

Introduction

The global Higher Education (HE) community has been under pressure from Governments to meet financial and quality targets and adopt a managerial doctrine of value for money in mass education (Watson & Bolden, 1999; Deem and Brehony, 2005). In the UK Academic staff are being forced to upskill with research outputs, doctorate qualifications and Teacher Fellow (TF) accreditation (Boliver, 2015), but represents a trend of global significance. Whether this will be effective is uncertain, but it is already impacting on employee engagement of academic members of staff and enhancement teaching practice is uncertain (Parsons et al., 2012; Spowart, et al, 2017).

For more than 30 years neoliberalism has emerged as the dominant ideology and hegemonic force throughout western civilisation, projecting a prevalent 'common sense' discourse, driving systemic cultural change and shaping national government policies (Harvey, 2005; Torres, 2013; Torres and Jones, 2013). It has been the dominant voice of change (Brandenburg & de Wit, 2011) realigning and augmenting an educational system that focuses on increasing national competitiveness, commercialism, free markets, economic wealth and property rights and redefining students as customers (de Wit, 2002; Harvey, 2005; Knight, 2015). This has had a momentous and radical impact on redesigning Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) globally (Marginson, 1997; Angus 2004) realigning the educational narrative and building tensions with traditional values based on cultural exchange and mutual understanding (de Wit, 2002; Harvey, 2005; Knight, 2015).

Such economic and market imperatives have had a considerable impact on HEIs, the curriculum and those who work within them, reconstructing universities from educational and cultural enablers to corporate entities that focus on competitiveness and rivalry as opposed to a cooperative approach to an international environment (Huisman & van der Wende, 2005; Knight, 2015). Driven by a managerialist agenda academics now work in a more bureaucratic and consumerist environment (Kolsaker, 2014). Such circumstances have raised debate about the nature of academic professionalism (Gibbs, 2010; Dunning, 2019) and the demands that are placed on staff and their performance (Kaur et al., 2013; Ryan, 2013) generating greater emphasis on enhancing teaching quality and student (customer) experience at the same time as cutting costs and raising expectations of research contributions. Teacher Fellow (TF) accreditation is one example of how the

sector is attempting to develop the quality of teaching and learning, with the aim of building professional competencies through the imposition of a generic competency framework (CF) to provide a standardisation of the accreditation process.

The aim of this paper is to explore the impact CFs as standardisation can have on the employee engagement (EE) of academic staff within HE through their employment as managerial tools. At a time of profound changes in both purpose and pedagogical practice as well as the turbulence provided by the Covid 19 crisis, we seek to explore these key concepts to enable insights to be developed and inform HRD practice.

The paper begins by highlighting the current HE climate including backgrounds of managerialism, professionalism and pedagogy, then moves to developing a theoretical understanding of CF including the nature of the Teaching Excellence Framework outlining the principal elements of EE and the critical background factors and antecedents that can influence success. The work concludes by providing a conceptual model surfacing the individual and organisational backgrounds and antecedents that influence HE staff engagement in professional development within the HE and thereby provides insight into how HRD can employ EE and CF more effectively to champion professional development within the sector.

HE Climate & Managerialism

Over the last 50 years there has been much debate in HE regarding the attempt to create greater regulation of the sector, such as Government White (1972, 1991, 2011, 2016) and Green Papers (2003, 2015, 2017), and legislation such as the Higher Education and Research Act, 2017 (Education England, 1997; Leach, 2019). Different Governments have intervened in various ways which has caused changes in the HE sector to be mercurial in nature. In a desire to improve the sector, a market environment has been created with regard to tuition fees, research income (HEFCE, 2014), and teaching standards. In order to remain competitive universities have increased emphasis on the quality of teaching and student experience. Consequently, Universities require staff to gain doctorate qualifications, engage in more research and become professionally accredited as Teacher Fellows through the implementation of the UKPSF (UK Professional Standards Framework) (HEA, 2015; Thornton, 2014). This in turn has

caused stress levels and performance in academic roles to be of considerable concern (Kaur et al., 2013; Ryan, 2013).

The Government's financial squeeze resulted in teaching budgets being cut by 40% in HEIs in England in 2010 and tuition fees rising to £9,000 per annum resulting in redundancies (Prospects, 2014). In 2016/17, a third of academic staff were employed on fixed term contracts although the University and College Union (UCU) estimates it to be closer to a half (Loveday, 2018).

