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STRIVING FOR AUTONOMY

Health sciences teachers' enactment of policy

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STRIVING FOR AUTONOMY
Health sciences teachers' enactment of policy
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ABSTRACT

This thesis explores how teachers within the health sciences enact education policy. The questions address how teachers' choices related to the design of courses and curricula are made in the light of reforms that emphasise standardisation and transparency. Employing a hermeneutical framework teachers' enactment were regarded as a meaning-making process shown through reason and action. In line with the interpretative approach, the two research projects were performed with qualitative methods.

The first research project (study I and II) concerned how teachers' understood and carried out changes in course design related to the implementation of outcome-based education and the European Bologna Process. For that purpose, course material and interview data was analysed. The second research project (study III and IV), was conducted to deepen the understanding of findings from the first project. A group of teachers who conducted major changes related to previous reform was chosen and studied with a narrative approach when they engaged in the development of teaching and learning. In particular, the teachers' development of assessment criteria of students' clinical competencies was studied over one year.

A body of literature report on how teachers conceptualise teaching and learning. Based on those studies there has been an emphasis on supporting teachers' shift in views regarding teaching and learning. Related to recent reforms in higher education, it is however suggested that teachers are less free to decide upon educational matters, and hence individual teachers' deepened understanding are not enough for development of practice to occur. The findings in this thesis suggest that wide interpretations of education policy in combination with pedagogical knowledge may benefit educational development in practice. Teachers were found to approach outcome-based education when introduced as policy in four different ways, with *outcome blind*, *technocratic*, *pragmatic* or *ideological approach*. These approaches were related to student-centred learning to more or less extent, and to greater or lesser autonomy in the decision-making related to course design.

The studies showed how teachers' experience a tension between bureaucratic demands and what is emphasised through teaching and learning theory. For some teachers this meant that theoretical constructs were applied in instrumental ways and that pedagogy equated the bureaucratic and rational standards involved in quality control. The findings suggest however, that learning and development can be promoted through education policy but that teachers' local practices should be supported.

Furthermore, the findings support the view of a broadened perspective on academic development related to local practices and with the aim to support the growth of communities of practice regarding teaching and learning.

LIST OF SCIENTIFIC PAPERS

I. **Barman L**, Silén C., and Bolander Laksov K. (2014) Outcome based education enacted: teachers' tensions in balancing between student learning and bureaucracy. *Advances in Health Sciences Education: Theory and Practice,* 19(5):629-43

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IV. **Barman L**, McGrath C., Josephsson S., Silén C, and Bolander Laksov K. Dilemmas in assessment: objective measurements of skills or subjective judgements of professional competencies? Manuscript.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CBE	Competency-based education
CBME	Competency-based medical education
CoP	Community of practice
NPM	New Public Management
HE	Higher Education
ILO	Intended Learning Outcome
KI	Karolinska Institutet
OBE	Outcome Based Education
PBL	Problem based learning
SOLO	Structure of the Observed Learning Outcomes
T&L	Teaching and Learning
QA	Quality Assurance

1 INTRODUCTION

This thesis is concerned with how societal changes that affect the purpose and the organisation of higher education have made their way into the practice of teachers via policy and reform. For the past 40 years teaching in higher education (HE) has been increasingly recognised as a competence that requires training and knowledge (Gibbs, 2013). Moving away from the idea that 'good teachers are born', more attention is paid to how academics need to learn and develop the competencies necessary to welcome the next generation into their professional field (Steinert et al., 2006). Similar to other fields of professional practice, many stakeholders share an interest in defining what quality in education means, and then based on that definition attempt to influence teachers' ways of thinking and practising in the desired direction (Mårtensson et al., 2012). For example, sketching an international vision for health professionals' education, an independent Lancet Commission outline the reforms needed within education to meet the global demands of future health care. With serious concern for a number of global health issues, such as increasing infectious risks and epidemiological transitions, they stated that,

> Professional education has not kept pace with these challenges, largely because of fragmented, outdated, and static curricula that produce ill-equipped graduates. (Frenk et al., 2010 p. 1923)

Among their many suggestions on how to reform educational systems they proposed that instructional reforms should be competency-driven. Other suggestions included promoting interprofessional and team-based forms, utilising IT in learning, adding educational resources with a particular focus on faculty development, and redefining and setting criteria for professionalism that resonates with public accountability. However, whilst accountability seems reasonable for any role in public service, its place in higher education is debated within the literature. Calls for the accountability of higher education institutions are argued to be coupled with values of increased effectiveness and standardisations, a production metaphor, and strengthened employability of graduates and managerialism (Ball, 2013; Fjellström, 2013; Hodges, 2010; King, 2010; Marginson, 2008; Teelken, 2011). Something that may not correspond to traditional ideas of academic freedom, such as creativity and educating for the unknown future (*bildung*). Furthermore, standardisations may also be in contrast to faculties views on how to pursue education (Askling, 2001; Bleiklie, 1998; Fanghanel, 2007).

In line with increased demands on accountability, the evaluation of education quality has become a common global phenomenon (Teelken, 2011). In order for governing agencies to audit and measure the outcome of investments, changes have been made to increase the transparency of curriculum and student learning (Edwards, 2004). Because of this process, the accomplishments of teachers at the level of curriculum and course design are put under the microscope. Following this global trend, Europe aimed for a shared and harmonised higher education area where opportunities for student mobility would increase the European competitiveness at the global 'knowledge market'. Through international collaboration, the Bologna process was one of the largest higher education reforms in Europe since the 'massification' of students in the 1960s (Askling, 2001). Among other changes, the Bologna

reform introduced the joint definition of degrees in three levels (bachelors, masters and PhD), a shared grading system, and shared ways to express what students are expected to learn. The expected result of the Bologna process was that the adaptation to shared standards of communicating students' intended learning outcomes in the syllabus, for example, should make its way down to the ground floor of teachers (Baldwin, 2013; Lindberg-Sand, 2012).

Transparency and shared standards are expected to increase the employability of graduates (King, 2004). At the same time that stakeholders within the working sector call for greater employability, the increased information flow and easily accessible information means that lifelong learning and students' development of a critical approach is emphasised; rather than knowledge or skills in a limited number of discipline-related areas. Calls for the development of generic skills and an overall academisation are not in contrast to what employers want. Within health care, however, the debate about curriculum content oscillate between the need for skilful health practitioners who can start working with patients 'on day one', and graduates with a broader and more critical readiness to learn what patient care is all about. This debate also covers the choices that teachers need to make on what content to include in teaching, and what activities the students should pursue during learning.

As the central stakeholders for learning in higher education, students' are found to acknowledge 'good teaching' when it supports their own approach to learning (Hativa & Birenbaum, 2000). Teaching quality, from the students' perspective, may correspond well with research on learning[1] (Sveriges Förenade Studentkårer 2013), but students are also known to wish for 'easy' and traditional ways of being given information (Biggs, 2003; Harden et al., 1984). Today, students' opinions on teaching quality are heard not only in the course evaluation sheets or in university hallways; teaching is also increasingly exposed in social media, which may pressure teachers.

With the ambition to enhance the quality of higher education, universities have engaged in formal activities for developing teachers' competence since the 1960s (Bolander-Laksov, 2007; McLean et al., 2008; Mårtensson et al., 2011). Since then, there has been a shift from the development of teaching skills to an emphasis on the development of a conceptual understanding of the nature of teaching and learning (Gibbs, 2013; McLean et al., 2008; Åkerlind, 2008). With a growing amount of research on students' learning followed by the emergence of centrally based units for faculty development, 'a student-learning perspective' has gained increased influence on defining what good teaching encompasses. As a way to increase teachers understanding of the specific challenges their students may encounter, teachers are encouraged to employ a scholarly approach to teaching and learning (Mårtensson et al., 2011; Steinert, 2011; Trigwell & Shale, 2004). Furthermore, to address the imbalance of the teaching-research nexus, universities have increasingly developed incentives for teachers to engage in scholarly work related to pedagogy, and have created policies stating the minimum requirements for teachers' competency (Leibowitz et al., 2015; Ryegård et al., 2010; Trowler & Bamber, 2005). Thus, as many stakeholders with different agendas are involved in the debate

[1] In Sweden, the national student union (SFS) have published two reports (in 2013) on students' perceptions of quality in higher education, based on their own surveys and linked to public debate.

on how teachers should 'be, do, and develop', teachers in higher education are subject to exposure. Presenting a number of the aforementioned changes in the higher education arena, D'Andrea and Gosling stated that,

> The shifting environment of higher education […] is creating many pressure points and tensions that are causing stress, role conflict, increasing workloads and 'innovation fatigue'. (D'Andrea & Gosling, 2005 p. 58).

Considering pressure from many different stakeholders, the curiosity that guided the outset of this project was how academic teachers may be influenced by the changing higher education arena, and how changes affect the development of their practice. Being involved in the practise missioned to drive and support teachers' development, I am not free from values regarding the focus of this thesis. The following quote illustrates my perspective on the importance of teachers:

> Faculty members are the ultimate resource of all educational institutions. They are the teachers, stewards, agents of knowledge transmission, and most importantly role models for students - reproducing the profession by training the next generation of professionals (Frenk et al., 2010 p. 1941).

Taking the complexity of academic roles into account, one concern is that teachers' increased conceptual knowledge within pedagogy fails to create meaning in practice. Furthermore, if the university is becoming an organisation with stricter administrative routines, then teachers are assumingly less free to choose the ways that they teach (Altbach, 2001), and faculty development would need to take a broader perspective for teachers to put theory into practice (Jones, 2013). In my experience as an educational developer, the complexity of creating high quality education for students goes beyond teachers understanding of pedagogy. The following account illustrates my view on the challenges for educational development. It is based on my recollection of a teacher's response during a course at Karolinska Institutet 12 years ago.

> After deep sighing the teacher said with tired voice, '*This all sounds very nice, but what you are suggesting is completely unrealistic. I have 120 students who I meet for two hours. After that, I contribute with some exam questions and correct the examination. I do not get any extra time for teaching. If I were to use essay questions to assess their deeper understanding, teaching would take up days of my spare time.'*

If the understanding of 'good practice' reigning within faculty development programmes fails to acknowledge the conditions within local teaching and learning regimes (Becher & Trowler, 2001; Smith, 2010), this may hinder development of (/in) practice. Hence, more knowledge is needed about the interaction between societal demands at the macro level and the practice of teachers at the micro level.

OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

In this thesis, research on teachers in higher education are in the foreground. The context is health sciences education, however findings and discussions relate to teachers within other fields as well.

Chapter 2 focus on **education policy** and describes the contextual background regarding the specific policies and reforms relevant for this thesis. Chapter two includes the definitions of, education policy, discourse and, outcome-based education. In **Chapter 3**, research on **teachers' learning and development** is presented, and how this research has influenced academic development in practice. Chapter three includes explanations of how the terms academic development, faculty development and educational development are applied in this thesis. The chapter also aims to clarify the **central positioning** of this thesis project.

In **Chapter 4** the **aims** of the current research is presented, and **Chapter 5** describes the **methodological** underpinnings and the **process of investigation**. In order to clarify in what way methodological assumptions relate to the studies, the general underpinnings related to hermeneutics is presented in the beginning of the chapter, and the specific assumptions related to narrative inquiry are outlined in more detail in relation to the presentation of research design in the second research project.

In **Chapter 6**, a summary of the **main findings** is presented. In study III and IV, the findings are presented in the form of narratives intended to reveal *how* teachers' meaning-making is expressed in acting and reasoning. These narratives are not included in this thesis summary, only brief accounts of what the narratives addresses are included. The **discussion** in **Chapter 7**, is however, related to the findings as a whole. At the end of the discussion, I outline some **implications for academic development**, and suggest a tentative model of how development of teaching can be re-conceptualised to acknowledge the changing higher education arena. At the end of the chapter, the conclusions are summarised.

2 EDUCATION POLICY

At the outset of this project, we identified that more knowledge is needed about how teachers' practices on the micro level may be affected by top-down policy at the macro level. Thus, policy is in the background and teachers are in the foreground.

In the existing literature, the concept of policy is used with various meanings, sometimes explicit and at other times implicit. Policy may be used as a concept referring to formal policy decisions that are implemented from the top-down, for example governmental or university policies (Schmidt, 2008; Trowler, 1998). However, the term policy can also be used when referring to local agreements between colleagues within one department. In a much cited work, Ball (2000) offers two tentative explanations of how to conceptualise policy, policy as *texts*, or policy as *discourse*. He addresses the question of what policy is in the context of sociology in education. Acknowledging policies as *texts*, Ball argues for the changing, interpreting nature of policies (ibid.). Hence, policies are not closed products and their meanings will be re-shaped with the shifting power of different interpreters. Policies as *discourse* place the language of policy decisions and policy construction at the centre, to assert possibilities for thought. Ball explains further, 'Discourses are about what can be said, and thought, but also- about who can speak, when, where and with what authority' (Ball, 2000 p. 1836). Thus, discourses state what truth is within a historical, cultural, and social context. For example, in discussing different discourses of competence; Whitehead and Hodges define 'discourses of competence as: all of the current linguistic (speech and text), behavioural (performance and appearance) and material (architectural, institutional) representations of what it is to be a competent professional at a particular time in history or in a particular place.' (Whitehead et al., 2013 p. 124-125).

In this thesis summary, I will make a distinction between top-down policy and local policy. Both 'types of' policies can be communicated via formal documents or/and via speech (text and discourse). Policy decisions that are implemented in a top-down way, and communicated via policy documents are here referred to with reference to the policymaker, for example 'governmental policy' or 'university policy'. When a flora of documented policy decisions are referenced, the term reform will be used, such as the European Bologna reform. Moreover, formal policy decisions are considered as constructions that are remade, transformed, and translated (Baldwin, 2013; Lindberg-Sand, 2012; Neave & Veiga, 2013). Thus, policy is here defined as, '*not taken to be an object, a product or an outcome, but rather a process, something on-going, interactional and unstable'* (Ball, 2013 p.8).

SOCIETAL CHANGES AND EDUCATION REFORM

Policy in higher education is not separate from changes in society at large. A study concerned with how policy diffuses into teaching practice should therefore be careful in making causal connections such as, first came the policy and then we noticed change (King, 2004). Rather, governing policy decisions reinforce and fortify prevailing ideas within the society, and the views of those in power (Trowler, 2004; Witte, 2006). However, the dual influence on policy decisions, such as the idea that academics within HE institutions act as negotiators that transform a governing policy, is outside the scope of this thesis.

The changes of particular interest in this thesis relate to the introduction of standardised regulatory systems that may affect the daily choices that teachers in higher education (HE) make related to teaching and learning. Such systems may be tangible in the form of administrative IT applications or managerial processes for reporting activities or financial matters. Systems can also be regarded as artefacts reflecting intangible values and discourses. Based on the scholarly debate around changes in the purpose and organisation of higher education (HE), regulatory systems seem to have limited academics' freedom to govern and make choices related to their professional activities (Ball, 2013; Bleiklie, 1998; King, 2010; Marginson, 2008; Marginson & Rhoades, 2002; Neave & Veiga, 2013; Stensaker, 2000; Teelken, 2011). Connected to ideals of rationality and effectiveness and the ideas that HE education should be fit for purpose, managerial principles referred to as New Public Management (NPM), which stem from the private sector, collide with traditional ideals of academic freedom and autonomy (Ball, 2013; Bleiklie, 1998; Teelken, 2011). Furthermore, indicators of key performances measured through audit processes and quality control (QA) are in place to assure the public that HE accomplishes for their trusted mission to engage in knowledge enhancement through education (Haapakorpi, 2011; King, 2004; Stensaker, 2000).

As a consequence of the changed conditions in HE, academics are assumed to have increased administrative workloads and less time for innovation and development (Leibowitz et al., 2015; Teelken, 2011). In relation to teaching and learning (T&L) the pressure on increased standardisation and transparency indicates that teachers have less freedom to act as autonomous decision makers (Altbach, 2001; Hodge & Benko, 2014). The policies regarding standards and accountability are widespread within higher education worldwide (Carraccio & Englander, 2013), including the call for clear and common frameworks for the outcome of student learning. Stensaker (2006) stressed how strengthening of the administrative functions within higher education institutions are related to the bureaucratic organisation ideal. Investigating how organisational ideals stemming from governmental policies were manifested within higher education institutions in Norway, he however found that the *bureaucratic*, *professional* and *entrepreneurial* ideals existed simultaneously (ibid.).

The Bologna reform

In line with global reform, the European Bologna process (1999-2010) aimed to harmonise the higher education systems in Europe to increase the competitiveness of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) and the possibilities for student mobility. The Bologna process, named after the Italian city Bologna where The Bologna Declaration was formalised, will here be referred to as the Bologna reform[2]. The reform process concerned changes that can be described as movements in two directions:

- structural changes such as a common degree system in three-cycles (bachelor, master and PhD), and a shared system for credit transfer, the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), and a uniform system for quality assurance

- an emphasis on learner-centred curricula through the adoption of outcome-based education and intended learning outcomes.

In this thesis project the latter is addressed. The Bologna reform came with strong expectations for increased student-centred curricula and increased values and support for lifelong learning (Lindberg-Sand, 2012). The move 'from teaching to learning' was expressed as a paradigm shift and raised hopes of alignment within and between curricula (Baldwin, 2013; Lindberg-Sand, 2012). The central tenet of the new curricula system was that the intended learning outcomes expressed in international frameworks and in institutional curricula would correspond to the achievements of the students. Intended learning outcomes were described as '*statements of what a learner is expected to know, understand and/or be able to do at the end of a period of learning´* (Bologna Working Group 2005 p. 29). However no single agreement on the level of detail of a learning outcome was reached. For example, if learning outcomes should describe a minimum threshold level, or if they should describe the standards of a more successful learning. Furthermore, different ways to describe intended learning outcomes were adopted, for example as integrated competencies, or phrased in accordance with the suggested framework, as *Knowledge and understanding, Competence and skills, and Judgement and approach* (Swedish National Agency for Higher Education 2011; Bologna Working Group 2005; Harden, 2002b; Weurlander, 2006b).

Outcome-based education

The primary implication of the Bologna reform for teachers working at the course level was the introduction of outcome-based education (OBE). Employing OBE means that curriculum design starts by defining the final learning outcomes of the graduate, and then base decisions on content, learning activities, and assessment on the end goal (Harden, 1999a). In health professions education OBE and the equivalent competency-based (medical) education (CBE/CBME) have gained much attention and raised expectations on student-centred curricula. For example, in a series of practice-oriented papers ('how to do it') near the millennium shift, Harden introduced OBE as an appealing framework to reform medical

[2] An historical overview is provided at the EHEA official website: http://www.ehea.info/article-details.aspx?ArticleId=3

education (Harden, 2002a; Harden, 1999a; Harden, 1999b, 2002b). He compared learning outcomes with objectives and emphasised that OBE opens up for more flexible curriculum development since it is easier to agree upon broad statements than detailed specifications of performance (Harden, 2002b). According to Harden (1999) OBE has roots in the American school-system where it was introduced as a way to individualise the curriculum for disabled children (McNeir, 1993; Spady, 1988). By identifying 'possible capabilities' for each child the training could be individualised and based on the expected outcomes of learning. The ideal application of OBE would thus be greater flexibility and opportunities to individualise curriculum (Frenk et al., 2010; Hodges, 2010). In contrast to time-based curriculum, each student should have the possibility to train and practice until the necessary abilities are achieved (Hodges, 2010).

Mörcke et al. (2012) traced OBE further back, to the ideas of behaviourism in the early 1900s. At the time, research on human learning was made mainly on animals in experimental situations. Skinner and Pavlov, the main representatives for the behaviouristic perspective studied the behaviour of for example rats, pigeons, and dogs, and with emphasis on how to influence learning in the form of stimuli-response (Durkin, 1995). Hence, only observed behaviour could be used to explain the outcome of learning. An educational rationale based on behaviouristic ideas would thus focus on how teachers can provoke, or through various activities 'bring on' the intended learning as visible through the performances of the learner. The critique on OBE thus entails how teachers may be prone to understand and practice T&L with this somewhat instrumental view. Furthermore, when measurable skills performances are overemphasised, other aspects of learning such as metacognitive reasoning or ethical values may be ignored (Grant, 1999; Morcke et al., 2012; Talbot, 2004).

