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**Author(s)**

Griffioen, Didi M.E. ; de Jong, Uulkje

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# *Mapping Dutch Higher Education Lecturers' Discourse on Research at Times of Academic Drift*

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**Didi M.E. Griffioen**

*Staff Department Education & Research (O2)*

*Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences*

*Spui 25, room 1.19, 1012 WX Amsterdam*

*D.M.E.Griffioen@hva.nl*

**Uulkje de Jong**

*University of Amsterdam*

[\*u.dejong@uva.nl\*](mailto:u.dejong@uva.nl)

## **Abstract**

With the introduction of research activities in higher professional education in the Dutch higher education system, the notions of 'research' that were previously silently agreed upon among academics in traditional universities also came under pressure. Additionally, both types of higher education actively claim to have educational programs of a different character. The ground underneath the difference is claimed to be the presence of distinct research activities. This study considers this difference through the discourse on 'research' of lecturers in both higher professional education and university education. In interviews, lecturers were asked to judge an argument on their own work-related activities to be 'research' or 'non-research'. Through a network-analysis approach, the data results in five discursive building blocks that all lecturers apply in their arguments, and three discursive themes on research. Furthermore, this research indicates that differences among lecturers on discursive themes are only partly based on institutional differences.

**Keywords:** higher education, research, discourse analysis, social network analysis, professional education.

Despite a long tradition in universities, there remain different notions of what research ought to be (Brew, 2001). In the second part of the twentieth century and as an effect of the massification of the higher education system, higher professional education (HPE) was seen as an important addition to the university system in several European countries. This resulted in the creation of, for example, the 'new' universities in the UK, and the uplift of HPE in the Netherlands (Huisman, 2008) and of the Liberal Arts Colleges in the US, although sometimes for different reasons (Jaquette, 2013). To fulfil their system change, the Dutch HPE, gained in 2001 the possibility of conducting publicly funded research (Dutch Ministry of Education Culture and Science & Netherlands Association of Universities of Applied Sciences, 2001). As often occurs with the introduction to newcomers in an existing field, notions that were previously silently agreed upon came under pressure. In this case, the notion of 'research' became part of a public debate on the function and position of both types of institutes in a single higher education system (Griffioen & De Jong, 2013). This added a new chapter to the international debate on what constitutes research. The current article adds to this debate by studying the discourse on research by lecturers in the Dutch higher education system.

Within the Dutch binary system of higher education, both the 14 publicly funded traditional and technical universities (here collectively called 'universities') and the over 40 institutes for higher professional education ('*hogescholen*'; here: HPE) each have their own position and history (De Boer, Enders, & Leisyte, 2007; Huisman, 2008). The Dutch institutes for HPE currently account for over 60% of all Dutch students in higher education (CBS, 2011), mostly provide undergraduate-level programmes in professional fields such as nursing, teaching and engineering, and do not have the right to award doctorate degrees. Some of the Dutch universities were among the first in Europe to be established. All universities provide bachelor, master, and doctorate programmes.

While the universities gained research responsibility in 1876, as an effect of the developments in German universities related to Von Humboldt, institutes for HPE have had the legal right to conduct research since 1986, but in practise, hardly any research activities were undertaken. Here, research activities usually only appeared in the final year of the curricula, and most institutions lacked any 'research culture' (Griffioen, De Jong, & Jak, 2013; Van der Linden, Bakx, Ros, Beijaard, & Vermeulen, 2012). In the context of the knowledge economy of the 21st century, public means for research have been provided to the HPE institutes since 2001, hence providing a stimulus to actually develop research activities. Thus, the current Dutch higher educational system consists of two types of higher educational institutes, each with their own teaching and research responsibilities.

All aforementioned developments were started by politicians and managers of the different higher educational institutes, while lecturers do not seem to have been present in the debates (Griffioen, 2013). At the same time, the educational programmes in which lecturers work seem to be even more important in the positioning of the institutes, since both mainly claim their differences due to their divergent research philosophies in their educational programmes. The universities aim to educate their students in the more fundamental types of research to become 'professional scholars'. The aim of institutes for HPE is to train their students in more practise-based or evidence-based types of research, resulting in the graduation of 'scholarly professionals' (Van der Rijst & Visser-Wijnveen, 2011).