A rise in fees for courses has implications on the 'value for money' expectations by students which is underpinned and validated by managerialist tools such as National Student Satisfaction surveys. HEIs have not, so far, had to demonstrate professional standards in the same way that schools and the Further Education sector have had to do (Evans, 2011) although this does appear to be changing with the introduction of audits of research and teaching excellence (HERA, 2017). Student outcomes are affected by the teacher, and students do care about the quality of the teaching they receive (Gibbs, 2010), which is the essence of good pedagogical practices. Consequently, the HEA, universities, students, parents and the Government are interested in teaching quality and the necessary development of the intellectual capital of student facing staff.

Students and parents are also interested in the performance of this education market and official statistics are made easily accessible to enable comparisons and judgements to be made. For example, the Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) provides information on students, courses and qualifications, graduate outcomes and income and expenditure of HEIs (HESA, 2011). HESA data is also used to compile the annual performance indicators which provide comparative data on the performance of HEIs in widening participation, student retention, learning and teaching outcomes, research output and employment of graduates often referred to as league tables (ibid.). Other bodies such as the Universities and Colleges Admissions Service (UCAS) and the Student Loans Company (SLC) also collect data on other aspects of higher education. The National Student Survey (NSS) provides data of final year students' experience of their course and since September 2012, all UK HEIs have been required to publish a standard set of data on their websites known as the Key Information Sets (KIS) (Gibbs, 2012).

Such data indicates that the sector is moving more to one of consumers of education in a competitive market raising comments that the aim of the 2011 White paper was to

transform students into consumers from learners (Wolfrey, 2011) which has now been embodied in law in the Higher Education & Research Act, 2017 (BIS, 2018). Wolfrey (2011) claims that improvement in teaching is framed in recommendations in the White Paper (2016), around amassing data about it but is lacking in detail and does not explain how class sizes will be reduced or how contact between academics and students might be improved or more resources directed into teaching. This changing status of learners and their relationship to teaching staff is a concern to academic staff regarding resources to deliver an effective service to students, suggesting the new institutions will be merely information providers rather than educators or even mere conduits of government propaganda (Jarvis, 2014).

The problem is that marketisation and economic performance criteria can devalue and undermine the totality of the learning experience and its intellectual, political and personal transformative effect with a focus towards social good, further undermining the professional role of the teacher and the nature of good pedagogical practice. Such strategies can undermine the traditional pedagogical roles of tutors and universities, decreasing active learning and deter innovation in teaching practice (Naidoo and Williams 2005). It further undermines a pedagogy that brings society closer to promote social justice, one that recognises professional knowledge, values and attitudes as paramount.

This has not been without consequence as the anxiety felt by academic staff brought about by an increasingly competitive environment and compliance through governance resulted in unprecedented strike action (Loveday, 2018). Such factors clearly affect academic staff's ability to engage in professional development (Thornton, 2014).

Methodology

We employ Critical HRD (CHRD) following the tradition of critical management studies (Alvesson and Wilmott, 1996), CHRD provides a critical conceptual framework that acknowledges managements social and political power highlighting the needs for moral defensibility and social justice (Fenwick, 2004). CHRD provides an alternate interpretivist epistemological approach (Valentin, 2005) that fosters insights, provides critique and creates transformative redefinitions of the lived HRD experience; exposing messy and complex issues (Sambrook, 2007) in training and development, talent management, organizational and work based learning and wellbeing.

A challenging approach moving beyond performative leaning, but essential if HRD is to retain its relevance (Short, et al., 2003).

Competency Frameworks

CF aim to reinforce competency-based practices which are management tool for people selection, retention, and development. Competency can be seen as knowledge, skills and attitudes that enable effective performance of a given occupation (Klein et al., 2004). CF identify these skills, knowledge, behaviours, personal characteristics and motivations associated with competency, within a given role. Setting them within a framework and adopting a systemic measuring device enables expectations of individual competency to be articulated and aligned with the organisation's strategic objectives (Briggs, 2012). It also enables the organisation to identify development challenges for their staff.

Selznick (1949) & Sullivan (2000) identified that CFs can link to professional status, therefore if an employee wants to enhance their professional status, they are likely to be more motivated to enhance their capabilities, proficiency, motivation and performance which in turn enhances organisational success. Therefore, effective EE is essential but so is providing opportunities for professional development (Valentin, 2014; Fairlie, 2011). In relation to creating HEI programmes to develop competence, Lester (2009, p10) defines capability as “conventional competence; academic ability, discipline-based knowledge and where appropriate occupational or professional competence” opening the potential for the UK government to introduce professional ‘teacher fellow’ accreditation and frameworks for academic compliance.