In conjunction with the introduction of outcome and competency approaches, the definitions of competence, competencies and, competency have been discussed. Likewise, the consequences of such approaches has been the topic of debate (Hodges, 2006; Hodges, 2010; Morcke et al., 2012; Mortaz Hejri & Jalili, 2013; Taber et al., 2010; Talbot, 2004; Whitehead et al., 2011; Whitehead et al., 2012). At the heart of the debate is how statements of intended learning should be expressed, and if employing standardised predefined descriptions of competency limits the assessment of complex capabilities necessary in professional work. Whilst some argue that OBE lead to detailed descriptions of small pieces of performance (Talbot, 2004), others are concerned that the descriptions are too broad to be meaningful (Norman, 2006). Harden (2002b) compared learning outcomes with objectives and argued that an advantage with OBE is the interrelationship of learning outcomes where metacompetences are recognised, whilst objectives are classified into the discrete areas: knowledge, skills and attitudes. Hence, with reference to the debate, whether OBE is linked to student learning is a matter of how it is practiced (Harden, 2002b). For example, Mörcke et al (2013), discussed the impact of competency framework introduced for physicians in Canada and concluded that 'The secret of its success may be that it leaves the scope for local interpretation '[…]. But therein lies a big problem of competency-based education. What is gained in generalizability is lost in specificity' (Morcke et al., 2013 p. 867).

In the current thesis the term competency will be used correspondent to the definition offered by Frenk et al (2010), because it much resemble the idea of how intended learning outcomes were employed in the context of the current studies. Competency is,

> An observable ability of a health professional, integrating multiple components such as knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes. Since competencies are observable, they can be measured and assessed to ensure their acquisition. Competencies can be assembled like building blocks to facilitate progressive development (Frank et al., 2010 p. 641).

Although OBE were thought to increase student responsibility in learning (Harden, 2002b), it is also connected to increase of transparency, accountability, and quality control (Talbot, 2004).

ACADEMIC FREEDOM

Academic freedom is known to be a core value of university life (Altbach, 2001; Åkerlind, 2005). The idea of academic freedom relates to idealist traditions stemming from the German higher education reformist Wilhelm von Humboldt (Bleiklie, 1998). In the early 1800s, values of academic freedom in science and education were brought forward as the fundamental principles of the modern university. Only by self-regulation and academic freedom would the growing intellectual communities and forming disciplines take on the role of developing methodologies and procedures that would lead to scientific progress (King, 2004). Knowledge creation would therefore be the main purpose of higher education institutions, irrespective of the societies specific needs for workforce (Bleiklie, 1998; King, 2004). In the literature, freedom in academic work are used in diverse ways and sometimes connected only to research with the idea that teaching belongs to activities outside the protected sphere of academic freedom. However, with reference to the historic roots and the global context, the concept of academic freedom used here refers to all areas of academic life, including teaching, learning, and research (Altbach, 2001; Bleiklie, 1998; King, 2004). In particular, the focus of this thesis is academic freedom related to teachers' opportunity to have input on the planning and delivery of education (Altbach, 2001; Edwards et al., 2014). Academic freedom and autonomy is thus closely related.

Reforms aimed at standardisation and strengthened quality control suggest that teachers' freedom as independent decision makers in regards to curriculum and instructional methods has decreased (Altbach, 2001). This reduced freedom has been noticed for a few decades:

> A related issue, not usually discussed in the context of academic freedom, is the growth of what some have called "managerialism" in higher education – the notable increase in the power of administrators and other officials as distinct from the authority of the professoriate in the governance and management of academic institutions. Academic freedom and autonomy are related, and these trends in governance reduce the autonomy and power of the professoriate. (Altbach, 2001 p. 216)

Autonomy is also connected to self-directed learning and to moral and social responsibility. As such autonomy is not only about freedom to make decisions, but to do so in regards to socially accepted norms based on knowledge (Silén, 2003).

RESEARCH ON POLICY AND TEACHING PRACTICE

There are some commonalities in the literature on academics and educational change. First, academics rarely respond to educational change or reform (Mårtensson et al., 2011; Trowler, 1997). Second, changes may be reported 'on paper' without any significant change of practice. Harden (2007) refers to 'the peacocks', Teelken (2011) refers to 'symbolic compliance', and others refer to change of rhetoric without visible change of practice (Mårtensson et al., 2011). Third, cultural values enacted within disciplines or local departments on how education shall best be organised and pursued often override new and 'different' values (Trowler & Cooper, 2002).

As the impact of policy has become an increased concern for academics, studies have focused on the level of success in implementation, or how resistance and change within academic organisations can be managed (Harden, 2007; Newton, 2003; Åkerlind, 2005). Understanding policy implications also means that the contested, negotiated, and reconstructed nature of policy needs to be taken into account. Debating the managerialist approach in which policy implementation is regarded as a linear process, Fanghanel (2007) emphasised the meaning-making process of academics when policy is implemented. In that respect, Fullan (2007) argued that academics' experiences related to change has been ignored, which, in part, explains the lack of visible success in HE. Trowler (1997, 1998), argued against the view visible in research where academics are seen as rather passive recipients that either comply or resist when policies are introduced. He also stressed the importance of acknowledging local values that reign within departmental contexts; for example in understanding the effect of policies regarding teachers' obligatory participation in faculty development (Trowler, 1997; Trowler & Bamber, 2005). This thesis project is based on the assumption that the outcomes related to policy are both intended and unintended, and the processes of change are intertwined, often messy and multidimensional, hence there is a gap between policy as intended by policy-makers and policies in practice (Ball, 2000; Dahl et al., 2009; Jones, 2013).

The connection between teachers in HE and education policy (/reform) yields studies from multiple perspectives, for example the governing from macro perspectives such as the sociology of education, or from a political science perspective, whilst other studies focus on organisational perspectives or management issues at the meso level (Baldwin, 2013; Ball, 2000; Fanghanel, 2007; Jones, 2013; Marginson, 2008; Mårtensson, 2014; Roxå, 2014; Teelken, 2011). Åkerlind (2005) argued that the existing studies, at the time, on academics and their work have primarily been conducted from sociological perspectives and were focused on academics' attitudes and values, whilst few studies focuses on teachers' experienced meaning. Svensson and Wihlborg (2010) argued that there is a need for research on how internationalisation in HE is enacted, and that few studies inform on the pedagogical implications at curricula level. My understanding too is that much research have been conducted from macro or meso perspectives. Thus, much attention have been paid to political, economic, organisational, or social structures, in relation to policy in HE. Too little, is however known from the viewpoint of teachers and concerning teaching and learning. In this thesis, the focus lies on policy as interpreted and enacted by teachers (Trowler & Bamber, 2005).

3 TOWARDS A PROFESSIONALISATION OF TEACHERS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

As the research on students' learning has opened new understandings of what good teachers in academia should be capable of, the role of being a teacher and the expected capabilities have changed (Ross, 2012; Stenfors-Hayes, 2011). Standards for teaching and learning have been implemented and reinforced via national or institutional frameworks and connected to tenures and promotions (Leibowitz et al., 2015; Prosser et al., 2006; Ryegård et al., 2010; Stenfors-Hayes et al., 2010).

Teachers in higher education refers to professionals with various obligations, including designing courses, lecturing, mentoring, supervising, and tutoring (Crosby, 2000; Stenfors-Hayes et al., 2011). Within the literature, different terms are used to refer to staff with teaching obligations, for example teachers, educators, faculty, supervisors, academic teachers or academics (Samuelowicz & Bain, 2001a; Stenfors-Hayes, 2011). None of these terms are likely to correspond with the identity of everyone with teaching obligations in HE; however, I will use the terms interchangeably when referring to *persons with formal responsibility to teach students enrolled in higher education.* This means that supervisors in clinical practice are included in the scope of this thesis project, and that teaching within vocational training or postgraduate clinical training are outside of the scope. Considering the dynamic and multifaceted nature of university life (Kreber, 2009; Ryan, 2004; Trowler, 2008), it is reasonable to assume that from a pedagogical perspective many aspects of teaching in HE will apply to teaching at all levels related to higher education institutions. Included in the scope of this thesis is the obligations and activities that teachers perform related to teaching and learning. The term teaching will be used to refer to *the planning and delivery of teaching, and the assessment and evaluation of learning*. To distinguish activities performed to plan and evaluate whole study programmes or the idea of education/educating (bildung) from activities related to teaching, I use the terms pedagogy[3] and, teaching and learning (T&L) interchangeably.

STUDIES ON TEACHERS LEARNING

Since the early 1990's researchers have taken a growing interest in the study of university teachers' development from their perspective (Postareff et al., 2008; Åkerlind, 2007). These studies have covered the range of meanings that teaching holds for teachers, but they have also investigated teachers' views, intentions, understandings and approaches to, and the relationship between these concepts, and between teaching and learning (Kember, 1997; Kember & Gow, 1994; Martin et al., 2000; Murray & Macdonald, 1997; Norton et al., 2005; Pratt, 1992, 1997; Prosser & Trigwell, 1997; Ross, 2012; Samuelowicz & Bain, 2001a; Stenfors-Hayes, 2011; Åkerlind, 2005; Åkerlind, 2004b).

The studies vary in ontological and epistemological approaches and use both qualitative and quantitative methods; hence conceptions and views are defined in different ways. One

[3] In Swedish the term pedagogy equates didaktik. However, the term didactics has a different connotation in Anglo-Saxon English. See eg. www.ne.se, or (Uljens, 1997).

influential research field comprises phenomenographic studies intended to explore teachers' breadth of awareness regarding teaching and learning (McKenzie, 2003; Stenfors-Hayes et al., 2011, 2012; Trigwell & Prosser, 1996; Åkerlind, 2003). Conceptual development has also been investigated from a cognitivist perspective (Kember, 1997; Kember & Gow, 1994; Kember & Kwan, 2000) and these studies point in the same direction as the phenomenographic studies (Samuelowicz & Bain, 2001b). Åkerlind (2007) summarises the two main outcomes of these different studies as the 'teacher-centred' view versus the 'student-centred' view:

- A teacher-centred view is a combined focus on the teacher, the teaching strategies, and the transmission of knowledge from teacher to students.
- A student-centred view is a combined focus on students, their learning and development and conceptual understanding.

In this thesis, the above definitions will be used when referring to teacher-centred versus student-centred views of teaching and learning.

Researchers have also suggested that there is a close relationship between the development of conceptual understanding of the nature of teaching and learning and the development of successful teaching (Martin et al., 2000; Trigwell et al., 1999; Åkerlind, 2004a). Based on empirical investigations, when teachers adopt a student-centred view in their teaching, students' are less likely to adopt a surface approach to their studies (Trigwell et al., 1999). The body of research on teachers' conceptual understanding of teaching and learning is also connected to research on the development of academic teachers. A commonality among studies on teachers' development is the description of how novice teachers tend to focus on their own role and the skills that are connected with teaching (Åkerlind, 2003). Furthermore, novice teachers tend to perceive teaching as instruction, whilst expert teachers relate their teaching to student learning (Kember, 1997; Pratt, 1992). One explanation for this is the development of comfort, confidence, and efficiency of skills related to increased subject knowledge, pedagogical understanding, and years of practice (McKenzie, 2003; Sadler, 2013; Stenfors-Hayes et al., 2012; Åkerlind, 2007). When teachers experience that they 'know their field', they are more likely to feel comfortable with teaching methods that allow for dialogue and students' questions (Sadler, 2013).

Despite the similarities in outcomes of studies regarding teachers' conceptions of teaching and learning (T&L), the interpretation of what teacher-centred and student-centred dimensions means differ in studies with a cognitivist and phenomenographic perspective (Åkerlind, 2007, 2008). From a cognitivist perspective, teachers are seen as having either a teacher-centred or a student-centred view, whilst phenomenography emphasises how teachers become more aware of the different aspects related to T&L and therefore expand their understanding of the phenomenon (Stenfors-Hayes, 2011; Åkerlind, 2008). As a consequence of the latter stance, teachers with broadened views of T&L may sometimes engage in transmission of knowledge, and at other times focus on the conceptual development of their students (Åkerlind, 2003; Åkerlind, 2007). Thus, different studies to different extents, take into account teaching as relational to different contexts and as influenced by for example different academic traditions to which the teacher may belong (Murray & Macdonald, 1997; Prosser et al., 1994).

Moreover, and more recently, scholars have taken an interest in how the emotional aspects of university teaching may affect their approach to teaching. Meanwill and Kleiner (2014) analysed 86 written reflections from teachers who attended a course in pedagogy at some point over a ten-year period (1997-2006). They found that novice teachers within sociology experienced first-time teaching as highly emotional and in conflict with what they had expected. Meanwill and Kleiner suggested that formal support in combination with peering may support teachers to cope with emotional stress and, facilitate novice teachers to develop and keep motivation for teaching (ibid.). Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2011) found that teachers who reported more elaborated and student-centred approaches to teaching also experienced more positive emotions. In conjunction with a pedagogical course, they conducted an interview-based study with 97 teachers in Finland and linked teachers' emotions and confidence with previously findings of teacher profiles.

The outcome of studies on teachers' development point in the same direction concerning their understanding of teaching and learning. Few studies though, have focused on the link between teachers' conceptions of teaching and way of practising. Trigwell and Prosser (1996) found a statistically significant link between teachers' approaches and their choice of teaching strategy, Murray and Macdonald (1997) point to inconsistencies regarding the topic. Although there are variations in findings, several scholars argue that teachers' choice of teaching strategy depends on their intentions related to the specific contexts. Even though this topic is already highly studied, most studies rely on teachers' reports from interviews or surveys and several studies relate to teachers' practices in general (decontextualized). When research moved on from studying teaching strategies to conceptions, a gap was left concerning studies on how teachers enact their approaches in practice related to specific teaching activities.

'A learning perspective'

In this thesis, I argue that learning is contextualised. Thus what is understood as learning and knowledge is located and valid in a historical time and cultural context (Boud & Brew, 2013; Svensson, 1992; Wenger, 2000). Therefore, I have included a short description of what a student-centred orientation, also known as 'a learning perspective' means, in the context of these studies. The basis for the learning perspective is that understanding 'good teaching' has moved 'from teaching to learning' (Lindberg-Sand et al., 2005).

The influence on what a broadened view of student learning means stems from socio-constructivist views on learning, and phenomenographic studies from the early 70s on students' learning and studying from their perspective (Marton & Booth, 2000; Weurlander, 2012). Well-known studies on students' approaches to studying known as the deep, surface, and later the strategic approach, formed the phenomenographic field of research into students' learning (Marton & Booth). Moreover, learning has been described in terms of qualitatively different ways, for example learning more content (quantitative) or learning as understanding a phenomenon in a different way (qualitative) (Biggs, 2003; Säljö, 2003). Qualitative ways of learning described in the form of a taxonomy also relate to what Biggs and Collis found in their Structure of the Observed Learning Outcomes (SOLO[4]) (Biggs, 1996). Together with the

[4] An overview of the verbs included in the SOLO-taxonomy is found in the Appendix.

framework of constructive alignment, Biggs ideas gained influence on what is known as ‘a learning perspective’ within the context of this thesis (Biggs, 2003). The overall assumptions behind ‘a learning perspective’ within the context of educational development can be summarised as follows:

- Students with a deep approach to studying, aiming to construct meaning and understand content are linked to higher quality learning outcomes, than is students who adopt a surface approach by reproducing facts disparate from context and use (Marton & Booth, 2000).

- A learning perspective places the learner as an active agent in constructing knowledge and developing professionally, based on previous experiences (Biggs, 2003). This is also linked to self-directed and life-long learning (Silén, 2003).

- The learners understanding of aims, standards, and expected outcomes are important since it is linked to meaning and thus influences the learners’ motivation, choice of study methods and perceived success during the learning process (Biggs, 2003; Trigwell et al., 1999).

- There is a link between teachers thinking and practicing about teaching and learning, and the ways that students’ pursue their studies. However, this link is not to be viewed as a causal one-one connection since learning is dependent on many aspects such as context and the overall environment, motivation, intentions and pre-understandings (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004; Trigwell et al., 1999).

- Teachers that adopt ‘a learning perspective’ are more likely to choose instructional methods and teach in accordance with how they believe students experience challenges related to a specific topic, if the teacher finds that such an approach is suitable and possible in relation to resources and the overall teaching and learning environment (approaches are relational to context) (Norton et al., 2005; Trigwell et al., 1999).

The above summary is based on my understanding of what a learning perspective means in the context of educational development at Karolinska Institutet, and as part of a broader community of educational development within HE in Sweden (Bolander-Laksov, 2007; Lindberg-Sand et al., 2005; Mårtensson et al., 2011) Undoubtedly, scholars may debate regarding what aspects to include in such a summary. Given the nature of research, particularly its multifaceted nature in terms of disciplines, epistemologies, and definitions of learning, several of the aspects mentioned above can be debated. For example, from a more post-positivist tradition the view that knowledge is constructed, thus emphasising the importance of the learner to be actively engaging with ‘the content’. Furthermore, not all scholars agree that the learning perspective described above is beneficial. Biesta (2012) for example, argues that the ‘learnification’ has made teachers peripheral and that it alienates learning from content and direction. He makes a distinction between learning and education based on the framing of purpose involved in educational practices (ibid.).

Student-centred methods

Student-centred methods have a long tradition within health professions' education. In particular, the growth of problem-based learning (PBL), and the philosophy behind, gave grounds for research on self-directed learning and student responsibility (Dolmans et al., 2005; Norman & Schmidt, 2000; Silén, 2000; Spencer & Jordan, 1999). Harden (1984) emphasises that, in a student-centred curricula, the students need to take greater responsibility for their learning and thus have more freedom of choice during the learning process. For example, students' should, under the guidance of the teacher, have the opportunity to choose their own learning objectives, learning resources, and time of assessment (Harden et al., 1984). Furthermore, Harden (ibid.) argues that the advantages include increased student motivation, preparation for lifelong learning, and an emphasis on the central mission of education, since the students' learning is the primary focus rather than what is taught by teachers. However, the down sides of such an approach may be that students might resist having to take more responsibility for their learning and thus experience that demands are higher (Harden et al., 1984). In addition, a student-centred approach means that teachers need to adapt their roles, which may include changing to unfamiliar teaching methods. Providing lectures may also be less resource-demanding since student-centeredness requires thorough preparation beforehand (Harden et al., 1984). Hence, teachers may resist a change towards student-centred teaching for a variety of reasons.

ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT

Organised activities to support and drive the development of teachers in HE began in the 60s and 70s (Gibbs, 2013; McLean et al., 2008). Since then, the scope of such activities has expanded and the terms have changed. In the literature, several terms referring to the same kind of activities can be found, such *as teacher training, educational development, staff development, faculty development, academic development, professional development,* and *instructional development* (Leslie et al., 2013; McLean et al., 2008; Steinert et al., 2006). The use and definitions of these concepts vary mainly in terms of focus regarding the scope of personal and professional development, and are more or less inclusive of the different aspects of academic life, such as educational, administrative, organisational, research, and clinical development. In Sweden, the common term for activities organised within central units is educational development (Lindberg-Sand et al., 2005; Mårtensson, 2014).

In this thesis, the following terms will be used:

- *Educational development* refers to activities that are performed in practice, often by teachers.
- *Faculty development* refers to organised activities for the development of individuals and groups or/communities for the purpose of development of teaching and learning (at all levels) and the role of being a teacher.
- *Academic development* refers to the development of a broad spectrum of activities related to teaching and scholarly work such as pursuing research within the respective subject.

The body of research that has guided different initiatives for the development of teachers has emphasised the development of conceptual understanding (as accounted for above) and the engagement in reflection as a mean for professional development (Argyris & Schön, 1974; Kolb, 1984; Schön, 1983). Reflection has been one way to link theory and practice and to emphasise the importance of testing new ways of teaching (Kolb, 1984). Although pedagogical courses have been missioned to stimulate both reflection and conceptual understanding, activities have mainly focussed on the development of teachers at the individual level, apart from their local contexts (Boud & Brew, 2013; Laksov et al., 2008; Mårtensson et al., 2011). The need for a holistic perspective on academics' roles and contexts has been identified for both research and practice (Bolander-Laksov, 2007; O'Sullivan & Irby, 2011; Åkerlind, 2005).