Lecturers' perceptions can be expected to be of large importance in the actual orientation of both types of educational programmes. Previous research has shown that lecturers' research and teaching conceptions can be expected to form a foundation for the research-related education of students (Visser-Wijnveen, Van Driel, Van der Rijst, Verloop, &

Visser, 2009). Furthermore, research conceptions not only influence the shape of educational programmes or research directions. They also influence the balance lecturers apply between the different tasks of research, teaching, and working in professional fields (Boyd & Smith, 2011). At the same time, the connection between conceptions and behaviour is complex and remains inconclusive (Visser-Wijnveen, 2009). These notions result in the hypothesis that the differences between the both types of higher educational institutes in the Dutch system should be visible in the discourse on research that both types of lecturers wield. This should be the case at least if these differences are more than theoretical or political notions. Therefore the following questions are central in this study: 1) what are the structures—later called ‘building blocks—in lecturers’ discourse on ‘research’ and ‘non-research’?; 2) what are the discursive themes in lecturers’ discourse of ‘research’?; and, 3) are there any other differences between lecturers from higher professional education and lecturers from universities?

### **Discourse Analysis and Network Analysis in a Combined Methodology**

The current study explores higher education lecturers’ discourse on research. The notion of discourse in this study is in its essence based on the work of Michel Foucault (2001), who defines discourse as ‘*a collective of concepts and practices (techniques, procedures) with a certain productive force*’. This means a discourse can be considered related statements and actions that collectively produce meanings and have effects. It also means that a discourse is considered to contain the human ability to create and label groups of people or objects by speaking or acting. By speaking and acting, people create and confirm the division between ‘healthy’ and ‘sick’ people, between ‘like’ and ‘dislike’ of food, or the demarcation between a ‘good’ and ‘bad’ score on a test (Carabine, 2001).

The work procedure in this study is rather different from the work of Michel Foucault and others on discourse analysis (Foucault, 2001). The current study applies a procedure by which a rich qualitative analysis is combined with a more quantified (social) network analysis of the lecturers and their statements on research. The procedure is similar to the procedure of social network analysis (Scott, 2013), but in a single map applied to both the statements and the people who uttered them. The result of this procedure is a visualization of the discourse of all respondents by a visualization of their similar and therefore interrelated statements. By this visualisation it is possible to see what statements are more central in the discourse, what statements are more on the edge, and how they are interrelated. Additionally, it is possible to find different discursive themes that are more or less central in the discourse. And finally, the position of the lecturers in the discourse is visualized.

Although applied in a different methodological approach, the principles of centre and edge, as well as of different discursive themes that co-exist, are in line with the notions of Michel Foucault. In his work, major ‘events’ can shift central notions of the discourse more to the edge, and therefore change the discourse over time. Hence, over time and space different rules limit the ‘truths’ of daily practise (in this study labelled as discursive themes), while on and off modifying the discourse by the same daily practise (Foucault, 2001). In the current study these notions are the starting point for the chosen approach. In this sense, the notion of ‘discourse’ is different from the notion of ‘concept’. Entwistle and Peterson (2004), where they refer to ‘concept’ as a shared understanding of something (here, ‘research’), while ‘conception’ is seen as the individual conditions that one applies to define an object. As opposed to ‘conception’, a ‘discourse’ is limited by how words and actions are handled in action to *produce* truth claims or what has been perceived as true (Bills, 2004).

In line with the productive force of actions (including stating something), in their daily practice, lecturers produce the demarcation of ‘research’ by dividing activities— their own as well as those of students, colleagues, and others—into ‘research’ and ‘non-research’. These divisions mostly happen intuitively. However, when encouraged to make the choice explicit— as this study has done in interview settings—lecturers find it suddenly rather hard to argue why they demark their ‘truths’ on research as they do (see also Neumann, 1993). At the same time, the demarcation of research by lecturers is relevant since it denotes the space of research-related activities in practise, e.g. for students when they choose topics and methods for their theses. Thus, the discursive structure of research enables and limits what activities are considered ‘normal’ for research (Carabine, 2001). And, whereas discursive systems are created and enacted by human action, the people involved are, at the same time, defined by them (Foucault, 2001). The central function of the lecturers makes it plausible that their ‘truth’ on research will influence the shape and execution of research in the educational programs and beyond.