For example, the Royal College of Physicians and Surgeons of Canada introduced CANMEDS in 1990 “*a national, needs based, outcome oriented, CF*” (Frank & Danoff, 2007, p 642), offering parallels to UK HEIs driving accountability and professional compliance. However, 11 years after implementation, it was recommended that effective change management strategies should be employed to support this process and that outcomes-based education was challenging and required deeper cultural paradigm shifts (ibid. 2007). This was echoed in the UK at the University of Huddersfield, where effective change management principles and consultation were seen as important success factors for implementation of the UKPSF (Thornton, 2014), demonstrating the need for greater understanding of the nature of the profession, the institution and the uniqueness of higher education participants.

Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF)

Teacher Fellow accreditation is a CF compatible with the training model of Continued Professional Development (CPD), a standards-based view of teacher development “*where teachers strive to demonstrate particular skills specified in a nationally agreed standard. The model supports a high degree of central control, often veiled as quality assurance, where the focus is firmly on coherence and standardisation*” (Kennedy, 2005 p237). Professional accreditation is achieved through assessment of a set of professional competencies using the UKPSF framework for Teacher Fellow (TF) recognition. It describes the competencies and values expected of University staff (HEA, 2012). These professional standards came about as part of HE reforms proposed in the DfES White Paper “The Future of Higher Education” (2003).

TEF was introduced following the Higher Education & Research Act, 2017 and aimed to establish new regulatory governance arrangements enabling HE to become more equipped to meet the needs of students and responsive market forces (DBIS, 2016). The focus is towards transparency by providing more extensive information on the quality of HE provisions so as to better inform students’ choices regarding where, what and how to study. Furthermore, the framework aims to recognise and reward excellent teaching and thereby raise the quality of teaching (DBIS, 2015) and the esteem of the HE teaching profession and finally, enable HE to better meet the needs of employers, business, industry and the professions (HEFCE, 2016).

There has been much criticism of the TEF and its neoliberalist ideology background that projects a more managerial and functional approach to assessing teaching quality (Bainbridge, Gaitanidis, & Hault, 2018; Canning, 2019; O’Leary & Wood, 2018) and there are even doubts about the accuracy of the later TEF2 as a measure of teaching quality (Barkas et al., 2019; Gunn, 2018; Royal Statistical Society, 2019) with suggestions that such assessments are divorced from the realities of HE teaching (Gillard, 2018) and from professional teaching practice. For example, in terms of the effects on academic staff, TEF calls for Assessors to look for evidence which might include “*initial and CPD for teaching and academic support staff*” (BIS, 2016 p.13) but can also include reward and recognition, promotion and progression opportunities, and levels of experience and contractual status of staff involved in teaching. Even though TEF is currently voluntary, it

provides a league table of participants and therefore provides a benchmark that exerts influence on how HEIs are perceived by their diverse stakeholder communities.

The above exposes the macro context relevant to HE, emphasising the pivotal role the Government and its agents play in shaping the sector's response in terms of competition, funding, emphasis on generic teaching standards and pressures to gain more qualifications, stimulating a 400% increase in institutions embracing staff development through HEA accredited CPD schemes (HEA, 2015). However, the claims for its real contribution to staff development and practice varies widely and that the accuracy of its assessment of teaching impact, is limited (Kennedy, 2005). What is certain is that the combined effect of these factors has put the sector under considerable pressure and produced tensions between research and teaching. All these factors can clearly affect the mindset and reactions of staff to their work environment, work demands, sense of security and stress levels (Kinman & Wray, 2013; Bolden, et al., 2014; Miller, 2014; Loveday, 2018).

A means of promoting professionalism

Professionalism is a complex, multidimensional and constantly evolving concept originally seen as a performance-based competency, set within a discipline, an exclusive field, where professional practitioners adhered to specific codes of conduct and possessed specialist knowledge (Foucault, 2008). Teacher professionalism is not a simple or static concept: it is dynamic, constantly changing; *“being redefined in different ways and at different times to serve different interests”* Helsby (1999, p. 93).