A holistic perspective of academic development was suggested by Boyer (1990), who argued that academics' development includes both their development as educators and as researchers. To increase the value of teaching within universities, he proposed the same scholarly approach to teaching as practiced in research (Boyer, 1990). A more current view of the scholarship of teaching is that its purpose is to enhance both student and teacher learning (Brew & Ginns, 2008; Trigwell & Shale, 2004). Trigwell and Shale (2004) proposed a model of the scholarship of teaching as an activity that includes three components: knowledge, practice, and outcome. These three components contribute to what might be made public for peer scrutiny and together create the idea of scholarship of teaching and learning, which is central in today's debate in higher education on how to promote better education (Trigwell & Shale, 2004). Looking back, faculty development has expanded the scope and therefore the activities meant to drive progress. McLean et al. (2008) gave a historic perspective on how faculty development has evolved from the mid-70s within the field of medical education. Their résumé coincides with the reflections given by Gibbs (2013) on the past 40 years of faculty development[5] within HE across disciplines. The changes are summarised in the following table:

Table 1: *Changes in scope regarding faculty development*

Past time	Present and future	
Classroom	Learning environment	
Individual teachers	Course teams, departments and leadership of teaching	
Teaching	Learning	
Small, single separate tactics	Large, complex, integrated, aligned, multiple tactics	
Change tactics	Change strategies	
Quality assurance	Quality enhancement	
Fine-tuning of current practice	Transforming practice in new directions	
Conceptual: psychological	Conceptual: sociological	
Atheoretical	Theoretical	
Experiential and reflective	Conceptual and empirical	
Unscholarly	Scholarly	
Organisationally peripheral	Central	
Context neutral	Context- and discipline-sensitive	(Gibbs, 2013)

[5] Gibbs uses the term educational development.

Thus, with broadened perspectives on what faculty development aims at, the impact of different activities is hard to evaluate in the short term. Research on educational development initiatives would benefit from further studies of outcomes (Mårtensson, 2014; Steinert et al., 2006). Deepened understanding of faculty development initiatives as a phenomenon in itself is however outside the scope of this thesis, although the findings may inform the practice of educational development.

PRACTICE AND RESEARCH ON LEARNING AND TEACHING

The body of research on teachers learning and development can be categorised based on their theoretical and methodological approach, for example emphasising behavioural, cognitive or social aspects of what it means to teach and to learn (Bleakley, 2011; Durkin, 1995). This way of categorising studies on *teachers learning* follows the trends in research concerning *teaching* and *students' learning*. With a natural delay, these different perspectives have become influential discourses within school-systems across ages and in faculty development initiatives (McLean et al., 2008; Säljö, 2003). Different theories are based on different epistemologies and therefore emphasise various aspects of teaching and learning. The major perspectives are behaviourism, cognitivism, and social learning theories (Bleakley, 2011; Dornan, 2011; Durkin, 1995; Mann, 2011). I have chosen to include phenomenographic studies and models of reflection as theoretical strands 'between cognitive and social theories' because of their particular impact on research and practice regarding teachers learning in higher education. An overview of how different studies can be categorised clarifies how the concept of teaching, and in many ways the teachers' role, is viewed.

Table 2: *Influential perspectives in research and practice on teaching and learning*

Theoretical perspective	Learning is emphasised as	Focus in faculty development
Behavioural theories	Skills performances	Presentation skills
Cognitive theories	Cognitive processing	Scaffolding mental models
Variation theory, Phenomenography	Conceptual change	Views on teaching-learning
Theories on professionalism	Reflection and practice	Reflection on real-life experiences
Social learning theories	Contextual communities	Participation and meaning in practice

Learning is a complex phenomenon and while scholars debate about how the nature of learning should best be described, researchers also emphasise the value of drawing upon a diverse range of learning theories (Bleakley, 2011; Illeris, 2009; Wenger, 2008). Illeris (2009) sketched a comprehensive framework of learning in which he include a broad understanding of the processes of learning and the conditions involved during learning. He proposed the following definition of learning: "[…] as *any process that in living organisms leads to permanent capacity change and which is not solely due to biological maturation or ageing*" (Illeris, 2009 p. 7). However, I argue that learning need not to be permanent and can be related to capacities in specific contexts, or what is learned once can also be unlearned. Lave argues that decontextualized views on learning are incompatible with an understanding that learning is

situated. She proposes that there is no such thing as learning in itself, rather "changing participation in the culturally designed settings of everyday life" (Lave, 2009 p. 201). Therefore learning and participating in everyday life are two of a kind. However, the nature of learning involves aspects that can be described and studied at social and individual levels of analysis (Wenger, 2009). Examples include changes in the neural network of the brain (cerebral cortex), a different way of thinking about the world as in conceptual understanding, and changed behaviour within a group or in an organisation. The eclecticism in research on learning is criticised, but the multiplicity of theoretical perspectives, is also thought to enrich a diverse practice of learning in the health professionals (Bleakley, 2011; Dornan, 2011).

Less than 20 years ago Sfard (1998) directed attention to how strongly the discourse of individual acquisition of knowledge has influenced research and practice on learning (Sfard, 1998). She used the metaphors of 'acquisition of knowledge' versus 'participation' to illustrate different views on the nature of learning. As shown previously, the body of literature focusing individual learning has guided institutional efforts for teachers to acquire knowledge on an individual basis. However, with awareness that departmental cultures influence teachers' daily choices and the increased influence from top-down policy, it seems as though the dominate discourse of academic development is not enough for significant improvements in educational practice to occur. There is also a need for development within the context where university teachers work (Bolander-Laksov, 2007; Boud & Brew, 2013; Wilkerson & Irby, 1998). Therefore, in this thesis project, I have adopted a sociocultural perspective (Bleakley, 2011; Svensson, 1992; Trowler, 2008; Wenger, 2008), which means that 'being knowledgeable' can only be determined in interactions with others and based on valued enterprises (Wenger, 2000).

COMMUNITIES OF PRACTICE AS A THEORY OF LEARNING

Based on work together with Lave (Lave & Wenger, 1991), Wenger proposes a social theory on learning as the participation in communities of practice (Wenger, 2008). Wenger (2009) base his social theory of learning on four sets of assumptions:

- Humans are social beings
- Knowledge is about competence in relation to valued enterprises
- Knowing is about active participation in the respective enterprises
- Learning is about creating meaning of experiences

The primary idea is that we learn by actively participating in different social settings where we experience belonging (the communities of practice), or the desire to belong. Within a CoP the members are informally bound together and are mutually engaging in their joint practice. The members identify themselves with the CoPs' expertise and take part in employing and creating the artefacts that signifies them. These artefacts articulate belonging and distinguish one CoP from another, for example the explicit markers such as the stethoscope for physicians or the truncheon for the police. Boundary markers also include the special language – the genre, and joint stories about being and becoming a member of the CoP. The resources developed within a CoP reflect the nature of the community and the shared and individual identity of its members. Identity, membership, and thus belonging, are reinforced via common norms and shared ways of handling problems (Wenger, 2000; Wenger, 2008; Wenger et al., 2002).

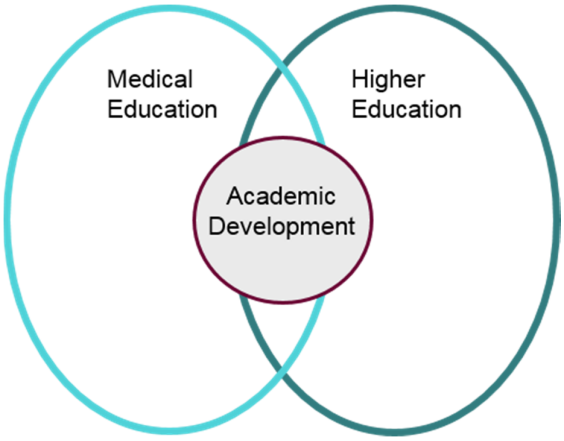
Wenger stresses that members within a CoP interact and learn together (Wenger, 2000; Wenger, 2008). Learning is thus described in terms of what it means to participate in the practices of different communities. Knowledge is shared between members and constantly (re)created through negotiations. Because individuals take part in several CoPs, new ideas and knowledge are also brought into the community. New members move from being in the periphery into the centre of the community by taking part in 'daily' practice and utilise the language and artefacts that signifies the CoP (ibid.).

Community of practices are not static entities. Within a CoP we constantly negotiate meaning, which (re)creates our experiences and our identity. Wenger (2009) suggested that learning involves the following set of components : *practice* (doing), *community* (belonging), *identity* (becoming) and *meaning* (experience). Furthermore, he argued that engaging in practice always involves the whole person and therefore acting and knowing cannot be separated (Wenger, 2008). The community forms its identity around the shared domain of interest. The domain may be something valued and recognised as expertise by society, such as a health profession, but it may also be something more loosely defined, for example a youth gang. Furthermore, Wenger distinguishes CoPs from working groups or colleagues at a workplace by emphasising the voluntary and engaging nature of a CoP that goes beyond performing a task together (Wenger & Snyder, 2000) .

The property of a community is the three dimensions of practice: shared repertoire, a joint enterprise and, mutual engagement. The joint enterprise is signified by the negotiated response to various situations, for example institutional influences. Negotiations among members create a mutual accountability that include what is appropriate to do, how to act, and when and what developments that should be pursued. When members interact and negotiate, meaning is created. Meaning is negotiated through what Wenger (2008) referred to as a process of *participation* and *reification* ('objectification'). Reification is the production of tangible or intangible objects, for example the norms and rules, or the specific procedures that symbolise the shared understanding (knowledge) within a CoP. Balance between participating and reification is crucial to create meaning, according to Wenger. If reifications, for example policy, are posed upon members within a CoP, without allowing for negotiation and participation, then the matter at hand will likely be less meaningful to the members. With Wenger's words, 'reification must be re-appropriated into a local process in order to become meaningful' (Wenger, 2008 p. 60).

POSITIONING OF THE PROJECT

This thesis is positioned to inform the field of research into academic development within the overlapping area of medical education and higher education. Medical education is here defined broadly to include education within the health sciences. Changes within the higher education arena, in particular demands for transparency and standardisations emphasised through policy, constitute the background of the present studies, and teachers' experienced meaning related to changes in teaching and learning is at the core.



Rationales of studies

Based on the identified need for broadened perspectives on how teachers go about change and development, over time and related to their daily context (Rotgans, 2012; Steinert, 2000; Steinert et al., 2006; Wilkerson & Irby, 1998), more knowledge is needed about,

- Teachers' learning processes and activities in consideration of education reforms
- Teachers' choices related to teaching and learning, considering their *local context*
- Teachers' enactment of education policy, based on the study of teachers *reasoning* and *acting* in relation to specific teaching activities
- *How* teachers engage in policy enactment, as a messy and dynamic process
- How teachers enact standardised outcome-based frameworks

Enactment is defined here as a meaning-making process shown through both reasoning and acting. Teachers' development is regarded as a *change* in reasoning, practice, and experience with a movement towards what the person(s) that develops regards as desirable. Thus, development is made with the intention of improving something. Policy is used as a wide term that includes governmental regulations and local agreements. The policies discussed in this thesis are exclusively about education matters.

4 AIM

The point of departure for this thesis project was that conditions for teaching and learning within health sciences education are changing and that reforms are expected to influence teachers' choices and activities related to teaching and learning.

The overall aim of this thesis project is to understand *how teachers within health sciences education enact education policy related to their development of teaching and learning.*

This overarching aim was explored in two projects, addressed in four studies with the following specific aims and research questions:

Project 1

- To, understand how teachers in health sciences education translate outcome-based education into practice?
    - How do teachers understand outcome-based education?
    - How do they use outcome-based education to design courses?
- To, illuminate how educational policy is enacted by academic teachers?

Project 2

- To, explore how a community of teachers enact education policy related to the development of teaching and learning.
- To, understand how teachers within the health professions enact assessment criteria for students' clinical competencies.

5 METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

In this thesis project human action and meaning is at the fore. In the early 1900s William Thomas stated that: "If a situation is defined as real, it will be real to its consequences" (Svensson, 1992). Such an assumption underlies the current thesis project, and consequently I regard the understanding of human meaning-making and lived experiences as essential in processes of educational change and development. In that respect, Berwick (2008) draws attention to the need for methods beyond the rationales of experimentalism that will inform about social change in complex social systems such as universities and health care organisations. Based on extensive research on the matter, Fullan (2001) states that educational change is essentially about teachers learning to think and act in a different way. The current thesis builds on the same line of reasoning, which means that the study of enactment involves both *thinking* and *acting*. Like Berwick, I acknowledge the need for multiple methods in the study of social change but I chose the hermeneutic approach since it is suitable for studying how teachers make meaning of policy as shown through their actions, and how they reason. Thus, enactment is here defined as a meaning-making process which is shown in both reasoning and acting (Bruner, 1990).

In this section, I lay out my theoretical underpinnings related to the study of human meaning-making, and present how theory has informed the current investigation. I describe the methods used and the rationale for choices made during the generation of data. The section starts with a description of how hermeneutics has been used as an overall framework to form 'the logic behind the method' and thus provide an answer to some of the fundamental questions on how I have approached the phenomena under study.

A HERMENEUTICAL FRAMEWORK

Hermeneutics can be described as interpretation theory (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003b; Kvale, 1997). The hermeneutic tradition stipulates how human meaning-making can be studied through interpretation of humans' lived experiences, thoughts, feelings, actions and behaviour (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003b p. 293 ff; Gadamer, 1976; Kvale, 1997; Ricoeur, 1993). Linge (Gadamer, 1976) explains how hermeneutics can be applied to "[…] all those situations in which we encounter meanings that are not immediately understandable but require interpretative effort" (Gadamer, 1976 p. xii. editor's introduction). Traditionally, hermeneutics have focussed on individual sense-making with the intent to understand phenomena involving human experience (Allwood & Erikson, 2010; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003b). With an emphasis on the individual and with an attempt to capture the essence of human experience, the phenomenological tradition is widely used within the health sciences for studying phenomena where the lived experiences are at the fore (Edelbring, 2012; Frank & Polkinghorne, 2010; Reeves et al., 2008). The present study seeks to understand teachers' enactment of policy without claiming that there is an essence to such a phenomenon. Rather my position is that enactment of policy should be interpreted with social and cultural meanings in mind. Thus the nature of human meaning-making is viewed as socially constructed (Bruner, 1990; Wenger, 2008). In line with the view of others I see the social world as constructed, as are the understandings of the physical world (Patton, 2002).

Similar to the positivistic view, strands within hermeneutical phenomenology emphasise bracketing of pre-understandings to ensure objectivity in the process of analysis (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003b; Gadamer, 1976). In contrast to traditional phenomenology, the pre-understandings of the researchers in these studies have been used during the research process. Pre-understanding can be described as an individual's horizon of understanding and thus sets the prerequisites for approaching an investigation, for example it limits the choices made during generation of data (Gadamer, 2004). Hence, the purpose of outlining my theoretical foundation is to be transparent with the "horizon of understanding" that underpin these studies.

In line with the reasoning of Gadamer (Allwood & Erikson, 2010; Gadamer, 1976) I view the horizon of understanding as situated in a cultural and historical context, and that theory and discourse make it possible to connect the current research to a wider context. In this respect, a sociocultural perspective means that the uniqueness in the local context is acknowledged. For example, a policy decision may be relevant only within one department at Karolinska Institutet or relevant in Sweden. However, acknowledging the situatedness of teachers' enactment of a particular policy also means that there are aspects of the unique that connect to general trends or discourses valid in a wider part of society, and within a given historical time. Interpretation of the particulars and, at the same time the general aspects can be described as different 'layers' of interpretation, which Geertz refers to as experience-near and experience-distant (Gustavsson, 2000). Engaging in interpretation of human meaning-making means that the process of analysis includes a shift between close readings ('experience-near') and distance of texts ('experience-distant'). In this way, the findings in the current study may echo the experiences of others and thus be transferable to create meaning outside the context studied (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 2002 p. 584).

The current study aims to *understand* the phenomenon at hand; teachers' meaning-making in relation to policy. "To understand" can refer to interpretation of "*what the teachers really mean*" behind the words that are spoken. However, it can also be interpreted as the understanding of "*what the text speaks about*" (Ricoeur, 1993). In this thesis, text material of different character was analysed. Such text material was viewed as fixation of discourse. In line with the reasoning of Ricoeur (1993), the current studies do not focus on teachers' experiences as such, but on what their enactment means or illustrates in the light of prevailing discourse. Understanding thus gets a widened meaning and encompasses explanation of the phenomenon at hand (Ricoeur, 1993; Silén, 2000). Understanding is reached by getting close to the text and explanation by distancing from the text. Explanations of what the text material analysed in this thesis 'speaks about' is given via theory and theoretical concepts. Hence, understanding teachers' enactment of policy also entails explanations of the phenomenon.

"Social inquiry is a distinctive praxis, a kind of activity (like teaching) that in the doing transforms the very theory and aims that guide it" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003b p. 294). An interpretative approach can have different meanings such as interpretation of the transcribed texts during analysis, or interpretation of findings related to theoretical frameworks and previous research. In this thesis, the overall framework for conducting research was hermeneutics. Interpretation of findings was made using different theoretical resources related to the specific aims but with my sociocultural lens in mind.

Theoretical assumptions:

- *Hermeneutics (interpretative),* frames my assumptions behind the different choices during the research process (study I-IV).

- In line with the hermeneutical assumptions, human meaning-making is understood: *in relation to the sociocultural context in which meaning is created and communicated.* (study I-IV)

- Assumptions on how people make meaning: *in enacting, which means acting and reasoning in interaction with the social context.* (study I-IV) Furthermore, meaning is also created by *linking past and future intentions, actions, and desires with the present into a configurative whole (narrative theory)* (study III-IV)

CONTEXT OF STUDIES

The current studies were conducted at Karolinska Institutet (KI), which is a research-intensive university in Sweden offering a variety of study programmes within the health sciences. The study programmes are academic and lead to either a bachelor's or a master's degree, and in addition, clinical training and doctoral education at postgraduate level are offered.

Higher Education in Sweden is governed by the Higher Education Act (1992:1434, 2013:1117) and the supplementary Higher Education Ordinance[6] (SFS, 2006:1053). Each university has the autonomy to design study programmes with their own profile based on overarching qualification descriptors (learning outcomes) stipulated in the higher education ordinance (SFS, 2006:1053). Study programmes are organised into courses that shall be examined and graded, usually these courses are between 5-20 weeks. The universities do not charge student tuition fees[7], however loans offered to Swedish students for the daily expenditures are conditioned in regards to study success. Furthermore, higher education funding are in part based on the number of graduates and the outcome of the quality evaluation performed by the Swedish Higher Education Authority Authority (2014); (Swedish National Agency for Higher Education 2011). The Swedish system for quality assurance is in line with the agreements in the Bologna reform, which means that transparency of quality will be attained by applying OBE.

The Bologna reform resulted in changed legislations and new governmental requirements. In the national policy documents, it was stated that ILOs should be communicated to make the expected learning outcomes of students more transparent. University teachers are, since the reform, required to specify Intended Learning Outcomes (ILOs) for courses, assess students' fulfilment of the ILOs and, and make progression of expected student learning visible through the course syllabuses (Dahl et al., 2009; SFS, 2006:1053). Following the Bologna reform and

[6] Askling (2001) provides an historical overview of the development within the higher education system in Sweden.
[7] Tuition fees are required for students from countries outside the EU/EEA or Switzerland since 2011 (Lindberg-Sand 2012)

an increased demand for transparency, the emphasis on clear assessment criteria were included in national policy documents in Sweden (Swedish National Agency for Higher Education 2008), this was further emphasised in institutional policy at Karolinska Institutet.

Teachers at KI are involved in providing education, conducting research or providing health care, to a greater or lesser extent. For example, some teachers give one or two lectures per year, whilst others teach most of the week. These various obligations are carried out, in general, on campus or within one of the university hospitals. Moreover, supervisors within clinical practice may be situated within primary care or at a rehabilitation centre. The number of teachers involved in one study programme varies between four-five teachers to several hundred teachers of which most work in clinical practice. In addition to teacher positions, teaching may be performed by researchers, health care personnel or doctoral students. As within many universities, it is recognised that teachers often perceive their various obligations as competing and therefore organisational incentives, tenure positions, and career paths considering teaching have been developed.