### Sample

HPE lecturers (N<sub>h</sub>=16) who were previously part of a large survey study were found willing to participate in this study. Their selection was based on having teaching responsibilities, willingness to join in the somewhat time-consuming procedure, and the ability to participate in an interview on set days at their institution. In line with previous work of Eekelen (2005) and Kahneman, Krueger, Schkade, Schwarz, and Stone (Kahneman, Krueger, Schkade, Schwarz, & Stone, 2004), these respondents were first requested to keep a log of all their own work-related activities during ten subsequent workdays. The logs were the basis for structured interviews (45-60 minutes) in which the respondents were asked per activity to consider it ‘research’ or ‘non-research’ and to explain the answer. The interviews were transcribed and used as data. The logs themselves were not included in the analysis.

A second sample of university lecturers with teaching responsibility (N<sub>u</sub>=19) was added to see whether there are differences in discursive themes between the lecturers of the two types of institutes. The second sample was matched to be comparable to the first sample and consisted of junior lecturers (in this sample, preferably without PhDs) and university lecturers (starting level based on having a PhD), half from the social sciences and half from the natural/technical science fields. The interviews with these respondents were based on a list of activities that was distilled from the activities present in the first group to make it less time-consuming for the participants, while keeping the list generic enough to fit all usual activities. Examples of activities were: to teach a class, or to create a research proposal. The further procedure was similar between the two groups (for respondents’ characteristics, see Table 1).

*Table 1: Gender and educational level characteristics of participating lecturers. HPE=Higher Professional Education; TU=Traditional University.*

N=35	Gender	Educational Level		
	% Women	% Bachelor	% Master	% PhD
HPE – Science & Technique (N=5)	-	20	60	20
HPE – Social Professions (N=11)	45	18	82	-
TU - Science & Technique (N=9)	66	-	33	67
TU – Social Professions (N=10)	30	-	90	10

## Analysis

The first aim of the analysis was to find the basic coding structure for positive and negative judgements on research in the discourse, here called 'building blocks' (question 1). These building blocks are a prerogative to answer the research question on discursive themes, similar to a basic code structure in qualitative analysis (Charmaz, 2006). The audio of the interviews was transcribed *ad verbatim*. Eight of the transcripts were coded *in vivo* by deciding for each statement on research what the judgement was (research or not) along with the specific phrase used by the respondent. A statement was defined as an uninterrupted utterance. Statements where the judgement of the author was inconclusive or covered no content on research/non-research were excluded. This resulted in two lists of phrases: a) positive judgements ('in research...') and b) negative judgements ('in non-research...'). Then, the positive codes and the negative codes were ordered separately to find the building blocks among the statements. These building blocks were then applied on all transcripts, while paying attention to the possible need for new codes and building blocks, which were not found.

The second aim was to find the rules that demarcate 'research' from 'non-research' and hence indicating different discursive themes, by mapping the interrelatedness of all statements and the lecturers that uttered them (question 2). To create the discursive map, all transcripts were re-coded by creating one or more codes for each utterance by each time applying: a) one relevant building block along with b) one open code to provide for the content of the utterance. The direction ('research'/'non-research') of the codes applied was based on whether a part of the statement contributed to 'research' or 'non-research'.

The next step was to create a data file based on the different codes in two types of network connections: a) between the code and the person and b) between each combination of two codes that were applied within a single statement. Based on the frequency of the specific relations found, a relative weight was added to every relation. The data file thereby created was used for further analysis in the social network application NODEXL (Smith et al., 2010), resulting in a combined visual network of discursive codes and the lecturers who uttered them. The Fruchterman-Reingold algorithm (1991) was applied, indicating a graphical position for the vertices (here statement codes or persons), based on the principle of repulsive force among vertices. Hence, the visual position of a vertex in the graph indicates similarities and differences in application among vertices. Furthermore, the Clauset-Newman-Moore grouping tool was used to find groups of more homogeneous vertices based on the relations they have with other vertices. Since NODEXL is used here as a tool for discursive analysis, the content of the different groups found in the graphs were qualitatively interpreted as different themes within the discursive network on 'research' and 'non-research'. Hereby, the graphical display of vertices was qualitatively analysed and supported by the quantitative notions of 'degree' and 'betweenness centrality' of the vertices, as NODEXL provides.