Professionalism is an *“ideologically-, attitudinally-, intellectually-, and epistemologically-based stance on the part of an individual, in relation to the practice of the profession to which they belong”* (Evans, 2002b, pp. 6-7), metaphorically it can be seen as crossing a threshold (Meyer and Land, 2005), transformative, irreversible and even professionally troublesome, shaping an actor's disposition *‘seeing things in new ways’* (Ibid, p1) influencing the core of their professional practice and can expose alignment issues in personal and organisational values.

Professionalism is not merely an instrumental value tick-box exercise (Fish and de Cossart, 2006) and in reality, it can be a nebulous yet important journey. If the nature of professionalism goes beyond the application of specific technical skills in the execution of teaching interventions, this surely must run somewhat counter to the agenda of

students as cash cows and a market environment for education. Raising the call that “*autonomy has evidently given way to accountability*” (Hoyle and Wallace, 2005, p. 100), and that de-professionalisation, rather than professionalism, has been the outcome of marketisation (Evans, 2008).

Employee Engagement

Engagement the term was coined by Kahn (1990) with the construct of personal engagement, but with little agreement for an overarching conceptual model (Shuck, 2011). Focusing on studies relevant to HRD (Valentin, 1990; Shuck, 2011; Chalofsky, 2010) Kahn suggested that people “*use varying degrees of their selves, physically, cognitively and emotionally, in work role performances*” (p692) which has deep implications for their work and personal experiences.

People engaged or disengaged, based on the assumption that the more of their selves that a person puts into their work, the happier they are with their role fit and the better their performance. However, it is inevitable that sometimes individuals will not fully commit to or may even withdraw from their roles. Khan (1990) identified three conditions that influence an individual’s ability to engage or disengage in their employment; namely their feelings of meaningfulness, personal safety and availability. This suggests that individuals unconsciously ask themselves three questions that influence their commitment to a task namely; how meaningful is it for me to fully engage in the task, how safe is it to do so and how available am I to do so?

Each of the three conditions is shaped by particular influences, “*meaningfulness was associated with work elements that created incentives or disincentives to personally engage*” (Kahn, 1990, p703). During this process “*employees added value and significance to their work... as well as received feedback about their value and significance to an organisation*” (Shuck, 2011, p308). Psychological safety related to “*nonthreatening, predictable and consistent*” (p703) social systems, whereas psychological availability related to individual preoccupations that distracted them from their task and role. Resources impacting on engagement can be both tangible (budgets or supplies) or intangible such as opportunities for learning and skill development (Czarnowsky, 2008).

Good EE can enhance organisational performance and individual well-being (Bailey et al., 2017) enhancing individual and collective morale, commitment to individual job role

and task performance, teamwork engagement (Costa et al. 2014) and collective organisational engagement (Barrick et al. 2015). Therefore, EE is a predictor of positive organisational performance and demonstrates the two-way relationship between employer and employee that can build a strong employee emotional attachment to their organisation and the importance of their contribution, thereby enhancing greater enthusiasm (Markos and Sridevi, 2010).

Shuck & Wollard (2011) defined EE specifically for the field of HRD “as a *cognitive, emotional and behavioural state directed toward desired organizational outcomes*” (p.316) suggesting a complex and multidimensional perspective that can be challenging for the development of a clear framework for emerging engagement models (Shuck, 2011).

EE can be enhanced through a range of employee development activities including; personal, professional and managerial development, skills, professional qualifications, induction programmes, work shadowing, job rotation, secondments, career planning, formal training, on-the-job learning and building communities of practice (Valentin, 2014). Generally individuals are enthusiastic about opportunities to train and share knowledge and experience (ibid.), but there are barriers, including relevance of training or dislike of online delivery, but also lack of general support from managers, time and resources available, recognition and professional development opportunities and importantly the opportunities to apply skills in the workplace. However, relational and professional themes such as provision of open and two-way dialogue, engaging leadership styles, progressive career development, coaching and mentoring, supportive work colleagues, and the supportive role of managers, all contributed to creating a climate for collaborative engagement and promoted professional development (ibid. p9-10).

Shuck & Rose (2013) suggested focus should be more on developing the *conditions* that nurture performance rather than leveraging outcomes, reframing “*engagement within the context of meaning and purpose*” exploring “*the conditions that cultivate the development of engagement*” (p341). They proposed that “*the concurrent expression of cognitive, affective and physical energies into one’s work performance represents the hallmark of engagement in HRD*” (p344), where individuals construct their own conducive environment and interpret its meaning, a position that has relevance for HE professionals.