In Sweden, universities agreed upon national goals (descriptions) that a teacher needs to attain in order to be employed or pursue academic career. These goals are equivalent to ten weeks course participation in faculty development regarding teaching and learning (Lindberg-Sand et al., 2005). At KI, participation in five weeks of faculty development activities are an obligatory requirement to become an assistant or associate professor. Courses of two, three or five weeks are offered, all with written assessments, and in addition some with oral assessments. These requirements apply for researchers and clinicians as well, regardless of time involved in educational matters. Usually, participants in educational courses are about to apply for an associate professorship. For positions with a broader teaching mission, ten weeks of faculty development is required. During the latter five weeks of faculty development, teachers conduct a scholarly project related to pedagogical issues in the local practice. In addition to this, faculty development activities regarding teaching and learning are offered for doctoral students, educational leadership (e.g. study directors), supervisors in clinical practice and doctoral supervisors. Courses in teaching through IT-based learning platforms are also offered.

With the Bologna reform, KI decided to introduce a new grading system with three different levels as the main alternatives: fail/pass/pass with distinction. One study program adopted the 7 ECTS scale and several study programs for the first time introduced multi-level grades, whilst other programmes kept the two-grade scale pass/fail. It was formally stated that all grading scales should be outcome-based (Karolinska Institutet, 2007). At the time of the Bologna-reform and the introduction of OBE, several study programmes restructured and made changes independent of OBE or the Bologna reform. The reforms were sometimes intertwined and implemented simultaneously. In relation to the reform, all program boards (decisional and organisational) participated in WS on how to write ILOs. The ideas of student-centeredness teaching-learning and aligned curricula had already been a part of faculty development courses for several years back. In 2003, the mandatory courses for tenures and promotion were reformed based on constructive alignment and the idea of outcome-based curricula as the central theme.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Based on a belief system that the study of human meaning-making involves interpretation of human experiences, the current studies were performed using qualitative methods. In health sciences education a variety of methods are used. Quantitative and qualitative approaches are sometimes referred to as two different research paradigms, but within health sciences education qualitative methods may be used with a similar logic as within a positivist tradition (Creswell, 2007 p. 15-21; Kuper et al., 2008). In such post-positivistic approaches, qualitative methods are applied to find for example *the* truth or to reveal causal relations. That kind of rationale means that factors such as maintaining objectivity during data collection and analysis, 'non-influence' on study participants, and questions of validity gain importance and guide the choices made (Creswell, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003a). The ambition to pursue the process of investigation in a resembling way as in the natural sciences can also be evident in the format and semantics used to present results from qualitative studies. In this project, I position myself within the hermeneutic tradition, using different sources of data of which I have partly been a co-constructer.

My entry is similar to others who emphasise that qualitative research attempts to elucidate, critically examine or conceptualise qualities of human experience and social life (Creswell, 2007; Frank & Polkinghorne, 2010; Patton, 2002). A particular strength of qualitative studies is the opportunity to present research findings via engaging texts about the human condition or lived experiences that create insights and illuminate the multifaceted nature of social life (Patton, 2002; Saldaña, 2003). Engaging in qualitative analysis means paying attention to the various factors that can help deepen the understanding or explain the social world and individuals' experiences.

SCHEMATIC OVERVIEW OF STUDIES

Overall aim *To, understand how health sciences teachers enact education policy related to their development of teaching and learning.*

	Project 1	**Project 2**
Aim and research questions	**Study I** To, understand how teachers in health sciences education translate outcome-based education into practice. Research questions: ▪ How do teachers understand outcome-based education? ▪ How do teachers use outcome-based education to design courses?	**Study III** To, explore how a community of teachers enact education policy related to the development of teaching and learning.
	Study II To, illuminate how educational policy is enacted by academic teachers	**Study IV** To, understand how teachers within the health professions enact assessment criteria for students' clinical competency
Participants	14 teachers responsible for course design in 14 different study programmes within the health sciences	One group of health professions teachers (9)
Approach and design	Hermeneutic approach to study course design pre and post the introduction of outcome-based education and teachers' reasoning post the reform (the Bologna-reform)	Narrative approach, to study teachers' joint activities related to the development of assessment criteria during one year.
Data	Interview data & course materials ▪ Syllabus, schedule & study guide ▪ Assessment info and examinations ▪ Assessment criteria ▪ Course evaluations ▪ Teacher information ▪ Instructions for learning activities	▪ Field notes and transcripts from observational data ▪ Interview data ▪ Written reflections ▪ Assessment criteria ▪ Syllabuses and curriculum
Unit for analysis	Individuals and courses	Group and context
Analysis	The hermeneutic circle (in part thematic textual analysis and analysis of narratives)	Narrative analysis

Design and data in study I and II

In the first research project, two different aims were in the foreground (study I and II). The first study aimed to investigate how teachers in health sciences education translate outcome-based education into practice. Two more specific research questions were addressed. 1) How do teachers understand outcome-based education? 2) How do teachers use outcome-based education to design courses? In the second study, the aim was to investigate how policy is enacted by academic teachers. To address the above aim and questions; we studied teachers' activities and ways of reasoning related to course design pre and post a governmental reform that resulted in changed policies. For that purpose, we recruited teachers from various health sciences operating in different settings that had to face the new regulations when they designed courses. The sampling was made from one university (Karolinska Institutet) with the rationale that the same institutional policy decisions should apply for all teachers and that the researchers' contextual knowledge was important for interpretation of the meanings related to the teachers' experiences of local policies.

A purposeful sample (Patton, 2002) was made to recruit teachers that were responsible to design courses before and after the reform. The sample was based on criteria concerning differences in courses. We thus assumed that a variety of courses in different fields of study would give access to study teachers with various backgrounds who worked in different contexts, and who designed courses provided by the same university. The sample was made based in the following criteria:

1) *variability of courses*, and for that purpose the sample included all study programmes that provided courses on an undergraduate level before and after the new regulations were implemented,
2) the course should be in the *main field of study* or considered central for the programme,
3) to enable data gathering within the timeframe of the project the restructured courses should be provided during the *first or second semester after the new regulations* were effectuated in July 2007,
4) for courses to be *representative of the range* of studies in the medical and health field, one third of the courses in the sample should include clinical practice. Experts within the different fields were consulted to verify if the subject area was considered central to the program.

Due to our naturalistic approach (studying course providers in the natural setting), some compromises had to be made related to the criteria. In 2007 Karolinska Institutet offered 13 study programs that led to a bachelor's degree and 22 study program that lead to a master's degree (Karolinska Institutet, 2007). We approached all programs that provided undergraduate courses, and one study program that according to the new structure, only had courses at the advanced level (master).

Excluded data

- one study program was excluded from the sample in respect of the program directors' request not to disturb their teachers at that time.

Data was gathered from seventeen different study programs, three of these were excluded from the analysis based on the following:

- two study programs were new and had no pre-reform courses,
- for one course/teacher sufficient data could not be gathered within the time-limit of the project and the course was therefore taken out of the sample

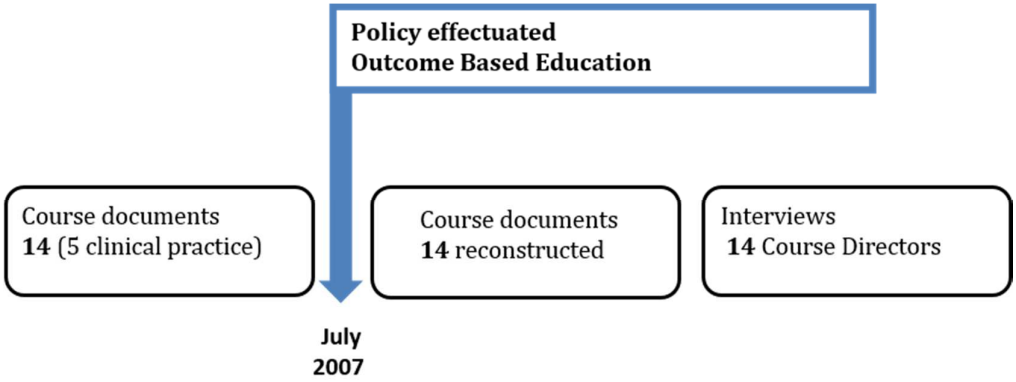
Furthermore, the following compromises related to the criteria and choice of course were made.

- in one study programme, the main field courses were not given within the time frame of our investigation and therefore a more general course in physiology connected to the main field of study was chosen.
- in ne course two different teachers were responsible for the pre- and post-course which meant that one of the teachers was not solely responsible for both designs.

The teachers' experiences related to teaching and course design varied from being responsible for one course previously to being a full time teacher for the past three decades with years of experience of designing courses. Among the teachers, there were eight women and six men with academic positions at different levels. Some of the teachers had studied pedagogy as part of their health professional training, and a few had no pedagogical training. Data was gathered over a period of one and a half year.

The data comprised of interviews and documented course material for the two course rounds; pre and post the reform (2 x 14 courses). With the intention of obtaining a rich understanding of how the teachers designed courses before and after a reform, we gathered all the documentation we could get hold of with the help of the teachers. We excluded material regarding safety instructions (for example in the laboratory) or hygiene policy (in clinical work) since no changes due to the education reform were anticipated. The following material was included in the study: course syllabus, schedule, study guides, information on assessments and examinations (both formative and summative), assessment criteria, course evaluations from students, teacher instructions, reading material created by the teachers and instructions for learning activities such as laboratory training. The course lengths varied, the use of written material differed, and therefore the documented material was different for each course. Course materials were gathered between autumn 2007 and autumn 2008. Complementary documentation was gathered for three courses during 2009. When the second course round was finished an interview was held with each teacher who was responsible for the course design.

Figure 2: *Overview of data generation study I and II*



The interviews were performed by three of the initial project members[8]. I conducted five of the 14 interviews included in the analysis. The interview guide was developed with the overall aims of the study in mind and based on the debate on possible effects of the Bologna process at the time. The following areas were included:

- participants' perceptions of the Bologna reform and how the reform was relevant to their course design, for example to course alignment;
- views on assessment of student learning in general and in relation to their course;
- their work process in relation to the Bologna reform;
- how they reasoned about teaching-learning in relation to their course design;
- their ideas about the whole educational program.

Before the interviews, a first familiarisation of the course material was made. That way, the interview could inform on matters where the researchers identified a lack of written text in the course material. The interview situation was semi-structured and the guide was used in a flexible way (Kvale, 1997). The interviews started by letting the teachers openly describe their course and their responsibilities related to designing the course. During the interviews, the teachers were asked to be specific about their views on the design related to their courses, for example how and why the assessments had been planned and carried out in a certain way. In that way we gained clarifications of how they made sense of and translated policy into practice (enactment). The questions were based on expectations expressed in the debate about the Bologna reform, and in regards to what teachers need to consider when designing courses, e.g. how to assess students (Lindberg-Sand, 2012; McGrath, 2007; Weurlander, 2006a). The questions in the interview guide emphasised change; however in practice, the questions were asked more openly. Only when the teacher did not express any changes in outcomes, assessments or activities, or did not relate anything in the course design to the Bologna process, did the interviewer ask specifically about changes.

[8] Helen Bergström (4), Maria Westerståhl (5) and Linda Barman (5)

Analysis in study I and II

Different strategies can be used in studies where interpretation of texts is performed. According to Bergström and Boréus (2005) textual interpretation can focus on the text: 1) based on the perspective of the *interpreter*, 2) in relation to the "*messenger*", 3) in respect of the *intended receiver*, 4) in relation to the *text and discourse* without paying attention to specific actors. However these different strategies are not completely separate from each other (Bergström & Boréus, 2005; Gustavsson, 2000) and in the current analysis we acknowledged all four of these strategies to some extent. The pre-understandings of the researchers were acknowledged but we attended to what the course materials (as texts) were meant to express from the perspective of the teacher as the "messenger". During the process, we considered that teachers wrote course material to communicate with various target groups, such as students and other teachers, here referred to as the "receiver-perspective". For example, we considered in what ways the teachers expressed intended learning outcomes, or communicated learning activities. We also paid attention to the ways the teachers used educational concepts and to whether the same teacher could apply a concept in different ways, for example "by the book" [as interpreted by us] in documentation but in a different way during the interview. In some cases concepts were used close to policy instructions in parts of the course materials, but taking the written material as a whole into consideration the use of terminology shifted significantly. Hence, the interviews were used to inform the interpretation of the document analysis and vice versa.

The analysis was iterative and consisted of a constant move between parts and the whole, and between course material and interviews. Based on our pre-understandings different questions were in the foreground. As the analysis progressed data was understood in new ways which gave rise to new questions, and in that way the process of interpretation progressed in what can be described as a spiral known as the hermeneutic circle (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003b; Kvale, 1997). The constant move between the whole and the parts, and between interpretation and data reduce the risk of removing meaning from its context (Joffe & Yardley, 2004). Throughout the process of investigation a reflective log (memos) were written (Charmaz, 2006). The memos was used as a written 'memory' and made it possible to return to surprising or interesting issues throughout the analysis, which was particularly important when engaging in the hermeneutical circle.

For the purpose of clarity, the following presentation is made as if the analysis was performed stepwise according to a 'recipe' that in many ways resembles a thematic analysis. The initial approach to the course documents was to perform what can be described as an inductive thematic content analysis in which patterns are recognised (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004b). However, one of the characteristics of qualitative research is that the design may emerge during the analysis (Creswell, 2007). In the current study, we sidestepped from our initial plan mainly due to the varied nature of data.

Content analysis and thematic analysis are described as somewhat different approaches but there is no single agreement on what these two terms mean (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004b; Joffe & Yardley, 2004; Weurlander, 2012). Both forms of analysis can be carried out quantitatively and qualitatively (Bergström & Boréus, 2005; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Joffe & Yardley, 2004). Joffe and Yardley (2004) outline an approach to thematic analysis in which the researchers in a systematic way perform analysis that includes both the

frequency of codes and their contextual meaning. That enables high frequency themes to be explored in more depth (Joffe & Yardley, 2004). In the current investigation, the aim was to reveal a variety of understandings and applications of policy and outcome-based education. Hence, high or low frequencies of meanings were not regarded as criteria of what to include during coding, which means that low frequency meanings were not excluded.

Engaging with the course material, the first step was to create a condensed description of each course (28) before the initial coding and thus interpretation of meanings started. In order to enable a joint analysis of the description of courses and changes made in the pre and post courses (14), and to ensure trustworthiness, we developed a scheme for the analytical coding similar to what Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006) describe as a template of codes for organising the subsequent interpretations.

The coding scheme was supposed to guide and make sure that all researchers had sufficient information on each course when interpretation of meanings started. We based the coding scheme on the matters that teachers need to decide upon during the design of courses: *aims/goals, content, teaching and learning activities, and assessment and examination, and how these parts were aligned* (Biggs, 1999; Biggs, 1996). The course design was regarded as an activity that teachers perform in practice. However, we studied the outcome of the activity 'designing courses', not the process of designing in itself. Thus, for the purpose of guiding our interpretation, the coding schema was also constructed based on the debate at the time on the possible changes could be expected from the introduction of outcome-based education and the Bologna reform (Lindberg-Sand, 2012; Utbildningsdepartementet, 2004). With that as a base and with the intention to first evaluate changes made, the initial interpretations of what the course material meant thus encompassed normative values of 'more or less' in congruence with the theoretical frame. The coding scheme was then revised with a clear distinction of the descriptive parts and interpretation of meanings related to each part, and was related to the course as a whole. Consequently the thematic content analysis was adjusted to the nature of the data and did not follow the pre-defined steps described by Braun and Clarke (2006).

To make sense of scattered data we viewed the courses *as* a coherent narrative told through texts of different characters (Asplund, 1970). We interpreted the course narrative to be the teachers' attempts to orchestrate a 'subject area' (course content) based on their perspective and expertise. The aim of the course was thus to invite students to take part (or even become parts) of that narrative. Each course narrative had a *beginning*, which in this case was the plans of intended learning, *a middle* with activities going on, and an *end* with assessments and evaluations that wrapped up the course (Bruner, 1990). Seeing the courses as narratives enabled us to approach the coding and the use of the outlined coding scheme in a new way. Thus, the change of narrative from the pre-reform courses to the post-reform courses provided an entry to study meaning-making and change.

Based on the same data, first an evaluation of changes made in relation to the Bologna reform was conducted, and then we attended to the research questions included in this thesis. During the evaluation phase, a first analysis of the course material was made by several researchers and discussed jointly. However, I conducted a re-analysis of all changes in the courses based on the specific research questions in this thesis project. Nevertheless, the initial descriptions of each course were used and only a few clarifications were made in order for me to conduct an

analysis according to the hermeneutic circle. The second analysis was discussed with the supervisors.

The analysis of interviews started with a naïve reading before condensation of text (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004b). Initially we attended to the question of 'goals' in a broad sense. Secondly, the material was coded into different meaning-units (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004b). To prevent meaning being taken out of context and the subsequent risk of it being 'misinterpreted' the codes were large chunks of text from the transcribed interviews. As the analysis progressed manifest content was interpreted into abstract themes. This process can be described as follows: 1) condensation of text, 2) identification of meaning units, 3) categorisation (based on manifest) and 4) interpretation of themes (based on manifest and latent interpretations). During this process, different questions were put in the foreground, which resulted in findings presented in study I and II.

The findings in the second study addressed the more general question of how teachers enacted policy. The 'themes' found in our analysis were first seen as different continuums containing teachers' ways of enacting different aspects related to the introduction of outcome-based education. Combining the themes resulted in a pattern of four different approaches. Data was then visited deductively to trace back that the various approaches were grounded in data (Guba & Lincoln, 1982). Lastly, previous research was applied to label the continuum of 'teacher and teaching centred' vs 'student learning centred' and guided the further interpretation. In this way the theoretical perspective further distanced our interpretation in order to also provide an explanation of the phenomenon at hand (Silén, 2000). Lastly, conceptualisations depicting the essential aspects of each approach were made and vignettes were constructed. The rationales of the vignettes were similar to the rationales of using a narrative method, e.g. providing richness and showing the nuances of how people construct meaning, contextualisation and bring forward the complexity in human affairs (Polkinghorne, 1995). The main purpose of the vignettes was to offer the reader meaningful explanations of how teachers reason in relation to how they designed courses related to the introduction of an educational policy.

NARRATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH

In the second project, I used a narrative research approach. The methodological assumptions employed were developed by Ricoeur (1984) and can be described as a hermeneutic understanding of human sense-making. Based on Silén's (2000) interpretation of Ricoeur, narratives represents meaning making in a symbolic way. The central assumption is that humans make meaning of their everyday actions by connecting events from the past with happenings in the present and aspirations for the future. These links thus form a meaningful and configured whole which Mattingly (1998a) refers to as 'a plot'. Within a plot, the different events gain meaning by their contribution to the plot. In such a way, the human experience of time is different from linear or 'physical' time. Narratives re-create experiences and events, and therefore the representation differs from how happenings took place in a physical sense, for example the order of how things occurred in chronological time (Squire, 2013). For example, John may explain that he was able to attend university because he studied hard in high school, but the reason that he failed his first exam was because he had the flu the week before, and therefore was unable to study. From a realist perspective there can be multiple

explanations of the causes in this example, but viewed from the perspective of lived experiences; this is a narrative construction of how a person's world-view is shaped. Thus, employing narrative theory to understand human meaning-making show how the teachers expressed and made sense of their past as it 'presented itself in the present', which implies that the narratives that unfolded were temporal and thus changing.

Mattingly (1998a) draws upon Ricoeur's (1984) notion of narrative time, and proposed the following features as signifying how humans understand present times by remembering times past:

- Narrative time is *configured* around a beginning, middle and an end, and form an unfolding temporal whole.
- Narrative time is structured around human a*ction and motive*
- Narrative time is *organised within a gap* between the present and the movement towards what is desired
- Narratives show how things and people *change over time*
- Narrative time is *dramatic* and contains some sort of conflict
- Endings are *uncertain*

I acknowledged the above features to perform the narrative analysis and to present the findings in the form of a narrative. Narratives were thus used both as an entry to study human meaning making, and to present the findings (to evoke the readers meaning making).