Furthermore, the position of the respondents in the network is additionally qualitatively analysed to indicate similarities and differences between the lecturers' higher professional education and that of universities (question 3). For an overview of all analytic steps see Figure 1.

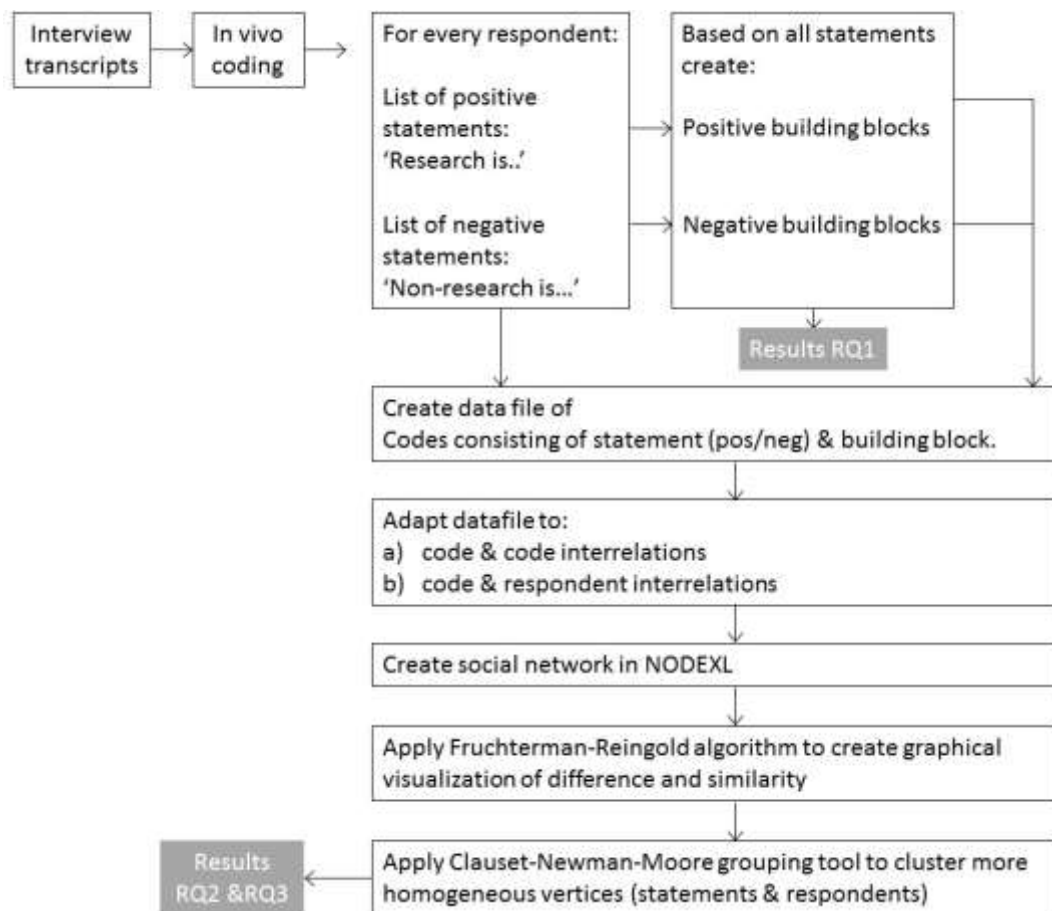


Figure 1: Overview of all analytic steps.

## Findings

The findings are structured by the three analytic steps: 1) the building blocks of the discourse of research found, 2) the discursive themes, and 3) the characteristics of the respondents that are part of each discursive theme found.