Engagement is more than the motivational constructs of commitment and job satisfaction as the employee's perspective and personal disposition is added into the mix. Job tasks need to be challenging and stimulating for academics to promote self-efficacy and experiential mastery (Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2006) and the promotion of self-efficacy and affirmation of practice need to be deeply embedded in the Teacher Fellow Scheme (Shaw, 2018).

Such engagement can be operationalised “as a psychological motivational-state variable representing the experience of work through a cognitive-affective lens” (Shuck & Rose, 2013, p344). The cognitive-affective lens determines the individual's context of ‘*engagement of condition*’ which is dependent on their interpretation of meaning and purpose. In the context of meaning, if a learning opportunity is perceived as a meaningful experience as compared to a meaningless one, an individual will devote energy and attention to it, it will take on personal significance.

Individuals tend to reflect on their courses of action, based on their personal expectancy (Vroom, 1964) regarding reward (status, efficiency or improved relationships) versus the investment, their time and effort which combined reinforces the significance of what they are asked to achieve (Chalofsky, 2010; Fairlie, 2011). The value they ascribe is dependent on their subjective value system which is influenced by their personal beliefs and through the interactions with others. This can be problematic in HE creating a tension between personal professional educational ideals with functional targets outcomes.

Purpose is found when work is made up of meaningful activities, however this can be unique, as individuals can construct their own sense of purpose relevant to them. Therefore, engagement is driven to some extent by activities and behaviours that have perceived purpose. Purpose consists of pressures, demands and intrinsic motivation, amounting to the intention to achieve something, and engagement could be the consequence of an evaluation of purpose (Shuck & Rose, 2013).

To foster engagement for UKPSF recognition, it is important to understand the background conditions that drive or inhibit success as well as the foreground processes that are employed to achieve the outcomes to be attained (Figure. 1), understanding this dynamic is critical in achieving success. Likewise, it is critical to have a clear understanding of the outcomes to be attained, a criticism that has been suggested of HE CPD provision (Clegg, 1999).

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Figure 1 – Model for Employee Engagement

Role of the Manager

Managers play a crucial role in devising and implementing strategies that shape organisational culture (Cusack 2010), and performance systems and CF are important tools to support this. The selection and application of appropriate CF is crucial in enhancing, focusing and aligning individual performance to support organisational objectives. However, staff perception of manager commitment to and value of such frameworks also plays a critical role in gaining staff buy-in (Shaw 2018); if participation is only at a superficial level then it is unlikely to influence organisational culture (de Lancer and Holzer, 2001) or it may even have adverse effects.

In HE, local managers are critical in championing professional culture (Broadnax and Conway 2001; Kaslow et al. 2004; Hennerby & Joyce, 2011) shaping an ethos that encourages flexibility, adaptability and readiness (Quinn and Rohrbaugh 1981; Pandey, et al 2007) builds commitment, involvement and job satisfaction (Pandey and Stazyk 2008) and engenders an open and collaborative environment to foster good pedagogical practice (Yang and Hsieh, 2006).

Motivators for Employee Engagement in HE

King, (2004), working across 31 UK HEIs, identified the top 3 categories of CPD namely: discussion with colleagues, supporting other colleagues and networking with other institutions. She also identified barriers to doing CPD, with individuals citing; limited time, too much emphasis on research, funding allocation and lack of personal interest and lack

of management encouragement. Further, some educationalists considered CPD to be done by attending formal courses whereas others preferred informal learning such as interaction with others and emulating peers they thought were effective, reinforcing the significances of peer relationships and sense of community to promote professional growth and success in the UKPSF (Thornton, 2014; Shaw, 2018; Kershaw-Solomon, 2019).

Hobson (2010) proposed guiding principles to assess new teachers' competency to practice, in addition to the assessment, the process should be valid, reliable, cost-effective and realistic, the framework outcomes must be meaningful and the assessment and evaluation process should be further linked to and promote future professional development and learning opportunities. Finally, participants must be treated as responsible professionals and treated courteously during the process.

However, assessments should also be fair and transparent, so they become effective motivators and benchmarks in promoting personal growth (Crane, 2012; Kershaw-Solomon, 2019). This includes having independent assessors (Lum, 2013) to be seen to make appropriate judgements based on how the assessment unfolds and provide timely supportive feedback (Kaslow et al., 2004), thereby creating an assessment system that builds a productive relationship between those being assessed and those assessing, which has high relevance where staff feel fearful (Cusack, 2010) but also the need to build a collegiate learning environment.