Narrative inquiry is a vast and diverse area (Andrews et al., 2013; Josephsson et al., 2006). Narrative studies include linguistic approaches on stories about events, the understanding of personal experiences as told through various media, and considering bodily experiences (Andrews et al., 2013). Furthermore, narratives may be included to enrich the presentation of findings; in which case the narratives are either narrated by the researchers, or chosen accounts from data (Jones, 2011; Silén, 2000). One way to differentiate between studies within the narrative field is to distinguish between narrative analysis and analysis of narrative data (Bleakley, 2005; Polkinghorne, 1995). In the latter, individuals' stories are gathered (or generated), for example via narrative interviews to perform thematic analysis (Bleakley, 2005; Jones, 2011; McCance et al., 2001). In this project, we adopted a narrative-in-action approach to perform narrative analysis (Alsaker et al., 2009; Josephsson & Alsaker, 2015; Mattingly, 1998a). The narrative-in-action approach was chosen based on the aim of understanding teachers' enactment, and with my socio-cultural lens in mind.

The diversity of the narrative traditions also means that the definition or description of the concept of narrative varies. McCance (2001) analysed the narrative approach relevant for nursing studies and identified Denzin's definition as capturing the relevant issues:

> A `narrative' is a story that tells a sequence of events that are significant for the narrator and his or her audience. A narrative as a story has a plot, a beginning, a middle and an end. It has an internal logic that makes sense to the narrator. A narrative relates events in a temporal, causal sequence. Every narrative describes a sequence of events that have happened. (McCance et al., 2001 p. 352)

The definition above encompasses much of the approach that I have taken in this thesis in that it describes *the structure of a narrative*. However, with the above definition narratives focus on events that happened to the ‘’storyteller’ (study participant). Such an approach ignores aspects of how narratives are connected to the formation of identity (express ‘who we are’), how narratives are re-constructed and may have multiple meanings, and that narratives emerge in the social interaction between the ‘storyteller’ and the ‘listener’ (Squire, 2013). Riessman (2013) refers to narratives as experience-oriented and uses the following description:

> […] the narrative form is a universal form of human sense making. Individuals interpret events and experiences in the stories they construct collaboratively with listeners. As investigator we, in turn, interpret their interpretations, constructing analytical stories from (and ideally with) those we study. (Riessman, 2013 p. 258-259)

Within the narrative field of study, scholars have debated between the event-centred versus the experience-centred form of narratives (Andrews et al., 2013). In this thesis teachers experiences are at the fore, and in this second project (study III and IV) I drew on Mattingly’s (1998a) narrative theory on how meaning is enacted and constructed. The narrative-in action approach has been developed further by Josephsson and Alsaker (2015) in relation to individual sense-making in occupational science and occupational therapy. In this project, we employed a narrative research approach to study shared meaning within a group of teachers and hence the particulars of individual experiences were not considered.

Design and data in study III and IV

The starting point for study III and IV was to investigate further, what we found in study II, and we therefore made a theory-based sample (Patton, 2002 p. 238). The idea was to study a group of teachers that had made major changes in relation to a previous reform, in their local environment. An interview with one of those teachers indicated that a learning-perspective had been adopted within this teacher group. Given that academics are known to resist change from policy (Trowler & Bamber, 2005), this was, from that perspective ‘an interesting and good example’. The investigation was conveniently made when the teachers performed an intervention that we interpreted to be aligned with national policy on transparency of assessment criteria.

The study participants were a group of nine teachers based within the same department at a hospital site and with the responsibility of organising a study programme within the health professions. The teachers were involved in work at the hospital, doing research and teaching students. Their intervention was intended to improve the assessment criteria employed during the final exam of students’ clinical competencies.

Data was generated over one year through various methods. Observational data was generated during meetings throughout the year when the teachers gathered to discuss how to enhance assessment of students’ performances. In between meetings, informal interviews took place (Alsaker et al., 2009). Meetings were tape-recorded and later transcribed, and field notes were taken both during and in close relation to participant observations. A first interpretation of what verbal and non-verbal expressions meant was noted continuously during observations. At the

end of the year an unstructured and exploratory group interview was held with four of the teachers (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003a p.74 ff). The interview started with an open question on what they thought of their work with the assessment criteria. This was followed by the teachers sharing views on what happenings they regarded as important for development of educational matters, and their perceptions of how educational policies mattered. The group interview enabled rich data based on the participants interactions in which the meanings of different events could be elaborated on (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003a p.70-73). To inform the analysis, the teachers' written reflections were gathered on four occasions and documented material such as the assessment criteria and course curricula. The course material were regarded as artefacts symbolising their shared practice.

Analysis in study III and IV

A narrative analysis based on the works of Mattingly (1998a, 1998b) was conducted. Field notes were written out fair during the same day or during the day after the observations. Tape recordings and the group interview were transcribed and the individual accounts were written out fair to be accessed electronically. The unit for analysis was the group hence; we did not consider the teachers' individual differences in meanings. I made an initial reading of the data, before it was mined for significant events and recurring expressions of shared meaning. Significant events are defined by Mattingly (1998a) as events that are considered meaningful and hence we searched for events that the teachers expressed as 'if this had not happened things would have been different'. The data included talks about past events but also expressions of values, feelings and behaviour as well as artefacts with a symbolic value related to the research question. The narrative analysis allows consideration of how their prevailing discourse is expressed in their everyday enactment and how this discourse has evolved over time (Alsaker et al., 2009). We identified the following events as significant for the teachers' enactment of education policy, including the specific policies about assessment criteria: *The former program director left, governmental reform,* and *students' complaints about unfairness.* These events were nested together, and tied to other happenings that consequently occurred because of these events (in a narrative sense-making way).

- the former program director left
- one teachers' responsibility for all courses became unsustainable
- the number of faculty members increased
- the introduction of courses on an advanced level (three-cycle system)
- governmental reform (Bologna)
- pursuing academic studies
- competence-development in pedagogy
- regular teacher-conferences
- students' complained about too little support and wanted to drop-out
- the university could not offer the needed support in pedagogy
- the European collaboration on qualification frameworks
- competition from another university, students' complaints about unfairness.

Throughout the process of analysis, analytical questions were asked of the material, these questions revolved around happenings and meaning. For example, what was considered meaningful? Why and in what way? How was meaning manifested? What were the teachers' different explanations for different events? In what ways were these contradictory? How did the ways they expressed meaning of policy change with time? Why did they consider engaging in policy enactment? What kind of motives did they have when engaging in policy? What were their different explanations for events that happened? Who did what (the agent)?

The analysis in summary:

1) Identifying significant events
2) Linking between significant events and other important events, motives and the present
3) Linking between the different events (steps 2 and 3 were made iteratively)
4) Identifying present meaning (latent content, as in 'what does this speak about') related to the research question
5) Linking meanings and events (emplottment)
6) Identifying possible plots
7) Writing the first preliminary narratives and make connections between events, meanings and intentions, and how these are manifested
8) Based on the preliminary narratives, meanings are considered and analytical questions are asked: 'what does this mean', 'why are they doing this', 'how is this manifested'. To reveal possible explanations we moved between the preliminary narrative and the data iteratively.
9) The above process, from the second 'step' was repeated several times as the final structure of the narratives took form. As part of the analysis tentative headings aimed at depicting the concepts for the different plots were made and discussed between the researchers.

During this process the emerging narratives, in part or in whole, were presented and discussed with peers in several settings to enhance the credibility and 'check' the emerging stories and the possible transferability of what they evoked (a narrative in itself cannot be transferred) (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). These peer-debriefings gave ideas on how to conceptualise expressions that did not directly translate into English. Peer discussions also made us understand what questions may arise when reading the narratives, which helped in further contextualisation, and to be more explicit with the plot, and the links between meanings and the various plots.

The initial narrative became too lengthy (for publication in the paper format) and consisted of several plots that aimed to depict the different layers of meanings and manifestations in the concrete, abstract, the past, the present, and the symbolic. The analysis also generated plots related to two different foci: 1) the overall more general narrative of how the teachers pursued

developments of teaching and learning, and 2) how they worked with assessment criteria. The initial attempt was to intertwine these different narratives into one or a few plots, as an example of the general and the specific layers of how teachers enact policy. In line with our narrative approach that specific research questions may develop during the research process (Josephsson & Alsaker, 2015), we instead made the decision to go further and deepen the analysis of the plot related to assessment criteria, hence the analysis yielded two different research foci illuminating two different research aims.

REFLECTIONS ON PRE-UNDERSTANDINGS AND PERSPECTIVE

During my years at Karolinska Institutet, I have repeatedly been asked about why it is important to make clear your own perspective and background when conducting qualitative research. Why would it be important to make clear your underpinning thoughts about theory and methodology, such as epistemology (how to gain knowledge about the world) and axiology (whether or not research is value-based)? To me this is not primarily a question of whether one conducts qualitative research or quantitative studies, but rather a matter of defining the phenomenon under study and your 'role' related to that phenomenon. For example, if 'experiences' are something that is in its own right, as objects that we gain access to through data collection, or if experiences are something that is constructed by humans through language and thus understood in the light of discourse? If one agrees upon the latter, then experiences are defined as a social phenomenon, even if they concern an individual.

Investigating social phenomena thus means that we are part of what we investigate, meaning that our horizon of understanding or discourse will frame what we attend to during data generation and analysis. In the same way that it would be considered good research practice to describe the devices used to observe substances in any biomedical study, it is equally important to describe 'the capacity of the mind' (discourse) that data 'runs through' if a social phenomenon is studied. In line with this reasoning, if the method used involves the researcher in the process of generating data, the perspective of the researcher is needed, as proposed by several scholars (Creswell, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003a; Patton, 2002; Saldaña, 2003).

I have a background in social psychology, which means that during the first years of my academic studies, and teaching practices I focussed on how human behaviour and social processes can be understood. Social psychology and medical education as fields of study share the beauty of stretching over a theoretically broad spectrum where theories and the level of analysis vary, based on the topic of research (Rotgans, 2012). The perspective I brought to these studies was thus how a phenomenon involving society, human behaviour and understanding can be studied through the lens of, and be informed by, theories stemming from psychology (micro), sociology (macro), science of education and social psychology (meso). My experiences also include education in a broad spectrum of research methods applied within the social sciences, from experimental studies using statistical analysis to observational studies in natural settings.

From previously working as a professional in organisational change, communication and team development, I have spent the last 12 years at Karolinska Institutet involved in faculty development activities such as teacher training and the development of teachers' qualification

portfolio. Like the teachers that participated in these studies, I too have collaborated on and created criteria for the definition and assessment of teachers' competency. Being an educational developer means that I have investigated the practice that I intend to inform and influence, like many health care professionals that conduct studies in clinical settings. Throughout this thesis project, I have made a conscious choice to step out of my role as an agent involved in educational change and become an outside observer of what may happen when teachers enact policies. However, representing the role of an educational developer I assume that I influence the teachers that I study merely by being present. My aim has been to question and gain perspective on pre-understandings and phenomena studied. Therefore, the discussions with supervisors, co-authors, and colleagues within the communities of medical education and academic development have been important. This led me to question and put in perspective some aspects of academic development practice, as I know of this practice in the Swedish context and from international literature. The constant reminder of how to distance myself from my role as an educational developer meant mainly that I paid attention to normative interpretations of what can be considered as 'good or bad' ways in which teachers enacted policy.

Addressing a community with diverse epistemologies, I cannot ignore the criticism that qualitative research is subjective and biased. However, in my view, adopting an interpretative (hermeneutic) stance; for example acknowledging my pre-understandings and being a co-constructer of data, is different from taking a normative position and searching for proof of my own understandings. Patton (2002 p. 50-51) defuses the debate about objectivity and subjectivity in this respect and proposes the concept of neutrality as a more valid description of how researchers should approach their studies. My understanding is that the neutral position requires reflection throughout the investigation process and that being open with theoretical perspectives and assumptions makes the research accessible for scrutiny.

TRUSTWORTHINESS

Well-known criteria for evaluating scientific studies are validity, reliability, generalizability and objectivity. These criteria apply for research within a positivist paradigm but can be seen in post-positivistic qualitative studies as well (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 2002). However, as Creswell (2007) and Patton (2002) provide overviews of; several scholars have developed criteria more suitable for the study of human experience and social phenomena where interpretative positions in naturalistic settings are employed. I have chosen to be transparent about how I, together with my co-researchers, considered aspects of trustworthiness during the process of investigation using the following terms: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Creswell, 2007; Guba & Lincoln, 1982). Granheim and Lundman (2004b) point out the importance of viewing the different aspects of trustworthiness as interconnected even if presented separately, as below.

Credibility and Transferability

Credibility (internal validity) refers to the extent to which the findings are believable to others and to the congruence between the process of investigation and the phenomena studied (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004a; Guba & Lincoln, 1982). To increase credibility we

triangulated methods, sources of data and the researchers. In study I-II several researchers with various backgrounds participated in gathering data and in conducting the first analysis of documents. I later re-analysed the documents, and carried out the first condensation of data, but based on the condensation of texts the emerging codes, categories and themes, and eventually the pattern formed were discussed between all three authors. In study III and IV three authors with various background jointly conducted the analysis, although I made the initial condensation of data. All four co-authors contributed in discussions on the emerging narratives. Throughout the studies, I wrote a reflective log to distance myself from the data and raise awareness of my own perspectives (Charmaz, 2006; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). These reflections were also discussed with my supervisors.

The findings of study I-III were presented and discussed during national and international conferences for researchers and practitioners within: educational development, medical education and higher education. The preliminary findings and the early manuscripts were also presented for peer scrutiny during local seminars, as were the emerging narratives in study IV. Those presentations enabled feedback which gave confirmation of what is referred to as face validity (Creswell, 2007 p. 204) and which strengthened our understanding that the findings had transferable value. The feedback also informed about conceptual understandings related to different contexts, and to different research areas, which made us rephrase important concepts in the findings. Contextual descriptions and theory have also been added to enhance transferability.

As previously mentioned, the findings in these studies are not intended to be generalizable. However, by providing detailed descriptions of contexts, readers can judge whether there are similarities and differences within their own context. Furthermore, the findings contain vignettes and narratives that serves as a form of rich and thick descriptions that would enhance the possibility for readers to judge transferability (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003a). Also, in the first project a purposeful sampling to ‘maximise’ the range of the participant teachers’ experiences was made, which may enhance transferability (Guba, 1987). Furthermore, the findings were related to theory or theoretical constructs, as Denzin and Lincoln put it: “The central task of theory is to make sense out of a local situation.” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003a p. 25)

Descriptions of the process and the choices made are included in this thesis summary in order to make the analysis visible (dependability). During the analysis, we constantly moved back and forth between data and interpretations of latent meanings to make sure that findings were grounded in data (confirmability). Also, reflections and thoughtfulness about the underpinning values related to theory of science were made during the process and are made explicit in this thesis summary.

Conducting these studies, I saw myself as the co-constructer of data during interviews and observations. However, in the first research project (study I and II) several researchers took part in constructing the interview data. This can be considered a weakness and contradictory to the notion of co-constructing data. However, as I represent the role of an educational developer the credibility of what was said during the interviews was also enhanced when two teachers from Karolinska Institutet that did not represent the central unit for faculty development conducted most (9/14) of the interviews.

6 FINDINGS

The present thesis comprise of four studies with the overall aim to understand how teachers within the health sciences enact education policy related to their development of teaching and learning. The main findings from the two projects are summarised below.

Project 1

The findings from study I show how teachers translated outcome-based education (OBE) into practice in various ways, according to the following,

- OBE had no pedagogical meaning
- OBE was applied to communicate learning requirements to various stakeholders
- OBE was applied as reference for measurements of quality
- OBE was applied for alignment in course design
- the consequence of applying OBE was that teachers reflected upon their own epistemological assumptions, which had bearing on how they designed courses.

Teachers who translated OBE into practice, regarded the intended learning outcomes (ILOs) as the most central aspect of what OBE meant. For some teachers ILOs equated OBE, whilst others understood ILOs to be a part of OBE and thus applied the ILOs as reference for designing the course. The various ways that teachers translated OBE into practice can be summarised with the illustration below (OBE in practice). All syllabuses included ILOs that stated the required competencies with the use of active verbs (in accordance with the guidelines). A few teachers complied to the rhetoric (a) but without attributing particular meaning to ILOs or OBE. They followed guidelines or were assisted by colleagues and thus adapted to the new way of formulating 'goals' in the course syllabus. Thus, the ILOs were not used as reference for designing the course.

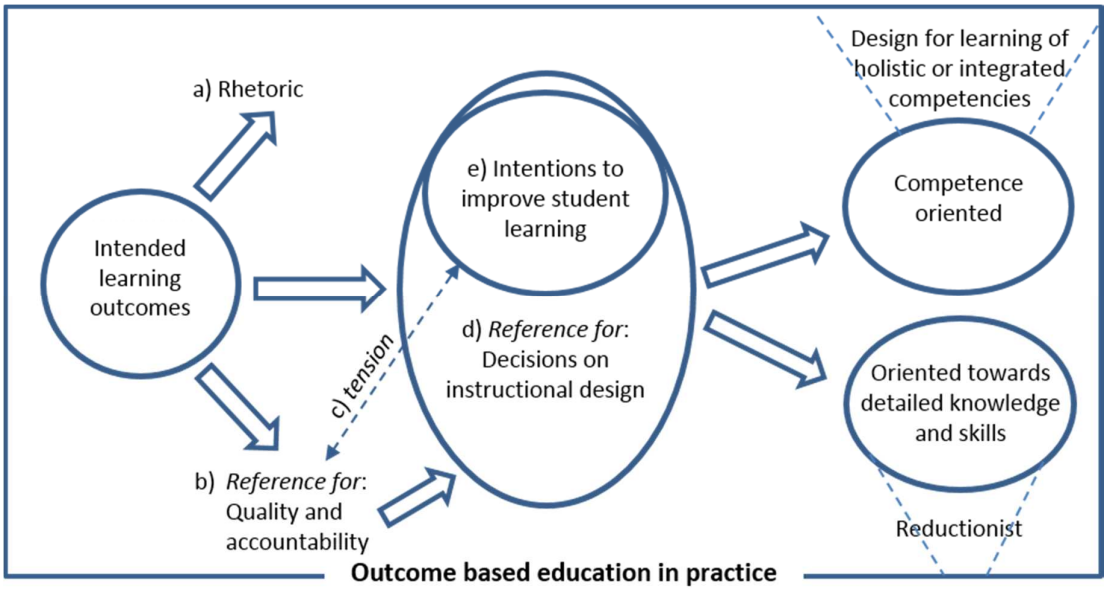


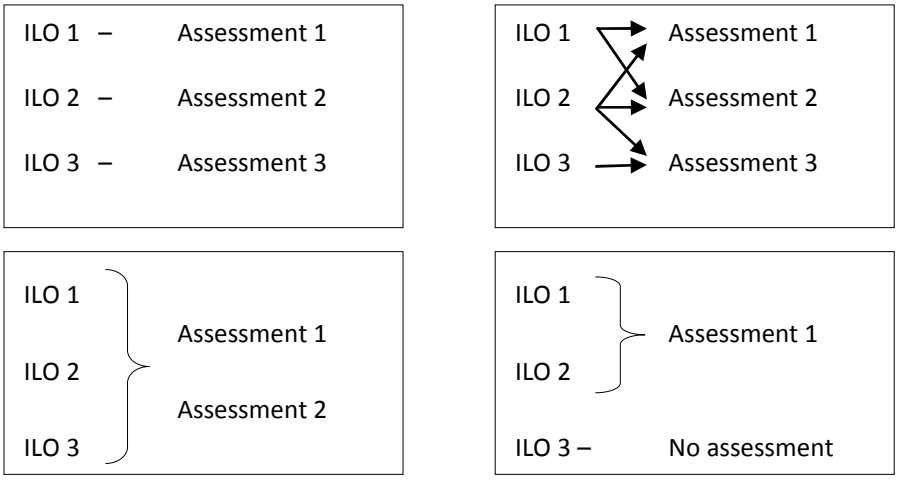
Figure 3: The way that teachers' applied ILOs as reference for making decisions and what the consequences were for the design.