### Types of statements: building blocks of discourse

The ordering of the grounded codes of the first eight transcripts resulted in a coding structure for the positive statements and a coding structure for the negative statements. These were found to be similar where they could have been different. The structure consisted of five different 'research' and 'non-research' building blocks:

- The quality or mode of research* in this building block indicates the difference between research and non-research. Something 'being new' could for instance be considered research, while 'existing', 'routine' or 'educational' are used as arguments for non-research.
- The aims of the activity*. This building block is defined by the direction of the activity. Research and non-research are framed around a certain goal or aim that needs to be reached. Aims applied for research were for instance: 'to solve/improve', 'to find/discover' or 'to develop/create'. Aims for non-research were: 'to inform/exchange', 'to let perform' and 'to let learn'.

- c) *The actual activity*. The actual activity that is shown or done in a situation distinguishes for the respondents between research and non-research. Activities applied to distinguish research were: 'to collect/find', or 'to analyse/process, while 'to transfer/make available', 'to guide/support/council' and 'to use/compare' were applied for non-research.
- d) *The characteristics of the respondent him/herself* makes the difference between research and non-research in this building block. Most often this is by the respondent related to their roles in a situation, such as 'teacher' or 'researcher'.
- e) *The object part of the activity* is used as an argument to distinguish between research and non-research. When asked: is this activity research? The answer can be: yes, because there is 'data', but also 'no, because it is based on formats'.

### **Discursive Themes of Research**

The application of the building blocks to all transcripts and the grouping analysis resulted in a map of the interrelation between statements and their lecturers on 'research' and 'non-research' divided into seven discursive themes: three large ones and four rather small ones. The three larger ones are further qualitatively described; the four smaller themes are considered outliers and not further investigated. The respondents who participated in this study are included in the different discursive themes and reported in the next section.

#### **Theme 1: 'Research in phases versus transfer of existing knowledge'**

The results show that the first theme is mostly built of subthemes in the building block Objects that demarcate 'research' for the lecturers, such as the presence of a question or problem, a theory, a method or instrument, a hypothesis, data, and conclusions or results. These subthemes seem to indicate a discourse of research in phases or cycles, also confirmed with the presence of the subtheme 'phases or steps'. Other subthemes that are part of the building block Activities are collecting, finding, and discovering; designing, planning, and choosing; analysing, writing, and reporting; and thinking and reflecting. The two subthemes of the building block Goals that are part of 'research' in this theme are solving, improving, or changing and encouraging reflection or thinking. The building block Modalities shows three subthemes that indicate 'research' in theme 1 is demarcated by a certain level, quality, depth, or complexity, but can also be considered 'research light'. Furthermore, it is mentioned that the activity needs modalities as (scientifically) relevant, valuable, and interesting to consider it research. Other modalities are as follows: of a critical nature, serious, or a quest. Furthermore, different types of research are named, such as qualitative, quantitative, clinical, or literature study, indicating that it is relevant to distinguish between *types* of research. The building block of Respondent Characteristics show by its subthemes that, to demarcate 'research', the role of the respondent him/herself as an active researcher has an influence on the judgement. This argument of researchers' role is combined with the aforementioned subthemes of the building blocks Objects and Activities that collectively can be labelled as research in phases with the modality of depth and complexity, which define an activity as 'research'.

The building block Activity implies that 'non-research' is defined by the transference of material, such as (the content of) curricula or books or knowledge and ideas. Furthermore, a prominent subtheme in the building block Modality indicates 'non-research' to be about something that already exists and is about a topic other than a research topic. Subthemes mentioned in the building block Aims are to find something out or to improve something. The building block Respondent Characteristics is framed as 'a guide or facilitator to others', and 'not as a researcher'.



### **Theme 2: 'New versus educational routine'**

The results of theme 2 show for 'research' a higher portion of the Aims building block than theme 1, with subthemes adding or contributing knowledge or insight but also learning. Theme 2 also shows the building block Modality with subthemes 'directed towards a goal' and the building block Object with the subtheme 'intent' for an activity needed to be judged as research. The building block Activities show in this theme the subthemes: sharing or discussing, guiding or explaining, teaching, and checking. Furthermore, building block Objects show the subthemes: a gathering, thesis, or assignment; skills; and reflection. The Modality 'the respondent him/herself learns as well' is also part of this discursive theme. The Object building block 'subject' is one of the more prominent ones, and the respondents consider an activity research with Modality subthemes as 'the subject is the same as the respondents' research'. In contrast to theme 1 is the Modality subtheme 'new', positioned as the most prominent modality of 'research', along with: creative, explorative, without compromise, and state of the art. Furthermore, an activity can be considered 'research' when it can contribute to research or when it feels like research. An activity is considered 'research' when respondents themselves learn of it, while learning is also an argument part of 'non-research', such as by the goals of learning, guiding, developing, or gaining more insight.