It was highlighted that CPD is an ill-defined and haphazard process (Clegg, 1999) and whilst early career academics do engage with the UKPSF as part of institutional training, they rarely progressed to the higher levels. Further many teaching staff regarded CPD as a peripheral activity, secondary to research (Macfarlane, 2015) and not a primary form of pedagogical engagement (Parsons et al., 2012; Spowart, et al, 2016), treating it as a tick box exercise, highlighting the need for more meaningful collegial engagement.

Consequently, these combined principles should be seen as prerequisites for effective implementation for CPD, CF and professional TF assessment. The key factors fall into three broad areas, firstly, the environment surrounding these organisational processes; the recognition that organisational culture and importantly sub-cultures impact on learning and performance (Schein, 1993; Lucas and Kline, 2008), as well as the nature of the

professional development (Frank & Danoff, 2007; Thornton, 2014) and professionalism. This includes the key role of managers in influencing culture and championing change (Cusack, 2010; Hennerby & Joyce, 2011; Shaw, 2018) including how they employ and commit to change management strategies (Frank & Danoff, 2007; Thornton, 2014).

Secondly, the process itself; for example the employment of humanistic and discourse practices fashioning supportive peer to peer communities of practice and exchange (Wenger et al., 1998; King, 2004) that encourage further learning and development. The process must ensure holistic assessment not just skills and knowledge but taking account attitudes and context (Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1986) and shaping professional disposition. This also includes understanding mature capability (Lester, 2009; Lester & Chapman, 2008), the valid use of value judgements by expert practitioners (Kaslow et al., 2004) and the ability to operationalise a balanced practical wisdom, phronesis (Schwartz and Sharpe 2010).

Finally, the relationship between the practitioner and the assessor (Wollard & Shuck 2011), identified 41 EE antecedents made up of constructs, strategies and conditions; 23 of which were empirically driven and 18 conceptual. These antecedents were further grouped by application into individual (20) and organisational (21) (p433). Individual antecedents are applied directly to or by individual employees and provide the fundamental foundation that affects individual EE and organisational-level antecedents, that are applied across an organisation and therefore operate as a systemic background promoting or inhibiting EE.

Bailey et al. (2017) identified five groups of factors namely: engagement: psychological states; job design; leadership; organisational and team; and organisational interventions. They further identified engagement to be positively associated to individual morale, task performance, extra-role performance and organisational performance. Bailey et al. (2017) and Wollard & Shuck (2011) findings are incorporated into Table 1 outlining below, the synergies of these antecedents, EE, CF and CPD.

Table 1 – Comparison of Professional Development and Engagement Antecedents and Backgrounds

Antecedents & backgrounds for effective design & implementation of CF & CPD	Individual antecedents & backgrounds of EE (Wollard & Shuck, 2011)	Organisational antecedents & backgrounds of EE (Wollard & Shuck, 2011)
Working within the culture of the organisation (Frank & Danoff, 2007)		Authentic corporate culture*; Mission & Vision; Supportive organisational culture*; Perception of workplace safety*
Embedding a culture of professional development (Thornton 2014) and competence (Roberts et al., 2005)	Link individual and organisational goals*	Supportive organisational culture*; Perception of workplace safety*
“Mature capability” is “the ability to engage with and shape contexts so that competence is exercised effectively” (Lester, 2009); “experiential learning to gain the capacity to respond intuitively to complex situations” (Crane et al., 2012 p810).	Feelings of choice and control; Absorption*; Curiosity; Dedication*; Vigour*; Willingness to direct personal energies	Level of task challenge*; Talent management; Opportunities for learning
Role of managers in influencing the culture (Cusack, 2010) and championing change (Kaslow et al., 2004; Hennerby & Joyce, 2011; Shaw, 2018; Kershaw-Solomon, 2019)	Perceived organisational support*	Leadership; Manager expectations*; Manager self-efficacy*; Perception of workplace safety*
Effective change management strategies (Thornton, 2014)	Feelings of choice and control; Perceived organisational support	Supportive organisational culture*; Perception of workplace safety*; Leadership; Manager expectations*
Rewards and benefits such as encouragement, promotion, status (King, 2004)		Hygiene factors; Rewards*; Encouragement; Feedback
Utilising communities of practice (Wenger et al., 1998); Bailey et al (2017); Shaw (2018); Kershaw-Solomon, (2019).		
Valid, meaningful & fair methods (Crane et al., 2012; Hobson, 2010)	Involvement in meaningful work*	
Supportive & respectful relationship with assessor (Hobson, 2010)		Supportive organisational climate* Feedback
Resources – time and priorities (Burr & Girardi, 2002; King 2004)	Available to engage; Absorption*; Work/life balance*; Value congruence*	