Teachers also understood ILOs as an important reference to communicate the overall quality of the course (b). Communicating ILOs teachers addressed different target groups. One view was that ILOs could be used to raise quality within a professional area in which case the teacher emphasised the importance of making the level of requirement visible to other universities. ILO's were understood as mean to compete for excellent students and for the study program to be recognized as leading within the national and international arena. The idea that ILOs should be used to make quality visible was also experienced as frustrating (c). Teachers found that their way of working with progression of students' learning and connecting learning outcomes to self-directed and life-long learning were hindered by the strict demands on how ILOs should be written in the syllabus. The demand for transparency was also understood in ways that made pedagogical innovation or flexibility less possible since the ILOs and the course design should be decided upon in advance. However, OBE was also viewed as a useful framework in course design (d) and, by some applied to enhance support for student learning (e). Teachers took the opportunity to revise what form of competencies that students' were expected to learn, and redesign activities and assessments (see tables 3 and 4), as illustrated by the following quote,

> *"We introduced practical tests instead of one large written exam. Because when we started to write the learning outcomes we realised that the outcomes included in the course are practical skills and we came to the conclusion that we cannot keep having so many written exams, so we rearranged the whole curricula to consist of many practical tests instead." (Interview 11)*

In different ways, ILOs were applied as check-markers to ensure the alignment of the course. The most apparent alignment was between ILOs and the graded assessments (examinations).

Figure 4: *Alignment between ILOs and assessments within courses*



In practice, translation of OBE meant that teachers designed courses with an orientation towards more integrated and holistic competencies, or with a reductionist approach, emphasising fractioned knowledge and skills (see figure 3).

Table 3: *Changes in the character of intended learning outcomes*

Course code (CP = clinical practice)	Domains of competency included						Characteristic of the complexity in ILOs descriptions below are examples from each course		Requirements of how students should demonstrate learning*
	Pre OBE; in objectives, aims, goals			Post OBE; in ILOs					
	Know	Skills	Values	Know	Skills	Values	Pre	Post	
1 (CP)	X	X	X	X	X	X	Explain, apply	Value, apply	The same
2	X	X	X	X	X	X	Explain, understand	Plan, instruct, evaluate	Increased
3 (CP)	X	X		X	X	X	Basic knowledge	Interpret, judge	Increased
4	X			X	X	X	Understand	Interpret, value, use	Increased
5	X			X	X		Basic facts	Describe and apply	The same
6	X	X		X	X	X	Practice, document	Practice, reflect	The same
7 (CP)	X		X	X			Increased capability	Describe, analyse	Decreased
8	X	X	X	X			Insights, judge	Describe, aware of	Decreased
9	X	X	X	X	X		Basic facts, practice	Basic facts, practice	The same
10	X			X			Basic facts	Discuss, calculate	Increased
11	X	X		X	X	X	Account for	Apply, compare	Increased
12 (CP)	X	X		X	X	X	Account for, practice	Professionally perform	Increased
13	X			X			Basic facts	Basic facts	The same
14 (CP)	X	X	X	X	X	X	Basic facts	Analyse, value, apply	Increased

*This refers to the collective ILOs in each course compared with the collective aims, goals objectives in each course pre OBE.

Table 4: *Overview of changes in instructional design; educational method and assessment*

Course	**Educational methods pre OBE**	**Educational methods post OBE**	**Changes in examination, form and character**
1 (CP)	Lecture heavy, combined with clinical training and group discussions.	PBL-inspired, less lectures, added simulation training and seminars. The course was split over two terms. Patient contact was introduced the second term, after assessment performed in simulation setting and seminars focussed on ethical values.	Introduced multiple assessments forms; added assessment-seminars of ethical values and use of simulation techniques before patient contact.
2	Traditional, based on lectures and training. Studies were conducted in parallel with basic science courses.	Constructed around a theme related to professional practice. Students were facilitated to integrate basic science knowledge into theory and training, and expected to plan their own studies and make visible how they fulfilled the ILOs. Introduced; Log books and portfolios. A few sessions were provided through an IT-based learning platform.	Replaced oral and written exams focussed on factual knowledge with portfolios requiring reasoning related to theoretical studies and training.
3 (CP)	Problem-oriented philosophy. Various forms, e.g. group-based work, lectures and clinical work.	The philosophy behind was student involvement. Portfolios in clinical practice were introduced. Tasks and structure of group work were changed, self- and peer-assessments introduced as learning activities.	Introduced portfolios in clinical practice and assessment of how ethical values were reflected in practice as stated in newly developed criteria.
4	Lectures, laboratory training and individual project work.	No major changes. One poster session added.	No major changes. One mini-exam excluded.
5	Lectures, laboratories and seminars.	No major changes.	Increased requirements; further detailed factual knowledge and more percentage of the exam to pass.
6	Various forms, e.g. laboratory training and group work.	No major changes. Logbooks in laboratory training were introduced.	Added; a logbook and assessment of skills in a work-based setting.
7 (CP)	PBL (e.g. lectures and clinical work)	No major changes in methods. Content during lectures more discipline-related.	MCQ replaced essay, less integration
8	PBL (e.g. group work and lectures)	No major changes	One essay and one oral exam replaced with a written exam. Peer-assessments introduced.
9	Lectures and laboratory training	No major changes	No changes. Exam questions similar.

10	Various forms, e.g. lectures, field studies and laboratory training.	No major changes in overall educational methods. One small group project and one poster session added.	Exam questions became more complex and required reasoning, one oral presentation in groups added.
11	Traditional design; lecture heavy in the beginning with a few sessions of training and application at the end of the course.	Student-centred teaching-learning as philosophy. Several lectures replaced with small-group tutoring and more time for students individual studying. Students expected to take greater responsibility for their learning process. Introduced case studies and sessions with integration of theory and training. The course was split to be studied in parallel with other courses to enable integration of knowledge.	Factual knowledge assessed through mini-exams early in the course. More complex exam questions added into the final course exam. Added assessments of skills and professional behaviour. Continuous formative assessments during skills training.
12 (CP)	Training in clinical practice. Parallel with basic science courses.	Additional reading of scientific literature, which were discussed in seminars and reported on through written accounts. Increased collaboration with parallel courses and integrated basic science knowledge into discussions during clinical training.	Formative mini-assessments replaced by one written exam and a clinical exam. Added; requirements of more complex reasoning for the higher grades; and a formative peer-assessment of clinical skills.
13	Lecture-based	No major changes.	No changes. Exam questions same or similar.
14 (CP)	Various forms, e.g. lectures, workshops clinical training and laboratory work.	No major changes in overall educational methods. Added; one project work and three more days for self-studying.	Exam questions regarding factual knowledge replaced by a few patient-cases that are more complex. Factual knowledge formatively assessed through mini-exams. Added a project report assessed through written and oral reports. Peer-assessment introduced.

In study II, we asked the more general question of how teachers enact policy, thus OBE was viewed as an example of a policy related to course design. The findings show how teachers approached the policy of outcome-based education in one of the following ways: *container approach, technocratic approach, pragmatic approach and ideological approach*. The findings contain a rich presentation of each approach in the form of vignettes, however the most significant aspects of each approach is summarised in the table below.

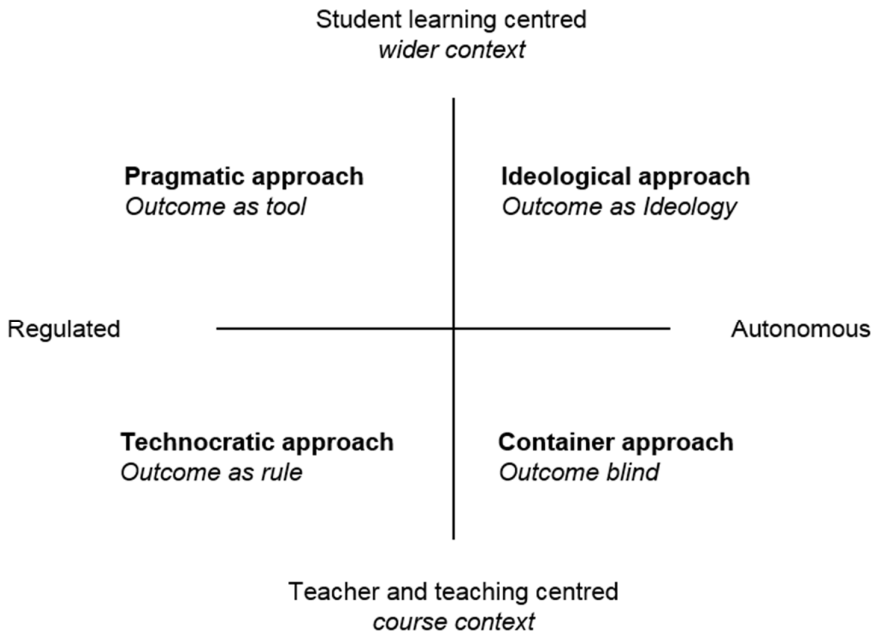
Table 5: *Teachers' approaches to outcome based education*

Container	Technocratic	Pragmatic	Ideological
The reform was about educational infrastructure and had no actual relevance to teaching and learning. Content and subject appraisal.	OBE is a new policy for writing course syllabus of which constructing ILO's is an important feature. OBE does not combine with a student learning perspective. Learning outcomes are set by teachers and thereby not owned by the students.	OBE is a tool that can be used to enhance teaching and learning and that should be used in accordance with the instructions. Teachers debate about how to interpret and apply the instructions. Course alignment is used to enhance student learning, the aim is to assess students understanding.	Teachers' adopt a way of thinking about teaching and learning, which can be related to OBE. OBE is transformed into an ideology that fits own contextual conditions. Teachers strive for student-centred teaching-learning activities and self-directed learning.

Intertwined, teachers' conceptions of teaching and learning, and the understanding of policy as such was important in how they designed their courses. Hence, their approach towards OBE as a framework for course design was in part an approach towards the education policy as such. For some teachers the approach was aligned with their view of teaching and learning, but there were also teachers that found the new regulations incompatible with their conceptualisation of teaching and learning. The approaches are relational to different contexts, which means that one teacher approach the same policy in different ways depending on in what setting the course was provided and designed.

The figure below illustrates how the four approaches relate to each other and range from 1) being regulated by policy instructions as interpreted by the teachers, to 2) operating freedom in relation to the policy.

Figure 5: *Ways of enacting policy; the relation between teachers' approaches to outcome based education*



The horizontal continuum *'Regulated'* versus *'Autonomous'* show teachers' enactment of operating freedom in regards to policy instructions. Teachers that lean to the left dimension 'regulated' emphasise directives and strive to follow those, whilst teachers that exert 'autonomy' in relation to the policy lean to the right dimension. OBE is either distant during course design, or they put teaching and learning in the forefront.

The vertical continuum, '*Teacher- and teaching-centred*' versus '*Student learning-centred'* refer to teachers' orientation to teaching and learning when they designed courses in relation to the policy. Teacher- and teaching-centred signifies how courses were designed from the perspective of teaching. Student learning-centred signifies how courses were designed with students' learning and students' progression as the base for choices of teaching-learning activities. As part of the findings, vignettes were constructed to enrich the understanding of each approach and of how OBE was enacted by the teachers.

Project 2

The findings in study III and IV were presented as narratives meant to reveal the messiness of how policy is enacted by teachers. The narratives are not included in this thesis summary, below are however brief accounts of what they address.

In study III, a narrative analysis was performed to understand how a community of teachers enact education policy related to the development of teaching and learning. The findings show that policy was highly meaningful for the teachers, but that they themselves re-created the policies meaningful for practice.

Two intertwined narratives were found to illustrate how the shifting meanings of education policy became manifest in the teachers' reasoning and activities. In the first narrative the teachers' creation of their own policies are in the foreground. The narrative illustrates how the constant negotiation of policy contributed to a sense of togetherness. In the second narrative, the teachers' shift in perspective regarding teaching and learning is in the foreground. The narrative depicts how the engagement in development of teaching and learning that changed their roles as teachers, were connected to being health professionals and of being researchers. Together these two narratives make visible how the teachers develop teaching and learning according to their own ideas and intentions. At the same time that they show autonomy, their development mirror prevailing discourses within teaching and learning.

In study IV the call for transparency and of clarifying the grounds for assessments, constituted a background for a narrative analysis on how the teachers' enacted assessment criteria. A few years back, the teachers developed their assessment criteria for students' clinical competencies to not only describe the items that should be assessed, but also include characteristics of students' achievements. The findings in study IV outline a plot about assessment criteria as a safeguard for fairness in assessments. Based on our analysis, the teachers view the application of assessment criteria as a moral obligation, to ensure fairness in assessment of student learning, and towards future patients. The unfolding narrative depicts the teachers' multifaceted and sometimes contradictory meaning of how to ensure fairness in assessment of students' performances. The narrative reveals how the teachers repeatedly and in various ways express how they experience different dilemmas in the assessment of professional competencies, related to using criteria.

7 DISCUSSION

The research presented in this thesis set out to investigate how health sciences teachers enact education policy related to their development of teaching and learning. The studies focused on teachers' experienced meaning, based on what they do in practice and how they reason. Reasonable questions to ask, following a study on policy and development would be whether anything changed due to policy and, if so, why?

Referring to studies on change in higher education, Jackson (2002) summarises various perceptions of what change means, focusing on; the reasons for change, the scale, the complexity, the quality, the quantity, and the speed of change and the descriptions of the nature of the process. Thus, whether change has happened or not is a matter of perspective. Considering the introduction of ILOs into syllabi as an example, the teachers in the current studies conformed completely, and the change was 100%. However, this gives us little information on whether OBE was linked to the course activities and the quality in teaching or, how the teachers made sense of the ILOs. Based on the understanding that academics in general are known to resist change, a reasonable question to ask would be to what extent teachers complied with policy (Baldwin, 2013; Handal et al., 2014; Trowler, 2004; Åkerlind, 2005). In order to evaluate compliance in such a way we need to consider the original policy text as 'the policy' and, as reasoned previously, in large-scale reforms, policy documents are likely to contain ambiguous or even contradictory information (Jackson, 2002). In the current thesis, the findings therefore show the *various ways* in which teachers enact policy, which will be discussed below.

Teachers' understanding of what education policy means

In the studies included in this thesis, policy had various meanings for teachers. As expected, teachers valued the importance of top-down policies related to teaching in various ways. Moreover, the interpretation of how pedagogy was included the policies related to the Bologna reform varied. Conforming to policy decisions could thus mean that national policy decisions regarding ILOs were mixed with theoretical constructs from research on learning. OBE and the Bologna reform came to be associated with pedagogical frameworks that can guide in the formulation and communication of ILOs. This is no surprise considering the expectations of increased student-centeredness that were explicitly phrased in international and national policy documents (Lindberg-Sand, 2012). The definition of what student-centeredness means was articulated through various guidelines, workshops, and courses, and thus, teachers understood theoretical pedagogical constructs to be part of the Bologna policies. For teachers with ideological approaches, this meant that if research on learning was applied during course design, the idea of the policy would be adopted. Whilst other teachers equated, for example, the qualitative levels of learning in the SOLO taxonomy[9] with governmental directives. Finding the right verbs (from SOLO) was thus perceived as part of the governmental requirement.

[9] SOLO-levels refers to the classification of verbs, identified by Biggs and Collis, and describe qualitative differences in learning outcomes, hence the taxonomy is called the Structure of the Observed Learning Outcomes.

The coalition of pedagogical constructs and top-down policies was also adopted by teachers with pragmatic and ideological approaches, and this was identified as an important driver of change in T&L. The enactment of policy meant that educational constructs were embedded in the policy, which made it meaningful. Considering a few of the basic decisions that teachers make during course design will illustrate how the coupling of pedagogy and policy was enacted. In designing courses, teachers must decide upon the aim of student learning (*why*), *what* content to include, and what method to use (*how*). Teachers with ideological approaches applied OBE and knowledge that was embedded in the framework (student-learning perspective) as a rationale (*why*) for increasing student learning. An example of this was that their students should be further challenged to integrate course content. Learning more about pedagogy was thus a means of improving courses. OBE provided the framework that guided teachers regarding what decisions to make, but they themselves made the decisions about content (*what*) and methods (*how*). However, the interpretations of what the policies stipulated in relation to course design varied and teachers with technocratic approaches connected educational constructs to not only what decision to make, but also to the view that OBE, as policy, steered decisions about content (*what*) and, method and activities (*how*). Thus, the understanding of OBE as either steering or guiding the decisions in course design, have implications regarding whether OBE restricts the freedom of choice.

Teachers with an outcome-blind approach attributed little pedagogical meaning to the policy. Considering the resistance – conformity continuum (Handal et al., 2014), it is difficult to place these teachers at either extreme. None of the teachers with an outcome-blind approach showed resistance towards the policy in terms of negative attitudes or disapproval of the ideas behind it. Rather, they were unaware that the Bologna reform also meant that OBE was introduced and what the consequences of the reform on a course level could be. Based on the account that these teachers felt loneliness related to their teaching mission, it seems that the non-influence on T&L practice reflects the lack of a community of practice (CoP) of T&L matters. The lack of a community of teachers that share practice and a commitment to teaching and learning, and presumably the lack of a teacher identity, offers an alternative explanation of why these teachers found little meaning in practice.

Contrary to the idea that policy represents governing decisions that are implemented in a top-down way, the teachers in study III and IV expressed a different meaning of education policy. They were purposefully chosen based on the assumption that they had high autonomy regarding policy. Surprisingly, the teachers viewed policy as highly important. However, in practice, the policies were constructed by these teachers. Engaging in substantial T&L development, the teachers developed norms and regulations that were incorporated into education policy and thus reformed a common enterprise (Wenger et al., 2002). Policy creation, in practice, was valuable because it gave meaning and was part of the learning process as well as forming a community of practice around T&L. Thus, they experienced the ownership of education policies. Much as with other teachers who also approached OBE ideologically (study II), these teachers (study III & IV) paired the Bologna policies with knowledge about student learning (a student-centred perspective). Hence, they were less concerned with quality measures related to the reform during the development of T&L.

Enacting policy

Aside from whether there were large scale impacts or radical change of the Bologna reform, as debated elsewhere (Baldwin, 2013; Neave & Veiga, 2013; Serrano-Velarde & Stensaker, 2010; Witte, 2006) the pedagogical constructs embedded in the reform had an effect on the way teachers designed courses. Hours were spent on constructing ILOs that would be semantically 'good' and mirror the intended requirements on what students' should learn. During this process, finding the right verbs from, e.g., the SOLO- taxonomy became an important marker of quality in courses. This, in combination with the 'new' (for some teachers), insight that verbs such as *account for*, *name*, and *identify*, reflect lower cognitive levels of learning, and are thus less challenging for students, contributed to the 'chase' for the correct ILOs. For some, the intention to communicate high standards to external stakeholders meant that verbs signalling more demanding learning should be used. Various study programmes also (re)constructed local policies regarding how the qualities of learning should be communicated and employed within courses, for example, including only lower qualities/levels of learning early in the programme or requiring that the SOLO-level should be stated in the course syllabus.

The importance of using verbs that signalled the course requirements was considered also at other universities related to the Bologna reform. For example, Brabrand and Dahl (2009) studied the ways in which the SOLO taxonomy can be useful in making the progression of competencies visible. They analysed 632 curricula from two science faculties in Denmark and defined competence progression "as moving up the SOLO levels […]" (Brabrand & Dahl, 2009 p. 536). By assigning numerical values to the different SOLO levels, they calculated the SOLO averages for each course and could thus mathematically visualise the progression from undergraduate to graduate level, as expressed in curricula. They found the SOLO taxonomy useful for showing the progression of competencies and expressed hope that the SOLO language will result in less ambiguous ILOs in the future. Furthermore, in agreement with my interpretation of the findings of this thesis, Brabrand and Dahl (2009) interpret their findings regarding how the SOLO-verbs were applied as a reflection of the educational traditions within different departments.

Brabrand and Dahl's (ibid.) study shows that the emphasis on learning outcomes as qualitatively different ways of understanding (Biggs, 1999) was connected to a more general discourse and not only a local interpretation of the Bologna-reform. However, more importantly, in their paper, they describe a situation in which they found a reverse progression in the math curricula. After confronting the responsible study leaders, they reason that *progression in curricula cannot only be judged based on verbs in the ILOs*. For the purpose of this discussion, I leave the matter of progression in mathematics aside. However, the important issue raised in their paper, which is related to the findings in this thesis and the implementation of OBE (Bologna) is, that if theoretical constructs and theory are applied in overly pragmatic or technocratic ways, there is a risk that the point to that theory may be lost. My critical point is based on the assumption that progression in students' performance cannot be fully captured by verbs alone. Verbs applied from SOLO (Biggs, 1996) or Blooms taxonomy (Anderson et al., 2001) must be connected to content to be meaningful. In other words, the qualities of learning always have a reference (an object of learning). For example, it can be more demanding to *compare* two X-ray scans, than to *analyse* a given text. It might also be easier to *perform* a simple task in clinical practice than to *account for* the same task in written form.

Teachers with technocratic approaches tended to mix and apply pedagogical constructs as part of reconstructed local policies. Thus, when theory was the goal and overrode the focus on student learning the pedagogical constructs became less meaningful.

Although reductionist thinking was found in the current studies, teachers also employed OBE in other ways. The requirements of constructing ILOs contributed to what can be understood as important changes in course design. Because teachers scrutinised, reflected upon and engaged in debates about how knowledge and competence may be understood, they learned about, or deepened their understanding of, an important starting point for teaching: how their 'piece of content' contributed to students' journey toward becoming health professionals. From such a perspective, OBE, the 'Bolognian' knowledge domains[10], taxonomies of learning (e.g. SOLO), assessment criteria and constructive alignment contributed to what is known as quality teaching at the present time. Various frameworks guided teachers' attention during the design process so that the pieces were disassembled, for example, levels of understanding or complexity in performances, to discern and reflect upon details that would otherwise be ignored. Such an example is when teachers paid attention to various knowledge domains during the construction of ILOs and, as a consequence, added ethics and judgements into the ILOs. Teachers' learning processes during this back-and-forth oscillation between pieces and the gestalt is depicted in the narrative of how teachers' decide upon assessment criteria for clinical competencies (study IV). The experiences of the teacher group, and how they took charge of their situation connect autonomy in decision-making to learning and knowledge (study III and IV) (Silén, 2003). Through learning about T&L, they increased their autonomy as teachers. However, although theoretical constructs helped in discerning the components of the matter at hand, during processes of learning, in the end, it is how the various parts align and contribute to forming a coherent whole that constructs meaning (Bruner, 1990; Epstein, 2007; Hodges, 2013; Mattingly, 1998a). In other words, at some point, frameworks of competencies, assessment criteria and QAs will benefit from being synthesised so that the integration of competencies is favoured in communication to students and other stakeholders.

Tension between contradictory ideas and values

All teachers in the studies expressed positive expectations regarding how the Bologna reform could enable student mobility (study I and II). In this regard, there seemed to be an overall positive attitude toward the grounds for reforming HE in Europe to create opportunities for future students. OBE was however related to different and sometimes contradictory ideas and values. On the one hand, the politics around 'globalisation', such as standardisations, were connected to efficiency and the economisation of resources, as well as quality control and accountability. When the label of bureaucracy was attached to OBE, teachers saw little chance to make room for own pedagogical ideas and developments to support student learning. For example, it was viewed as a problem that individual students could no longer set their own goals for learning and that requirements for learning should be lowered to conform to international standards. In other words, teachers experienced little room to design in accordance with their views of how students' learning should be supported. In contrast to these findings,

[10] Different knowledge domains have come in various forms over time, which resembles Aristotle's episteme, techné, and phronesis. See e.g. (Stensmo, 1994) [Educational philosophy. An introduction]

Baldwin (2013) found that teachers contested the student-centred learning reinforced with the Bologna-reform, and therefore resulted in little change of practice. The teacher group investigated in the second project of this thesis, adopted a student-centred view of learning which resulted in new dilemmas depicted by the narrative in study IV. Experiencing a shift in view of learning, their debates on student assessments show how epistemological beliefs related to their health profession and the epistemology underpinning student-centeredness were sometimes in conflict. This conflict was manifested in the teachers teetering between an objective stance and thus assessment of specified pieces of performances versus the assessment of students' integrated competency that were thought to be subjective and less fair. Epistemology is often referred to as a deep belief about the nature of knowledge (Creswell, 2007). A speculation may be however, that teachers within positivist traditions, in general, are unused to reflect about the nature of knowledge and that the belief system employed to facilitate learning may differ from the belief system employed to assess the outcome of learning (assessment of knowledge/competence). Deeply rooted beliefs on how to gain knowledge may come to the fore when assessing students. However, the idea of teaching beliefs as an either-or approach in terms of transmitting knowledge or facilitating learning needs to be elaborated in order to understand teachers' dilemmas when pedagogical models are applied.

In these studies, the strongest opponents of OBE were found among teachers with a technocratic approach. These teachers had a reflected view of learning. In comparison with HE teachers in general, they had substantial studies in the science of education[11], and they had previously worked in accordance with their well-founded philosophy explaining how learning in the health sciences should best be supported. These teachers' conceptualisations of learning, although different in terms of specific concepts and frameworks, were much in line with the learning perspective brought forward with OBE. The resistance of teachers with a technocratic approach exemplifies what the critique of a rational utility-view entails: that measurements of learning and standardisations are seen as the core (Bleiklie, 1998; Hodges, 2006; Trowler & Bamber, 2005). Standardisations and alignment in curricula may have instrumental connotations that are in contrast with the view of learning as complex and based on individual motivation related to student autonomy (Hussey & Smith, 2003; McCune & Hounsell, 2005). Thus, among teachers with technocratic approaches, the reform had little to offer in terms of learning and development. Rather OBE became a bureaucratic hindrance to design for student learning. The resistance to OBE intertwined with top-down policies may be understood as follows: the pedagogical concepts were coupled with, for them a simplified and contested rationality-view of learning (Trowler & Bamber, 2005), and hence gave little meaning. With the reform, the knowledge base that signified these teachers CoP (Wenger, 2008) was no longer valued enterprise in accordance with the 'new' discourse of what quality in education meant. Though formerly knowledgeable, these teachers' enactments of pedagogy were viewed as an outdated version of T&L. Although our analysis was based on accounts from individual teachers and course materials, it is reasonable to assume that these teachers' attitudes regarding OBE reflected shared understandings and values regarding what had become local

[11] In comparison with the obligatory 5 or 10 weeks on university teaching.

departmental policies. Such shared values are also likely to explain, in part, why these teachers, despite their opposing views, followed the policies strictly (Trowler, 2008; Wenger, 2008).

Teachers that applied OBE to enhance learning, found the legal requirement to examine students at the end of each course to be contradictory to their pedagogical beliefs about how to support student learning. For example, that fixed ILOs should be constructed to assess students' professional development within one course and that assessments 'across courses' were not possible. The lack of possibility to assess competencies 'across courses' was thus viewed as a hindrance to the facilitation of students' development of, for example, meta-reflection, patient communication and ethical values. In addition, the university's formal template for reporting syllabi to the administrative system was built around the requirements of transparency *within* one course thus using the logic of alignment between *ILOs, activities,* and *examination.* The emphasis on alignment within one course was further reinforced by replacing the heading *course aim* with the heading *objective* (referring to learning outcomes), thus signalling that the most important aspects of the course are those that will be examined and graded. Thus, the syllabus of one course made no reference to the curriculum as a whole. Hence, teachers found little room to via the course syllabus[12] communicate that courses included training of capabilities that required long periods of time to develop. In contrast to the syllabus template, however, a few teachers added an aim to the syllabus anyway in order to make visible how non-examined content in a given course was part of important learning. One of the potential strengths in the original ideas of OBE, to make room for individualised and flexible progression in learning (Hodges, 2010; Spady, 1988), was thus contradictory to how OBE was implemented in, practice. The idea that quality in courses should be 'easy-to-measure' is heavily debated and the strongest opponents of OBE and ILOs regard the framework as first and foremost useful for quality assurance (Grant, 1999; Hussey & Smith, 2003). In other words, although the framework aimed at making quality in education visible, it hindered teachers in designing for what is known as quality at the curriculum and course levels.

Taken together, the studies in this thesis show that teachers are torn between, and therefore need to compromise, regarding pedagogy and political ideas and managerial factors related to the organisation of courses. Similar to the developments within primary and secondary education (Hodge & Benko, 2014), it seems that HE pedagogy, within the context of faculty development, must be considerate of the ways in which pedagogical theories and frame factors interact at the organisational level. Thus, there is a need to broaden the perspective of faculty development beyond the conceptual development of individual teachers (Gibbs, 2013). Quality enhancement for student learning will likely benefit from an aligned approach on the part of theory and governing systems.

Accountability

Study I showed how the notion of OBE as connected to quality control and accountability was frustrating for teachers. This is much in line with the debate regarding the justification of OBE (Grant, 1999; Morcke et al., 2012). Paradoxically, the focus on improving student learning may not be given credit. Course enhancements known to support learning may not be identified by

[12] The syllabus is the legal document that stipulates what students are required to fulfil

frameworks of quality assurance (QA), or by institutional key performance indicators (Lindberg-Sand, 2012). For example, one important factor related to the reconstruction of curriculum was the need for the greater integration of competencies within various health professions. Students should, throughout the study programme, be engaged in situations in which they must integrate knowledge, skills and attitudes, or apply factual knowledge studied within different course-modules into more complex lifelike situations (Laksov et al., 2014; Loftus, 2012). The ILOs included in the current analysis were written as integrated competencies. However, when the implementation of the Bologna agreement proceeded in Sweden, the QA framework that was employed favoured a separation of competencies in different knowledge domains, corresponding with the European agreement (Swedish Higher Education Authority, 2014). Similar to the established view that assessment drives students' studying, and hence their learning (Biggs, 2003; Van Der Vleuten, 1996), it is reasonable to believe that responsible leaders within HE institutions will be prone to complying with QAs requirements. In consequence, this may affect local policies on how to write syllabi. Although studies have shown that it is difficult to establish a connection between teachers' activities and QAs (Haapakorpi, 2011), teachers are likely to adapt to the local templates on how to write syllabi. Therefore, the correspondence between pedagogy and QA is of uttermost significance. A QA that favours curriculum mapping based on an 'easy-to-measure' approach may result in what one of the teachers in the first project feared would happen when simple alignment should be visible through the ILOs. "*There is a risk that we fall into the trap and assess what is easy to assess, instead of what is important to assess*" (Teacher interview 3, project 1).

Accountability in HE refers to both strengthened financial transparency and of HE being responsible for actions performed with the role of serving the public (Ball, 2013; King, 2004). However, the narratives in study IV showed another side of how accountability can be perceived. These teachers were internally motivated to be accountable towards future patients. The assessment criteria offered one way to safeguard future patients. Accountability was thus coupled with ethical values. This is in contrast to a situation in which accountability is seen as primarily related to quality measures and political factors (Danø & Stensaker, 2007). Coupled with quality control, accountability may signal the mistrust of professionals' capability to judge what is best or 'manage their own affairs' (Grant, 1999). Åkerlind (2005) reported on what others have found, and in general, academics value the connection between society and higher education institutions, and at the same time, experience a lack of social influence and declining social status. The teacher group in the current study felt a great responsibility to influence society and be accountable for matters related to providing health care within their area of expertise. Viewed from another perspective, these teachers were situated in a discourse in which efficiency was highly valued (Whitehead et al., 2013), and therefore, calls for accountability were not seen as a threat but was regarded as natural. The benefits of creating shared policies and assessment criteria were based on an efficiency way of thinking. However, their reasoning revealed that the guidelines were more than a way to cope with competing multiple tasks and shortage of time in everyday work. Fairness in the assessments was viewed from a humanistic perspective, stressing a moral dimension. This may also reveal factors related to teaching in the health professions, where patient concern is at the core.

Policy as guidelines

Arguably, adapting to policy stand in contrast to the values of academic freedom and autonomy (Altbach, 2001). In these studies, however, policy was also viewed as being guidelines with positive connotations. Academics' views on policy are likely to be connected to the content of the policy, and therefore it is of little meaning to debate whether guidelines, as such, are generally desired (Fanghanel, 2007). In the context of health sciences education, particularly in clinical work, guiding policy may have other connotations than it does in academia at large. Within healthcare, as in academia, time is scarce, and policies may therefore guide decision-making when there is little time for reflection. The importance of guidelines in saving time ahead was illuminated through the narrative that unfolded in study III and IV. Arguing for the benefits of bedside teaching, Qureshi and Maxwell (2012) suggest that teaching guidelines are essential to minimising disruptions in clinical work and to ensure the autonomy of the patients. When time must be economised, teachers may be relieved by not having to spend time concretising which competencies should be assessed when assessing students from different levels. Furthermore, because policies and absolute demands to ensure patient safety are part of daily practice within the health care organisation, the habit of accepting policies in the form of pre-defined instructions, is probably more common. The notion of academic freedom is, in other words, likely to be more connected to teachers that identify themselves as academics in the sense that their main mission is to engage in discovery and innovation. Thus, a question raised in this thesis is whether the tension between education policy and academic freedom may be less demanding for teachers in the clinical context. The understanding of the various identities that teachers within HE hold must be acknowledged to a greater extent in the debate on academic freedom and autonomy.

One important key to making policy and educational constructs meaningful in practice is dialogue and negotiations (study I-IV) (Jones, 2013; Wenger, 2008). However, academics' opportunities to discuss and share with colleagues seem to be decreasing (Knight & Trowler, 2000). The scarcity of time due to increased workloads and effectiveness, requirements may also reduce the motivation to engage in joint discussions (Leibowitz et al., 2015; Leisyte et al., 2009). If so, the need for clarifying guidelines and pre-defined frameworks related to educational matters is likely to become even more important in the future. If time is at a premium, the rational thing to do would be to turn to prepared line of actions, guidelines or policy created by mandated professionals. Thus, one can expect that the meaning and importance of policy in the form of educational guidelines will increase. At the same time as teachers may feel deprived of their freedom of choice regarding teaching, the scarcity of time may urge clearer guidance.

Applying pedagogical frameworks related to education policy in technocratic ways may not enhance teaching practice. The issue of applying ILOs or pedagogical frameworks instrumentally is debated (Hussey & Smith, 2003). Similar to the one-to-one solution of aligning ILOs and assessments shown in study I, McCune and Hounsell (2005) argue that the rhetoric of alignment may be overemphasised as a straight line between, for example, assessments and learning outcomes, or too ideal for teaching–learning practice. As an alternative, they propose a broader line of thinking to make the curriculum congruent (ibid.). However, the interpretation of concepts and frameworks lies not within the frameworks themselves, but in the cultural meanings connected to epistemological beliefs of those who

engage with such frameworks. Thus, one single framework, such as the OBE, is likely to evoke different understandings, provoke various connotations and symbolise unintended meanings. Furthermore, negotiating the meaning of pedagogical frameworks and educational policy in practice may involve testing new ideas that are sometimes reductionist and instrumental and at other times, more holistic and comprehensive. Similar to the narrative related to the development of assessment criteria (study IV), a change in practice also creates new experiences that help construct deeper understandings. Applying frameworks non-reflectively or based on surface understandings can be understood as part of a learning process, much like a novice who during practice, tends to follow guidelines in a strict manner before gradually becoming better at reviewing the full situation and adapting accordingly (Benner et al., 1992). It is well-established that the development from novice to expert benefits from evaluation and feedback (O'Donovan * et al., 2004; Rust et al., 2005). Hence, when teachers practice pedagogical frameworks in instrumental ways it is not necessarily negative, but can be a powerful potential for developing quality teaching, if processes of evaluation and feedback are present. Put differently, thinking may not always precede acting, or conceptual understanding may not always precede enacting. Acknowledging the dual interplay between thinking and acting call for more studies of teachers' activities within their local practices and, based on such understandings, re-form activities for continuous academic development within teachers' practices.

Policy and practice

These studies acknowledge how teachers' autonomy may favour educational development. In both projects, however, we found that the Bologna reform was an important driver of teachers' participation in faculty development courses and that the forced re-writing of syllabi contributed to the process of making pedagogy relevant in practice. Likewise, respondents in Teelkens's (2011) study related to the increased focus on quality measures reported that the Bologna process had spurred changes in teaching. In line with the arguments of Trowler (2004), a large-scale policy such as Bologna is likely to create a readiness for change. The influence of the Bologna reform was concrete in many ways: the reform affected administrative routines (teachers and course administrators), and was connected to quality assurance (gains the attention of managers). As such, the policy decisions that followed could not be completely ignored. However, in order to value the relevance of policy for change, other contextual factors must be taken into account. It is not possible to value the scale of educational development regarding policies based on the current qualitative studies. Rather, the findings show that there were 'potentials' in several of the changes that did occur, for example, a complete turnover of curricula or a greater emphasis on the integration of knowledge within assessments.

Based on the empirical study of how teachers reconceptualised intended learning outcomes related to the Bologna reform (OBE), Baldwin (2013) argues that the expectations regarding an increased weight for the student-learning perspective were not fulfilled. He found a gap between policy and practice and concluded that the competency framework introduced for the language teachers in his study had a minimal influence on teaching and assessment practice. The teachers contested a change that collided with their traditional ways of transmitting knowledge within their discipline (ibid.). In contrast, the findings in this thesis indicate that if teachers are provided with the opportunity to negotiate meanings related to their own practice,

education policy may contribute to facilitating development beyond superficial change. However, as Jones (2013) points out, teachers' learning related to reform is not encapsulated and apart from other activities. In the context of the studies in this thesis, the 'learning perspective' and OBE were an integrated part of other faculty development activities and international collaborations within the disciplinary field.

When education policy places pressure on academic institutions, the urgency for teachers to engage in faculty development initiatives can be utilised. If local discussions are scarce, top-down policies concerning educational change can 'set the ball rolling', to use an expression from Trowler (2004). When negotiations about local educational issues are prioritised, a powerful force for developments may be created, as shown in the narrative in study III and IV. The key, as in any learning process seems to be meaningfulness. While gains in everyday work may be worth spending time on, it is reasonable that teachers and others will be less prone to invest time in changes that do not seem to add value for anyone. However, if the implementation of political ideas about how to foster future generations of professionals drain away time, there will be little space left for the development of the innovative teaching needed in the local setting. As in any organisation, there is always a risk of 'change fatigue' (Meyer & Stensaker, 2006). Meyer and Stensaker (ibid.) consider a summary of findings in the literature on organisational change and suggest a model of sustainable change. According to them, change initiatives should balance the need to implement change, the need to complete daily work and the need for future implementations (Meyer & Stensaker, 2006). This suggests that institutional policy should be considerate of the alignment between various development initiatives and the way in which their implementation is linked to teachers' daily work. When time is scarce and workloads are high, top-down requirements that aim to achieve results beyond lip-service are best coupled with implementation and support based on local pre-requisites. Such a coupling is likely to be favoured by policy-making performed in collaboration with teachers, administrators and faculty developers.

It seems that through reforms, teaching has increasingly been connected to administrative tasks. If teaching is put in the 'bureaucracy compartment' (Stensaker, 2006), it seems reasonable that academics would separate scholarly work from teaching. One may argue, however, that new public management (NPM) has made its way into HE institutions and that thus, organisational management would increasingly be an important skill for academics in the future. At the same time, one may speculate that academic work in general attracts persons with other missions than engaging in paperwork. This is a cause of tension, particularly because researching teachers are increasingly linked to definitions of quality in HE. The promotion of a scholarly approach to teaching would thus be more important. If the requirements of pedagogical competence are coupled with bureaucratic requirements, a related question is whether the faculty developers are aware that this is what they (we) represent. The idea that academics, particularly those from the hard sciences, resist pedagogy because of disciplinary and paradigmatic differences in epistemology must be elaborated on. Faculty development urged via reform risks being opposed, not because of what the discipline represents and not because of what the pedagogical concepts represent, but because it represents engaging in a bureaucratic activity that takes time away from research or providing healthcare.

Connected to the above reasoning, should academic developers act as the bridge between governing agencies and academic teachers? If so, should the academic developers implement whatever new governments or university boards find suitable? Handal et al. (2014) shows how faculty development staff[13] were caught in the middle of such tensions related to the implementation of the National Qualification framework in Norway. The faculty developers in their study stressed the importance of clear aims and objectives, which were part of the policy, and at the same time, they hoped to protect teachers' freedom to decide on relevant ways to structure these aims in the course syllabi (ibid.). Whatever perspective academics adopt, educational developers must take into account the rapidly changing arena of higher education. Theories and models of learning are developed based on historical and social understandings of what supports learning. When Biggs wrote about constructive alignment, the emphasis was placed on the constructivist part of the model and how all other activities should be designed with that view of learning in mind (Biggs, 1996). Post-Bologna and considering the increased emphasis on models that enhance transparency, it seems that alignment is the part that is being emphasised, although these studies show that teachers also adopted a constructivist view.

Based on the discussion and the findings in this thesis, the following illustration summarises the tension that teachers express when enacting education policy. The contrasting meanings can be seen as representative of various epistemologies. The illustration also represents the move from reductionist simplification of content at the beginning of the learning process (to the left) that with deepened understanding become more complex (to the right). Theories of learning may be found in both these 'boxes', however, the pedagogical belief system emphasised in 'a learning perspective' as accounted for in this thesis, places matters of teaching and learning in the complexity sphere to the right. To the left there is an emphasis on policy, alignment, and outcome, whilst to the right there is an emphasis on educational, constructive(ism), and process. Learning and development related to education policy can be described as a shift between these both spheres.

Figure 6: *Contrasting meanings on education policy*

[13] The authors use the term academic developers, which correspond to how faculty development staff is used here.

IMPLICATIONS FOR ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT

Leisyte et al. (2009) argue that recent changes in the HE arena have contributed to an increased divide between research and teaching. In their study, academics from the Netherlands and England favoured a model in which research and teaching is coupled. However, given increasingly competing priorities, they also viewed teaching as a punishment that took time away from research. In a similar way, Leibowitz (2015) found that academics within different universities in South Africa were hindered from participating in academic development activities due to the heavy workload, although such activities were regarded positively. In line with previous findings, the studies in this thesis project (study II-IV) also indicate that pressure from top-down policy may be needed for teachers to engage in faculty development activities in the first place (Leibowitz et al., 2015). Considering the changed conditions, with increasing demands for efficiency in research and in teaching, academics may be less prone to prioritise educational development regarding their own learning and practice. Thus, it seems reasonable that policies regarding faculty development will gain an increased significance in order for educational development to occur. Hence, policy decisions may be needed to contribute to teachers' engagement in the development of teaching and learning on a large scale.

Considering that demands of change are delivered from different addresses, it is reasonable to suggest that if policy-makers and university leaders wish to influence teaching practice, knowledge about student learning should be taken into consideration when reforming the work processes and IT-administrative applications that are known to lock teachers into certain ways of working. Also, if academic development takes the research and theory of student learning to be its 'only' premises for attempting to change teaching and learning, such theories may be stuffed in the drawer because as perceived hinders to practice (Stenfors-Hayes et al., 2010). Thus, based on the current studies and what others have recognised (Jones, 2013; Trowler, 1997; Trowler & Bamber, 2005), the need for educational development to build an arena in which educational strategies meet the demands of scarce recourses, the multiplicity of academics' roles and new infrastructure is of paramount importance if the development of teaching and learning is to succeed at large scale shall.

Faculty development, it seems, has been an important pre-requisite for teachers to develop their teaching and learning practice (Leibowitz et al., 2015). However, based on the literature, 'a one-off' increase of individuals' pedagogical knowledge may leave teachers 'alone' with the challenge of translating pedagogy from theory into practice (O'Sullivan & Irby, 2011; Stenfors-Hayes et al., 2010). Teachers who are alone in regards to teaching may find it difficult to pursue the substantial development of practice, partially due to a failure to recognise the call for change, such as the outcome-blind approach in the current study. Furthermore, there is a risk that the 'new understandings' will stop at conceptual understanding (Trowler & Cooper, 2002). Declarative knowledge is but one ingredient needed to develop teaching that is favourable for student learning. In line with what others have argued (Bolander-Laksov, 2007; Boud & Brew, 2013; Roxå & Mårtensson, 2009), the findings in the current thesis strengthen the view that teachers' engagement in educational development is favoured by a broadened view of faculty development. Applying Wenger's community of practice can offer such a perspective, where meaningful learning concerning teaching is connected to strengthened identity and the development of practice. Such identities may be strengthened during courses, away from everyday practice, but the daily practice is likely to impact roles to a greater extend.

Based on Wengers' (Wenger, 2008 p.5) social theory on learning, and on different frame factors involved when teachers make educational decisions, a tentative suggestion is here offered on how teachers learning and development of educational matters can be understood. The model involves the various facets of teaching and learning to become a teacher, expressed as: *doing*, *belonging*, *identity* and *experience*. These various facets are connected to aspects that provide the analytical layers: *Practice*, *Community*, *Identity* and *Meaning*.

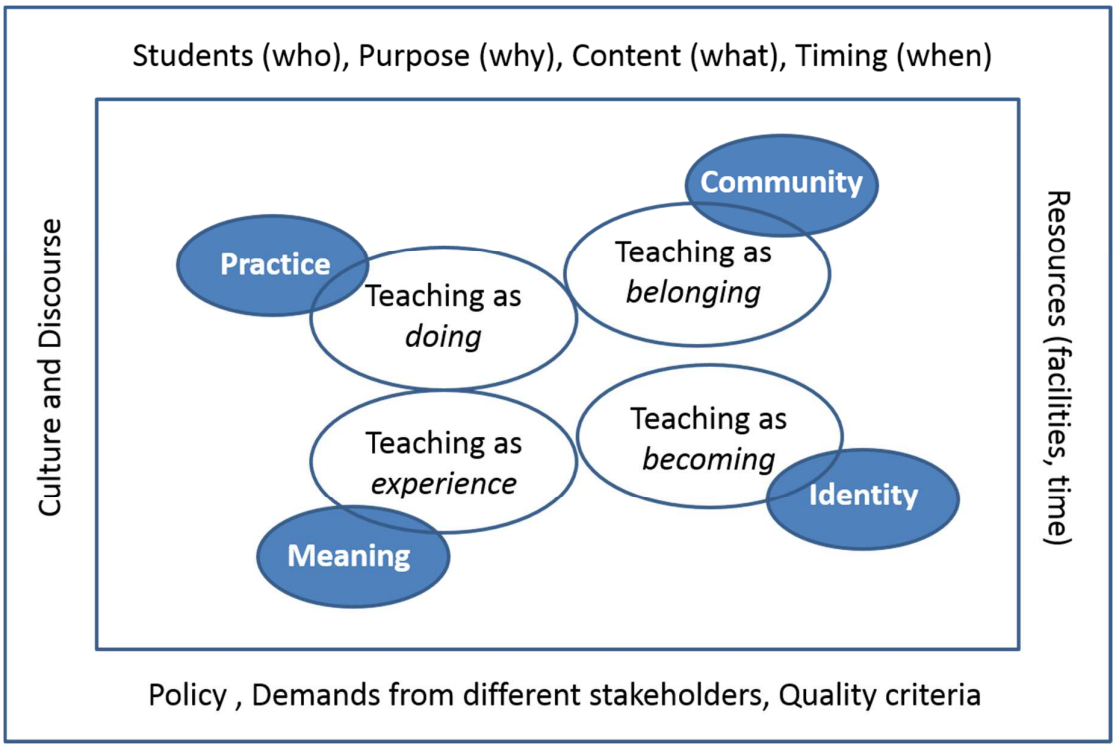


Figure 7: *Framework for the development of teaching and learning*

The model include a broad definition of teaching that encompasses all activities that academics perform with the intention that others will learn. Thus, teacher refers to the planning and delivery of teaching, and the assessment and evaluation of learning. The implication of working in accordance with such a model is to plan and pursue faculty development activities that aim to stimulate teachers, meaning, practice, community, and identity. Conceptual development is part of the model, however connected to the communities where teachers belong and practice. Furthermore, the consideration to contextual demands and purpose are emphasised via the factors within the frame. The model should be seen as dynamic and allow for different factors and components to be in the foreground at different occasions. The suggestion to employ this view is not about a shift in focus, but to broaden the perspective to some less prioritised areas, as Poggi reminded us of.

"*A way of seeing is a way of not seeing*" (Poggi, 1965 p.284).

CONCLUSIONS

- To enable teachers' development of educational practice, facutly development regarding teaching and learning must broaden the perspective beyond teachers' conceptual development and also support the development of/and within teachers local communities, and with regard to organisational frame factors.

- To enable enhancement of teaching and learning, administrative processes and IT-applications must be developed with respect for research on student learning, and in regards to current issues on the changes needed to further design for student learning. Collaboration between education policy-makers, faculty development staff, teachers, and administrative staff, in the development of IT-applications and processes that influence teachers choices related to teaching and learning is essential to favour development of teaching and learning.

- The findings suggest that attention must be paid to the process of implementing pedagogical innovations and educational policy. The facilitation of teachers' negotiations within local teacher communities are likely to enhance the possibility that policy become meaningful to teachers, and are, thus, translated into development of student learning. The quality of any given pedagogical method lies not within the method itself but in the way that it is practiced.

- Increased workloads and need to prioritise time is likely to create urgency for educational guidelines and policy. Collaboration between faculty development staff and administrative staff, in the development of such guidelines related to education policy can favour teachers' development, and the development of teaching and learning.

- Alignment of processes concerning quality assurance and quality enhancement are significant to enable quality in teaching and learning at course and curriculum level. Models of quality control that favour 'easy-to-measure' guide teachers to design in reductionist ways that may be in contrast to how student learning must be supported.

- To reveal how pedagogy is linked to student learning, more studies on how teachers understand and apply pedagogy in practice is needed. The investigation of enactment as acting and reasoning as a whole, and in relation to teachers' practices may reveal important cultural, social and historical differences that must be considered when educational reforms are implemented.

METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Mattingly (Mattingly, 1998a) and Squire (Squire, 2013) the urgency of narrative inquiry deals with human suffering and how meaning is created before and after life-changing conditions occurs. In the current thesis, the lived experiences investigated have little in resemblance with narratives of human suffering where the whole life situation is characterised by the drama on which the plot centres. The narratives in this thesis are of a more 'mundane' character. The drama connected to meaning-making related to how teachers make sense of policy is not, I argue, as deeply rooted into identity and meaning-making as shown in studies of people suffering from trauma or living with severe illness, for example mentioned in Squire (2013) or investigated by Nyman (2013). The change of narrative this research attended to is thus connected to a change of "work related matters".

Limitations in scope

The positioning of this thesis is research in academic development in the overlapping field of medical education and higher education. The following limitations should be noted:

- Studies related to teaching and learning can be classified according to what level of analysis that is of interest, like; the individual level (micro), a group level (micro or meso), an organisational level (meso) and, a societal or cultural level (macro). The various perspectives reflect how the study of teaching and teachers in higher education become the interest for many different fields of research such as the science of education, psychology, sociology, organisational management and political science. This thesis inform on aspects of teaching and learning from an educational perspective.

- Research into policy may proclaim political views and ideologies, and as such contest the power of prevailing discourses. In this thesis, references are made to make visible that there is a critical debate on policy in HE. I make no claim however to contribute with critical insight into the debate on policy research from a political perspective or a macro perspective.

- Several concepts is used to describe societal changes without providing any critical analysis of the various meanings of these concepts: such as New Public Management or managerialism, bureaucracy, globalisation or governance.

- The question of power struggles is evident in any matter of governing, for example through policies. Although I am sure that governmentality could inform the debate I choose not to address power issues with the risk of becoming unthoughtfully eclectic and loose sight of both the level of analysis and the focus on teachers' enactments of policy from a pedagogical perspective. I do not ignore the power struggles that exist between disciplines and different stakeholders of HE, however, that is outside the scope of this thesis.

Ethical considerations

The regional board of ethics in research have approved of all studies involved in this thesis and all participant teachers gave their informed consent. The videotaped students in project 2 was also informed about this research and consented. I however, was not involved in the videotaping of students. Students' examinations of patients were arranged by the teachers.

A narrative approach deals with the particulars, and thus further contextual descriptions of the study participants would increase the transparency and possibility to further judge upon the transferability of findings. Disclosing at what University the teachers work, I made the choice though to hide details that may reveal the identity of the teachers. Names and places are therefore fictional. I also made considerate thoughts on what details that were needed in order to illustrate 'the full story'. This means that events of sensitive nature that did not explicitly add to the understanding of the research questions, but might have been interesting for the drama, were excluded.

In the first studies, I made the choice *not* to provide a table of what courses that were studied, or link the teachers' professions with the course numbers to avoid disclosing the participant teachers' identity.

APPLICATION OF FINDINGS

The findings contain rich descriptions that can stimulate teacher reflections during faculty development, or when teachers develop curriculum, course design, and assessment criteria.

- The overall framework of how OBE can be translated into practice may be a checkpoint and thereby guide teachers on whether learning outcomes, activities and assessments promote integrated competencies or guide students' to focus on reductionist aspects. This needs reflection on normative stance though, the overall curriculum should preferably be taken into account before valuing courses as 'good' or 'bad'

- The four approaches to education policy: container, technocratic, pragmatic, ideological can be useful to reflect upon whether resistance on policy depends on lack of recognising a 'manouver-space', or whether different teachers prefer more strict guidelines when implementing educational strategies. Not all teachers prefer to exert 'academic freedom'.

- The quadrant can easily be interpreted as a typology in which we can place different teachers. My hope is though that this conceptual framework may *not* be used to ask questions like "*who are you*", but rather to ask questions like "*where are we now*"?, thus acknowledging the relational and temporal nature of change processes.

- As shown, alignment in course design may be understood in different ways. The illustration can function as a compass useful in relation to curriculum mapping. An overview of alignment in courses across the curriculum will give a fast summary to reflect upon whether courses are designed to facilitate students' integration of competencies.

Concluding reflections

Some concluding reflections on the message of this thesis. As a teacher in communication and presentation skills, I train students' to pick a theme and commit. For the main message to be understood it should be directed to an identified target group. I positioned this thesis within academic development as in the overlapping field of higher education and health sciences' education. Being *in between* fields means that the reasoning are, at the same time, nowhere and everywhere. For example, several of the concepts employed would themselves be the object of one single thesis (for example; accountability, competency, autonomy and pragmatism). Applying these concepts means that I choose not to search behind every corner for a suitable definition, and risk opening up too many doors. Concepts are therefore applied in the perspective of being in between fields. I believe however, that crossing boarders in perspective, methods, and research fields, is beneficial for the understanding and facilitation of teachers' development of T&L in HE. Thus, identifying the target group in a crossing field of different epistemologies and different disciplinary traditions, and then conform to the semantics and structure of how research is best presented and discussed, was much like the teetering of the teachers conversations presented in study IV. I choose to do a little of both, trying out different ways. Presenting conclusions with the certainty more often seen in the post-positivistic traditions, and at other times employing the hermeneutic approach in the presentation of findings. In line with the hermeneutic tradition, I have also included myself into the reflections in this thesis, thereby making visible my viewpoints and acknowledging myself as the active agent during interpretation and choices.

In the beginning of this thesis, I pointed out a number of policy related pressures that teachers may experience. In combination with research that emphases how academics seldom respond to change initiatives outside their own disciplinary or professional sphere, this portrayed a rather cheerless picture of teachers' situation and development in T&L. My own experience-based narrative from working with teachers at Karolinska Institutet is that faculty members show an enthusiasm for pedagogy and students learning. Overall, there has been a move towards a learning perspective. Teachers' resistance of pedagogy, for example as debated in courses are much less now than ten years back. Perhaps teachers' increased openness during courses is only an expression of a change in attitude, and may not be connected to teaching practice? The effect of this change in practice at large scale is however a different thesis.

8 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I have always loved crime stories. The best one starts with a serious mystery on page one that needs to be solved. Then, throughout the story, pieces of the puzzle are laid out. Together with the characters, you engage in the seeking of how various parts go together, and discover what the central issue is. At times, there will be dead-ends and unfolding of tiresome necessities. At other times, the search is so exciting that it will keep you awake around the clock. However, it is not until the end that you will understand how each finding contributed to the full story. Most often, there will be some loose ends left and, reflecting back, you realise that some chapters could have been left unread, whilst other chapters are the beginning of the next mystery.

The mystery behind this thesis did however not start on page one. My curiosity was slowly growing as I was working 'in theory and practice'. My own narrative of becoming a teacher and a scholar started many years ago within the field of social psychology. I am grateful to my colleagues from that period and in particular Björn Nilsson for inspiration and for introducing me into academic work.

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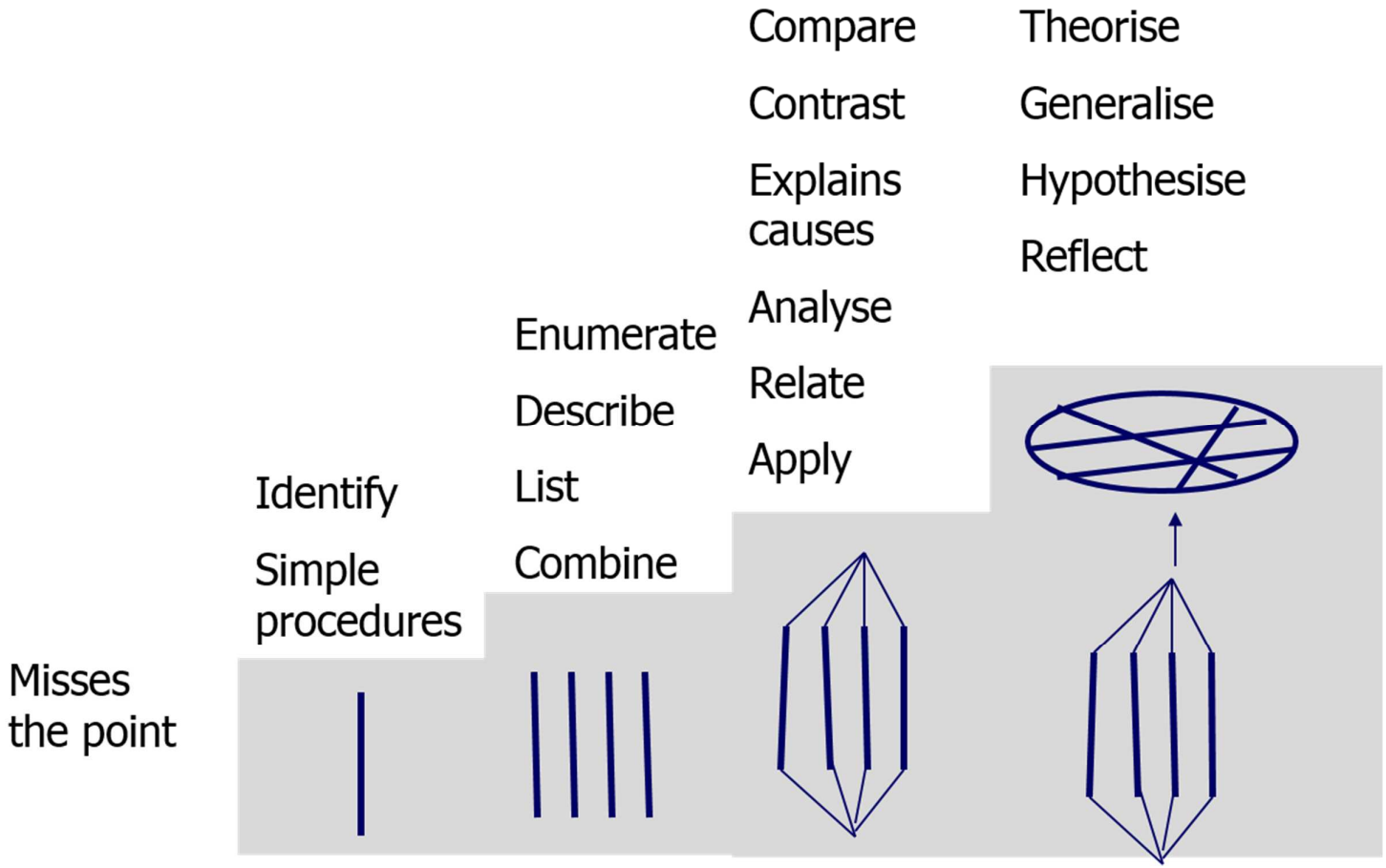
Appendix

Structure of the Observed Learning Outcomes (SOLO)



see e.g. Biggs (1999) What the Student Does: teaching for enhanced learning *Higher Education Research & Development,* Vol. 18, No. 1.