Activity building blocks for 'non-research' in this theme are judging or checking, answering, testing, finding or collecting, and developing. The modalities to indicate that activities are non-research are educational, didactic, or informative and serve the function of graduation, with disciplining and preparatory as less prominent. Other modalities consider 'non-research' activities to be procedural, practical, fixed, and based on routine. The only subtheme of building block Respondent Characteristics in theme 2: 'passive'.

### **Theme 3: 'Tangible versus invisible'**

The arguments that construct the judgement on 'research' in theme 3 are based mainly on the more tangible aspects of research. Relevant subthemes in the building block Aims to judge an activity as 'research' are: graduating (PhD), publishing, receiving funding, developing, creating, or generating. These mostly tangible, output-related goals are combined with some less tangible goals, such as: to keep up with the discipline, to substantiate or deepen, and to conduct research. Also, the formal status of the activity is important, indicated by Modalities' subthemes such as 'is formally research' as well as 'is formally non-research' as part of 'research' in this theme. The most prominent blocks of 'research' in this theme are creating, improving or solving (Activity), tangible output (Object), knowledge, ideas, facts (Object), and orienting or reading (Activity), and the modalities are scientific, structured, substantiated, coherent, and comparable, combined with exploratory and contradictory.

Judgements on 'non-research' are based on deliberation (Activity) and on the presence of a meeting or email (Objects), which indicate a more communicative perspective on activities. Furthermore, 'non-research' activities seem to be less about the respondent him/herself and more about someone or something else, indicated by Modalities such as facilitating and executing, and Respondents' Characterisations such as 'neutrality' or 'being an outsider'. Other (more active) respondent roles are lecturer or project leader, with the goals of checking, organising, or guiding.

### **Characteristics of respondents in each discursive theme**

People create the discourse but are themselves also defined by it (Foucault, 2001). Hence, the respondents were placed inside the network analysis and were found to be clustered in one specific theme. See Figure 2 for an overview of respondents per theme. The results

show that, of the lecturers in theme 1, ‘research in phases versus transfer of existing knowledge’, four are employed in universities in natural/technical science disciplines and five are from behavioural sciences or social professions fields at both types of institutes. When this last group is considered in detail, three have a specific background in methodology and/or psychology, which in the Dutch educational system indicates that they have had extensive training in quantitative research principles and the empirical cycle.

Theme 2, ‘new versus educational routine’ is first applied by lecturers of the universities, both in the social science fields (4) and in the natural/technical science fields (4), along with a smaller group employed in higher professional institutes. When considered more closely, two of the lecturers from universities work in the economics sector and one in the professional education field of economics. Also, one of the lecturers from the natural science field in the university works in informatics, while another works in applied mathematics. Thus, at least five of the lecturers in theme 2 have a work environment that seems familiar with mathematical model-building activities.

Theme 3, ‘tangible versus invisible’, is dominated by lecturers from social science professions at the institutes for HPE, mostly from a ‘caring’ profession such as pedagogics, social work, or health care. Two lecturers from universities in this theme are from the social sciences, which in general has a positive feel toward care-related topics in society.

Based on the numbers of lecturers in this study, as well as the method chosen, this distinction of lecturers in groups can be considered of an explorative nature.

