **18**(3), pp.95-130.

Uzochukwu, O.C., Orogbu, O.L. and Igbodo, R.O. 2016. TETFund international programmes and academic staff development of selected universities in South-East Nigeria. *Journal of Economics and Public Finance*. **2**(1), pp.171-193.

UKRI 2022. Impact toolkit for economic and social science: Defining impact. [Online] [Accessed 24th September 2024]. Available from: <https://www.ukri.org/councils/esrc/impact-toolkit-for-economic-and-socialsciences/defining-impact>

Vaismoradi, M. and Snelgrove, S. 2019. Theme in qualitative content analysis and thematic analysis. *Forum Qualitative Social Research*. **20**(3), Art. 23.

- Vajoczki, S., Biegas, T.C., Crenshaw, M., Healey, R.L., Osayomi, T., Bradford, M. and Monk, J. 2011. Professional development in teaching and learning for early career academic geographers: contexts, practices, and tensions. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*. **35**(3), pp.395-408.
- Van Geyte, E. and Hadjianastasis, M. 2022. Quality and qualifications: the value of centralised teaching courses for postgraduates who teach. *International Journal for Academic Development*. **27**(1), pp.4-16.
- Venatus, K.V. 2013. Declining quality of intellectual output in Nigeria's tertiary institutions of learning: the underlining existential factors. *Journal of Education and Practice*. **4**(11), pp.39-42.
- Viennet, R. and Pont, B. 2017. Education policy implementation: a literature review and proposed framework. *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 162. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- Volbrecht, T. 2003. The story of South African academic development on international perspectives: have we lost the plot? *South African Journal of Higher Education*. **12**(2), pp.110-117.
- Walby, S. 2002. Feminism in a global era. *Economy and society*. **31**(4), pp.533-557.
- Wall, J. 2013. *A framework for academic professional development in higher education*. A paper presented at the Irish Academy of Management Conference, 21st August 2013, Waterford Institute of Technology. [Online]. [Accessed on 4 March 2022]. Available from: <https://repository.wit.ie/3020/1/Wall%202013.pdf>
- Webster-Wright, A. 2009. Reframing professional development through understanding authentic professional learning. *Review of Educational Research*. **79**(2), pp.702-739.
- Weinreich, N. 2009. Integrating quantitative and qualitative methods in social marketing research. *Social Marketing Quarterly*. **3**(1), pp.53-58.
- Weli, S.E. and Ollor, A.N. 2021. Teachers' participation in professional development programme and its impediments for quality instructional delivery in secondary schools in Rivers State. *International Journal of Innovative Education Research*. **9**(1), pp.1-8.
- Whitworth, B.A., and Chiu, J.L. 2015. Professional development and teacher change: the missing leadership link. *Journal of Science Teacher Education*. **26**(2), pp.121-137.
- Wong, L. 2008. Data analysis in qualitative research: a brief guide to using Nvivo. *Malaysia Family Physician*. **3**(1), pp.14-20.
- Woodside, A.G. 2010. *Case study research: theory, methods, practice*. Bingley, UK: Emerald.
- World Bank. 1993. *Improving higher education in developing countries: EDI seminar series*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Yang, X., Ke, Z., Zhan, Y. and Ren, Y. 2014. The effect of choosing key versus ordinary schools on student's mathematical achievement in China. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*. **23**(3), pp.523–536.

Yaro, I., Arshad, R. and Salleh, D. 2016. Education stakeholder's constraints in policy decisions for effective policy implementation in Nigeria. *British Journal of Education, Society and Behavioural Science*, **14**(1), pp. 1-12.