*** Denotes antecedents have been empirically tested**

Table 1 provides the theoretical foundation that indicates why employees are more or less engaged in both their work and organisation, from which one can project the conditions that are more likely to enhance adoption and organisational success. Clear humanistic themes are evident both at individual and organisational levels, such as a supportive culture and workplace safety, feelings of choice and control, as well as the provision of opportunities for learning and personal growth. These themes promote good HRD and talent management practice. They also reinforce HE academic authentic professional identity which is critical in shaping their personal and professional disposition and support student learning. What is also apparent is that underpinning engagement, the role of the manager is crucial; the way they work with their teams including how they give feedback, engage and encourage people to grow their praxis.

The paper bringing together the commonality of antecedents and background factors considered important for the design and implementation of CF and associated CPD and EE. Many of the factors are strongly linked to findings from the successful implementation of CF and professional development activities, as well as being linked across more than one aspect of professional development.

Discussion

The UK HE sector has undergone considerable change that has challenged traditional assumptions about the nature and purpose of higher education (Bargh, et al., 2000, 1996; Beverungen, et al., 2008; Khurana, 2007), moving away from 'collegiate' learning and normative values traditionally associated with academic work (Albert and Whetten, 2004; Macfarlane, 2005) towards a hegemonic neoliberalist political agenda (Clark, 1998; Henkel, 1997; McNay, 1995; Harvey, 2007; Miller, 2014). Elite forces of institutional capitalism (Useem, 1984) drives curriculum marketisation, present education solely as a means to gain efficiency and economic advantage (Cruickshank, 2016; Giroux, 2013; Collini, 2012). In so doing it arguably promotes a western normative and instrumental model that has many societal and philosophical flaws (Bennis and O'Toole, 2005; Simpson, 2011) one that side-tracks values of collegiality, critical thinking, scholarship and academic citizenship (Bolden, et al., 2014; MacFarlane, 2007) promoting education as a knowledge banking process (Freire, 1970) and students as trained receptacles.

The TEF audit culture aims to ensure professional delivery of consistent excellent teaching outputs, but in reality TEF is detached from the representation of actual teaching practice, only receiving second-hand accounts of practice (Healey et al., 2014). Further, it can be seen as an unsubtle and weak measurement of teaching quality as it is subjectivity applied across a diverse range of disciplines, levels, departments and faculties (Canning, 2019).

TEF outcomes have difficulty in making meaningful assessments of learning transference; for example, shaping an intellectual disposition, capacity or professional craftsmanship (Gold, and Bratton, 2014) or enabling reflexive habits, or igniting political citizenship and the connection between education and freedom (Greene, 1982). Critics suggest its focus to functional employment is more likely promotes political ambivalence and complacency (Brown 2003, 15). Further the HE provision is an interdependent heutagogic web of learning experiences one that aim to inspire autonomous and self-determined learning in students and staff, therefore pinning down a specific learning event is problematic.

An audit regime can increase stress in a workplace particularly by the pressure generated by a dominant culture of targets (Barcan, 2013) reporting of which can shape teaching policies that conflict directly with student and staff relationships (Healey, 2000). Such a regime can undermine the academic psychological contract, that of freedom and tenure, and self-directedness and also responsibilities for maintaining competence, mentoring others, leadership, and promoting the welfare of all (Thompson et al., 2005). It can also promote detachment from the job and reduce levels of organisational commitment (Kinman and Jones, 2003; Tytherleigh et al., 2005).

This form of managerialism can have pernicious consequences (Archer, 2008) and raise calls that academic freedom and academic professional duty are being undermined (Kennedy, 1997; Macfarlane, 2005), generating a sense of ambiguity and ambivalence about academics relationship with their employing institution and raising concerns about the fragmentation of academic identities (Bolden, et al., 2014). Academic staff experience a bipolar effect creating paradoxical tensions in their job role (teaching and research) and feeling alienated from power within the institution due to the way their performance is assessed. This creates an existential crisis raising feelings of powerless vulnerability and exclusion, made worse by opacity and inconsistency in recognition of good work (Bolden,

et al., 2014) and a disengagement and dissociation from the decision-making processes by academic staff (Bolden et al., 2009; Macfarlane, 2011).