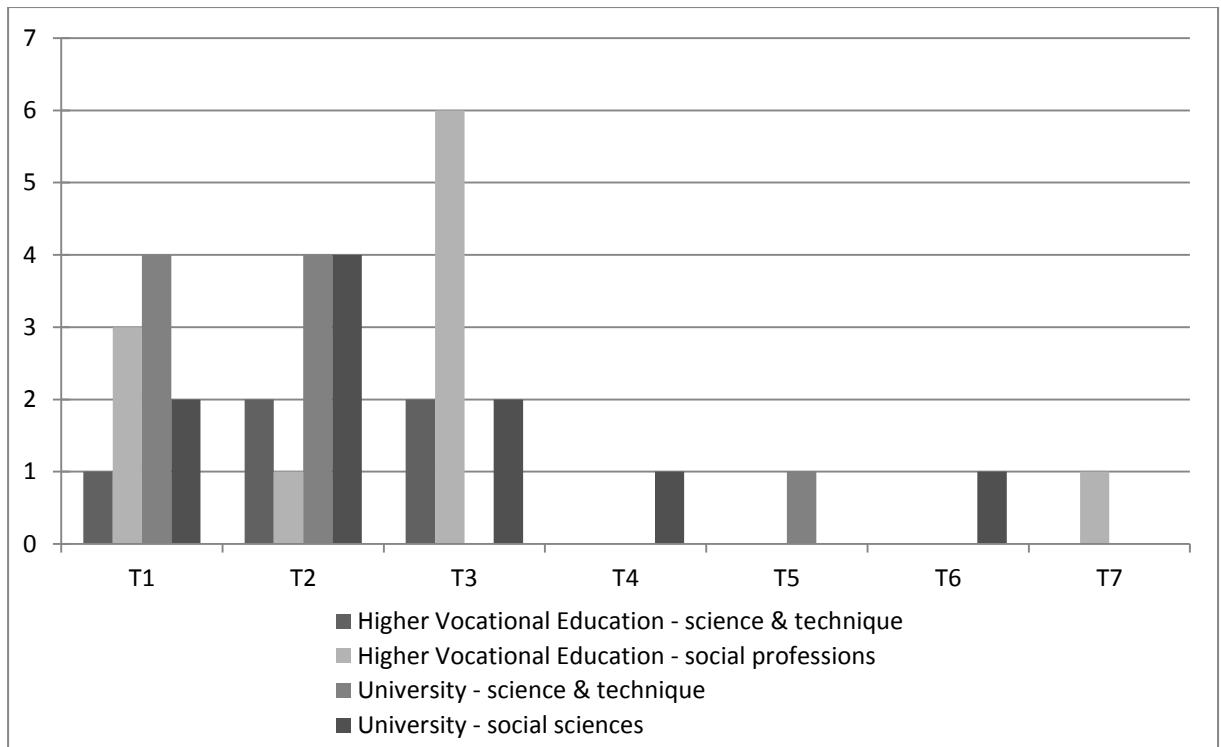


Figure 2: The number of different types of lecturers as part of the different discursive themes (T1-T7)

## Discussion

This study has explored the discourse on research of lecturers in higher education with the aim of finding the characteristics of lecturers’ discourse on ‘research’ and ‘non-research’. To do so, lecturers were questioned on what activities they consider to be ‘research’ or ‘non-

research' and why. The activities that were discussed would generally be considered research activities or teaching activities. The grounded coding approach resulted in five different building blocks of lecturers' discourse on research (question 1). Based on the application of these building blocks to the interview transcripts, seven discursive themes on research have been found, of which three are prominent (question 2). Special attention was furthermore given to the differences and similarities between lecturers from higher professional education and lecturers who work for universities (question 3).

The five building blocks found were: a) the quality or mode of research, b) the aims of the activity, c) the actual activity, d) the characteristics of the respondent him/herself, e) the object part of the activity. Similar building blocks can also be seen when a number of previous studies on the nature of research are combined (e.g. Åkerlind, 2008; Brew, 2001; Meyer, Shanahan, & Laugksch, 2005), but before they have not been found as the results of a single analysis. Additionally, a sixth aspect, 'context', which was shown in the study of Bills (2004), was not found as a building block in the present study. Thus, based on the comparison of the results of the present study with previous results, six possible building blocks could be considered when the demarcation of research in higher education is discussed.

The content of each building block and a network analysis of the combination(s) in which they are applied resulted in seven different discursive themes (question 2)—of which three are prominent and four considered outliers—to be distinguished within the discourse on 'research' and 'non-research' among lecturers in higher education. The lecturers in the first theme—referred to as 'research in phases versus transfer of existing knowledge'—consider activities to be 'research' when the respondent functions as a researcher, when the activity is dividable into phases or steps, and when the activity needs to have a certain depth or complexity and (scientific) relevance or interest. Furthermore, the activity needs to be aimed to solve or improve something or to encourage thinking for respondents to consider it 'research'. An activity is considered 'non-research' when it is about transferring or finding out about existing knowledge (not new and mostly teaching-related objects such as books) of a different subject than the respondent's subject. The lecturers that employ this theme are mostly from the natural science field or from a closely related social science (behavioural) strand such as psychology. This theme is dominated by lecturers from the universities.