Yin, R. K. 2003a. *Case study research: design and methods*. 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Yin, R. K. 2018b. *Case study research and applications: design and methods*. 6th ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Yoon, K.S., Duncan, T., Lee, S.W.Y., Scarloss, B. and Shapley, K. 2007. *Reviewing the evidence on how teacher professional development affects student achievement (Issues & Answers Report, REL 2007–No. 033)*. [Online]. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Centre for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Regional Educational Laboratory Southwest. [Accessed on 4th March 2022]. Available from: <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/edlabs>

Yusuf, L.A. and Alabi, C.O. 2012. Education quality management as panacea for sustainable school quality reform in Nigeria. *European Journal of Educational Studies*. **4**(2), pp233-238.

Zhang, X., Admiraal, W. and Saab, N. 2021. Teachers' motivation to participate in continuous professional development: relationship with factors at the personal and school level. *Journal of Education for Teaching*. **47**(5), pp.714-731.

Zhaohui, C. and Anning, A.S. 2020. Impact of teachers' professional development on students' academic performance in higher education. *International Journal of Advanced Education and Research*. **5**(2), pp.50-57.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: ETHICS REVIEW APPROVAL

AREA 20-022 - Favourable Ethical Opinion with Comment

John Hardy

<J.E.Hardy@leeds.ac.uk>

on behalf of

ResearchEthics <researchethics@leeds.ac.uk>

Tue 12/1/2020 5:21 AM

To: Adie Adie [ed17auj] <ed17auj@leeds.ac.uk>; ResearchEthics <researchethics@leeds.ac.uk>

Hi Adie,

AREA 20-022 - Professional Development of Academics in Public Colleges of Education in Nigeria: Case study.

NB: All approvals/comments are subject to compliance with current University of Leeds and UK Government advice regarding the Covid-19 pandemic, as well as any local restrictions where the study is being carried out regarding in-person data collection and travel.

I am pleased to inform you that the above research ethics application amendment has been reviewed by the AREA FREC Committee and I can confirm a favourable ethical opinion based on the documentation received at date of this email.

The committee wished to return the following comments to the applicant:

*“To ensure you keep up-to-date with University of Leeds guidance regarding fieldwork and travel, please ensure you regularly check the following page for updates:
<https://wsh.leeds.ac.uk/fieldwork/doc/fieldwork-introduction>”*

Please retain this email as evidence of approval in your study file.

Please notify the committee if you intend to make any further amendments to the research as submitted and approved to date. This includes recruitment methodology; all changes must receive ethical approval prior to implementation. Please see <https://leeds365.sharepoint.com/sites/ResearchandInnovationService/SitePages/Amendments.aspx> or contact the Research Ethics & Governance Administrator for further information (researchethics@leeds.ac.uk) if required.

Ethics approval does not infer you have the right of access to any member of staff or student or documents and the premises of the University of Leeds. Nor does it imply any right of access to the premises of any other organisation, including clinical areas. The committee takes no responsibility for you gaining access to staff, students and/or premises prior to, during or following your research

activities.

Please note: You are expected to keep a record of all your approved documentation, as well as documents such as sample consent forms, risk assessments and other documents relating to the study. This should be kept in your study file, which should be readily available for audit purposes. You will be given a two week notice period if your project is to be audited.

It is our policy to remind everyone that it is your responsibility to comply with Health and Safety, Data Protection and any other legal and/or professional guidelines there may be.

I hope the study continues to go

well. Best wishes

John Hardy

On behalf of Matthew Davis (Chair), AREA FREC

John Hardy

Research Ethics

Administrator The

Secretariat,

University of Leeds, LS2 9LT

Appendix 2: FIELDWORK RISK ASSESSMENT APPROVAL

RE: Fieldwork Risk Assessment Form

Fiona Middlebrook <F.Middlebrook@leeds.ac.uk>

Mon 11/23/2020 12:05 AM

To: Adie Adie [ed17auj] <ed17auj@leeds.ac.uk>

1 attachments (780 KB)

Adie_Fieldwork_Risk_Assessment_Form_(Revised version2).pdf;

Hi Julius

Attached is the final version with the Head of School signature and also the email trail attached confirming the approval.

Best wishes

Fiona

Fiona Middlebrook

PA to Professor Alice Deignan (Head of School) &
School Management Support Coordinator School of
Education
University of Leeds
Hillary Place, Room G02
Leeds LS2 9JT

From: Paul Beal <P.R.Beal@leeds.ac.uk> **Sent:**

20 November 2020 14:10 PM

To: Fiona Middlebrook <F.Middlebrook@leeds.ac.uk>

Subject: Re: Fieldwork Risk Assessment Form

Hi Fiona,

Just to confirm this is fine and the trip is approved.

All the best

Paul

Dr Paul Beal

Senior Health and Safety Manager

Faculties of Business, Social Sciences and Arts, Humanities and Culture

5-9 Willow Terrace Rd

University of Leeds, Leeds.

LS2 9JT

Appendix 3: PERMISSION LETTERS

3(a): Colleges of Education



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

School of Education

Hilary Place, University of Leeds, Leeds

LS2 9JT - United Kingdom.

Tel: 01133434524. Email: enquiries@education.leeds.ac.uk

..... 2020

The Provost,

.....
.....
.....

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT DOCTORAL STUDIES RESEARCH IN THE COLLEGE

I write to seek permission and authorization to conduct PhD research study in your college. I am a post-graduate research student at the University of Leeds, United Kingdom. This study investigates the professional development of academic staff in public colleges of education in Nigeria, with a focus on key stakeholders' perceptions of the professional development policy, experience of actual implementation, and the impacts. It is a case study.

The research study will involve interviewing some of your senior management staff and academics on their understanding of the policy, and the factual realities of its practice.

Please be assured that data shall be handled with confidentiality and use strictly for this research purposes in compliance with the relevant data use and protection policies of the UK, Nigeria, and the University of Leeds. When analysing and discussing the data, pseudonyms will be used to protect the identity of the participants and the institutions. The study poses no risk to both the participants and the institution, rather, there is a benefit of sharing the findings with your institution.

Thank you in anticipation for your positive response to my request and, kind support.

Yours faithfully,

J. U. Adie

3(b): Ministry of Education



School of Education

Hilary Place, University of Leeds, Leeds

LS2 9JT - United Kingdom.

Tel: 01133434524. Email: enquiries@education.leeds.ac.uk

..... 2020

The Permanent Secretary,

.....
.....
.....

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT DOCTORAL STUDIES RESEARCH IN THE MINISTRY

I write to seek permission and authorization to conduct PhD research in your ministry. I am a post-graduate research student at the University of Leeds, United Kingdom. This study investigates the professional development of academic staff in public colleges of education in Nigeria, with a focus on key stakeholders' perceptions of the professional development policy, experience of actual implementation, and the impacts. It is a case study.

The research study will involve interviewing three senior members of your staff in the policy department, particularly, on the original intentions and interpretation of professional development policy for academic staff in higher education.

Please be assured that data shall be treated with confidentiality and use strictly for this research purposes in compliance with the relevant data use and protection policies of the UK, Nigeria, and the University of Leeds. When analysing and discussing the data, pseudonyms will be used to protect the identity of the participants and the ministry. The study poses no risk to both the participants and the ministry, rather, there is a benefit of sharing the findings with your ministry.

Thank you in anticipation for your positive response to my request and, kind support.

Yours faithfully,

J. U. Adie

Appendix 4: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET.

4(a): Academic Staff



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

School of Education

Hilary Place, University of Leeds, Leeds

LS2 9JT - United Kingdom.

Tel: 01133434524. Email: enquiries@education.leeds.ac.uk

Research title: Professional Development of Academics in Public Colleges of Education in Nigeria:
A Case Study.

Dear potential participant,

I am a PhD student in the School of Education at the University of Leeds, United Kingdom; currently conducting research which investigates “academic staff professional development in public Colleges of Education in Nigeria.” This research project is being organised by me under the supervision of Dr Michael Wilson and Dr Harry Kuchah of the School of Education at the University of Leeds.

Your college has agreed to take part in the research study, and I am writing to ask if you are able to participate. In order for you to make an informed decision as to whether to take part or not, please, carefully read through the following information about the project. You can discuss it with others if you wish and/or ask us for any clarification and further information via our contacts given below.

What is the purpose of the project?

The aim of the study generally is to deepen understanding of how academic’s professional development policy relates to actual practice in public Colleges of Education. Specifically, the intention is to: (a) find out what the colleges of education stakeholders (referring to academic leaders, academics, and policymakers) perceive of the policy and how they compare and contrast, (b) investigate and reveal the extent to which the policy is implemented at the institutional level, and (c) examine the impacts of the policy. The entire project is for a period of three years, from 2019 to 2022.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen as part of a sample of 25 participants for this research, consisting of academics and policymakers, because of the belief that as an academic staff who is a direct beneficiary of the policy, you have the experiential evidence, and would be able to speak to, or supply very useful information on the subject of this research.

Do I have to take part?

Your participation is absolutely voluntary, so, it is up to you to decide. If you would like to participate, you would be given a consent form to sign and return. You are also free to discontinue participation as well as request for the withdrawal of your data already supplied at any time until the 12th of April 2021 at the latest, when data analysis begins, without giving any reason. In such case, the data will not be used, but destroyed. However, it will be too late after this date because the data

must have been so enmeshed in the research analysis. Both your refusal to take part in and withdraw from participation at any time in the study will not affect any benefits you may be entitled to.

What do I have to do?

You are to take part in a single interview that will take approximately 60 minutes and will be conducted either face-to-face in your office or online, at a time convenient to you. You would be expected to provide in-depth open answers to questions on your perception of the policy, extent to which the policy is actually being implemented at the institutional level, and impacts of the policy on academic staff, based on your professional experiences and opinion. The data you supply will greatly benefit this research.

What are the possible disadvantages/risks and benefits of taking part?

There are no foreseeable risks to participants as each participant would be interviewed either in his/her office on the college campus or online.

Although there are no immediate and direct benefits for the participants, it is hoped that this research work would yield significant outcomes that will be shared with your institution.

Use, dissemination, and storage of research data

Data gathered will be treated with strict confidentiality and anonymity. It will not be shared with any other person but use solely for research, reports, lectures, conference presentations, and publications, in anonymous ways. However, if you do not wish that it should be used for any other purposes besides the research, please, do indicate so in the consent form. Data will be stored safely in both a personal protected computer and the University of Leeds data storage device (M-drive), for a period of three years of this research project and after which it will be destroyed. Personal information and any other that may reveal a participant's identity will be stored separately from the research data.

Will I be recorded, and how will the recorded media be used?

With your permission, I will audiotape the interview so as to have a record of our discussion to use for analysis, illustration, and future research in an anonymous way. At any point during the process that you feel uncomfortable with answering certain questions, feel free to signal me so that the recording can be paused and continued later when you are ok that it should go on. You are also free to decline the recording of the interview. Only I will have access to the data and special permission will be obtained for any other use outside the ones mentioned.

Contact for further information.

In case of any further enquiries, please feel free to contact me (Julius Adie) via email

██████████ or my supervisors (Dr Michael Wilson) on ██████████
or (Dr Harry Kuchah) on ██████████

If you would like to take part, please sign the consent form and return. A copy of this information sheet, consent form, and the privacy notice will be given to you for keeps. I must sincerely thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

J. U. Adie

4(b): Academic Leaders



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

School of Education

Hilary Place, University of Leeds, Leeds

LS2 9JT - United Kingdom.

Tel: 01133434524. Email: enquiries@education.leeds.ac.uk

Research title: Professional Development of Academics in Public Colleges of Education in Nigeria:
A Case Study.

Dear potential participant,

I am a PhD student in the School of Education at the University of Leeds, United Kingdom; currently conducting research which investigates “academic staff professional development in public Colleges of Education in Nigeria.” This research project is being organised by me under the supervision of Dr Michael Wilson and Dr Harry Kuchah of the School of Education at the University of Leeds.

Your college has agreed to take part in the research study, and I am writing to ask if you are able to participate. In order for you to make an informed decision as to whether to take part or not, please, carefully read through the following information about the project. You can discuss it with others if you wish and/or ask us for any clarification and further information via our contacts given below.

What is the purpose of the project?

The aim of the study generally is to deepen understanding of how academic’s professional development policy relates to actual practice in public Colleges of Education. Specifically, the intention is to: (a) find out what the colleges of education stakeholders (referring to academic leaders, academics, and policymakers) perceive of the policy and how they compare and contrast, (b) investigate and reveal the extent to which the policy is implemented at the institutional level, and (c) examine the impacts of the policy. The entire project is for a period of three years, from 2019 to 2022.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen as part of a sample of 25 participants consisting of academics and policymakers, because of the belief that as an academic leader charged with the responsibility of implementing the policy at the level of your institution, you have the first-hand experience and would be able to speak to or supply rich information on the research subject.

Do I have to take part?

Your participation is absolutely voluntary, so, it is up to you to decide. If you would like to participate, you would be given a consent form to sign and return. You are also free to discontinue participation as well as request for the withdrawal of your data already supplied at any time until the 12th of April 2021 at the latest, when data analysis begins, without giving any reason. In such case, the data will not be used, but destroyed. However, it will be too late after this date because the data must have been so enmeshed in the research analysis. Both your refusal to take part in and withdraw from participation at any time in the study will not affect any benefits you may be entitled to.

What do I have to do?

You are to take part in a single interview that will take approximately 60 minutes and will be conducted either face-to-face in your office or online, at a time convenient to you. You would be expected to provide in-depth open answers to questions on your perception of the policy, extent of policy implementation at the institutional level, and influence of the policy on academic staff, based on your professional experiences and opinion. The data you supply will be of great value to this research.

What are the possible disadvantages/risks and benefits of taking part?

There are no foreseeable risks to participants as each participant would be interviewed either in his/her office on the college campus or online.

Although there are no immediate and direct benefits for the participants, it is hoped that this research work would yield significant outcomes that will be shared with your institution.

Use, dissemination, and storage of research data

Data gathered will be treated with strict confidentiality and anonymity. It will not be shared with any other person but use solely for research, reports, lectures, conference presentations, and publications, in anonymous ways. However, if you do not wish that it should be used for any other purposes besides the research, please, do indicate so in the consent form. Data will be stored safely in both a personal protected computer and the University of Leeds data storage device (M-drive), for a period of three years of this research project and after which it will be destroyed. Personal information and any other that may reveal a participant's identity will be stored separately from the research data.

Will I be recorded, and how will the recorded media be used?

With your permission, I will audiotape the interview so as to have a record of our discussion to use for analysis, illustration, and future research in an anonymous way. At any point during the process that you feel uncomfortable with answering certain questions, feel free to signal me so that the recording can be paused and continued later when you are ok that it should go on. You are also free to decline the recording of the interview. Only I will have access to the data and special permission will be obtained for any other use outside the ones mentioned.

Contact for further information

In case of any further enquiries, please feel free to contact me (Julius Adie) via email

██████████ or my supervisors (Dr Michael Wilson) on ██████████
or (Dr Harry Kuchah) on ██████████

If you would like to take part please sign the consent form and return. A copy of this information sheet, consent form, and the privacy notice will be given to you for keeps. I must sincerely thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

J. U. Adie

Appendix 5: PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM



School of Education

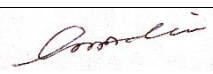
Hilary Place, University of Leeds, Leeds

LS2 9JT - United Kingdom.

Tel: 01133434524. Email: enquiries@education.leeds.ac.uk

Consent to participate in the research project titled: **Professional Development of Academics in Public Colleges of Education in Nigeria: A Case Study.**

Statement	Add your initials next to the statement if you agree
I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet [Appendix 2] dated 23/11/2020 explaining the above research project and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project.	
I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw and also request for the withdrawal of my data already supplied at any time without giving any reason, until the 12 th of April 2021, and in such case, the data will not be used, but destroyed. However, it will be too late after this date because the data must have been so enmeshed in the research analysis. I understand also that should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline. There would not be any negative consequences for all of these decisions.	
I understand that the researcher will have access to my anonymised responses. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research.	
I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential.	
I understand that the data collected from me may be stored and used in relevant future research in an anonymised form or I understand that the data I provide may be archived at the Research Data Leeds repository. In case of any further enquiries, please feel free to contact me (Julius Adie) on telephone: +44 (0) 7570307283 or email: ed17auj@leeds.ac.uk .	
I agree to take part in the above research project and will inform the researcher should my contact details change.	

Name of participant:	Signature:
Date:	
Name of researcher: J. U. Adie	Signature: 
Date: 23/11/2020	

Appendix 6: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE

6(a): Academic Leaders and Tutors

Below are the questions I am soliciting for participant's sincere and invaluable response to. It is important to state that these questions may change, and more questions are likely to be raised, depending on the flow of participant's response in the course of the interview.

PART A: Questions relating to research question 1.

1. Tell me what you understand by the term professional development (PD)?
2. Are you aware if there are national and/or college level policies that provides for and supports the PD of academics? Could you hare with me, your interpretation of its content, highlighting the focus, objectives, and approaches?

PART B: Questions relating to research question 2.

1. Share with me your experience of how academic PD policy has been implemented in your college?
2. From your perspective, is the approach been adopted in line with what the policy provides? Alright, let me put it this way, tell me, what kind of approach has your college adopted in implementing the policy?
3. Explain to me what your take is, in terms of how well the college is achieving the policy objectives and expectations?
4. How motivated are academic staff towards participating in PD activities?
5. How involved are you in the policy implementation process?
6. Are they some possibilities around the implementation of the academic PD policy in your college? Tell me a bit more about what exactly the college is doing that is different.
7. Do you perceive certain things not going on well with academic PD practice in your college? Tell me about what these things are and what could be responsible.
8. Do you think the present approaches to academic PD practice in your college needs to be sustained or changes are required? Explain your answer to me.

PART C: Questions relating to research question 3.

1. Explain to me, how relevant is PD to you as an academic?
2. Share with me the observed impacts of academic PD on the college?
3. Give me a more general opinion about why you think academic PD is an initiative that should either be sustained or not?

Finally, is there any other thing you consider relevant that you would want to share with me?

6(b): Policymakers and Academic Leaders

Below are the questions I am soliciting for participant's sincere and invaluable response to. It is important to state that these questions may change, and more questions are likely to be raised, depending on the flow of participant's response in the course of the interview.

1. What do you mean by academic professional development?
2. Could you share with me, the actual interpretation of the prescription of the national policy for higher education academic staff PD?
3. What are the primary motivations for introducing this policy?
4. What are the target areas or focus of the policy?
5. What are the implementation approaches proposed or recommended in the policy?
6. Could you explain to me if there are some ideas that you think were supposed to be captured in this policy that are not?
7. Could you also tell me about those things you think are in the policy that should not be there in the first place and so should be expunged?
8. Do you see these as inadequacies of the policy that could pose challenges to its implementation at college level? Could you offer details to your answer, please?
9. How involved are academic staff in the planning and formulation of the policy?
10. What is your assessment of the policy practice at college level vis-à-vis its provisions?

Finally, is there any other thing you consider relevant that you would want to share with me?