Our work highlights the disquiet of academic staff regarding TF and CF and its relevance in promoting critical pedagogical practices creating a *tension* for professional educators which could be perceived as '*personal trouble*' which in turn surface of greater '*public concerns*' (Mills, 2000, p7) regarding the relevance and purpose of HE, HE institutions and professional educators.

The design and implementation of CF for TF recognition and supportive EE and CPD activities needs to promote genuine passion and commitment to the values, culture and purpose of HE (Bolden, et al., 2014) that focus beyond the '*how*' and '*what*', and reinforce a more critical stance of asking *why* and *to what ends* does this achieve (Purcell and Kinnie, 2008; Gold, and Bratton, 2014). The current normative nature of CF can be seen as an oversimplification of a highly complex and changing multidisciplinary professional landscape (Bond and Gosling, 2006) where CF is not a one stop fits all approach.

The following conceptual framework (figure 2) is proposed, highlighting the individual and organisational antecedents and background factors that influence both the development of effective EE and CF strategy set within the context of the *local* HE environment.

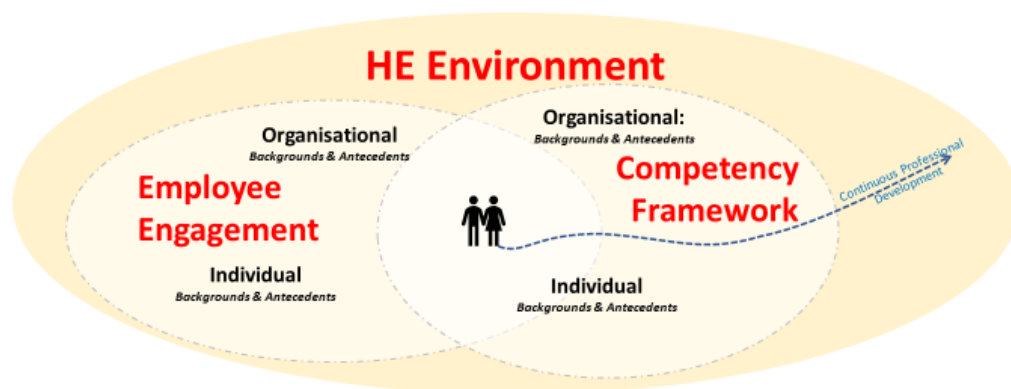


Figure 2: HE Professional Environment - Individual Backgrounds and Antecedents Impacting on CF and EE

The figure demonstrates the dynamics and combined effect of EE and CF, raising the significance of EE in facilitating engagement in CPD. But to do this HRD strategy must provide more meaningful CPD that caters for the needs of HE professionals, promoting an alternative human development paradigm (Nussbaum, 2010) one that shapes a

learning climate and critical pedagogy that values and empowers teaching staff, moving beyond a normative CF. However, this requires a deeper understanding of the diverse HE environment so a meaningful TF can be developed.

Conclusion

The paper calls for HRD practitioners to take a more strategic and critical look at CF, EE and CPD, one that recognises professionalism and traditional pedagogical values and promotes progressive professional learning and critical practice (Clegg, 1999) The vision has to take staff beyond normative CF to promote an HRD climate that acts as a catalyst to grow a positive and critical HE learning culture (Antonacopoulou, 2010; Delbridge and Keenoy, 2010; Watson, 2010). Further, the antecedents and backgrounds explored here need to be addressed in order to gain greater engagement in TF accreditation and professional development.

It is suggested that HRD is a weakened profession (Short, Keefer, and Stone, 2009) where HRD managers take on subservient roles to senior staff demonstrating the hegemonic nature of materialism and it advocates how easily power if not nurtured slips away from experts (Middlehurst and Kennie, 1997) particularly when operating within a cost focused culture.

This clearly highlights the need for greater understanding of the complex, dynamic and diverse HE environment and calls for more effective HRD strategies that build inclusive cultures of collaborative professional practice which champion pedagogies and value community and public good (Naidoo and Williams, 2015; Hager, et al. 2018). However, to do this HRD and the academic community need to challenge current norms.

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