In the second theme, 'new versus educational routine', 'research' and 'non-research' are both often considered activities that can bring more insight. Research activities are new, creative, and feel like research, while 'non-research' activities can be considered more educational and more practical, fixed, and routine-based, with a more passive role for the respondents. Most respondents have a work context that is related to mathematical models, such as economics or applied math.

The third theme, 'tangible versus invisible', shows how arguments on 'research' are mainly based on tangible aspects such as publications or funding. The codes for 'non-research' are based on the invisibility of the respondents, who mainly have a facilitating character. Most lecturers that are part of this theme have social and care-related work contexts. This theme is dominated by lecturers from the HPE institutes. Furthermore, to provide an answer to question 3, the differences among lecturers in higher education can be somewhat based on institutional differences, but the differences between disciplinary fields seem much more prominent.

Based on the three discursive themes found, 'research' cannot be considered a single discursive entity. The rules underlying the demarcating of 'research' from 'non-research' by lecturers can be considered part of the same discourse in the sense that lecturers all apply

similar building blocks in their reasoning, although not always in the same amount or with the same content. One can say that lecturers of different discursive themes do understand the construct of the arguments (or rules) that lecturers in other themes apply, but they do not see eye-to-eye on what criteria actually delimits 'research'. Hence, they do not fully (re)produce the same construct of research in their actions with students and colleagues. The cyclical process and the active role of the lecturers in the first theme is a rather different perspective than the central role for learning and the modality of the activity in the second theme. There, cycles or phases are less relevant for it to be research as long as the activity has a certain depth, creativity, or newness. This is, again, a different perspective than the output orientation of the third theme.

### **Limitations**

The discursive differences between lecturers found, can be considered both discipline based and institutional. One can wonder which boundary is more dominant when a larger and more diverse sample is investigated, or whether the boundaries will shift. More elaborate research (e.g. including humanities lecturers) can bring a firmer conclusion. Additionally, the matching of both groups of teaching academics meant that the highest levels of academics in universities – professors - were not included in this study. This was due to the fact that research professors in HPE often do not have teaching responsibilities. Future research should also consider these highest level academics to see how this alters the current results. Lastly, the difference in data-gathering between lecturers from both institutional types (using logs versus a prefixed list of activities) could have influenced the differences found. All and all, this study only set some first steps on the conclusions on institutional and disciplinary differences in perceptions of research by lecturers in HPE and universities. And on these, further research can be built.

An implication to consider is what effect each discursive theme has for choices in the balance between research and teaching (Boyd & Smith, 2011), as well as the choices of research methods, outputs, or partnerships with students and colleagues (Visser-Wijnveen et al., 2009). For the time being, the differences between the lecturers do not fully follow institute borders. Discipline—as always—plays an important role, while in day-to-day professional life many consider institutional differences the main differentiating aspect on research. Hence, lecturers (and researchers) from both types of institutes should consider lecturers from the other institutions more as colleagues than as strangers. They more fully share discursive themes on research among disciplinary colleagues than among colleagues of another field at a similar institute. Lecturers themselves, but also institutional policy officers should beware of that.

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**Didi M.E. Griffioen, Ph.D** is a Senior Policy Advisor Research in the central staff department of the board of the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences (AUAS). Additionally she works as a higher education researcher at Amsterdam UAS, and at the VU University in Amsterdam. Her current research projects include studies on the implementation of research activities in new universities, the implementation and acceptance of honor programs, and collaborative behavior of students in vocational programs. Contact information: [D.M.E.Griffioen@hva.nl](mailto:D.M.E.Griffioen@hva.nl).

**Uulkje de Jong, Ph.D** is a Senior Researcher at the Department of Education of the University of Amsterdam. Additionally she works as a lecturer in research methods at the pedagogics program of the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences.