Bodies of Knowledge – Transforming an Occupation to a Profession: An exploratory study of Project Management in the United Kingdom

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Abstract

Transforming an Occupation to a Profession: An exploratory study of the project management profession in the United Kingdom

Professions, occupations founded on specialist or expert knowledge, provide services society deems sufficiently important to accord them special status. These services are seen as critical to society because they cannot be provided by other occupations. The knowledge upon which professions are founded is generally referred to as its body of knowledge (BOK). While the nature of special knowledge has been investigated, how the BOK is employed during professional formation has not been studied. The purpose of this research was to determine how this key part of the process is used in the professional formation of occupations. This is important since professions consume a significant and increasing share of national resources.

Recognising that professional formation is culturally bound, this research focused on an emergent profession in the United Kingdom. The exemplar, the Association for Project Management had recently been award a Royal Charter which can be seen as formal recognition as a profession.

This research adopted an interpretive philosophic stance in order to make sense of the process of professional formation. An inductive survey strategy based on semi structured interviews was conducted over two stages. In total, twenty eight semi-structured interviews were conducted online across four stakeholder groups. A six stage thematic analysis was applied to the transcribed interviews using the analysis tool NVivo.

The research revealed two pressure groups pressing for professional recognition and identified four stakeholder groups which used APM's formal BOK in subtly different ways. In addition to the recognised uses of a BOK, the research revealed the use of the BOK to avoid jurisdictional disputes. This which allowed the exemplar association to enlist the support of other professional associations in their pursuit of a Royal Charter which resulted in the successful conclusion of their professional formation. Opportunities for further research are identified.

Key words:

Project management, body of knowledge, profession, professional project.

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Preface

One of my roles as Chairman of the Association for Project Management and President of the International Project Management Association was to ensure that the bodies of knowledge of both organisations properly reflected practice and also to took account of theoretical developments. As a result, I commissioned updates to both institutions' formal Bodies of Knowledge. These projects both resulted in unexpected and suboptimal outcomes. In reflecting on the results, I became aware that these foundational documents could have unexpected roles to play in relation to newly emergent occupations. This research is intended to answer some of the questions that arose from those projects, particularly in relation to the roles Bodies of Knowledge play.

Acknowledgements

In common with many projects, this one has taken a great deal longer than I had planned. That it has been completed at all is due to the support and encouragement I have received from many people. I am very fortunate to have had three outstanding supervisors: Dr Geli Roushan and Dr Roger Atkinson who were both in at the start and then, when Dr Atkinson retired, Dr David Biggins. They all provided the most amazing support; they kept me on the academic straight and narrow, patiently reminding me of my many transgressions and helped me to deploy my practitioner interest in a suitably rigorous manner. I am most grateful to them for their patience, guidance and all round support over an extended period.

As a well-known American researcher once wrote, it is better to have critics than friends. I have been particularly fortunate as Roger Atkinson has been a friend for many years and has also been a very effective critic. He managed to pose many questions that highlighted 'taken for granted' assumptions, lazily expressed ideas and poorly thought out notions. That he was able to do this in a way that preserved our friendship from the start and has endured to the end of the project is nothing short of miraculous.

I have also received much help from a variety of staff at Bournemouth University. The staff of the Sir Michael Cobham Library have been ever

ready to help and I am very grateful for their patience and encyclopaedic knowledge, Caspian Dugdale has been particularly helpful with bibliographic software and Anne Davies with literature searching. I am also very grateful for the assistance of the Business School's ever helpful and patient Research Secretary. Similarly, the staff of the Doctoral College ensured a steady supply of very effective short courses that fleshed out my understanding of research techniques. I have also received exceptional support from IT specialists, particularly Chris Pitt who, at very short notice, worked magic on some arcane idiosyncrasies in MS Word.

I owe a considerable debt of gratitude to the staff and Board of Trustees at the Association for Project Management who provided much background material and access to records as well as encouragement over a much longer period than anticipated. I am particularly indebted to the twenty seven necessarily anonymous interview respondents without whose assistance and frank responses, I would have been unable to complete my research.

And most important of all, I must thank my wonderful wife, Kate. I have had the most amazing support in this project, and life in general, from her. She has put up with a great deal over the years this project has taken and her patience, support and love have helped me immeasurably: I doubt that I would have finished without her sustained support and encouragement.

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Overview

It is widely recognised that the professions play an important part in society. They provide critical services deemed essential for normal life. Such services include the preservation of life, through medicine, and the governance of society through legal applications. These services come at a cost and so may be regarded as occupations as practitioners sell their expert services yet their occupation is held in high regard. Not all occupations are seen in the same light as professions and much study has been devoted to understanding professional formation, how occupations become professions. The purpose of this research is to explore one aspect of this professional formation: how knowledge is used in the transformation of an occupation into a profession. It considers the nature of bodies of knowledge, how and why they are used and why they are considered significant.

Professions may be seen as occupations that provide specialist services and have privileges related to monopoly, exclusive market control and authority over knowledge (Abel 1979).

Abel (1979 p48); (Larson 2013) Professions, such as medicine, law, accountancy and engineering, make a substantial contribution to society (Durkheim 1958) but that contribution comes at a cost both individually and collectively (Evetts 2013). It is, therefore, important to understand how this cost can be justified in sociological terms.

Although there is a substantial literature on the sociology of professions, there is no generally accepted definition of profession or professionals. Furthermore, these terms have a range of meanings in everyday life, and as Macdonald (1995) notes, these are frequently value laden. Despite this lack of definition, some characteristics can be identified from the literature. These characteristics mainly concern their basis on specialised knowledge (Freidson 1986a) and professions can be seen as "*occupations based on advanced, or complex, or esoteric, or arcane knowledge*" (Murphy 1988 p245).

1.2 Importance of Professions

1.2.1 Professions in Society

Professions differ from occupations because they offer society specialised services rather than tangible products. These services are seen as critical to society because they cannot be provided by other occupations (Freidson 1986b). Long established examples are medicine, law, education, the clergy and artists (Carr-Saunders and Wilson 1933; Macdonald 1995; Freidson 2001). Each of these occupations offer services based on trust (Moline 1986; Malin 2017): the recipient of the service trusts the provider for a variety of reasons, one of which is superior or specialist knowledge, usually resulting from higher education (Dingwall 1999) and prolonged practice (Freidson 2001).

According to many scholars, professions are important to society. (Abbott 1988) p1 claims that the professions "*dominate our society*", while (Susskind and Susskind 2015) p19 note that their services are "*critical for our lives and are of significant economic importance*". The services provided by professions are self-evidently highly important to both individuals and to society. Little is more important to an individual than their health, preservation of the law is important to society as a whole and care of corporate and private funds are major concerns for individuals and for society more widely. Furthermore, professions consume a significant and increasing share of national resources. In the United Kingdom (UK) this is illustrated by expenditure on the National Health Service (NHS) where the total spend was £269 bn (12.8% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP)) in 2021 compared with £225.2 bn (10.2% of (GDP) in 2018 (ONS 2020), an increase of 14.8% on the previous year. Although the NHS spend is not entirely professional fees, the vast bulk is directly related to professionals (salary, equipment and most consumables). The cost of Legal Aid in Financial Year 2020 – 21 was about £1.46 bn (ONS 2021b). Some 7 million people were classified as professionals in UK in November 2021 and nearly 5 million as associate professionals (ONS 2021a). These two groups make up approximately a third of the total UK workforce. Professions can therefore be seen to play a significant part in British society.

1.2.2 An outline of Professions

Despite the extensive literature analysing professions, there is no generally agreed definition of what constitutes a profession. Turner and Hodge (1970) offer dimensions based on the knowledge base of the occupation, claims of exclusive control of work activity, external recognition and the nature of organisation. On the other hand, Millerson (1964) offers a list of 14 elements identified by 21 sociologists that seemed to be attributes of professions. No single element was identified by every sociologist, but the more popular aspects are shown in Table 1:

Table 1 – Attributes of profession (adapted from Millerson (1964, p.5 and 260))

Attributes	Identified by
Organised	13
Code of Conduct	13
Skill based on theoretical knowledge	12
Requires training and education	9
Altruistic service	8

These aspects are discussed in more detail in Chapter 2 but is clear that an occupation must be organised into some sort of association, or have some form of structure (Brock 2006) to allow key factors to be managed; set out some defined code that users can compare practitioners against other, less organised, practitioners (Bryceland and Stam 2005). The services offered are based on specialist knowledge, unique to the occupation (Fincham 2012) and mastery of this knowledge is gained by training and requires a defined level of education (Pavlin et al. 2010). Finally, those recognised as professionals have the interests of their clients foremost in their practice, rather than profit (Evetts 2013). It should be noted that these factors are not universally recognised, and each aspect is challenged under different theoretical models (addressed in Chapter 2).

1.3 New Interpretations of Profession

Professions have been the subject of academic and practical interest for many years as evidenced by Defoe (1697) through Carr-Saunders and

Wilson (1933) and more recently to Abbott (1991a), Larson (2013) and others. It is hardly surprising that over such a long time span, attitudes towards profession have changed as society has evolved. Factors such as globalisation and new technology have created a substantially different social environment which is reflected by the attitudes of younger generations towards many aspects of working and social life (Gorman and Sandefur 2011).

1.3.1 Emergence of New Occupations

The emergence of "new" occupations is not confined to the "fast-changing modern world" (Susskind and Susskind 2015). Scholars have long recognised that new occupations emerge as the economy develops (e.g. Smith (1776)). A major expansion in the number of occupations took place in the 18th and 19th centuries during the industrial revolution (Carr-Saunders and Wilson 1933). More recently, Millerson (1964) and Wilensky (1964) both noted the rapidly increasing number of new occupations seeking recognition as professions. There are, however, many other reasons why new occupations emerge including changes to existing occupations (Abbott 1988) that generate new occupations (e.g. stratification of engineering in the 19th C); innovation resulting in new technologies (e.g. information technology); differing social conditions (e.g. changing communications methods). Saks (2010, 2016) and Susskind and Susskind (2015) noted the number of emerging skill-sets on which new occupations could be based. The number of new occupations emerging seems to have accelerated in the immediate post World War 2 period (Gorman and Sandefur 2011; Malin 2017) as new technologies transferred from the military into the commercial world. Examples of new occupations over the last 20 years include management consulting, software engineering and human resource management (Hodgson and Muzio 2011). One such "new" occupation is project management.

1.3.2 Membership Organisations

Along with the new occupations come new organisations to support them. Any group of people with similar interests can form a membership organisation but in occupational terms, membership organisations form

when a number of individuals perceive that they are performing similar jobs and join together for any combination of social, educational or promotional purposes. An occupation does not exist unless it is defined, usually by some form of trade body. In the case of nascent professions, the "trade body" becomes a membership association to gather in those who practice the "profession". To avoid confusion, these will be referred to as Associations. As Millerson (1964, p.5) shows, these Associations are an important component in formalising the occupation by establishing its jurisdiction (Abbott 1988) and conditions for entry (Johnson 1972). Associations are important in the sociology of professions since they provide a form of legitimation for an occupation. Practitioners can point to a governing structure that may provide reassurance to a potential client base who can see that the occupation is controlled and offers some form of consistent service.

Associations are particularly noticeable in the so-called "knowledge economy" (Blackler 1995; Brint 2001; Noordegraaf 2007). The notion of the knowledge economy was first introduced by Machlup (1962) who claimed that the production of goods and services that depend primarily upon knowledge-intensive activities, rather than the manufacturing sector, accounted for 29% of GDP in the United States of America (USA). More than 11% of firms economically active in UK lie in the knowledge intensive sector (ONS 2016); they cover a wide range of activity and are not confined to manufacturing. Seminal work by Drucker (1966) which coined the phrase "knowledge economy" acknowledges Machlup's pioneering work.

Associations sometimes make claims to professional status (Wilensky 1964; Hodgson and Muzio 2011). However, the route to profession is ill-defined (Liu et al. 2010) because of the lack of agreement on the definition of profession, hence on what components make up a profession and how attainment can be judged. The transformation of an occupation into a profession is sometimes termed "*professionalisation*" and is seen as a process. Sociologically, this view is rejected (e.g. Siegrist 2015) since it is complex and complicated. Others share the view that:

> "*Professionalisation is perhaps best understood as the series of diverse and variable, social and historical, process of development, of*

how work sometimes becomes an occupation … and some occupations become … called professional".(Evetts 1999, p.120)

Furthermore, there is no single process leading to professional status. Wilensky's (1964) sequence of activities has been shown to be ill-founded (Jackson 1970; Abbott 1988) while other processes have also been dismissed (Johnson 1972). Millerson (1964) claimed that each case is unique, a view adopted by other sociologist including Freidson (1986b); (Freidson 2001) and Macdonald (1995). It seems therefore that *"there are probably as many processes as there are different forms of work…*"(Evetts 1999 p120). Abbott remarks that "*the professionalisation process, if it is to be seen at all in changing professions, must be recognised as the multilevel, contagious, complex social process that it actually is*" (1991b, p.380). Given the rejection of professional formation as a process, it seems more appropriate to refer to the development of an occupation into a profession as professional formation.

1.3.3 New Social Context

Social conditions today are significantly different to those that existed when occupations such as medicine, law and accountancy emerged as professions (Carr-Saunders and Wilson 1933; Siegrist 1990; Reed 1996; Hodgson et al. 2015). A less deferential attitude emerged as a result of generational changes of attitude to authority in the late 1960's and early 1970's (Moline 1986) while opposition to events such as the Vietnam War and nuclear weapons demonstrated a rejection of authority that had been building as social developments resulting from the Second World War affected the younger generations (Polanyi 1998). More recently, the protests by school children over climate change may be seen in a similar light. According to (Freidson 1999, 2001), societal changes include increased levels of education, greater egalitarianism based on erosion of the knowledge gap between professional and client, standardisation and routinisation of knowledge (Freidson 1986a, p.110 et seq). How some of these changes affect profession projects has been explored (e.g. new organisational forms (Hanlon (1998); globalisation (Evetts 2011a); domain knowledge (Hodgson and Paton 2016) but little attention has been paid to the role of knowledge in these projects.

Activities leading to professional recognition are usually long term. Macdonald (1995) builds on earlier work by Millerson (1964) to show that professions can take significant periods to achieve recognition as a profession. For example, it took British architects 29 years from the formation of their lead association to achieve its incorporation under a Royal Charter. Structural Engineers formed their association in 1908 but were not incorporated until 1934. The social environment, and knowledge claims, evolve while these associations carry out these activities.

1.3.4 Impact of the New Social Context

The impact of social context on professions may be caused by a number of factors. The traditional characteristics of professional practice are changed by the emergence of new organisational forms (Evetts 2011a), changing social attitudes (Gorman and Sandefur 2011; Adams 2015), globalisation (Hanlon 1999; Faulconbridge and Muzio 2012; Harrington 2015), technology (Owen-Smith 2011) and changing attitudes to managerialism (O'Reilly and Reed 2011). The social conditions under which occupations such as law, medicine, the clergy and the military were established as professions in centuries past, have altered significantly (Carr-Saunders and Wilson 1933; Susskind and Susskind 2015) so traditional views of profession may no longer apply (Gorman and Sandefur 2011). These changes challenge traditional views of profession and have provoked a resurgence of interest in the sociology of professions (Adams 2015).

As society changes, so too does it's need for specialised services offered by emergent occupations as Hanlon (1999) and others claim. New specialised services permit new occupations to emerge and, in some cases, where practitioners believe they offer a service based on esoteric knowledge, to move towards claiming professional status. However, the environment surrounding such claims is significantly different to those that applied when what are now considered to be the liberal professions, typically medicine and law, achieved their status: social attitudes, legal systems, educational attainment and many other social aspects all impact professional formation. The new social context is so different that Gorman and Sandefur (2011, p.276) claim that "outdated theoretical frameworks … no longer hold much appeal". Thus, new approaches to professional

formation may be needed since some occupations seeking professional recognition do not seem to follow a pattern similar to older occupations in their pursuit of professional status. This research adds to the understanding of the role of knowledge in professions and may help associations in their professional formation.

1.3.5 A New Profession

Project Management has been noted as a new occupation. Furthermore, it is one that has been striving to be recognised as a profession through the activities of various national, international and supranational Associations (Morris et al. 2006a; Hodgson et al. 2015). It has long been recognised that project management in some form or other has existed since at least the time of the pyramids and Stonehenge (Chiu 2010; Kozak-Holland 2011). It can trace its more recent history through the Middle ages (Chiu 2012) and from the Renaissance to the Industrial Revolution (Sankaran 2021) yet it has only been recognised as an independent occupation in the post-World War 2 era (Morris 2013a). It is generally accepted that project management in its present form emerged from the military – industrial complex in the 1940s with the development of the atomic bomb marking a major milestone in its evolution (Morris 2013a). So despite its long history, it can be seen as a modern occupation and this sets it apart from the classic professions such as medicine and the law.

As an occupation, project management is represented by membership organisations various levels. At the national level, entities such as the Association for Project Management in the United Kingdom and the Australian Institute for Project Management (APM) fulfil this function while internationally, the International Project Management Association coordinates the activities of some 70 national Associations. Like professions such as law and accounting, project management provides transnational services (Boussebaa and Faulconbridge 2016). The Project Management Institute is a transnational Association operating globally. All these Associations aspire to professional recognition (Morris et al. 2006a).

1.4 Knowledge and Occupations

It is generally accepted that all occupations require some degree of knowledge. As Brint (2001) notes, “All workers have economically valuable *practical* knowledge” (emphasis in original). In this, Brint follows Dewey (Dewey 1966) in claiming that “this knowledge contributes materially to their work performance”. Brint’s comment identifying practical knowledge indicates that there is more than one form of knowledge. The concept of forms of knowledge is not new: Plato (Plato 1997) claims that Socrates recognised two forms of knowledge (tecnê and epistemê) as did Aristotle and other classical Greek Stoics. These long held beliefs and the accompanying philosophical discussions demonstrate that occupations require knowledge and that the nature of the occupation influences the nature of the knowledge that underpins it. It is therefore important to appreciate what this means for occupations.

1.4.1 Occupational Stratification

The work performed by people as their principal means of earning a living is usually referred to as an occupation. In some types of work the title of the occupation may be quite broad, describing groups performing specific tasks, thus Adam Smith could describe pin making as an occupation and go on to show that it comprised several subsidiary “occupations” such as wire drawers and head makers (Smith 1982). The separation of work into different types represents a stratification which some see as a function of the interplay of economic factors (Weber 2001). Occupational stratification can also be seen in terms of social stratification. While it can encompass race, gender and class (both social and economic), here it is viewed through the lens of knowledge.

It has already been noted that all occupations involve some knowledge but given the range of occupations, it is clear that different occupations require different knowledge; for example, a motor mechanic requires knowledge of motor vehicles while a blacksmith requires knowledge of metals and their properties. As the world of work has become more complex, work has become more stratified through specialisation (Smith 1776).

Specialisation, so far as occupations are concerned, comes in at least two forms: the form described by Smith in his famous example of breaking down manufacture of pins into a series of simple steps; and that which entails focus on a complex task such as computer programming where the work is more complicated. The former reduces the knowledge needed as the tasks are simple but the latter increases the knowledge needed to perform as the task requires special skills that must somehow be acquired (Mieg and Evetts 2018)

1.4.2 Differentiation of Knowledge

It has been shown that different work requires different types of knowledge (epistemê and tecnê). These types of knowledge can be separated from the general knowledge needed for normal life. Freidson (2001) explicitly addresses what he calls working and everyday knowledge. Knowledge can be further characterised as either tacit, which is difficult to capture explicitly, and formal knowledge which can be codified and transmitted in various physical forms. The knowledge needed for the successful operation of most occupations involves a combination of the tacit which is essentially experiential, and the formal which can be acquired in variety of repeatable ways such including classroom learning (Pavlin et al. 2010).

1.4.3 Formal Knowledge

Formal knowledge is sometimes known as explicit or expressive knowledge to reflect its nature and contrast it with tacit knowledge. Formal knowledge can be represented in natural language and recorded in a variety of media including print such as textbooks, encyclopaedia and in electronic form including text, video and aural forms. This representation allows the knowledge to be shared. The fact that it can be recorded also means that the processes related to its collection, codification, development and storage can all be managed (Nonaka and Toyama 2015).

The process of moving from tacit, unrecordable, knowledge to explicit or formal knowledge can be understood as *socialisation* which involves learning through observation of others, imitating their actions and practice until the tacit has been absorbed. This is typically an apprentice – master relationship, a feature of the early guilds (Krause 1996). According to

Nonaka (1990), socialisation is the first of four modes of knowledge generation. Moving from tacit to explicit or formal is the process of *externalisation* where tacit knowledge is crystalised into a form that can be documented in some way. Where knowledge relating to an occupation can be aggregated, it becomes known as a body of knowledge (BOK). Where this occupational aggregation is embodied in some form of documentation, it becomes a formal BOK.

1.4.4 Bodies of Knowledge

It has been claimed that BOKs make a major contribution to the study of professions. Historically, scholars of profession (e.g. Parsons 1939; Larson 1977; Abbott 1988; Sciulli 1996; Freidson 2001; Zwerman et al. 2002; Sciulli and Halley 2009; Hodgson and Paton 2016) claim that mastery of a body of knowledge is a key part of any occupational recognition. Indeed, professions are "defined by their utilisation of a publicly recognised and expert body of knowledge and skills" (Bryceland and Stam 2005, p.131).

As a BOK is a form of knowledge aggregation and as there are two forms of knowledge, there must also be at least two forms of BOK: one that reflects the tacit knowledge and another that covers the formal knowledge of a topic. The functions of formal knowledge are various, as will be seen in the literature, but it is clear that by definition a body of formal knowledge plays a part in the transfer of agreed understanding of a particular topic can take place. A formal BOK could therefore be useful to an Association in their professional formation. However, the manner of use could take many forms and serve a number of purposes. While there has been extensive academic interest in knowledge in general and particularly its role in innovation at the organisational level, there has been little analysis of the role formal BOKs play in the professional aspirations of Associations.

1.5 Aim and Objectives

1.5.1 Research Aim

The aim of this research is to explore how formal bodies of knowledge are used in the transformation of an occupation. This research focuses on contemporary British occupations seeking recognition as professions and

draws on the processes used by the so-called major or learned professions to achieve their pre-eminent occupational status. It observes project management as a newly emergent discipline in the United Kingdom (UK) and its main membership organisation which has professional formation as a stated strategic objective

1.5.2 Objectives

In order to achieve the research aim, it is necessary to first understand the steps taken to achieve recognition. One of these steps is expected to be the establishment of some form of occupational boundary that limits the scope of their service offering. The scope will dictate the knowledge needed to support effective performance and how it is embodied, in this case the formal BOK. The knowledge component seems likely to be conditioned to some extent by who is to use it so it is important to identify stakeholders, their stake and expectations. Finally, the use the membership association makes of its knowledge in the context of professional formation can be explored. These requirements lead to the research objectives.

1.5.2.1 Objective 1

The first objective is to explore the methods used by membership associations in their professional formation. The purpose of this objective is to understand how a membership organisation approaches its pursuit of professional status. Professional formation has been interpreted from a variety of perspectives including professional dominance (Freidson 1970), formation as a project (Larson 1977), boundary competition (Abbott 1988) and patriarchy (Witz 1992). This research adopts the lens of formal knowledge.

Objective 1: Explore the methods used by membership associations in their professional formation.

1.5.2.2 Objective 2

The Oxford English Dictionary defines an expert as “someone who is very knowledgeable about or skilful in a particular area”. In the sociology of professions, this particular area is known as its jurisdiction and is often claimed by the establishment of an association of practitioners since

professional associations are formed when "*a relevant group perceive the need to occupy and defend for its exclusive use a particular area of competence territory*" (Eraut 1994, p.165) So the jurisdiction is closely related to the knowledge that is needed to establish such competence.

Objective 2: Explore how formal Bodies of Knowledge are used by emergent professions to define/establish their area of interest.

1.5.2.3 Objective 3

It has long been established that professions are based on an esoteric body of knowledge (Murphy 1988). Expert knowledge is unique to each occupation, so its direct contribution is interesting but does not explain why some occupations become recognised as professions and others do not. Thus, the detailed content of a BOK, which may define the occupation itself, does not indicate whether the owning occupation may be regarded as a profession. As there are different types of knowledge, there should also be different types of BOK so it will be necessary to explore different forms of BOK. There is little to illuminate how expert knowledge encapsulated in a BOK is used in professional formation. These factors are key to the understanding of how BOKs help an occupation achieve recognition as a profession and lead to Objective 3

Objective 3: Identify the nature of the formal Body of Knowledge employed by the membership association.

1.5.2.4 Objective 4

It has been claimed that BOKs have a broad appeal (Abbott 1988) such that a particular BOK has a variety of audiences including practitioners, employers and academics. Each of these stakeholders has their own expectations of the BOK which may or may not be relevant to professional formation. It is thus necessary to identify relevant stakeholders and their interests in relation to professional formation. This gives rise to objective 4.

Objective 4: Identify BOK Stakeholders (Internal and External) and their stated needs.

1.5.2.5 Objective 5

Having identified stakeholders and their needs in relation to professional formation, it remains to identify how these stakeholders use the BOK to contribute to achieving professional recognition. While the need to have a BOK is well known, there has been no differentiation of types of BOK, how they are used in general. Furthermore, little has been said about how this contributes to professional formation.

Objective 5: Identify how the BOK is used by stakeholders to meet the needs of professional formation.

1.5.3 Research Framework

Summarising the objectives, the research framework can be represented in Figure 1.

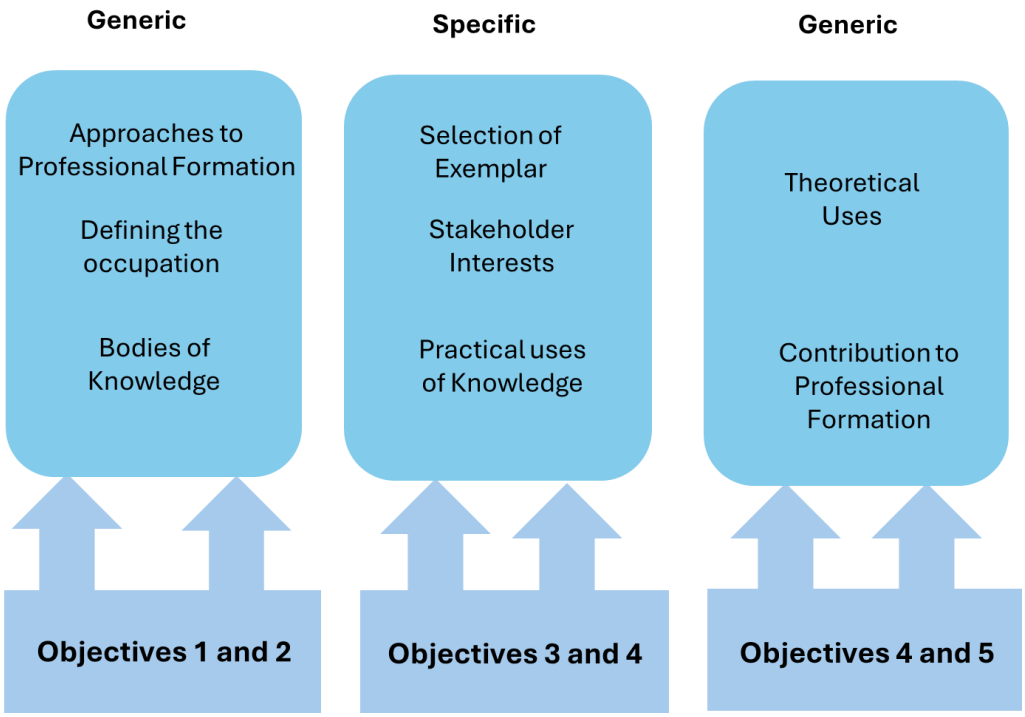

Figure 1 Research Framework

1.6 Contribution to Knowledge

As noted above, in the sociology of professions a great deal of attention has been paid to professional formation. Recent studies have focused on "new" occupations such as marketing (Enright 2006), advertising (McLeod 2011) and consulting (Heusinkveld et al. 2018). There have also been several recent studies on the professional formation of project management, mostly mentioning the centrality of specialist knowledge but little if any investigation of the contribution the BOK makes to the complex process of achieving professional recognition. This research addresses this gap by identifying the nature of that contribution and illustrating it with specific examples.

This research advances the understanding of how knowledge is used in the complex process of professional formation. It addresses both traditional elements of professional formation as well as aspects peculiar to project management that may also be relevant to other so-called "new" occupations in their professional formation.

1.7 Structure

This thesis adopts the following structure:

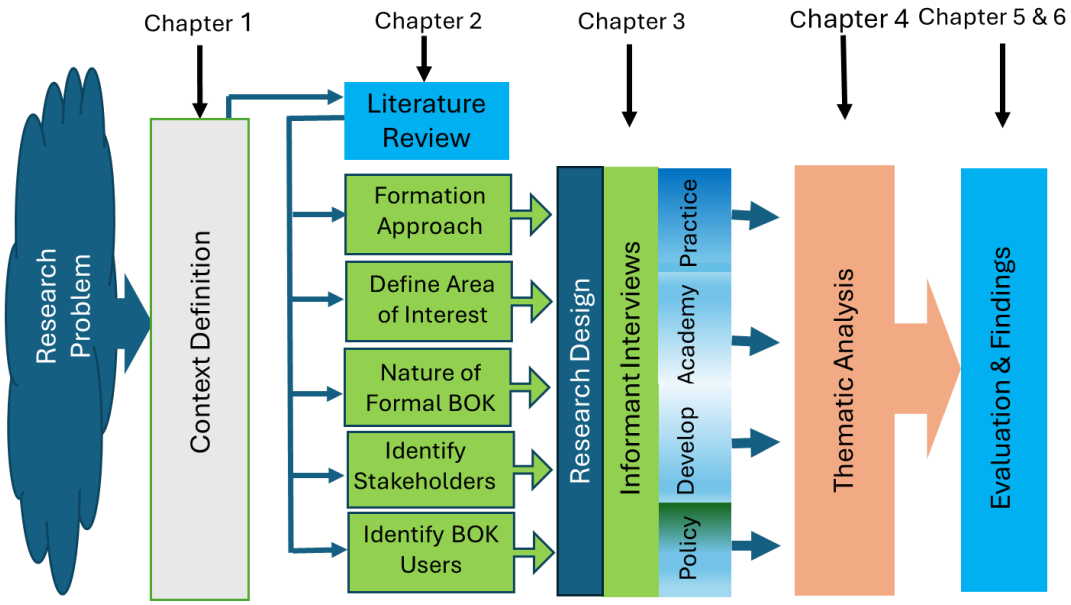

Figure 2 Thesis Structure

Chapter 1 addresses the background to the research and sets out the research aim and objectives.

Chapter 2 explains the logic of the literature search to locate and review relevant literature. It identifies theoretical models of profession, and gaps in current research. It provides context for project management, positions formal BOKs and evaluates other relevant research.

Chapter 3 discusses ontological and epistemic choices that guide the selection of appropriate research methods. It addresses ethical aspects of the research, including data management requirements. Data gathering methods and preparation protocols are presented. An analytic framework is provided.

Chapter 4 provides a thematic analysis of the data gathered in the interviews and Analysis of the interview results to respond to objectives.

Chapter 5 relates the results to the analytical framework and discuses results in relation to existing theory and previous research.

Chapter 6 relates the results to the research aim and the objectives. The research methodology is evaluated and recommendations for future research are offered.

1.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a background to the research project. It has provided the context for professions and their importance to society. Changes to society have been noted and an indication of their influence professional formation for new occupations. The nature of knowledge was discussed, and how explicit knowledge could become embodied in formal Bodies of Knowledge outlined. The characteristics of professions are affected by changing aspects of society, especially the expansion of specialist knowledge, and the emergence of new organisational structures which may affect the way in which occupations transition into professions. These changes may affect the role of BOKs and how they are used in professional formation. The next chapter reviews the literature in order to explore the concept of BOKs in general and formal BOKs in particular.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter establishes the basis of the research through an investigation of the literature concerning the notion of professions and bodies of knowledge and relating these concepts to project management (PM). It describes and explains the approach adopted to the review, outlines key aspects of the sociology of professions and provides a context for an emerging occupation (project management) seeking professional recognition in order to understand the nature of the discipline and how the notion of specialist knowledge relates to it.

2.2 Scope of the Literature Review

Many theories and multiple definitions have evolved concerning profession Torstendahl (1990, pp.31-32) so a review of the concept is needed since the literature reflects the complexity of the field and the "*many different approaches to explore the concept*" (Hilferty 2008, p.160). This literature review provides an overview of profession and then relates this to contemporary views of occupations exemplified by project management. While the processes are identified from historical examples, the environment of modern occupations differs from those that applied when traditional professions emerged. This means that the literature reviewed cannot be restricted to the processes adopted by traditional professions such as medicine and law. Thus, publications issued by occupational bodies have also been included. In keeping with the modern interpretation, most of the literature accessed dates from 2010, although some older literature is used to inform the underlying debates, particularly with regard to concepts of profession and the evolution of project management.

This review of relevant literature is constructed to investigate fundamental aspects relating to the use of BOKs and is framed around Kipling's Honest Serving Men (Kipling 1902) as illustrated in Figure 3.

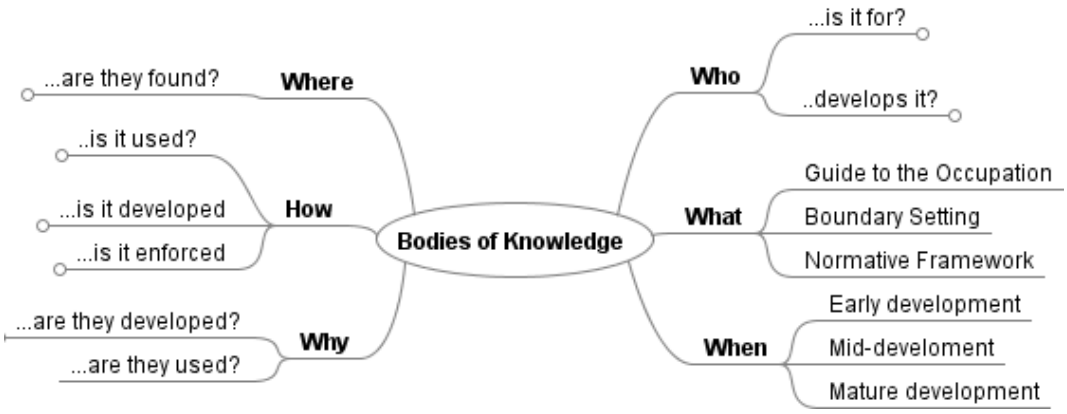

Figure 3 Review Framework

As will be seen later (§2.6.2), the perceived character of professions differs according to national culture with notable differences between European scholars on the one hand and English-speaking scholars on the other (Sciulli 2005b). Although this view is disputed (Evetts 2006), differences of language (Torstendahl 1990), legal (Abbott 2015), and higher education systems (Larson 2018) induce different perceptions of profession. State interventions in professional formation, particularly in European countries where many professions are controlled directly by central government, contrasts sharply with British perspective of self-regulation and American variations of local control (Larson 1979; Torstendahl 1990; Reed 1996; Evetts 1998; Freidson 2001). Additionally, the study of professions seems, from the literature (e.g.,Macdonald 1995; Freidson 2001) to have been most prominently addressed in the British and American social milieu (Susskind and Susskind 2015). Consequently, this review is limited to the study of professions and the usage of bodies of knowledge in the United Kingdom.

2.3 The Language of Professions

Many of the terms used in the study of professions are complex and contested so definitions have changed as the field has developed. Furthermore, terms have meanings that are not always in accord with common usage. This section sets out the key terms used in this research and their meaning.

2.3.1 Profession

Defining *profession* linguistically has proved problematic since the term is used in a variety of ways. Profession is often used as an alternative to *occupation,* simply a means to earn a living. It may also be used to describe anyone who does not wear "*special clothes for work, and who is concerned with clerical operations*" (Millerson 1964, p.1). These two factors allow profession to be attached to a wide variety of occupations, such as *professional* criminal. Profession is also commonly used to distinguish between those who perform particular tasks for the intrinsic pleasure of it and those who are paid for such performance, as in *professional* footballer. The term profession is used in this research in its sociological sense, as an occupation that requires specialist knowledge, usually acquired through extensive education. Professions have a number of sociological characteristics that are identified from the literature (See § 2.6).

2.3.2 Professionalism

The term *professionalism* also has several interpretations. In public usage, it may simply be seen as someone doing a good job. More precisely, it is the way someone acts in a particular situation, implying a degree of superior performance and possibly also particular attitudes. There are several sociological interpretations; where professional formation is seen as a process, professionalism is understood as the end point to this process. In other interpretations, it represents an attitude of mind representative of someone who is acknowledged as a "professional". In this research, it is used as an attitude of mind which can "*give legitimacy to a privileged position*" (Nolin 2008, p.10). Privilege in this sense relates to the perception that professions are self-regulating, free from outside interference with the definition of work practices and have autonomy over clients; characteristics set out by numerous scholars (e.g. Millerson 1964; Wilensky 1964; Hodgson et al. 2015).

2.3.3 Professional formation

Professional formation can be interpreted as the activities of an occupation seeking to transition to profession. These activities may be seen as:

> "*…diverse and variable, social and historical, processes of development, of how work sometimes becomes an occupation…and some occupations achieve various forms of occupational control sometimes called professional…*" (Evetts 1999, p.122)

Like the concept of profession, the sociological definition of professional formation remains contested. The transformation of an occupation into a profession has long been a topic of academic interest (e.g. Parsons 1939; Abbott 1988; Evetts 2002; Larson 2013; Hodgson et al. 2015). It is perceived in various ways including as a project (Larson 2013) and as a distinct process (e.g. Wilensky 1964; Burrage et al. 1990; Abbott 1991a). For the purpose of this research, professional formation is seen as professional formation to ensure a consistent approach that is not conditioned by any embedded interpretation.

As professions are composed of people, they must be seen as a "*socially constructed …variable*" (Adams 2015, p.159). Social construction does not stand still, as actors age, values change, and generational differences alter to present variations in culture. Similarly, culture is usually recognised as location bound, thus the concept of profession changes over time and place (Evetts 2013; Siegrist 2015). Some take this view as "*revisionism*" (Sciulli 2005a) and posit that profession can take only the form prescribed by Parsons (1939) although this perception is strenuously challenged (Torstendahl 2005; Evetts 2006). On this view, factors such as globalisation (Dingwall 1999; Kuhlmann 2013; Adams 2017), the rise of the professional service firm (Ackroyd 1996; Evetts 2006; Faulconbridge and Muzio 2007; Muzio and Kirkpatrick 2011), the impact of technology on information availability (Wilensky 1964; Larson 2013; Morris 2013b) and demographics (Noordegraaf 2015) all indicate that professional formation are pursued differently compared to the so called classic period in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. For the purpose of this research, professional formation refers to the process used to transform an occupation into a profession.

2.3.4 Body of Knowledge

The term body of knowledge can be used in different ways, so that in one sense, a body may refer to a heap or mass and knowledge as what is known about a topic. Under this view, a body of knowledge would be the mass of what is known about a topic, almost always theoretical, with little or no practice component. This term is often used simply to make the point that some knowledge is associated with an occupation. The term is also used by some occupations to set out their agreed ways of explaining the principles underlying their area of work (Georges 2017) and its scope (Abbott 2015). This form may be seen as a formal body of knowledge and is almost always practice based (Morris et al. 2006a) and is published as an artefact. This research is concerned with the latter meaning. To avoid confusion, the former or academic rendering is written as “body of knowledge” while the latter is termed “Body of Knowledge” or BOK.

2.3.5 Project Management Terms

The words project and project management have entered the language and many people have a basic grasp of their meaning. The common understanding seems to define a project as some special activity and includes expectations of reward and levels of performance. However, within the discipline, these terms have specific meanings and it is important to understand these. For the purpose of this work, the definitions used are those defined in PD ISO/TR 21506:2018 (BSI 2018). These terms are set out in Appendix 2 Glossary.

The project definition as a unique undertaking remains open to challenge since it is evident that the “unique” aspect has limited application. While acknowledging Heraclitus’ famous encomium concerning stepping into rivers twice, if projects do not have significant similarity, it would not be possible to abstract general rules for their management, nor would it be possible to construct a Body of Knowledge.

2.4 Review Approach

The approach taken to the literature review was based on the established process defined by Tranfield et al. (2003). This process provides 9 steps arranged in three phases as shown in Table 2.

Table 2 – Literature Review Implementation (after Tranfield et al. 2003)

Stage	Implementation
Stage 1 – Planning	
Phase 0 – Identification of Need	Study requirement to establish the basis for the research.
Phase 1 – Develop Proposal	Literature review is needed to identify relevant concepts of profession and relate these to bodies of knowledge and project management.
Phase 2 – Review Protocol	Search parameters were designed to provide coverage of the objectives
Stage 2 – Conduct of the Review	
Phase 3 – Identify research	Target papers were identified by means of library searches
Phase 4 – Selection of Studies	Papers identified were screened by review of their Abstracts
Phase 5 – Quality Requirements	For academic papers, modifiers were devised to results to timely studies in refereed journals
Phase 6 – Data Extraction	Selected papers were downloaded into EndNote for classification and analysis
Phase 7 – Data synthesis	Research notes were using EndNote. Extensive use was made of keywords to aid recall
Stage 3 – Report and Dissemination	
Phase 8 – Report & Dissemination	The synthesis is reported in Chapter 2.
Phase 9 – Getting evidence into practice	This takes the form of recommendations for future research (See Chapter 6)

Literature reviews are confined to "*published peer-reviewed academic articles*" and generally only consider abstracts (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012, p.108). This can lead to a narrow perspective which misses the creative use of the literature. Furthermore, abstracts, while usefully brief, can miss

detail that is important for the specific purposes of the research study while some are of poor quality, leading either to time wasted on a detailed evaluation of the main paper, an introduction of researcher bias or missing potentially useful papers. These issues were overcome by the use of selection modifiers.

2.5 Search Process

This review follows Tranfield et al. (2003) sequence. Multiple key word searches of academic databases were carried out to identify appropriate literature supplemented by snowball searches based on reference lists from suitable papers found in the main literature searches. An early concern was a lack of literature covering BOKs as formal constructs as opposed to undocumented conceptual artefacts. Adjustment of key words and search parameters eliminated the technical medical coverage and identified sufficient relevant material.

The initial literature search in Phase 1 was carried out in three stages: the first stage addressed the sociology of professions to provide an historical context, identify theories of profession and the notion of professional formation. The second stage addressed knowledge requirements in professions and how these are addressed in bodies of knowledge. A third stage addressed research methods and is reported in Chapter 3. Specialist journals were also searched using the same key words. Details of searches and results are listed at Appendix 2. Further searches were carried out for Phase 2 once the scope of research had been restricted to UK professions (see § 3.3.5) to ensure more recent papers were captured and to cover any date range issues. The process is illustrated in Figure 4.

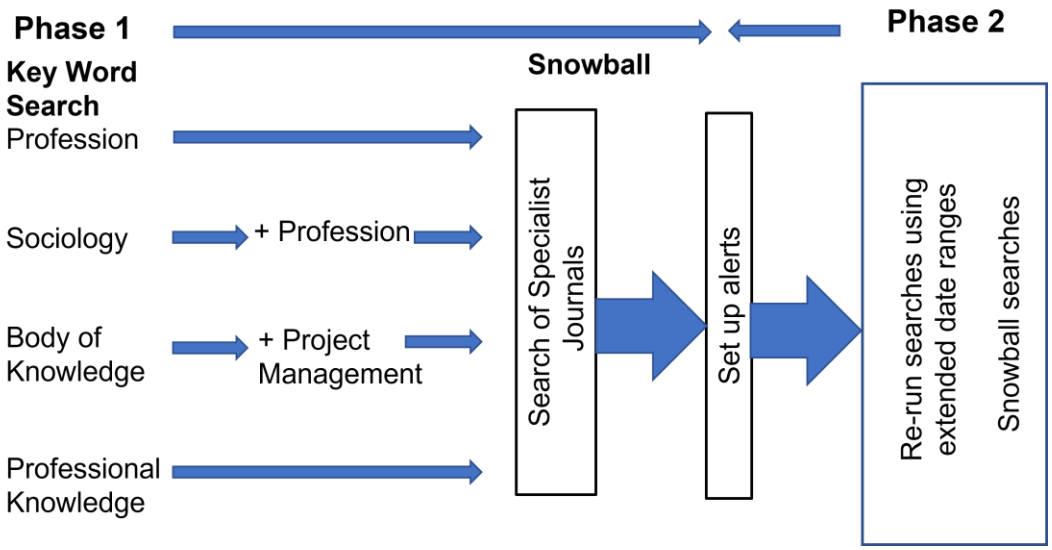

Figure 4 Literature Search Process

Literature searches are dependent upon academic databases, which have limitations including incomplete access to paper-based journal articles, omission of unpublished academic papers such as doctoral dissertations and journals where no subscription has been taken. Initial searching was based on key words and later, supplementary searches were based on snowball techniques where useful papers were identified from material identified in the initial search. This approach requires careful selection of key words and search modifiers; and searching multiple databases. Although up to date papers are required to capture current thinking, some earlier papers are needed because they represent seminal stages in the development of both professions and project management.

2.6 Profession

This section expands on the overview in §2.3 to provide an outline of current thinking on the key concepts to take account of the history of the study of professions and introduce appropriate interpretations that guide this research.

It has already been noted that some academic views of professions are contested. The concept has been dominated by the lack of formal definition of just what constitutes a profession (Nolin 2008) which has diverted analysis into sociological cul-de-sacs. For some scholars

(e.g.Carr-Saunders and Wilson 1933; Parsons 1951; Greenwood 1957; Hughes 1960), it was clear that this lack of definition was unimportant because professions could be recognised by various characteristics although these characteristics were unexplained. This lack of definition leaves the major question of recognition unanswered and the place of occupational values, organisation and practice in any account of professions unresolved. It is a view that was supported by others who rejected the notion of recognisable traits on grounds of "*prior affiliations and roles determine choice of items and bias…"* Millerson (1964, p.3) and Johnson (1972, p.17).

There have been conceptual challenges to the continued relevance of professions (e.g. Gorman and Sandefur 2011; Larson 2014) based in part on the reduced deference of Western societies following global and regional conflicts such as the Vietnam War and wider availability of information through the Internet (Susskind and Susskind 2015). The attitude of the 'millennial' generation in relation to many career-related topics is markedly different to previous generations (Crumpacker and Crumpacker 2007; Otey 2013; Madara et al. 2018) and there is no reason to suppose that their attitude to professions will be the same as their forebearers. Generational differences affect social aspects such as attitudes to authority and facility with new technology, which in turn affect attitudes to work (Iorgulescu 2016). These attitudes also impact membership associations as they may affect new membership take up. Some Associations are examining the potential impact of such attitudes (e.g. APM 2019c) on traditional association models. On the other hand, most of the societal factors related to 'de-professional formation' have not diminished the attractiveness of professions (Adams and Saks 2018) and despite challenges, profession is still seen as sociologically important (Kritzer 1999; Hodgson and Muzio 2011), not least because of the status accorded to individuals who take up such occupations and the economic significance of professions.

2.6.1 Theories of Profession

Professions have long been a subject of scholastic interest as they "*dominate our world*" (Abbott 1988, p.1), providing a range of services that are "*critical for our lives and are of significant economic importance!*"

(Susskind and Susskind 2015, p.19). Sociologists have adopted discursive views on profession, ranging from its power as a force for good in society (Durkheim 1958) to an elitist, closed occupation group (Larson 1979) depending on an asymmetry of knowledge which results in an unwarranted degree of self-regulation (Foucault and Gordon 1980; Fournier 1999).

There is an extensive literature concerning professions (see inter alia Larson 1977; Abbott 1988; Macdonald 1995; Adams 2015) and professional formation (e.g. Carr-Saunders and Wilson 1933; Dingwall and Lewis 1983; Freidson 2001; Evetts 2011a) Previous discussion centred on four broad themes:

1. The nature of professions: what characteristics of an occupation qualify it be to be regarded as a profession (e.g. Carr-Saunders and Wilson 1933; Millerson 1964; Dingwall and Lewis 1983);
2. Classification of occupations into professions and trades: how a particular occupation compares to some definition of profession (Millerson 1964; Etzioni 1969)
3. Accounting for the utility of professions: whether the function performed by is sufficiently important to justify privileged treatment (e.g. Tawney 1920; Parsons 1951; Durkheim 1958; Marshall 1987);
4. Analysis of current institutional contexts: how “new” occupations affect the notion of profession (Hanlon 1998, 1999; Hodgson and Muzio 2011; Fincham 2012)

2.6.2 Theoretical Analysis

Generally, analysis falls into one of three theoretical frameworks: functionalist, traits and conflict. Functionalists take the view that professions provide essential services such as correcting knowledge imbalances (Susskind and Susskind 2015), maintaining social order (Durkheim 1958) or political stability (Parsons 1939). Trait theorists, on the other hand, view professions as having distinctive individual features (Etzioni 1969; Susskind and Susskind 2015) such as an ethical code, specialist education, disciplinary mechanisms, definition of entry requirements, and exercise of control over their own affairs (Larson 1977; Zwerman et al. 2002; Hodgson

and Muzio 2011; Malin 2017). The third school takes a different view: the control theorists (e.g. Foucault and Gordon 1980) focus on the relationship between “employer” and professional. Traditional perceptions of profession suggest that the practitioner is engaged individually in practice for a client, thus notions that organisations can employ professionals presents some tensions for “new professions” where some of the traditional traits are at odds with the structure of the employing enterprise (Aldridge and Evetts 2003; Bezes et al. 2012; Adams 2017; Malin 2017).

2.6.3 Classification Theory

The “trait” model sees an occupation regarded as a profession if there is some similarity to other occupations regarded as professions. It is argued that sociology should be able to identify these underlying “traits” so that a comparison can be made, and a decision taken on whether the candidate occupation is or is not a profession (Johnson 1972, pp.21-23).

The traits approach has been dismissed as unreliable and to be inadequate to explain how professions can be defined since there is little agreement on the requisite traits: for instance, a review of 21 separate studies on professional traits found no single item was accepted by all the authors as essential and that 9 traits had only a single adherent (Millerson 1964, pp.5, Table 1). Furthermore, those with a particular interest could usually find grounds for accepting their occupation as a profession while others claim that power is a more significant factor (Johnson 1972). This model is now seen as a distraction (Evetts 2006) and the model inadequate, mainly as it relied on an “ideal type” based largely on medicine or law. These two ideal types are now recognised as special cases and unrepresentative of the majority of professions (Dingwall 1999) since both have generated their own sociologies based on public concern for their delivery. Similarly, social conditions have evolved significantly since these exemplars achieved their status in the 19th century. Johnson’s contribution (1972) is still regarded as critical since it reoriented the debate from taxonomic arguments on to what he termed “peculiar type of occupational control” (Johnson 1972), opening the field to further consideration of power (Larson 1979).

2.6.4 Comparison of Theories

There are many ways to look at professions and these perspectives have often been related to distinct periods in the study of the sociology of profession. In the 1920s and 1930s, some scholars attempted to classify occupations and professions (e.g. Carr-Saunders and Wilson 1933), basing this on traits thought to differentiate professions from mere occupations. A more structuralist approach was later adopted (e.g. Parsons 1939) while ideas about profession as a social construction also emerged in the 1950s (e.g. Hughes 1958). During the 1960s, attention focused on the role professions play in society (e.g. Parsons 1964) and professions as a mechanism for social control (Larson 1979) became an important theme.

Saks (2016) identifies two main groups of approaches, the deferential (Trait and Functional) and the critical categories (Interactionist, Marxist, Foucaltian and Neo-Institutional). These are summarised in Table 3 which shows to some extent how thinking has evolved in the last 50 years or so. Deferential theories have largely been rejected although Saks claims there is a lack of evidence to support such rejection (Saks 1983). He outlines theories of profession but includes an analytic approach (Discourse Analysis) to lead into a more detailed assessment of Neo-Weberian as a further approach.

Table 3 – Theories of Profession (adapted from Saks (2016))

Theory	Organisation	Examples	Decade
Trait	Classificatory so does not contribute to organisational role	Greenwood (1957) Millerson (1964)	50s – 60s
Functionalism	Focuses on link between professions and organisations	Barber (1963) Goode (1960) Parsons (1951)	50s – 60s
Interactionism	Socially negotiated in organisations	Becker (1962) Hughes (1960)	60s – 70s
Marxist	Class based context to keep social control under capitalism	(Carchedi 1977) Ehrenreich and Ehrenreich (1979)	70s – on
Foucaultianism	Analyses role of the state in professional formation	Donzelot (1979) (Johnson 1995) Pickard (2010)	70s – on
Discourse Analysis	Examines discourse in professional culture	Cohen et al. (2005) Fournier (1999)	70s – on
Neo-Weberian	Professional interests and power structures linked to social closure	Evetts (2013) Freidson (1986a) Larson (1977)	70s – on
Neo-Institutionalism	Sees professions as part of global ecology of competing institutions, especially professional service firms	Blomgren and Waks (2015) Scott (2008) Suddaby and Muzio (2015)	2000 – on

Despite the lack of agreement on traits, there is some agreement on the main characteristics of profession. There is wide spread agreement that professions are occupational groups with special characteristics, such as the provision of services rather than tangible goods (Larson 2013). For example, they expect to define and control their special knowledge and are based on associations of people doing similar work (Malin 2017). Most importantly, professions are seen sociologically as defined by their

knowledge (Bryceland and Stam 2005). What is germane here is the underlying concept which is based on the division of expert labour (Johnson 1972; Larson 1977; Abbott 1988) applying specialised knowledge (Freidson 2001; Susskind and Susskind 2015). Irrespective of which "school" is dominant, all agree on the underlying assumptions that professions encompass specialist knowledge and that professionals provide expert service based on that knowledge. This highlights the importance of a body of knowledge relating to the occupational area and supports the notion that professionals provide expert services.

2.6.5 Theoretical Model of Professional Formation

It can be seen from the theoretical models above that occupations seeking professional formation are active in both the economic and the social field. The conceptual model in Figure 5 draws on Macdonald's formulation in which he derives from Larson's (1977) account of professional formation as a project to achieve recognition through establishing a monopoly of service that is sanctioned by the State. This recognition supports the monopoly of knowledge that the occupations seeks to establish through actions in the economic field and consolidate by other actions in the social field. Social actions encourage trust in the public in general and in clients specifically.

The occupation is also active in the social field where it endeavours to achieve a monopoly of knowledge and to establish respectability through its ethical and exemplary behaviour in order to develop trust. According to Macdonald, establishing respectability helps to encourage cultural acceptance while government recognition leads to full and formal recognition.

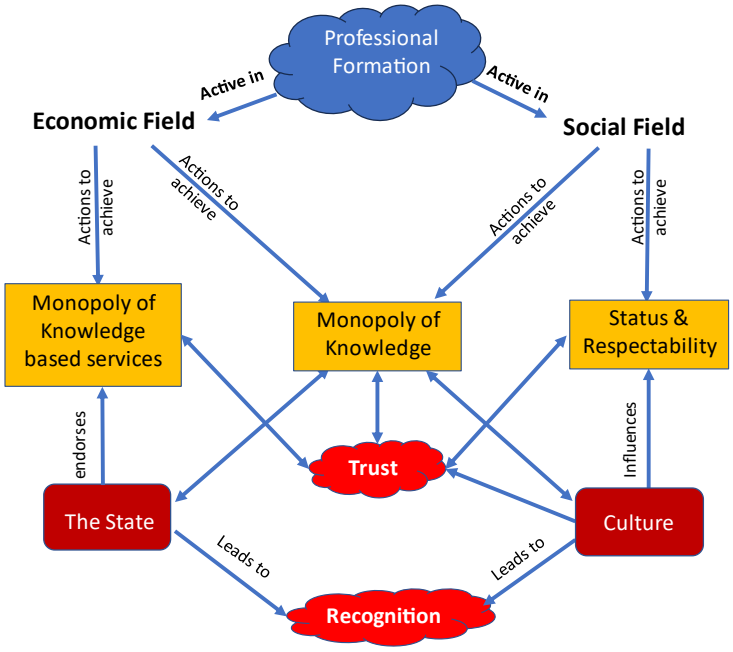

Figure 5 Conceptual Model of Professional Formation (adapted from Macdonald 1995)

2.6.6 Section Summary

This section has outlined the main aspects of the sociology of professions, noting existential threats to the concept and identified themes in the literature. It has also introduced a variety of theoretical frameworks and highlighted what most academics consider to be the main characteristics of professions while noting that not all of these may be present in any particular profession. It has identified knowledge as the fundamental characteristic of all professions.

2.7 Professional formation

2.7.1 Process Aspects

Professional formation, or the transformation of an occupation into a profession, is a process which has long been a topic of academic interest (e.g. Parsons 1939; Hughes 1958; Larson 1977; Freidson 1986b; Hodgson et al. 2015)). It is sometimes seen as a project (Larson 1977) with a distinct process (e.g. Wilensky 1964; Siegrist 1990; Abbott 1991b). However, as professions are composed of people, they must be seen as a "*socially constructed …variable*" (Adams 2015, p159). Social construction does not

stand still, as actors age, values change, and generational differences alter to present variations in culture. Similarly, culture is usually recognised as location bound, thus the concept of profession changes over time and place (Siegrist 1990; Evetts 2013). Some take this view as "*revisionism*" (Sciulli 2005a) and posit that profession can take only the form prescribed by Parsons (1939) although this perception is strenuously challenged (Evetts 1998; Torstendahl 2005). On this view, factors such as globalisation (Dingwall 1999; Kuhlmann 2013; Adams 2015), the rise of the professional service firm (Faulconbridge and Muzio 2007; Muzio and Kirkpatrick 2011) the impact of technology on information availability (Wilensky 1964; Larson 1977; Morris 2013b) and demographics (Noordegraaf 2015) all indicate that professional formation is pursued differently compared to the so called classic period in the late 19th and early 20th centuries.

2.7.2 Process Steps

The process of professional formation has been analysed by many sociologists including Hughes (1958), Wilensky (1964) and Zwerman et al. (2002), all in an American context. The steps outlined in these analyses seem curiously similar and it is clear that both Wilensky and Zwerman et al. simply followed Hughes (1958) original analysis although Zwerman et al. carried out their analysis in more modern times and specifically for the US based Project Management Institute (PMI). A more general analysis focusing on the professional project of accountancy (Macdonald 1995, pp.187 - 206) shows similar steps but also highlights some notable differences of emphasis. These modern sets of steps are summarised in Table 4.

Table 4 – Professional Formation Stages

Zwerman et al. (2002)	MacDonald (1995)
Establish full-time occupation	Establish jurisdiction
Form professional association	Form occupational association
Develop training procedures	Establish qualification system
Control use of job title	Achieve respectability
Control specialist knowledge	Monopolisation of professional knowledge
Create and enforce code of ethics	Achieve respectability

The sequence of the action shown in Table 4 can vary. Evetts (1999) exposed significant variations in earlier studies while Johnson (1989) highlights differences between British and American activities, claiming that the formation of a professional association in UK usually precedes the establishment of a training organisation, whether university based or commercial whereas in USA, training and education generally precede the association. This is another indication that profession is culturally bound. There are also difficulties in establishing jurisdiction, as shown later, and issues around gaining credibility through establishing respectability.

2.7.3 Need for Respectability

Respectability poses problems for new occupations. Traditional professions have significant status in society gained through the nature of their work, which means they can be trusted to hold so called "guilty knowledge" or their clients' most intimate medical, financial or other secrets (Smith 1982). Trust can be seen as an attribute of respectability because as Macdonald notes:

> *"…trust will be accorded to those whose outward appearance and manner fits in with socially accepted standards of repute and respectability".* (1995, pp.30-31)

Respectability is also seen as a factor in social stratification (Weber 2001; Larson 2013) since it forms a mechanism for translation of social reward and is significant for social mobility (Bourdieu 1984).

The trust aspect requires some measure of control hence the development of behavioural and ethical codes of conduct. For traditional professions, they can be seen as stringent and clearly related to the personal nature of the service provided (Freidson 2001). However, the nature of new occupations, especially those based on technology, means they do not have the same demands on their behaviour that traditional professions entail as they are often divorced from their client which is frequently a corporation, rather than an individual and so their codes are perceptibly less stringent than, say, the medical profession.

The notion that some occupations are more worthy of respect than others leads to a view of professions as occupations for gentlemen. This is reinforced by the delegation of "dirty work" to lesser occupations; the nature of the division of work between Doctors and Nurses is a typical example. These factors give rise to the view of professions as class ridden and patriarchal.

2.7.4 Section Summary

This section has reviewed the concept of professional formation as a process. It has identified several models and noted that current thinking on these process models shows that specific sequences have not been identified and that processes seem to be time and culturally bound. The role of education has been described. The need for respectability has been identified as a crucial omission from several models. These factors require further investigation of specific processes of professional formation.

2.8 Jurisdiction

2.8.1 Concept

The Oxford English Dictionary (OUP 2015) defines *expert* as "someone who is very knowledgeable about or skilful in a particular area". Occupationally, this particular area becomes the jurisdiction (Abbott 1988) and is often claimed by the establishment of an association of practitioners (Hodgson and Muzio 2011) since professional associations are formed when "*a relevant group perceive the need to occupy and defend for its exclusive use a particular area of competence territory*" (Eraut 1994, p.165) So jurisdiction

of an occupation is important to practitioners and other stakeholders since it indicates, at least, what it is that the occupation offers to its client base. This section explores the consequences of jurisdiction and how it affects different aspects of professional formation, education and personal development.

2.8.2 Consequences

Professional jurisdiction is a far-reaching concept because it is not simply the area of expertise claimed. Some, like Abbott (1988), see it as the way that an occupation

> "*defines and redefines the societal problems it deals with, develops the services and practical techniques to be performed to address these problems*" (Covaleski et al. 2003, p.325).

Thus, Abbott sees jurisdiction as key to the establishment of a profession and an area for between competing occupational organisations. Larson (1977), on the other hand, views jurisdiction as a market over which organisations struggle to establish "*control … for their expertise*" (1977, p. xvi). She takes a more commercial perspective since she sees control of the service provided as an essential component of market control which enables the translation of "*one order of scarce resources – special knowledge and skills – into another – social and economic rewards*. (Larson 1977, p.xvii). Both views depend on specialist knowledge.

In order to establish their jurisdiction, members of the profession define the scope of their expertise, what they and no one else perform, what sort of problem they deal with (Abbott 1991a). The output of this definitional activity could their formal BOK. This work claim may include some activities claimed by other groups, but the participants claim their approach is unique and effective (Covaleski et al. 2003) thus stressing their claim to the professional field. Second, to establish the scope requires agreement of participants and this requires some form of organisation, often in the form of a professional association, that speaks for the "specialist" (Morris and Empson 1998). This allows the occupation to show potential clients what the practitioner offers and what can be expected by consulting a member. Much of this definition of the profession is set out in the formal Body of

Knowledge and so the "*publicly recognised and expert body of knowledge*" defines the profession (Bryceland and Stam 2005, p.131).

2.8.3 Educational Implications

Once jurisdiction has been established, the occupation requires to assure its clients that its members are sufficiently knowledgeable to conduct the work they offer (Shepherd and Johns 2006). This can be achieved is by means of specialist certification (either mandatory or voluntary) and by means of educational requirements. It must be noted that not all professions have such requirements (Sabini and Muzio 2017; Blomquist et al. 2018). Thus, professional associations are able to control entry to their ranks by setting conditions which may include general and specific levels of education as well as credentialing.

Education can be a particular challenge for aspirant professional bodies since there is a public expectation that such education will be university based, as is the case for the traditional "learned professions" where specialist knowledge was the preserve of those who had attended a university and the knowledge thus acquired is beyond the understanding of ordinary people. Abbott asserts that "*most professional education takes place in universities*" (1988, p.195) and many universities have specialist faculties or schools to support professions; examples include the Bartlett Faculty of the Built Environment, Faculty of Law, Cambridge and Faculty of Medicine, Imperial College London among many others.

There is a clear association between university education at both specific and general levels and professional bodies. If a new profession wishes to be taken seriously, it must show that there is an academic base to the field, usually based on engaged research (Geraldi and Söderlund 2016). For a profession that has emerged from another discipline, such as project management which has an engineering background (Morris 2013a), some of their work practices will have some linkage to the "parent" occupation. In many cases such knowledge will have been acquired at university. Equally, it might also be expected that some of the new skills needed might be acquired through short, intense, courses from commercial, as opposed to academic, providers.

In the past, some scholars regarded the newer professions as less worthy than traditional professions such as medicine, law and engineering. Such scholars viewed schools devoted to the newer professions as less credible than the traditional schools (Etzioni 1969; Glazer 1974, p.346). Some occupations, such as project management, have been very successful in encouraging undergraduate and post graduate courses.

In terms of teaching, PM has become very popular. In the last 10 years, the number of taught courses has increased significantly (76 universities in UK offer courses in project management, 128 courses at undergraduate level and 176 Masters courses are listed by UCAS (2022). Many specialist PM courses are now to be found in business schools and non-engineering departments, for example, project management is taught in at least 5 departments at Bournemouth University, rather than solely in engineering and construction faculties, reflecting the economic importance of the discipline to both national and world economies.

University courses provide two advantages in professional formation: first, they enhance the image of specialist knowledge by raising it above the ordinary secondary education level, thus showing potential clients that project managers do in fact possess specialist knowledge (Blomquist et al. 2018). Secondly, it also enhances the respectability of the occupation as higher education carries with it a certain social cache (Macdonald 1995). Both are likely to provide opportunity for higher income which also enhances status (Matthews 2017).

Most university courses in high level management, including Project Management, have been developed by academics on the assumption that "*a systematic body of research-based knowledge exists which would enhance performance*" (Whitley 1995). However, the link between the formal BOK which is often developed by practitioners (Morris et al. 2006a) and the specialist course can be very weak with little or no direct input from the professional association. This benefits the newer professional body since it enhances their respectability.

Many professional associations recognise a range of educational qualifications based on various forms of accreditation. Associations such

as APM often have long standing accreditation schemes mainly aimed at commercial trainers but more recently they have expanded their accreditation offering to include university programmes (see Table 5). This provides some control over the relevance of course content (i.e. control of specialist knowledge), the quality of delivery and allows some reliability of testing. At the university level, accreditation ensures some limited degree of assurance that the material taught is relevant and appropriate. As the associations are not the final arbiter of academic quality, conformance with the relevant BOK is not guaranteed. Universities with accredited courses have some influence with the Association which can help attract students.

Table 5 – APM accredited academic awards (APM 2023)

Qualification	Universities offering Unit	Number of Units
Foundation Degree	1	1
Undergraduate Degree	6	6
Undergraduate Module	2	2
Postgraduate Degree	34	43
Postgraduate Module	7	7
Totals		59

The APM accreditation scheme for university level courses is summarised in Table 5. This shows that in 2023, a total of 59 degree level units were available. A total of 39 of the 166 UK universities participate with some offering multiple Masters level degrees, some offer only undergraduate degrees and a small number offer only modules that count towards ether Masters of Undergraduate degrees. Similar data from UCAS shows that not all universities offering project management qualifications are accredited by APM.

Critically, jurisdiction must relate what the professional does to the real-world problems of the society in which it claims primacy (Goode 1969, p.282; Baer 1986). For jurisdiction to be effective, it must be based on expert knowledge, not available to the layman (Freidson 2001). There may be an element of mystique (Haga et al. 1974) or indeterminacy (Jamous and Peloille 1970) about what the occupation does which reinforces the role of

the practitioner as interpreter of special knowledge, and which the layman cannot hope to understand, so the professional is able to claim authority over defining the knowledge needed and autonomy to control its use without external supervision. This knowledge is gained through long study, which may or may not be university based, but the duration indicates dedication and demands appropriate reward. Thus, it can be seen that special knowledge leads to privileges and is a key factor in the development of jurisdiction and jurisdiction is a major component in establishing a profession.

2.8.4 Section Summary

This section has identified the critical role of jurisdiction in relation to professional formation. It has outlined the practical and theoretical consequences of jurisdiction and highlighted the implications for education of professionals. It can thus be seen that jurisdiction not only plays a vital role in establishing the limits of the professional field, it also plays an important role in professional formation since it underpins status and social mobility. The literature shows that the body of knowledge is important in establishing jurisdiction but does not indicate how jurisdiction is established.

2.9 Bodies of Knowledge

2.9.1 Nature of Bodies of Knowledge

The Oxford English Dictionary (2015) gives six definitions of *body* including the main or central part of something, and a mass or collection. It defines *knowledge* as facts, information, and skills acquired through experience or education; the theoretical or practical understanding of a subject or the sum of what is known about a topic. On these definitions, the notion of a body of knowledge could be either the main part of the knowledge on a topic or a mass of knowledge. The former suggests that only some knowledge is included while the latter suggests the knowledge is an undifferentiated and probably unstructured aggregation which may or may not be complete.

Bodies of Knowledge generally take two forms: implicit and explicit. Professions such as medicine have implicit bodies of knowledge: few in the profession would expect to see a book, or even a series of books, labelled

as such. Rather, they would point to specialist libraries, research results and the like as their body of knowledge. Newer occupations, and especially those aspiring to profession, tend to have explicit bodies of knowledge (or BOK), and these tend to be artefacts, published either as a book or online. Thus, occupations such as Project Management and computing have explicit BOKs (Shepherd and Atkinson 2012) while some knowledge areas, such as human reproduction, are not associated directly with extant occupations but nevertheless have their own BOK (Seabrooke and Tsingou 2016). Bodies of Knowledge as artefacts are not a new concept (Rutz 2013), but their use in establishing professional formation has evolved since ancient times and their use has increased amid newer occupations. This research is concerned with explicit BOKs and emergent professions.

2.9.2 Professional Knowledge

Just as there is little agreement on what distinguishes a profession from a mere occupation, so too there is little agreement on what constitutes professional knowledge beyond claims that the body of knowledge for any profession is "*esoteric*" (Millerson 1964, p.8) "*publicly recognised and expert…*" (Bryceland and Stam 2005, p.131) and "*based on abstract theories …*" (Freidson 1999, p.118). Most scholars of profession regard possession of special knowledge, not available to others, as the key feature of professionalism (Abbott 1991b; Freidson 1999; Evetts 2011c; Abbott 2015). This special knowledge, the body of knowledge for each professional domain, lays the foundation for the occupational identity of the group by defining the group boundaries and acting as a basis for credentialing activities based on specialised education and training (Grey 1997).

Professional knowledge is seen as separate from practice (Abbott 1988; Freidson 2001; Susskind and Susskind 2015) and separate from every-day knowledge. A professional knowledge system, according to Abbott, is organised along "*logically consistent, rationally conceptualised dimensions*" and results in "*formal and rationalised*" classification (1988, pp.55-56). This fits the notion of theory related knowledge but the knowledge claims of many new occupations are rooted in practice and so, like accountancy, the knowledge base is not so much an esoteric body of

knowledge but an esoteric body of practice, "*raised to the level of theory*" (Macdonald 1995, p.202).

The interrelations between academic and working knowledge are central to professional life (Abbott 1988, p.336, Note 35). This view sees professional knowledge as formal and explicit but necessarily excludes tacit knowledge. Others, notably Schön (1987) Eraut (2000), and Freidson (2001) see tacit knowledge as an essential part of professional practice while Polanyi (1966, p.7) notes that "all knowledge is *either tacit or rooted in tacit knowledge…"* (emphasis in the original). On these accounts, the body of professional knowledge for any given profession should somehow contain both tacit and explicit knowledge which allows a role for judgement over how to approach a problem, select the tools from the body of knowledge and then apply them effectively.

2.9.3 Ownership of the Body of Knowledge

Apart from the composition of relevant knowledge, emergent professions are also challenged by ownership of knowledge (Freidson 2001). Most occupations develop their knowledge from practical experience which is then somehow recorded so that new members may learn from accepted and authorised experience. This means that knowledge emerges before any academic involvement and that some type of organisation is needed to collate relevant knowledge. The process of extracting such knowledge, abstraction, may be performed by either expert practitioners or academics (Prencipe and Tell 2001) but there can be tensions over roles. For project management, Morris et al. (2006a) were concerned that reliance on

> *"…the project management associations to tell the academic what to think and teach, instead of having research test the concepts theoretically and the issues practically, we get into self-fulfilling prophecies*". (2006a, p.719)

This view offers a mediating role for academics to apply control over "*autonomously created knowledge*" (Baer 1986, p.532). But practitioners may well dispute the development of "their" knowledge by "*those whose hands were unsullied by practice*" (Freidson 2001, p.28). Schön (1983) proposed a solution (see Figure 6). Such an approach would have the

advantage of ensuring that practice and academia work together, thus avoiding the rigour vs relevance division between practice and theory as well as helping to build a sound theoretical base for PM.

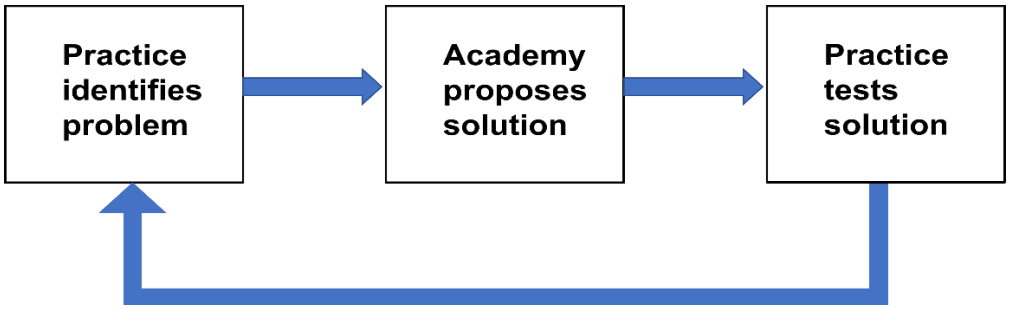

Figure 6 Collaboration (developed from Schön 1983)

2.9.4 Role of Professional Bodies

It is widely accepted that Professional Bodies are key to the development of their BOK (see, for example, Millerson 1964; Morris et al. 2006b; Matthews 2017) and can intervene in the process of knowledge combination, abstracting from practice that knowledge they consider to be appropriate for their professional needs. Engineering and other occupations based on scientific principles usually embody their knowledge in textbooks or implicit bodies of knowledge but knowledge-based occupations embody their knowledge in an explicit BOK and seemingly use this in the pursuit of professional formation (Hodgson et al. 2015).

This BOK is what distinguishes PM from general management which

> *"…despite efforts, the area of business management has been never made an exclusive jurisdiction."* (Abbott 1988, p.103)

This inability to establish exclusive jurisdiction does not seem to have prevented general management from occupying nearly every occupational domain (Grey 1997), thus stretching its jurisdiction almost infinitely without a "*systematic body of research-based knowledge*" (Whitley 1995, p.103), contrary to the assertion that such expansion is impossible (Abbott 1988, p.88). PM has similarly extended its jurisdiction but has a substantive body

of knowledge to assist in the process. This mechanism has not been explored so far in PM research.

2.9.5 Bodies of Project Management Knowledge

Many occupations have documented bodies of knowledge (for examples see Appendix 4) but some versions, labelled as such, tend to be associated with newly emergent occupations, such as Project Management. These can be regarded as formal BOKs in that they are developed as books or physical documents that embody explicit knowledge. As physical manifestations of the knowledge of the occupation, they cannot represent tacit knowledge. These BOK represent Fincham's "*emergent codified knowledge*" (2012, p.211) for PM. Both the Association for Project Management (APM) and the Project Management Institute (PMI) have formal BOK developed over 30 years (APM) and 40 years (PMI) respectively (see Table 6 p.61). These BOKs show marked differences in presentation as well as content which opens challenges to their validity and whether either is sufficient to allow closure is debateable. This also reinforces the notion that professions are culturally bound.

The nature of PM professional knowledge may also be contested, especially as emergent occupations often form from an existing occupation with knowledge brought from the original domain and codified (Wilensky 1964; Freidson 2001). In the case of PM, there are many domains where projects are undertaken, ranging from science based sectors such as pharmaceutical and engineering, to traditional professions such as law and accountancy. Associations claim PM to be domain agnostic (Hodgson et al. 2011) and so do not need to take account of the domain specific issues although PMI have produced extensions to their BOK for construction and government. On this account, some knowledge may not be considered unique to PM, with the impact on jurisdiction already noted.

2.9.6 Section Summary

This section has described the notion of a body of knowledge, contrasting the various interpretations to illustrate the absence of tacit knowledge and judgemental aspects. The tensions caused by ownership and development of BOKs have been highlighted and linked back to professional

development through formal education. The question of how domain knowledge is managed in a specialist BOK has been raised.

2.10 Development of Formal Bodies of Knowledge

2.10.1 Developmental Aspects

The development of an explicit body of knowledge is a complex matter as roles are ill defined with both practitioners (Freidson 2001) and academics (Morris et al. 2006a) having claims to the necessary knowledge. Issues around the ability of practitioners to abstract knowledge from practice and academics to understanding the complexity of the real world practice contribute to make the development process messy. Interestingly, the leading BOKs relating to PM were developed, at least initially, by teams with strong academic involvement (PMI 1983). Early versions of the Project Management Institute's PMBOK® were specifically aimed at meeting the needs of professional formation (PMI 1983, p.5) in special issues of their house journal, edited by academics from Western Carolina University. In UK, Morris, the unattributed author of APM's first Body of Knowledge, held a chair in PM at the University of Manchester Institute of Technology (UMIST) at the time. Morris (1998; 2000; 2001, 2002; 2006b) has been closely associated with the APM BOK while the Japanese equivalents were both developed at universities. That said, PMI does not seem to have conducted specific research to support their BOK. In UK, substantial research was carried out at UMIST to improve the 3rd and 4th editions (Morris et al. 2000) while a significant research project was mounted to expand the 5th edition to include programme and portfolio management. This research was ultimately rejected (Morris et al. 2006b). A timeline summarising the development of two formal BOKs is at Table 6

Table 6 – BOK Development Summary

APM (UK)	PMI (USA)	Remarks
	1983	Internal report only
	1984	Strawman in Project Management Journal
	1987	"The Project Management Body of Knowledge" issued
1 – 1992		
2 – 1994		
3 – 1996		Updated to serve as basis for certification
	1 – 1996	Issued as PMBOK® Guide
4 – 2000		By UMIST Team led by Prof P.W.G. Morris
	2 – 2000	
5 – 2006		By UCL Team led by Prof PGW Morris includes program and portfolio management
	4 – 2008	
6 – 2012		By APM Project Team based on external consultation
	5 – 2013	Stakeholder Management added
	6 – 2017	Periodic update
7 – 2019		APM team based on restricted consultation under academic editor
	7 – 2021	Major revision to introduce principles
8 - 2024		Work commenced July 2023

2.10.2 Professional formation and Project Management

Research concerning professional formation is extensive but apart from Hodson and colleagues, there is little to link this and PM. Furthermore, there is little concerning BOKs in relation to professional formation apart from general acknowledgement that they are key to professions (Abbott 1991a; Whitley 1995). The nature of professional knowledge in general has received particular attention from Baer (1986) and (Freidson 1986b); Freidson (2001). Work by Hodgson (Hodgson 2002, Hodgson and Muzio 2011, Hodgson et al. 2015) reviews APM's moves toward professional status, dwelling at length on the significance of the Royal Charter campaign. This work does not, however, address the knowledge requirements

although Morris et al. (2006a) address what some see as weaknesses in APM's approach. However, it must be noted that this latter was written in the immediate aftermath of the rejection of research for the 5th edition.

Just what the associations expect to gain from their BOKs is also difficult to discern. APM claimed that it developed its BOK to support its newly introduced credential (Willis 1995) but seems to have made little use of it for professional formation. APM stated its intention to seek a Royal Charter in its strategic manifesto in 2004 (Association for Project Management 2004). This simply stated the intention to seek the award but gave no reasons of the purpose other than to act as an institutional goal to focus efforts in a common direction. However, it was generally seen as a desirable objective that would define PM as a profession. Informal workshops had been held to estimate the effort needed and to take advice from other recent recipients of a Royal Charter.

2.10.3 Organisational Aspects

Fincham (2012) places PM as a quasi-profession, sharing some features with the recognised professions but detached from other occupational classifications. However, Hodgson et al. (2015) indicate a classification closer to professional services based on the APM's perceived professional formation strategy, thus PM overlaps several classifications (see Figure 7) which reinforces the notion of the critical role knowledge the BOK plays but does not differentiate its specific uses in the professional formation process.

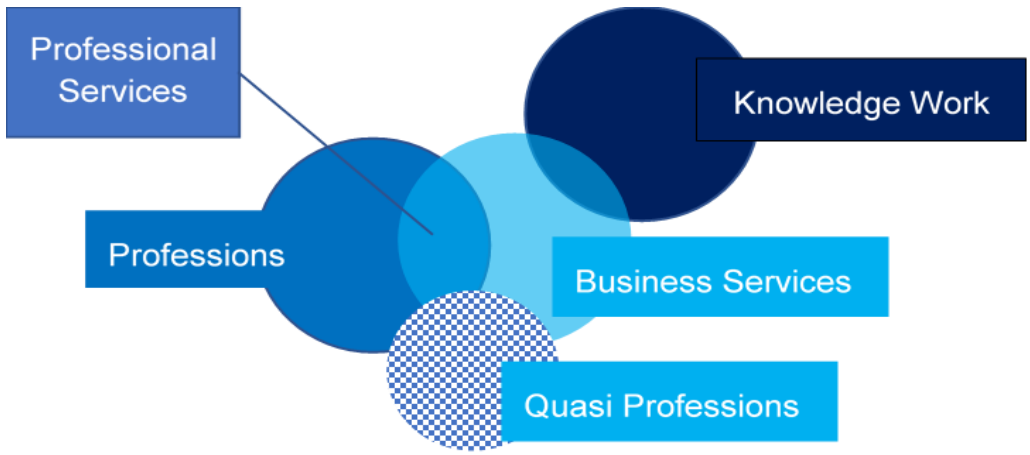

Figure 7 Occupational Classifications (adapted from Fincham 2012)

Current thinking brings knowledge work into an overlap with professions and professional services (Noordegraaf et al. 2014) and has implications for the development and use of BOK. The literature has shown that BOK can be used in several different ways and that these ways may be influenced by cultural factors. The literature has little to say concerning the role of BOK or how they are used in relation to professional formation, although Morris et al. (2006a) outline some key factors, including the centrality of the BOKS but not how they contribute to professional formation or the role they play in relation to key stakeholders.

2.10.4 Challenges to Bodies of Knowledge

Despite his well-documented research supporting APM's BOK (Morris 1994, 2000, 2001, 2002, Morris et al. 2006b), Morris et al. (2006a) challenge the structure and underlying basis of APM's BOK for project management, noting a "*lack of academic input*" to bodies of project management knowledge.

Hodgson and Cicmil (2006) challenge the reified nature of its content and claim it represents a means to control a workforce. Later comment (Hodgson et al. 2015) rather undermines this line of argument as the popularity of individual certification accompanied by accreditation schemes indicates willing acceptance of the BOK which plays a critical role in certification, a major activity for project management associations (PMAs) (Shepherd and Johns 2006; Morris et al. 2006b) since this helps establish their jurisdiction and provides a major income stream.

2.10.5 Section Summary

While there has been extensive prior research concerning professions and professional formation, there is little to link the development of BOKs to the process of professional formation. Research concerning the manner in which BOKs contribute to the establishment, maintenance and expansion of jurisdiction has received limited attention. Project Management offers several challenges to conventional models of profession and these have not been reconciled with current thinking.

The literature relating to knowledge in professions may be categorised along two dimensions: the nature of knowledge required in relation to the occupation itself; and how that knowledge relates to the process of professional formation. The literature shows expert knowledge to be a vital component of profession and gives some idea of its nature (Abbott 1998; Freidson 2001; Blackman 2006; Fincham 2006; Evetts 2011a; Fincham 2012).

Expert knowledge is unique to each occupation, so its direct contribution is interesting but does not explain why some occupations become recognised as professions and others do not. Thus, the detailed content of a BOK, which defines the occupation itself, does not indicate whether the owning occupation may be regarded as a profession. On the other hand, there is little to illuminate how expert knowledge encapsulated in a BOK is used in the professional formation. These factors are key to the understanding of how BOKs help an occupation achieve recognition as a profession.

2.11 Objectives

The literature has shown that the social conditions surrounding occupations differs significantly from the era of the liberal professions of medicine and law. New organisational forms have emerged that challenge notions of profession, particularly the professional service firm and transnational organisations. New information management tools such as the Internet make information more easily accessible thus reducing the possibility of exclusive knowledge ownership while there is evidence that younger generations have different views of profession. These factors affect how bodies of knowledge may be used in professional formation thus the following objectives need to be addressed.

Table 7 – Objectives

#	Objective
1	Explore the methods used by membership associations in their professional formation.
2	Explore how formal Bodies of Knowledge are used by emergent professions to define/establish their area of interest.
3	Identify the nature of the formal Body of Knowledge employed by the membership association.
4	Identify BOK Stakeholders (Internal and External) and their stated needs.
5	Identify how the BOK is used by stakeholders to meet the needs of professional formation.

2.12 Chapter Summary

The literature shows that professions remain a subject of considerable academic interest. This review of the literature has provided an overview of the main theories underlying professions. It also shows that a diverse range of factors affect professions. Some professional bodies anticipate a new environment due to societal change although they have not defined the likely impact of these changes. PM has become an object of growing academic and economic interest although this interest has a much shorter history than the study of profession.

It can be seen that the literature raises a number of issues concerning the role of a BOK, conditions how it is used and that a number of major factors are involved

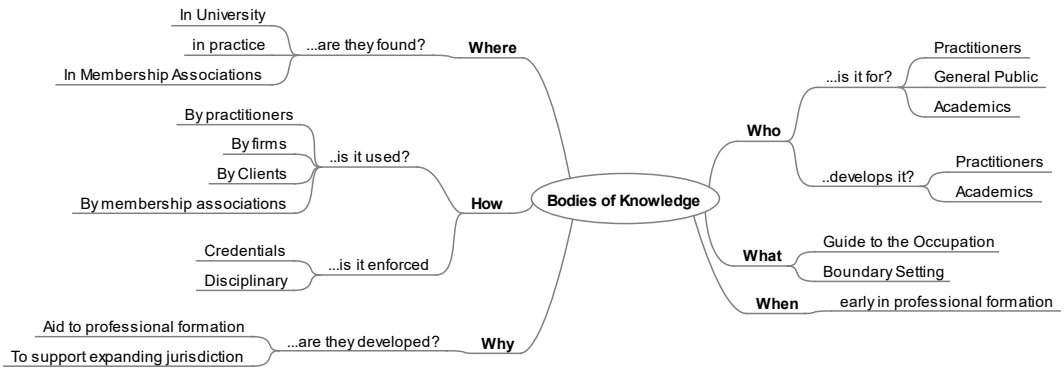

Figure 8 Summary of Literature Review findings

The findings of the Literature Survey are summarised at Figure 8. It is clear that the mechanisms specific to the professional formation of PM have received scant attention. In particular, the special characteristics of PM as an occupation have not been addressed. These characteristics include claims that PM is domain agnostic, i.e. it can be, and is, utilised in industries as diverse as engineering, aerospace, pharmaceuticals, law, the theatre and many others (Morris 2013a), which could prove problematic in defining jurisdiction. Similarly, most project managers are employed by firms, thus bringing the occupation into conflict with bureaucratisation which limits autonomy (Paton et al. 2013). PM is also seen as a global occupation (Muzio et al. 2013) which has implications for jurisdiction, knowledge, socialisation (Whitley 1995) and behavioural aspects of profession. These aspects have received little attention and are important aspects of PM's claim to professional status.

PMAs have shown themselves to have professional formation as an organisational objective yet the management of projects presents challenges to the traditional notion of profession, mainly around its claims to independent existence and its knowledge claims, the latter encapsulated in their BOK. The literature describes different approaches to professional formation but these are mainly based on traditional occupations. The situation regarding "modern" occupations has received some attention but leave unanswered the issue of exactly how knowledge is used in professional formation.

The PMAs have defined their own BOK to support their efforts to certificate practitioners and to act as a spur to professional recognition. These BOK are diverse and have different epistemological foundations which has drawn the criticism that they lack foundational theory. This view has been reinforced to some extent by limited academic involvement in the development of Bodies of knowledge. The knowledge base for professions has received substantial, mostly descriptive attention but there remain unanswered questions concerning knowledge development and the different types of knowledge involved.

Finally, the literature does not address how professional societies use knowledge in their professional formation. Research on BOK has raised

issues over their validity, completeness and research base, noting the significant differences between US and UK versions and scholars have also contested the ontological approaches adopted. These challenges leave unanswered questions over the role and use of Bodies of knowledge, specifically, how BOK are used in professional formation and the role they play in relation to key stakeholders.

This research provides an important opportunity to advance the understanding of how knowledge is used in a modern profession. The literature shows that expert knowledge and expertise are characteristic of professions, but little work has been done to account for the different forms of knowledge, formal, or explicit knowledge and implicit, or tacit, knowledge and the role they play in professional formation. This research takes its starting point Reed's (1996) classification of professions, adapted by Fincham (2012), into market based and organisational professions. These can be said to display new forms of expertise and present different interpretations of professionalism which reflect sociological changes. The impact of sociological change on professions has been addressed at the macro level but this work addresses a meso level to link new generations of experts with new forms of profession. Exploration of the 'critical case' of APM's professional formation will contribute a view of knowledge formation, presentation and dissemination in an aspiring modern occupational group.

Chapter 3 Methodological Positioning

3.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out the methodology, design and data collection method of this research. It draws upon the previous chapters where the aim and objectives were identified (Chapter 1) and elaborated from the literature (Chapter 2) in support of the research objectives (§2.11). The research aim and these objectives guide the selection of the research strategy and methodological choices. How and why knowledge is used in professional formation informs this research.

The importance of professions in society, problems of definition and process were identified and described in this chapter. The central role of specialised knowledge was identified as a key feature of professions. However, the lack of theoretical and methodological debate on the nature of this knowledge, its codification and use in relation to professional formation to be found in the literature supports the research objectives identified in §1.5 (see also §2.11).

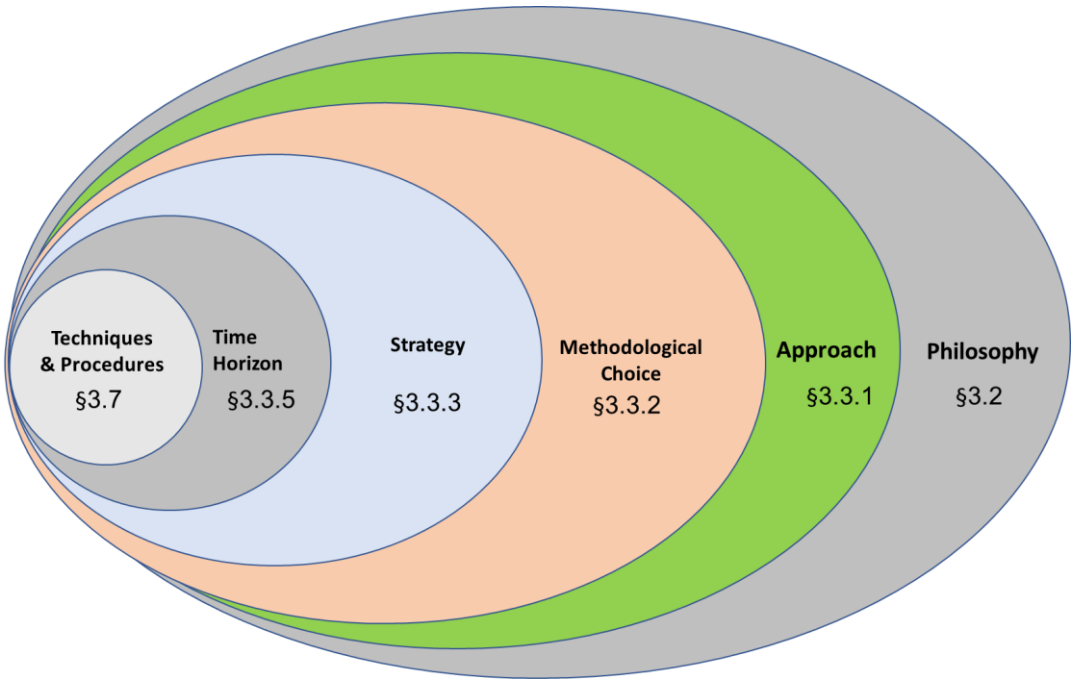

Figure 9 Simplified Research Onion (after Saunders et al. 2016)

This Chapter follows the concept of the research onion (Saunders et al. 2016). This notion views the research setting as a multi-layered model that moves from the overall philosophy to data collection and analysis as

illustrated in the simplified model at Figure 9. This also shows where each layer is discussed in this chapter.

3.2 Philosophic Orientation

3.2.1 Introduction

This section reviews the philosophic orientation of the research, it explains the ontological and epistemic stance adopted. This section addresses the outer layer of the research onion (see Figure 10), selection of the ontology and epistemic stances to be adopted.

3.2.2 Natural Philosophy of professions

The literature shows that professions are made up of people who have a command of special knowledge (Freidson 2001; Larson 2013); based on this special knowledge, they claim to provide services that other people either cannot or do not offer. Practitioners behave in ways prescribed by their professional bodies but still have their own motives, desires and needs which can affect the performance of their service and degree of support for their profession (Abbott 1993). These characteristics are often difficult to understand and, as Weber noted, "*man is not an open book" (Gerth and Mills 1948)* by which he meant that people behave in a variety of ways, sometime logical, frequently illogical or at least to their own obscure logic; they do not necessarily conform to rigid rules, along predetermined lines and so, to gain meaning from their actions, they must be understood in a way that interprets their actions. This way of understanding differentiates the world of professions from the natural science world, placing it in the world of social sciences.

The concept of profession is intangible, it's practitioners trade in knowledge, rather than the physical trappings of property or goods. Furthermore, professions do not occur naturally, nor do they exist "out there". Thus, they have no independent existence and can only be considered a social construct.

3.2.3 Philosophical Stance

The study of social constructs presents a number of possible philosophic approaches as illustrated in Figure 5 (Saunders et al. 2016). The study of professions seems best approached from an interpretive perspective. This perspective accommodates the nature of knowledge and how it is gained in the social sciences which has been shown to differ from that in the natural sciences (Weber 1947; Gerth and Mills 1948). Instead of seeking causal laws to account for past actions and to predict future events, which are characteristics of research in the natural sciences, research in the social sciences observes individual events, attempting to understand their causation in order to make sense of the world. This leads to an interpretive philosophic stance.

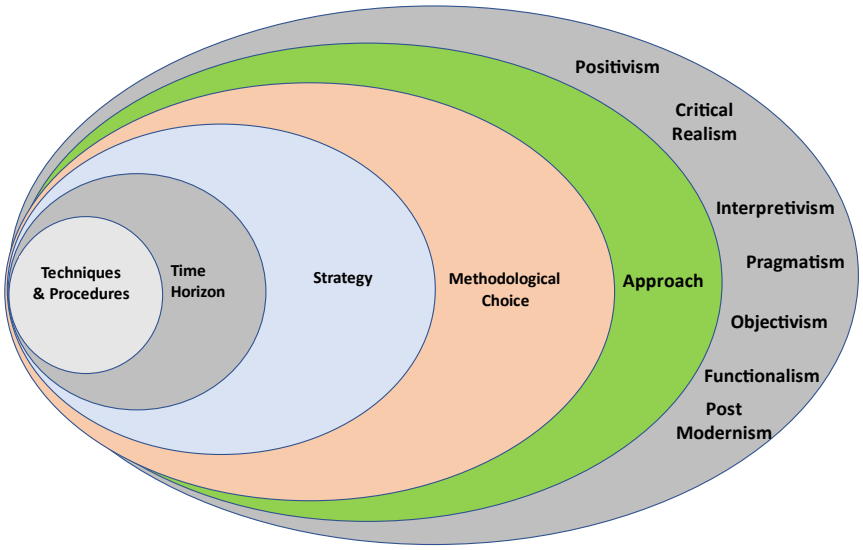

Figure 10 Layer 1 – Philosophies (after Saunders et al 2016)

The literature (e.g. Hodgson and Cicmil 2006; Morris 2013b; Hodgson and Cicmil 2016) demonstrates that project management is complex and socially constructed so an approach in which multiple meanings and interpretations could be expressed was considered essential. This approach reflects the diverse views of profession that emerge from the literature (Millerson 1964; Macdonald 1995; Saks 2012) and of project management (Smyth and Morris 2007; Söderlund 2011). A pragmatist philosophy might have been adopted since data collection (see §3.4) could follow the research problem and research question (Saunders et al. 2016, p.127) and such an approach would fit axiologically, where the observer is

part of the context under investigation. This also encourages a reflexive approach. However, the nature of the research is analytical and seeks to understand a phenomenon, and so the pragmatist emphasis on practical solutions was rejected. Positivist and objective approaches were also rejected on epistemic grounds since it was clear that the scientific methods implicit in such stances would not adequately address the research questions, nor was '*one true reality*' (Saunders and Townsend 2016, p.137) likely to emerge: BOKs appear to be value laden, intangible and non-numeric. Axiologically, it was recognised that the practical experience of the researcher would not allow a detached perspective to be established and objectivity would need to be carefully managed. Similarly, a postmodernist stance was rejected as de-construction was unlikely to prove effective when different perspectives were to be examined. Critical Realism was excluded on ontological grounds since its reliance on objective structures and stratification (Saunders and Townsend 2016, p.139) is at variance with the more subjective view of the nature of BOKs. Much of the professional formation literature adopts a functionalist stance based on historical analysis and the intention to develop "explanations that can be used universally providing they are correctly implemented" (Saunders et al. 2016, p.134). This research is expected to be exploratory and so the functionalist stance was rejected. Having examined the nature of the research and linked this to the subject under study, an interpretive philosophy was adopted for this research.

3.2.4 Ontological Stance

In the interpretive tradition of research philosophies, it is necessary to understand the underlying perception of the nature of reality, or ontology, implicit in this stance. This tradition recognises the complex nature of the world, and sees it as constructed through language, custom and culture. The nature of professions indicates that a subjective ontology is most appropriate since this recognises the role of social actors in the creation and interpretation of knowledge. There are multiple versions of BOKs, even within a single cultural domain. For example, in the project management profession within UK, there are two different, domain agnostic, interpretations of the BOK, APM BOK and CRMP BOK (Morris 2001) to say

nothing of sector specific versions such as those in the engineering and information technology domains. Moreover, there are formal standards from the British Standards Institute (BSI) and nationally accepted International Organisation for Standards (ISO) that contribute to the overall body of knowledge. This demonstrates that BOKs are embodiments of specialised knowledge and a social constructionist ontology helps account for the various enactments of BOKs.

3.2.5 Epistemic Considerations

As the purpose of this research is to answer questions about the use of BOKs in professional formation, a constructionist epistemology was adopted. This perception of what constitutes valid views of knowledge and how it can be communicated allows a survey approach (see §3.4 for data collection and §3.5 for analysis options). Such a stance supports the nature of the research, recognising the value of multiple data sources and fits well with the diverse nature of the stakeholders (§3.3.5). As shown later (see §4.5.2), BOKs are developed by and for social actors. These actors include officers of the professional body, BOK developers, academics and "professionals". A realist perspective was also a possible epistemology as the broad picture of BOK use is highly context dependent (see §3.3.4) but was rejected as constructionism was a better fit since it recognises that

> *"…individuals create or construct their own new understandings or knowledge through the interaction of what they already believe and the ideas, events, and activities with which they come into contact".* (Ültanır 2012)

3.2.6 Researcher Positioning

In any research it is important to recognise the stance of the researcher since this influences methodological orientation and choices for the research (Smyth and Morris 2007; Easterby-Smith et al. 2012; Creswell and Creswell 2018). In this case, the original motivation sprang from the author's professional background as an officer in HM Land Forces, as a project manager and more recent experience as an officer in national and international professional associations. These association roles carried responsibility for updating BOKs. These factors influence personal

orientation and introduce potential biases. The latter are addressed elsewhere (see §3.6.5): this section addresses the axiological influences that affect ontological and epistemic choices made in this research.

The researcher spent some 30 years in HM Forces and 35 years as a project manager, with an overlap of about 10 years. Work outside HM Forces was at various management levels in diverse business sectors within the Project Management profession. Work experience ranged from specialist roles such as planner and scheduler to quality manager and project manager. Projects were located in UK, USA, Eastern Europe and Far East, involving the defence industry, information and computer technology, pharmaceutical development and manufacture, and nuclear decommissioning.

As a practitioner, the author was drawn into involvement with professional societies, becoming a Chartered Member of the British Computer Society and of the Chartered Institute for Personnel Development. Membership of APM (initially the Association *of* Project Managers, but more recently *for* Project Management) quickly became the most important membership. Over time, this involvement evolved from simple membership to a more active role which included acting as an officer with responsibility for policy development. One of the tasks involved was acting as project sponsor for the revision of APM's BOK. This project encountered several problems and specially commissioned research was largely abandoned (Morris et al. 2006b). The research for the revision is well documented (Morris et al. 2006a) and demonstrates an unsuccessful academic approach to developing a formal body of knowledge. There were a number of underlying reasons for this failure, not all of which were technical or academic, some of which have influenced this study. Among these factors was a failure to appreciate some of the communication needs of competing groups of stakeholder and schedule imperatives that affected the needs of external stakeholders.

It was recognised for the outset that this personal background would impact several aspects of the research. It was beneficial in that as a well-known and senior figure, many doors would be open in APM as a professional body and personal knowledge of many key stakeholders would

allow access that others might not enjoy . However, linkage to the problems experienced with APM's BOK 5 might colour views held by some stakeholders, a situation that is explored later (see §3.4.5).

Awareness of the need for reflexivity extends beyond the planning phases and it was understood that potential advantages including be perceived as an "insider" could be offset by disadvantages such as the introduction of biases in developing the frame for participation, interview prompt design, interaction with participants and analysis. This realisation reinforced the need for a reflexive approach and careful consideration the relationship between interviewer and informant. These aspects are addressed later (see §3.6).

3.2.7 Section Summary

This section has addressed the philosophical stance of the research by reviewing the nature of professions to reject positivist outlook and adopt a social constructionist philosophy. The researcher's axiological stance was explained and how this affects important aspects of the research including interaction with participants and influences decision making. These considerations led to the adoption of a social constructionist ontology and a constructionist epistemology which support the nature of research as well as its characteristics.

3.3 Research Strategy

3.3.1 Approach

This section addresses the second layer in the Research Onion, the approach to theory development. As already noted (§3.1), there is a lack of theory in relation to the role of BOKs in professional formation. This indicates that the research requires an exploratory approach. The exploratory nature of the study may not result in the development of a theory of BOK use in professional formation "*as a result of observation of empirical data*" (Saunders et al. 2016 p714) but an account capable of further investigation should emerge. As no theory concerning BOKs has been identified in the literature, a deductive approach could not be used and in any case, would not easily fit with the philosophic stance. Furthermore, the

data generated is not expected to "*allow the testing of a theoretical proposition by the employment of a research strategy specifically designed for the purpose of its testing*" (Saunders et al. 2016 p714). Hence deductive approaches were judged to be inappropriate. An inductive approach which allows alternative explanations of phenomena was adopted. Such an approach fits with the constructionist philosophic stance in which this research is based.

3.3.2 Methodological Options

Having established the ontological and epistemic base for this research grounding (see §3.2) and taken account of axiological considerations (§3.2.5), the third layer (see Figure 3), methodological choice of design can be addressed.. The primary choice is between quantitative and qualitative methods, and whether data gathering will employ a single, multiple or mixed methods. Considerable advice on research design is available from scholars (Robson 2011; Saunders et al. 2016; Creswell and Creswell 2018). Having rejected positivism on philosophical grounds, methodological options are restricted to qualitative or multi-method. The latter can be discounted since the nature of the research objectives indicates that even limited use of quantitative methods appears to be inappropriate. Since the nature of the objectives indicate that the data to be gathered is likely to be based on words, rather than numbers, qualitative methods were adopted.

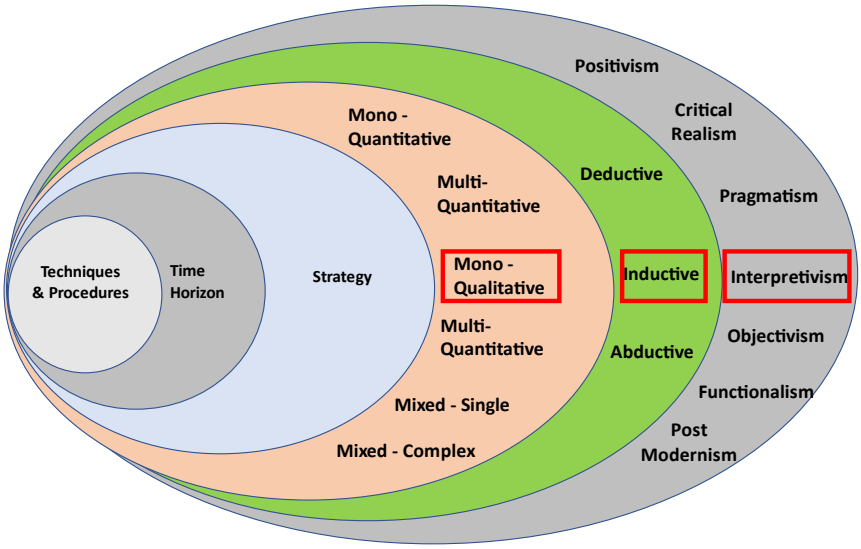

Figure 11 Layers 1 – 3 Choices

3.3.3 Strategy Adopted

This research is exploratory in nature so some data gathering approaches are self-exclusionary (e.g. experiment and action research) while the time frame makes some others unsuitable (e.g. ethnography, grounded theory and archival research).

Case approaches can take various forms depending on the nature of the research. A case study was considered but rejected since the theoretical underpinning often associated with this method (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012, p.54) was absent and none had been identified in the literature. A single case has limited appeal since it offers few opportunities for generalisation despite Eisenhardt's encouragement (Eisenhardt and Graebner 2007) for the use of case studies. However, cases can take various forms as Yin (2018) explains. A case approach was selected because the interpretive philosophy indicates that in-depth data gathering is needed and a single completed case was available.

Although there is an extensive sociology of professions, there is no theory to support how BOKs are used so a critical case could not be used. As professional formation examples are not common, there is little to be gained by adopting a common case approach and while professional formation usually take many years to complete, a longitudinal approach was not considered appropriate despite the long period in which the BOK has been in use. Clearly the APM BOK has evolved technically but there is little to indicate that its use has changed in any strategic or structural way. The situation in the target case could be considered revelatory (Yin 2013, p.50) because of the unusual circumstances of the occupation (see Appendix 8). Similarly, the case could also be seen as extreme but in the absence of an initial theoretical position, this was felt to be inappropriate.

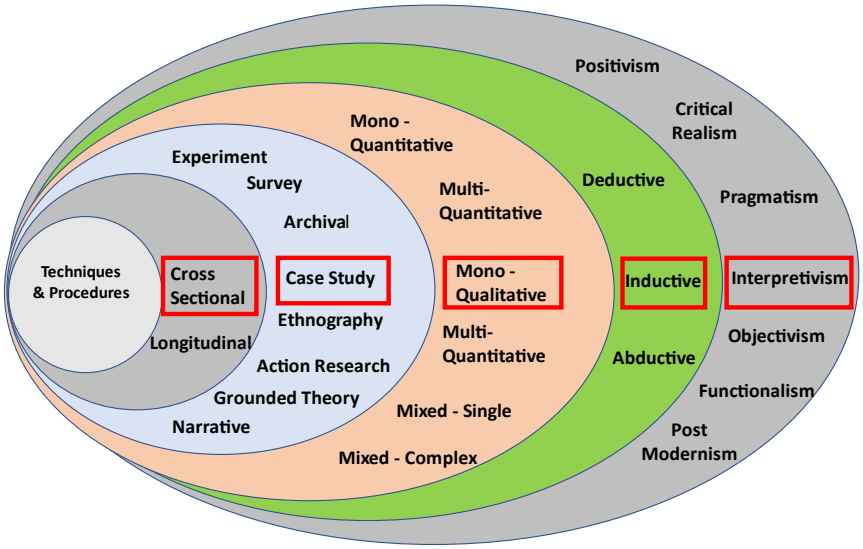

Figure 12 Strategy and time horizon Selected

3.3.4 Case Selection

Professions have been shown (§2.7.1) to be both culturally (Torstendahl 1990) and temporally (Siegrist 2015) bound. It is commonly recognised that Western professions fall into two broad types: Anglo-American and Continental European (Collins 1990). Formal recognition usually depends on some form of State approval and different regimes express their approval in different ways. For example, in France, the state embodies its approval through elite administration while in UK it is through Royal Charter. Collins (1990) argues that the emergence of modern professions is linked to growth of the state, in France after the revolution; in Prussia in the post Napoleonic period. For the purpose of this research, the Anglo-American form was selected. Furthermore, the impact of the Internet and new organisational structures such as the professional service firm (Faulconbridge and Muzio 2017) limit the value of studying traditional professional formation such as medicine or accountancy as historical events. These factors have increased in significance in recent times (Scott 2008; Reed 2018b).

It was decided to use the award of a Royal Charter as an indicator that in UK, an occupation had achieved professional recognition because "*the granting of a Royal Charter is reserved for eminent professional bodies*" (Memberwise 2023). Conveniently, country of origin and type of organisation are shown in Privy Council records. Employing the Royal

Charter as a marker of the end of professional formation avoids some of the problems of recognition raised by Johnson (1972), Macdonald (1995) and many other sociologists concerning definitive tests for recognition of professional status. In practice, this leaves relatively few candidates but these may be identified by scrutiny of the list of Charter Awards (Privy Council 2019) since AD1152. For the purpose of this research, the period between the start of this century and the end of 2019 was selected as corresponding to "modern". In this modern period, some 103 Charters were awarded. Until the end of 2018, the Privy Council designated the type of organisation that has been awarded and simple inspection shows the latest awards can be similarly categorised. The record shows that of the 103 Charters awarded, 1 is a religious society, 14 are charities, 11 are educational establishments, 32 are livery companies and the remaining 46 are listed as "professions" (see Appendix 5).

It was decided to use the Association for Project Management as a case for research as its award of a Royal Charter in October 2016 could be seen to mark the end of its professional formation; and it has a formal Body of Knowledge. It therefore offers a minimum set of parameters that could provide the empirical setting for this research. In particular, the project is well placed temporally because it is recent enough for stakeholders to remember salient facts but long enough ago for any controversial aspects to have become less contentious.

3.3.5 Time Horizon

Most professional formation is long term, as the literature shows (Carr-Saunders and Wilson 1933; Macdonald 1995). However, the literature review showed that formal BOKs are updated regularly to keep pace with technological change. As the research examines professional formation, not how the technologies employed changes, this seems unlikely to affect the research. Thus, the time horizon for the study can best be described as cross–sectional. It is, however, possible that the uses to which they are put may change over time and this forms part of the research.

3.3.6 Stakeholders

The literature (e.g. Abbott 1988) shows that BOKs have a wide appeal. Furthermore, this appeal is to a variety of audiences including practitioners, occupational societies, employers and academics (Hodgson et al. 2015). Interviews carried out during the first phase of the research indicated that there are at least four groups of stakeholders. The first is the *practitioner* since they employ the knowledge commanded by their profession to carry out their business. It may also be said that they generate the basic knowledge that is eventually conceptualised as the BOK. Other stakeholders are also involved in the generation of professional knowledge, for instance, academics can abstract knowledge for inclusion on the BOK. However, who develops the BOK is not the focus of the research which is how the BOK is used rather than it's technical content.

The second group, *academics*, is made up of those who provide advanced education and training for the practitioner. This group comprises teaching and research academics as well as commercial trainers. Teaching academics and trainers provide professional education and training in basic skills while research academics have a role in codifying knowledge, including abstraction and conducting supporting research. There is often an overlap in academic roles and the division between the two can be difficult to discern. As a result, the interview protocol was crafted to include questions that covered both academic roles. Note that short course training organisations have not been included since their main interest is commercial and their technical interests are subsumed within the academic group. BOK *developers* form a distinct group and although they are drawn from both the practitioner and academic groups, their potentially influential status needs to be recognised. The final group is the professional association or *policy* setters who advocate for the occupation and are responsible for defining policy, strategy and implementation, and taking key decision in the professional formation.

These groups comprise individuals who have the necessary experience to be able to speak for or represent the views of their stakeholder group on the professional formation of project management. These diverse

stakeholders should provide a range of perspectives which will allow a degree of triangulation, offsetting the small number of informants.

Individuals from the groups of stakeholders were identified as suitable candidates for interview on account of their experience and knowledge of the research subject. It was recognised that their experiences and views would differ so the focus of each interview would be subtly different; hence the interview protocol was designed to accommodate a range of perspectives. Furthermore, it was noted that the interviewer stance (§3.2.6) would be important and could influence interview outcomes. In keeping with the ontological positioning of the research, semi-structured interviewing was used to "r*aise and explore issues they find to be relevant and allow* their *voices to be hear*d" (emphasis in original) (Foley 2012, p.305).

In any interview based research, the relationship between the interviewer and the interview subject is a matter for careful reflection, particularly where there is a pre-existing relationship. Bourdieu argues that "*social proximity and familiarity*" encourages what he terms "*non-violent communication*" (Bourdieu 1996) by reducing the risk of misinterpretation through mutual understanding of the topic being addressed and by minimising influencing outcomes by indicating "*how a given utterance is to be interpreted or how it has been interpreted by the interlocutor*". Thus he allows investigators "to chose their respondents from among or around people *personally known to them*" (emphasis in the original). This is achieved, according to Bourdieu (p20) by "*the carefully gauged emission of all the non-verbal signs*".

The relationship between interview participants is clearly crucial. While the role of the interviewer is relatively well understood, those being interviewed can be variously described in terms that reflects the role that the interviewer assigns them (Foley 2012). For the purpose of this research, interview candidates are called informants. This follows common academic practice (Garton and Copland 2010; Foley 2012; Whitaker and Atkinson 2019) to reflect the way they are viewed by the interviewer as well as how they interact with the research (Brinkmann and Kvale 2015) and also to remind the researcher of the relationship between himself and the

participants (Berger 2015). To call them respondents suggests that they simply respond in some way to questions, rather like replying to a questionnaire which would not allow exploration of issues raised by the individuals, thus ignoring the very reasons for their selection. Informants were expected to express a range of views and experiences so they seem be more than mere interviewees. The purpose of semi-structured interviewing is to gain multiple perspectives and the participant's role is to inform the research with their rich experience: in these circumstances, they are properly called "informants". The use of this term also reminds the interviewer that it is the voice of the informant that is important and helps reduce potential interviewer bias.

Informants selected form a non-probability heterogenous purposive sample with individuals chosen to meet the requirements of a sample frame (see Table 12 p.106)

Appendix 6). The number of interviews was comparatively small but meets the size criteria described by Saunders et al. (2016, p.297) and follows the methods recommended by Eisenhardt (1989) and Saunders and Townsend (2016).

3.4 Processes

3.4.1 Research Design

The design for the research was conditioned by the strategy described in §3.1 and §3.2 and is summarised in Figure 5. This framework allowed the detailed design for the research to be developed. Activities identified in the framework are based upon the framework initially developed by Kvale and later elaborated by (Brinkmann and Kvale 2015). It embodies principles set out by Bourdieu (Bourdieu 1996).

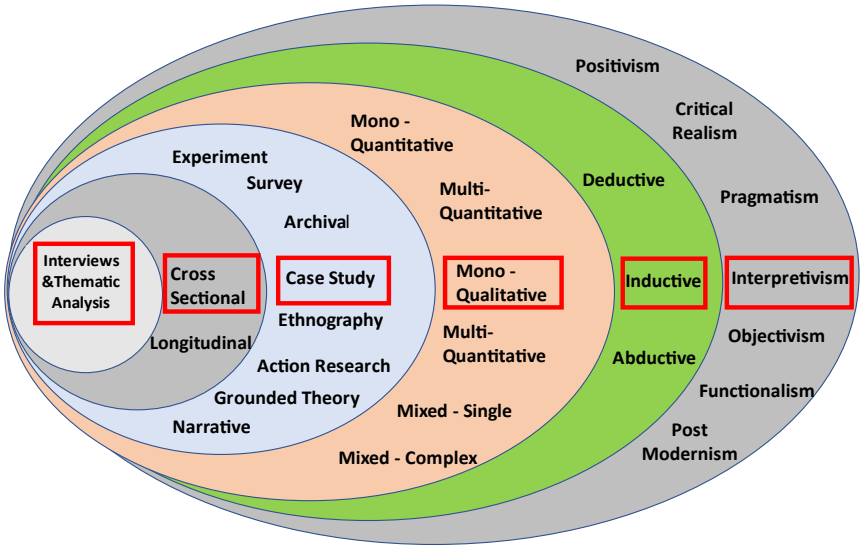

Figure 13 Final Framework (adapted from Saunders et al 2013)

The purpose of the design framework isto provide a coherent sequence of steps that ensure no significant actions were missed. Each stage was extracted from narrative descriptions to provide a succinct reminder of the main matters to be covered in various parts of this research. The interview framework is summarised in Table 8 which also shows where the stages are addressed in this Chapter.

As a framework, it is similar to others such as that proposed by Creswell and Creswell (2018). While much of the first (thematising) stage emerges from the literature, some aspects relate to the axiological stance explained earlier in this chapter (§3.2.6). Brinkmann and Kvale (2015) presuppose that interviews will be the main research instrument, and this is why their approach was selected.

Table 8 – Stages of design development (adapted from Brinkmann and Kvale 2015)

Stage	Stage	Purpose	Addressed at
1	Thematising	Clarify interview purpose	§2.10 & §2.11
		Identify pre-knowledge requirements	§2
		Identification of key practice aspects	§3.4
2	Design	Identify interview type	§3.4.2
		Ethical aspects	§3.6.6
		Preparation of Protocol	§3.4.5
		Preparation of material for respondents	§3.4.5
		Development of transcription brief	RDMP
3	Interview	Carry out the interview	§3.4.3
4	Transcription	Converting recorded interviews to text files	Appendix 6
		Checking transcription for accuracy	Appendix 6
		Preparation of data for analysis	Appendix 6
5	Analysis	Determine mode of analysis	§3.5.2
		Code interview data	
6	Verification	Ensuring the validity and reliability of the data	§3.6
7	Reporting	Communicating findings	§4 & §5

3.4.2 Design Implementation.

The research design outlined in Figure 5 does not indicate the practical aspects of gathering data. This will be dealt with in detail later but the original plan envisaged a single round of semi structured interviews based on a purposive frame. While reviewing the interview transcripts and reflecting on the frame, it became clear that the frame needed improvement (see §3.4.4). Reflexive review of the initial coding also indicated some informants were not well placed to provide relevant responses so the decision was taken to revise the frame and recruit additional participants.

3.4.3 Collection Types

Data collection was of two types. The first type consisted of documentary evidence relating to the case. Most of these documents were found from on-line searches of APM's website and publications, many of which were undated. This provided some public description of the professional formation but in many instances, relevant policy documents, where they existed, were sparce and considerable reliance had to be placed on a contemporary document that was based on personal recollections (Boyce 2010). Several of the original contributors died before the research was planned and so it was impossible to independently verify the accuracy of some parts of this publication. Despite the lack of independent validation, relevant content was considered during the analysis of interview responses. The History and other APM documents provide an outline of the association which contribute to the summary at Appendix 7. The second type, narrative evidence gleaned from a selection of stakeholders by means of interviews (see §3.3.5), is analysed to meet the objectives set out at §2.11.

Interviews may be seen as "*a purposeful discussion between two or more people*" (Kahn and Cannell 1957). These "discussions" can take specific forms depending on the nature of the topic and type of information needed. Interview types may range from formal question and answer sessions to open discussions with no direction from the interviewer. These extremes, from fully structured to fully unstructured, offer different levels of control to the participants, as illustrated in Figure 6.

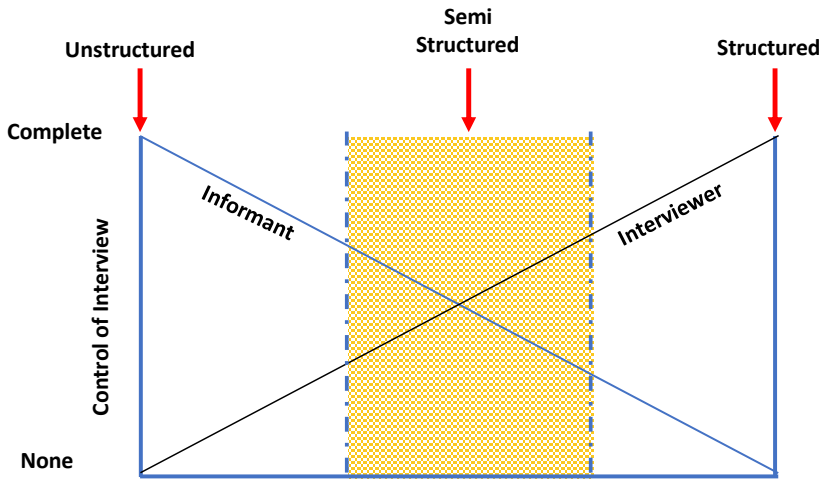

Figure 14 Interview types and Control

In a fully unstructured interview, the interviewer has no opportunity to direct questions and the interviewee controls the pace, direction and depth of response. In a fully structured interview, the interviewer is in complete control of the questions asked but cannot vary questions asked or explore unexpected developments. While fully structured interviews may be an approach that works in positivistic enquiry, it is poorly aligned with a realist ontology and was rejected as a method for gathering data.

Fully unstructured interviews allow the person undergoing the interview to speak with little or no intervention by the interviewer and so are often used where a rich picture of a situation is sought. However, such interviews are difficult to control and so may be a poor use of resources as participants may stray for the topic of interest. Furthermore, they can be unreliable in terms of validity because of biases. In all interview situation, it cannot be assumed that participants tell the full story but in unstructured interviews it is more difficult to challenge veracity or clarify what may turn out to be critical evidence as interventions are minimal. Moreover, as the interview is a phenomenon of power asymmetry, the influence of the interviewer needs to be taken into account (Bourdieu 1996).

In a semi-structured interview, the interviewer asks open ended questions, working from a list of themes or general aspects that are deemed relevant.. How questions are posed and their sequence of delivery can be varied from interview to interview depending on how the informant reacts and which aspects of the replies are of significance to the Interviewer (Shepherd 2015). This type of interview was adopted for this research as it offers a satisfactory level of control and increases the likelihood of capturing information that links to the research question. It also encourages the interviewer to adopt a reflexive approach throughout the interview thus reducing the level of power asymmetry and helping to reduce any perception of symbolic violence (Bourdieu 1996).

Interviewing offers a number of advantages (Brinkmann and Kvale 2015; Shepherd 2015), particularly as asking people with specialist knowledge or expertise ensures that a wide range of relevant views can be discovered so long as an appropriate framework is used. After reviewing

available approaches, the research framework developed was based on Brinkmann and Kvale's (2015, p.98) seven stage approach (see Table 8).

3.4.4 Interview Planning

The original frame included participants from USA as well as UK so participants were widely dispersed geographically with considerable time zone differences. To overcome this and to ensure that the interview environment was as near identical as possible, it was decided to use telephone interviews. Interviews were conducted using Voice over Internet Protocol (VOIP) as this was convenient for contacting informants and offered direct audio recording. An initial system test using telephones (both land line and mobile) was conducted prior to a pilot set of interviews. A small hand-held recorder was used because it was supposed to allow direct recording from the telephone. The test showed this capability to be unusable and that it was not possible to 'pause' recording so each interview had to be captured in a single, continuous stream. The use of telephones was abandoned in favour of other VOIP platforms to overcome these technical issues.

The use of remote interviewing held a number of advantages: informants could be contacted from the interviewer's laptop and allowed contact via either laptop or telephone, thus providing flexibility of access should that be needed. The intended informants were dispersed in various locations in UK, Europe and USA, so use of the internet removed barriers to participation. Travel time for informants and interviewer was eliminated as stakeholders were able to select where and when they were interviewed. This improved the likelihood of accessing selected informants irrespective of geographic location. This approach also removed the need to find interview locations that offered privacy and the quiet needed for recording as informants could select convenient locations and times where they would at their most comfortable and able to control their own privacy; this aspect helped reduce participation bias (Saunders et al. 2016, p.397). Informant-selected interview locations also reduced the formality of the interviews, so a more relaxed and free flowing response was more likely. Furthermore, this ensured an identical approach for all interviews, i.e., the same familiar platform was used throughout.

The first round of interviews (Phase 1) took place before the advent of the Covid-19 virus in UK utilising Skype and tape recording: the second round of interviews (Phase 2) were conducted some time later during the National Lockdown. The method was adjusted for Phase 2 to use new communications platforms since Informants, like most of the UK population, quickly became familiar with a number of applications such as Zoom® and Teams®; the Zoom® application enabled informants to be "invited" to the interview at mutually convenient times and offered both video and sound recording. The Skype Out application, used in the pilot interviews, was held as a stand-by for use in the event that the Zoom® contact was not possible. Use of Zoom® ensured that the context for each interview could be controlled so that environmental influences that could affect the process or distract participants were eliminated. This also ensured that interviews were conducted in an identical environment and one that was conditioned by the choices made by the informant.

Against these advantages, there are some negative aspects, mainly around the lack of visual cues (Carr and Worth 2001; Saunders et al. 2016). It was found, however, that visual cues could be picked up during validation of transcripts by means of the video recording of the interview. Thus reading of body language was not perceived as problematic. Similarly, the audio recording provided clues concerning the use of irony. However, potentially anomalous responses were challenged during the interviews or clarification sought as part of the transcription process (see §3.4.6). Other drawbacks to remote interviewing concern the establishment of trust (Robson 2011; Saunders et al. 2016) and rapport building (Brinkmann and Kvale 2015, pp.98, 111). However, as the interviewer was well known to most of the informants, a degree of trust carried over from earlier encounters. Furthermore, as the interviewer could be considered an "insider" with similar weltanschauung to the informants, trust was not expected to be an issue.

3.4.5 Recruitment

The field of PM is substantial: the US headquartered Project Management Institute (PMI) alone claims more than 680,00 members in over 220 countries and more than 5 million copies of their BOK (all editions) in circulation (PMI 2021). Thus, the user population is potentially very large

and culturally diverse. However, for exploratory research, statistical inferences are not needed so non-probability sampling techniques were considered. Saunders et al (2016, p.276) list four types of non-probability sampling of which Purposive Sampling was judged to be the most appropriate since in this research the sample does not need to represent the total population in statistical terms and the research aim was clearly defined. More importantly, there is a clear focus for selecting participants. The main requirement is to identify key themes so typical case, theoretical sampling and critical case sampling are not relevant. Homogenous sampling was judged to be inappropriate despite the intention to investigate underlying rationales for the use of BOKs (i.e. some depth is needed), key themes are better identified using heterogeneous purposive sampling (Creswell 2013, p.101; Saunders et al. 2016, pp.174 - 175). Given the diverse user base identified from the literature, this method was identified as the most appropriate to adopt.

Participant selection consists of two aspects, sample size and detailed selection. Many scholars discuss sample size but according to Creswell (2018) the subject remains ambiguous. Saunders et al (2012) summarise the research methods literature and report a consensus view that between 5 and 25 semi structured interviews are adequate for purposive samples (Saunders et al. 2012, p.297).

Phase 1 participant selection was determined by means of a simple frame (Saunders et al. 2012, pp.277 – 299; Brinkmann and Kvale 2015) developed from the literature (e.g. Shepherd and Johns 2006) which shows that the interested communities consist of practitioners, academics, and the professional society (see §3.3.5). The frame is shown at Table 9 below.

Table 9 – Sample Frame Phase 1

Group	Numbers	Recruitment	Comment
Practitioner	4 – 6	Application via Member Association	Demographic range needed
Academic	8 – 10	Invitation	Includes researchers and teaching academics
Member Association	2 – 4	Invitation	Includes ex-employees with specialist knowledge of Charter application

It can be argued that employers also have a very close interest in BOKs but their interest is mainly confined to the development and identification of competent practitioners. It was judged that their interests would be adequately summarised by practitioners so employers were not included in the frame. In order to minimise cultural mismatches, it was decided to recruit from USA and UK, with a single European informant to test the cultural limitations noted by Torstendahl (1990) and (Evetts 1998). The composition of the Phase 1 frame is illustrated below.

Table 10 – Phase 1 Target Frame coverage

Group	UK	USA	Rest of World
Practitioner	✓	✓	✓
Academic	✓		
Professional Association	✓	✓	

In Phase 1, a single informant from Finland participated, shown above as Rest of World (ROW). This verified that the approach to professional formation in Europe is significantly different to that identified in UK. This frame was adjusted for Phase 2. Numbers were increased and only UK participants were selected. Treatment of interviews from Phase 1 is discussed in Chapter 4.

The frame for Phase 2 was expanded to include BOK Developers who were expected to have had recent experience of in the updates of APM's BOK.

It should be noted that the individuals selected are mostly very well known within the PM world and can be considered as 'elites' as described by Stephens (2007). Elites are notoriously difficult to interview (Empson 2018) but as many are contemporaries of the researcher, potential problems were avoided. These individuals enjoy a similar status to the researcher which helps eliminate power asymmetry and may also reduce other forms of bias (Mason-Bish 2019).

3.4.6 Interview Conduct

Participants for both Phase 1 and Phase 2 were sent a Participant Information Brief (Appendix 11). Those who responded were sent a Participant Agreement Form, return of which was taken as informed consent.

Interviews were arranged via email, at times to suit the informant. At the start of each interview, understanding of the ethical aspects was tested and agreement to be interviewed, previously indicated by the return of individual Participant Agreement forms, confirmed. Specific permission to audio record the interview, on the grounds of ensuring accuracy in transcription, was sought from each informant. Informants were also offered a copy of the transcript in order to check that their meaning had been accurately captured. Few accepted this offer.

3.4.7 Transcription

All interviews were recorded and the results handled in accordance with the Research Data Management Plan (Appendix 10 p.249). Prior to the interviews, a Transcription Brief (Brinkmann et al. 2014) which set out data handling from recording the interview to completion of the transcription was prepared and tested as part of the first round of interviews and the brief updated for the second round, to reflect the updated ethics approval. A copy of each interview audio file was sent via secure transfer to an approved secretarial agency for transcription. Anonymity was assured through

adherence to the Transcription Brief (Appendix 7).by starting too soon, as the transcription process demands concentration and specific focus on transfer rather than analysis (Brinkmann and Kvale 2015). By using an independent transcriber, and verifying accuracy through inspection, analysis is delayed until the data is presented for analysis, in this case once the files had been uploaded into NVivo.

3.4.8 Case Records

Case research is notorious for the volume of data that it entails (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012) so records and record keeping was a significant task particularly for the first round of interviews where manual coding was undertaken. For this reason, it was decided to use a computer aided qualitative data analysis tool (NVivo) because of its capability to manage interview records. Other case records consisted of documentary evidence from both academic and grey publications. All documentary material was treated in the way as citations, using EndNote. Internet references were treated similarly although these were also kept in an Excel Spreadsheet as an alternative back up. Interview data consisted of recordings of the interviews in sound and vision were retained and transcribed interviews were maintained as text documents.

3.4.9 Data Management

It is important to manage research data in order to meet legal, administrative and research requirements. These requirements were met by the construction of a Research Data Manage Plan (RDMP) that describes how General Data Protection Regulations (GDPR) compliance is achieved. Administrative needs are achieved by adopting a filing protocol that is included in the RDMP (Appendix 10). Research requirements are achieved by ensuring that data is stored, classified for retrieval and protected against loss or damage as set out in the General Data Protection Regulation. The RDMP was approved as part of the submission to the BU Ethics Committee.

3.5 Analysis Strategy

3.5.1 Strategy

The analytic strategy adopted is Thematic Analysis. Under this approach, the analyst familiarises themselves with the data gathered, gleaning initial impressions. In the second stage data is broken down into codes so that latent as well as simple semantic meaning can be extracted (Braun 2022). In the next stage, data are reassembled by means of themes. These are "*patterns of shared meaning organised around a central concept*" (Braun 2022). To take a construction related metaphor, if codes are the bricks in a building, then themes are walls. Once organised, these themes are then reviewed for relevance, whether they present convincing evidence in relation to the research questions. Reviewing themes may result in new themes from merged themes, divided into more appropriate themes or abandoned altogether. After this review process, themes are fully defined and given names as part of the detailed analysis of each theme to show how it fits into the overall analysis. The final stage is writing up the results to bring the analytic narrative and extracts of the data together to inform the reader in a persuasive narrative and contextualising this story by relating it to the literature. This process is described diagrammatically at Appendix 12.

3.5.2 Coding Process

As this research is exploratory and based around open ended questions, it was recognised at the outset that data would need some form of organization to present it for analysis and to make sense of it. Having decided on a purposive sample based on a selection frame, quasi-statistical approaches (Robson 2011, p.467; Saldaña 2016, pp.25 - 26) were ruled out since the sample size is too small. Similarly, word frequency methods such as content analysis could not be used effectively.

The other alternative is data coding. This consists of classifying empirical items and assigning conceptual labels to them for analysis. As (Saldaña 2016) notes:

"*A code in qualitative inquiry is most often a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data*".

The purpose is to link evidence to theory by identifying themes in the data. The process is outlined in Figure 15.

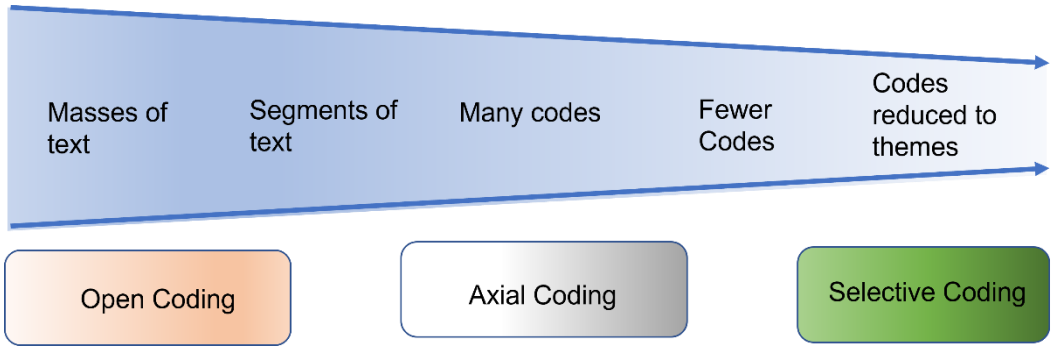

Figure 15 Outline coding process (after Williams and Moser 2019)

The analytical process in this research involves two different paths. The first is the development of the context for the interviews. Technically, this is related to qualitative content analysis in that the input comes from published material. The second path is the analysis of interview data to identify the use of a formal BOK in professional formation (see §4.2).

Transcripts from the first round of interviews were initially coded manually. The frame was adjusted for the second round of interviews and the original coding discarded because it was considered that coding of transcripts needed to be carried out using identical methods. While the intellectual process underlying the coding was the same, in practice re-coding ensured that all the data was treated in the same way. It also reduced potential differences that might be attributed to the interval between the two rounds of interviews.

Transcripts of the US informants were eliminated on scope grounds. To ensure consist coding, remaining transcripts were taken forward into the second round analysis and re-coded using NVivo. The codes developed in the first analysis were discarded, partly since some might be unduly influenced by informants no longer part of the data gathering and to ensure that all coding in the second round was consistent. Thus no *a priori* codes

were taken forward, again to ensure a consistent approach to coding although the influence of the original coding must have had some influence on subsequent coding despite the substantial interval between coding rounds. As codes emerged from each transcript scrutinised, transcripts coded earlier had to be reviewed as new codes emerged. This approach is sometimes called the constant coding method.

3.6 Research Credibility

For research to be credible, it must demonstrate that it is both valid and reliable. This can prove to be challenging for qualitative research which does not have the attributes that allow positivist inferences to help the researcher demonstrate that results can be trusted. Moreover, the statistical tests that are routinely applied to demonstrate reliability and validity in quantitative data are inappropriate to qualitative methods. While data acquired in quantitative research can usually be shown to be based on scientific approaches, such tests do not apply in qualitative research. In order to demonstrate the worth of qualitative data, rigour must be demonstrated throughout the lifecycle of the research, not just in the data gathering phase (Creswell and Creswell 2018). Reliability is taken to mean that the results of the research can be repeated using the same methods and data. Validity relates to the integrity of the research. This section sets out the methods adopted to ensure that this research meets required standards of credibility.

3.6.1 Threats to Reliability

Threats to reliability may be summarised as either errors or as biases on the part of the participant and of the researcher (Saunders et al. 2016). Participant error arises from any factor that alters how the informant responds during the interview. These factors may be physical, due to environmental conditions, emotional such as poor recall of significant events or feeling pressured by time or questioning style (Bourdieu 1996). Bias for the participant can also consist of answers that favour a particular standpoint; these are frequently emotional factors although they may also be due to mis-information or misunderstanding interview themes.

Researcher error manifests as poor interpretation and may be due to inexperience, physical, environmental or emotional factors that reduce concentration, such as lack of preparation for the interview or logic errors. Saunders et al. (2016) sees bias as any factor that alters the way responses are made. (Bourdieu 1996), saw bias arising in the way questions are posed during the interview as well as in interpretation of responses. Other scholars perceive bias including inaccurate portrayal of responses and allowing personal subjective views to affect the interview.

3.6.2 Qualitative Challenges

Case research is sometimes seen as appropriate only for generating hypotheses (Evers and Wu 2006). If this view is adopted, case research would only be appropriate for exploratory studies or early stages in mixed method research where the results point to additional work to be done or to focus research on specific lines of inquiry. Case research has wider applicability as shown by Creswell and Creswell (2018) and Flyvbjerg (2006). However, this study is exploratory so Evers and Wu's (2006) limitations on generalising do not affect the design.

Accusations that case research has in-built biases, particularly towards verification bias are more difficult to refute. All research must guard against the possibility that design and conduct is arranged "*to confirm the researchers preconceived notions*" (Flyvbjerg 2006, p.227) and this applies to all research not just qualitative or case research. Explicit statements of rationale and design will do much to overcome such accusations, especially declarations of researcher stance and role in the investigation (see §3.2.6). In case research, there are possible process biases due to the nature of data gathering techniques involved (see §3.4.4).

3.6.3 Process Issues

The main data gathering method, interviewing, has been the subject of wide-spread radical criticism (e.g. Murphy et al. 1998) where the reliance on interviews to provide "*a window on the world*" (Hammersley 2003, p.119) encourages the view that interviews act as a means of opening out "*secret personal realities behind public facades*" (Hammersley 2003; Whitaker and Atkinson 2019). Critical authors (e.g.Gubrium et al. 2012) cite a "*romantic*

impulse" that sees interviews reflecting the "*genuine voices*" of informants and so lacking objectivity. It may be reasonable to raise such concerns but naturalistic enquiry has long been seen as an effective way to understand human issues. In this research, particular note has been taken of the need for continual reflexivity (Bourdieu and Accardo 1999; Lumsden et al. 2019) and care has been taken over the planning of interviews to reduce factors that might influence how informants respond during the interview. This included selection of a range of stakeholders to act as informants so that some degree of triangulation was achieved, thus reducing the possible over-reliance on specific interview data; use of VOIP to enable informants to select time and place for the interview; and maintaining awareness of the potential influence of power relations before, during and after the interview.

Remote interviewing has also been seen as a methodological weakness as body language, visible cues and use of irony are all hard to detect (Bourdieu 1996; Brinkmann and Kvale 2015). However, use of new VOIP technology applications such as Zoom® reduces the possibility of such weaknesses affecting the quality of interaction and reduction in authentic truth by allowing visual as well as aural contact between interviewer and informant. Similarly, such technology is in widespread use due to social distancing requirements so informants can be expected to treat this medium as normal, further reducing other forms of participant error.

As described earlier (§3.4.8), data analysis has been carried out using Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS). This can be criticised on two fronts; first, such an impersonal tool delays the development of researcher familiarity with the data, thus impacting reflexive review; and second, that such a tool requires the use of a set of *a priori* codes, thus limiting the analytical insights that may be gained. In practice, unless team coding is employed, the lack of an initial code book simply extends the time needed for analysis and the constant comparative approach to coding (Saldaña 2016) improves researcher familiarity with the data. Moreover, the process of checking the transcription focuses the researcher on the data and so there is little or no impairment of familiarisation. The use of an *a priori* code book can inhibit analysis since it impedes consideration of new codes. Use of the constant comparison

approach was preferred since it encourages the analyst to reflect on meaning and on the interaction between interviewer and informant (Berger 2015). Against these potential criticisms, it must be noted that CAQDAS manages the large volumes of codes efficiently, avoids duplication and provides a clear audit trail for the analysis.

3.6.4 Threats to Validity

In quantitative research, validity chiefly concerns measurement and the ability to generalise the results of the research. As qualitative research does not involve direct measurement, aspect such as internal validity (control of variables) and external validity (generalisability) are not directly relevant. Although Yin (2018) addresses validity using traditional terms, many other scholars (e.g. Brinkmann and Kvale 2015; Bryman and Bell 2015; Saunders et al. 2016; Creswell and Creswell 2018) adapt the concept to credibility where

> "*the representations of the research participants' socially constructed realities actually match what the participants intended*" (Saunders et al. 2016, p.206).

3.6.5 Threat Remediation

The data gathering mode of semi-structured interviews has advantages that can help eliminate reliability issues, but also has some issues that are addressed below. This mode was selected partly because it can help to reduce potential bias. Participant error, in the form of environmental error, was minimised by using Zoom®. This allowed informants to choose the time and location of their interview and so be as relaxed as possible. Informants were warned about the likely duration of the interview and were informed that they could take breaks if they felt they needed rest (see §3.4.4).

Respondent bias was addressed by the preparation of an interview brief (Appendix 11) which helped frame questions in a neutral manner. Care was taken to avoid leading questions and interviewer tone was also kept neutral. As all the informants knew the interviewer, a degree of trust was already present so being unable to read body language did not become an

issue while informants were unlikely to be affected by any interpretation of the interviewer's body language.

Conduct of the interviews was also considered in terms of both participant and researcher errors. Zoom® interviews were planned to take up to an hour but implemented as two half hour sessions with a 15-minute gap to allow both interviewer and informant a short break, thus further reducing potential environmental participant error. The interview prompt ensured that the interviews remained focused but allowed topics to be fully explored which contributes to reduction in potential researcher bias. Informants were offered copies of their interview transcript to review and adjust where they felt their views were not sufficiently clear, which improved validity.

It is also claimed that it is not possible to generalise from qualitative research as the number of cases does not give a good approximation of the total population. This view is rejected by many scholars (e.g. Flyvbjerg 2006) who see transferability as more significant while Miles et al. (2014) conclude that writing up results is key as this provides context and transparency that can be persuasive. Similarly, Evers and Wu (2006) note that "*it is important to link theory to the data of the case by an appropriate inferential process*" and illustrate the form of this process by citing Josephson and Josephson (1994, p.5) formulation:

D is a collection of data (facts, observations, givens)

H explains D (would, if true, explain D)

No other hypothesis can explain D as well as H does

Therefore, H is probably true.

3.6.6 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are important in research for many reasons such as demonstrating objectivity (by the elimination of bias) and transparency, both of which are critical to credibility. Research ethics extends beyond the formal application and helps manage issues such as researcher bias and researcher attitudes. Potential researcher bias in question technique, (Berger 2015; Jamie and Rathbone 2022) confirmation bias in the design

(Creswell and Creswell 2018) and respondent bias (Brinkmann 2020) in responses can be identified and reduced or avoided by giving proper consideration to the ethical matters during the design stage (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012).

Research Ethics is monitored by Bournemouth University and clearance was obtained prior to data gathering. The approved Check Lists are attached at Appendix 10 accompanied by participant information brief, invitation to participate and an example of a consent form (Appendix 9). All participants confirmed their consent before the interview took place.

As Bourdieu (1996) points out, ethical considerations extend beyond simply ensure informed consent is achieved. It is also a factor in throughout the research cycle and many scholars (Dodgson 2019; Olmos-Vega et al. 2022) highlight the role that reflexivity can play in ensuring that ethical aspects are actively considered.

3.7 Data Gathering

Given the methodological approach selected, it was determined that a simple survey approach was best suited to both exploratory research and the research questions. As a result, a survey based approach using semi structured interviews was selected and data collected in two phases. This section explains the rationale behind the approach adopted, justifies the implementation and reinforces data validation. It reflects on the external environment and on the implementation of the data gathering plan.

3.7.1 Data Gathering

The original plan was to collect data by means of interviews with key stakeholders. An Interview protocol was used to ensure that questions were appropriate to the informant and role, and help the interviewer cover all the intended aspects for each interview. The interview protocol for Phase 1 was developed to support the objectives identified in Chapter 1 and then refined from the literature.

Two important factors emerged during what turned out to be Phase 1. The first concerned the impact of cultural differences. It was expected that European attitudes and practice would be significantly different to that of

UK, and this was confirmed during the interviews, but the literature usually indicates a marked degree of similarity between US and UK approaches to professional formation. However, it transpired that perceptions were significantly different. This difference took the US informants outside the scope of this research.

The second factor was identified during the preparation of transcripts for analysis. Reflexive awareness of data needs indicated that that a key stakeholder group was not properly represented in the cohort of informants. The realisation of these factors led to a replanning of the data gathering in which US informants were removed from the frame, their transcripts were not taken forward for analysis and additional informants to cover the missing stakeholder group were recruited. This allowed Phase 1 to be regarded as clarification of the scope and interviews relating only to UK professional formation were taken forward for analysis.

3.7.2 Implementation

As indicated above, the original plan was for a single round of interviews but on reflection the frame was found to be inadequate. In addition to the relevance of some informants, and the omission of a significant stakleholder group, the numbers were also felt to be too limited allow for any variation of views to be identified. This resulted in revised candidate list and additional informants were recruited. Phase 1 interviews took place in September 2017. Phase 2 interviews took place in the summer of 2021. The long gap between rounds was caused partly by deliberation over whether to continue the research and by COVID 19 issues. After much reflection, the decision was taken to continue and a major review of the work to date ensued.

3.7.3 Data Validity between Phases

With the long interval between interviews, it was necessary to consider whether it is appropriate to use data from the first phase in the analysis. This revolves around whether the questioning differs between phases and whether the external environment is sufficiently different to cause distortion in responses.

Clearly, lessons had been learnt during Phase 1 so there were likely to be differences in the conduct of the later interviews. This is reflected by the opening instructions for Phase 2 which provides a more detailed reminder to confirm that informants were properly informed. It also contains a reminder concerning recording and record management in order to conform with updated Bournemouth requirements. Informants were asked, in Phase 2, to avoid using names once recording began.

Both sets of interviews were guided by a carefully developed interview protocol to ensure that interviews explored all appropriate topics. As can be seen from Appendix 11, although the layouts differ, the topic coverage is almost identical. The Phase 2 protocol provides more detailed guidance because it is divided to reflect the stakeholder groups so individual prompts in Sections 6 – 8 are phrased to suit but the coverage is very similar. Those changes introduced in the Phase 2 protocol largely emerged from responses in Phase 1 so the changes were more in the nature of reminders that had the effect of improving the likelihood that questioning followed the same pattern in both phases. It was considered that there were no significant differences in the conduct of two sets of interviews.

Environmental factors to be considered relate to the impact of the passage of time on the research topic and whether any external factors are likely to affect the way informants react during the interview. It has long been considered that the sociology of professions evolves over time and this is amply demonstrated in the literature as a comparison of Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1933); (Parsons 1939; Larson 2013) and Abbott (1988) clearly show. However, the changes take place over substantial periods of time. The interval between phases does not appear long enough for theoretical changes to affect the results of the interviews.

3.7.4 External Environment

The impact of the external environment on participants could be challenging since the last global pandemic affected this country took place over a century ago. Participants in Phase 1 were not affected by the Pandemic but those from Phase 2 were interviewed in the interval between lockdown lifting and the reimposition of measures to contain the Omicrom variant. None of

the participants reported illness and it was judged anecdotally that none were suffering from mental effects. It was thus judged that candidate informants were capable of effective response and no reasons to reject any of them were detected. One positive effect was the familiarity that the population gained with internet based communication packages. These had been in widespread use throughout the Pandemic so candidate informants were experienced users, a factor that reduced tensions and allowed greater flexibility in selecting locations and times for interviews.

3.7.5 Reflections on Implementation

During the initial analysis of Phase 1 interviews, the perception of design errors began to manifest. This was seen as a reflexive outcome of instinctive continual review. A period of academic reflection followed while issues were defined, evaluated and reflected upon before a decision on a course of action was devised. The first option was to abandon the research entirely. This was unattractive after the long, part time commitment needed to get to this point. The second option considered was to revise the research aim and replan the data gathering approach. This too, was unattractive as the original formulation reflected a valid objective and some of the data gathered remained valid. Moreover, access to what were effectively elites with unique knowledge of significant policy decisions, relevant practice understanding and “professional” experience was unlikely to be available to other researchers meant that the opportunity was unique. The decision was therefore taken to continue the research, with the same aim but to expand the number of candidate informants, seizing the opportunity to strengthen the quality of data.

3.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the philosophic stance adopted, showing the ontological and epistemic assumptions that underlie the research. These lead to the design decisions that result in the selection of an interpretive, inductive, qualitative approach based on case research. A cross sectional time horizon is supported by a pilot set of interviews (Phase 1) that provided key input to the data collection process for Phase 2. Data collection methods have been set out and justified; these are accompanied by a

summary of the analytic approach adopted. Ethical considerations and approvals are set out. The next chapter describes the analytical process and results from Phase 1 (Preliminary Interviews) and Phase 2 (UK Interviews).

Chapter 4 Analysis

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the data gathered through 28 semi-structured interviews and secondary data extracted from examination of official documents from the exemplar organisation. These data were gathered in order to meet the requirements of the objectives set out in Chapter 1 (§1.5). This established what methods were used by membership associations in devising their approach to professional formation (Objective 1) and how formal BOKs are used to define their area of interest (Objective 2). The nature of formal BOKs was then identified (Objective 3) and stakeholders and their perceived needs in relation to the BOK were addressed (Objective 4). Identification of stakeholder use showed how the formal BOK is used by Stakeholders to meet the needs of professional formation (Objective 5).

The secondary findings illuminate informant perceptions of the formal BOK in the context of professional formation. Perceptions are reviewed against professional formation processes, determination of areas of professional interest, the nature of a specific BOK and how relevant stakeholder groups used their BOK in relation to professional formation.

4.1.1 Scope of Analysis

Primary data consists of interviews gathered in two stages. Secondary data was gathered from documents provided by the Association for Project Management and from publicly available reports published by APM. This Chapter expands on the data gathering set out at §3.7 and provides demographic data on the informants to provide context for the stakeholder groups from which the informants were drawn and the basis on which they

were interviewed. It describes the analysis process and sets out the results of that analysis.

4.1.2 Outline of Chapter

This section describes the structure of the chapter. Data gathering (§4.2), including the background to the original plan and subsequent changes made after reflection during initial analysis is set out in §4.2.1. This section also explains the rationale behind the selection of participants (§4.2.2), the resulting frames and the demographics of the final set of informants (§4.2.3).

The analytic approach set out earlier (see §3.3) explains why coding was adopted as a basic approach, the coding methods employed (§3.3.1) and the reasons why these were selected. It also sets out the development of codes (§3.3.2), following the approach set out by (Miles et al. 2014). Coding results are set out at §4.4 using a matrix approach as described by (Saldaña 2016)p261.

4.2 Data Gathering

The Data Gathering Plan envisaged a single set of semi structured interviews with sets of stakeholders who were judged to match a sample frame. The frame was derived from the objectives. The interviews were analysed to extract data (Hammersley 2010) in the form of codes which provided the basis for further analysis into themes. The data was gathered in two phases as set out in Chapter 3. This section explains the data gathering background, selection of candidate participants and the demography of the selected informants.

4.2.1 Background

The research design resulted in an initial set of semi-structured interviews (Phase 1) which were undertaken over a three week period in September 2017. Interview duration varied from 60 to 150 minutes (average duration about 90 minutes). As the initial interviews were being analysed, the original selection of informants was found to be inadequate for reasons set out in §3.6.1 and a further series of 21 interviews (Phase 2) was conducted in the summer of 2021.

4.2.2 Participant Selection

Candidate participants for both phases of interview were selected by means of sample frames that set out the characteristics needed to meet the requirements of the objectives. The frames identified stakeholder groups that could be expected to have the knowledge and experience to respond to the research objectives. Gender was not considered to be relevant to the frame as both genders are well represented at all membership levels and in the management of the professional body age was considered but despite the well publicised attitudinal differences between generations, those involved in professional formation can be expected to be senior members of the occupation and such members tend to be older.

The purposive frame developed for the first round of interviews identified three stakeholder groups as shown in Table 11 below. Candidates from Finland, USA and UK were included. Informants from USA and UK were included because of perceived similarity of views of profession. The informant from Finland, shown as ROW (Rest of World) in Table 11, acted as a pilot to test both the utility of the Interview Brief and to confirm that the perception of profession in continental Europe remains sufficiently different to that of Anglo-American notions, as reported by Torstendahl (1990), still pertain. Resources did not permit a larger European sample to be tested and simple confirmation was judged sufficient.

Table 11 – Interview Frame – Phase 1

Role	UK	USA	ROW	Total
Practitioner	4	1	1	6
Academic	2			2
Professional Association	1	2		3
Total	7	3	1	11

Eleven interviews were conducted in what became Phase 1. The ROW interview confirmed the expected differences and was not considered for detailed analysis. It was found that the remaining informants did not fall

neatly into the planned categories shown. One UK informant covered practitioner views and experiences as head of a professional organisation, another answered as both a practitioner and as president of a US professional organisation. Both the US and UK professional association informants also answered as practitioners. Effectively, fourteen roles were covered.

A reflexive review of the interviews resulted in the rejection of the non-UK interviews. This review was in line with Bourdieu's notion of the need for "*constant (re)formulation-expression of its use and its meaning*" (Deer 2012). The frame for the second round of interviews was extended to include an additional stakeholder group, BOK Developers. The revised frame used for the second phase of interviews is shown at Table 12 below.

Table 12 – Revised Sample Frame

Stakeholder	Characteristics
Academic	Experience as PM course leader, preferably at Master's level. Profile should include any or all of course design, research or participation in APM accreditation, education group or relevant editorial panels.
BOK Developer	Leadership experience in any of the updates APM's BOK or editorial review team (drafting is covered by volunteers, mainly practitioners, noting that this may include Academics as well).
Practitioner	Experienced PM, possibly Fellow of APM. Range of sectors. Experience with any or all of the following preferred: • Participation in APM Specific Interest Groups (SIGs); • Contributor to BOK update drafting.
Policy Team	Experience in APM policy making, covering any or all of the following: • Overall strategy (e.g. design of Royal Charter campaign; • Standards development; • Credentialing and/or Certification; • Continuing Professional Development; • Main policy document requirements (e.g. for BOK, Competence Framework).

4.2.3 Demographics

As noted above, the survey population was divided into groups based on the primary role of each stakeholder. Further division of informants, beyond the stakeholder groups, was deemed unnecessary. The literature indicates no significant gender or racial differences in attitudes to profession so representatives of these groups were not sought.

The requirement to expand the original groups was identified during the early stages of the initial analysis and the second round of interviews increased the range and number of informants. It was also noted during Phase 1 that some informants were interviewed with one role as the focus but were also able to comment on secondary roles. The expanded range of informants for Phase 2 similarly showed overlapping roles. Although this overlap adds richness to the data, it complicates the analysis since it is not always clear which role the response represents. While this may be a complication, it also reflects the reality of a project manager's work environment. Table 13 shows the number of interviews for each stakeholder set and explains the secondary roles. Profiles of informants are set out at Appendix 6.

Table 13 – Interview Sets and Secondary Roles

Role	Ph 1	Ph 2	Total	Secondary Roles
Practitioner	4	6	10	1 Policy Maker, 3 Academics
Policy	1	6	7	1 BOK Developer, 1 Practitioner
Academic	2	5	7	2 BOK Developer, 1 Practitioner
Developer	0	4	4	3 Academics, 1 Policy Maker
Totals	7	21	28	

Informants were interviewed with their primary role in mind, but the presence of secondary roles conditioned the way the Interview Protocol was applied. The breakdown can therefore be considered to consist of 13 Academics, 7 BOK Developers, 9 Policy Makers and 12 Practitioners totalling 41 informant roles.

4.3 Results

As explained earlier (§3.6), the results from the initial coding were identified as simple statements and then grouped. These codes were reviewed and grouped using axial coding. Axial codes, based on simple content were further reviewed to identify underlying similarities and meaning. This final analysis resulted in 9 organising themes (see Figure 16 below) based on 66 basic nodes representing more than 1500 references. The results here are reported by theme and the internal structure of each is described. While the order of analysis reported here reflects, to some extent, a logical sequence, it is based on the needs of the objectives. As such, it does not indicate any particular sequence of actions and other sequences are possible; nor does it represent the sequence of action adopted by APM.

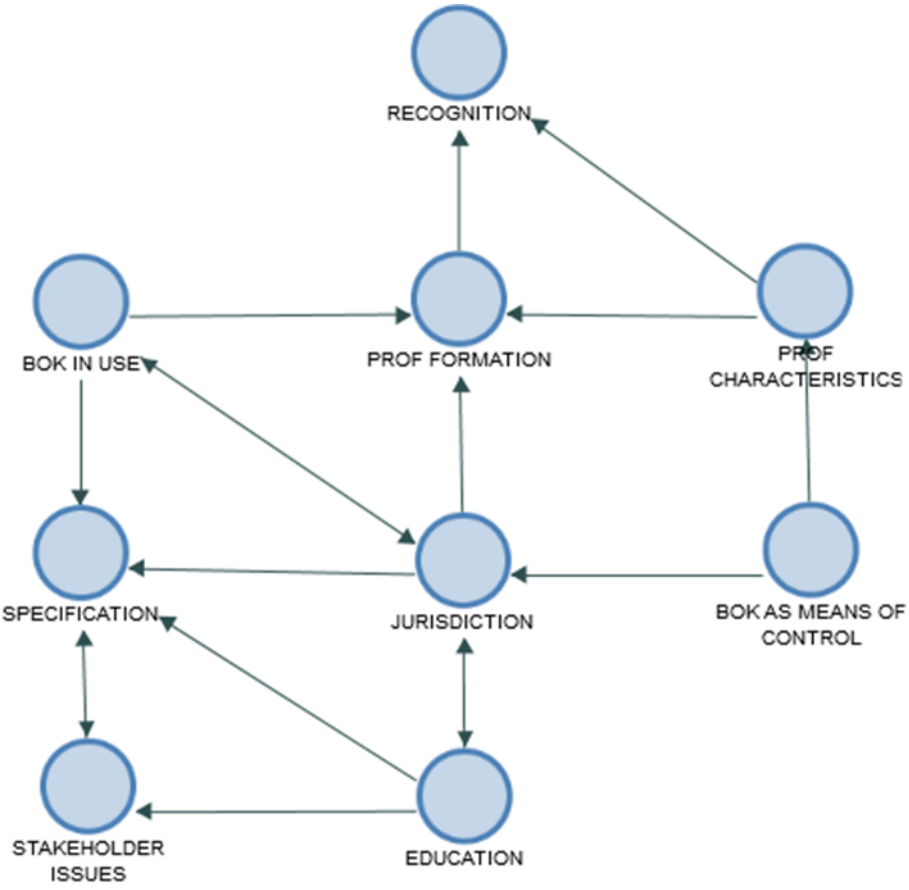

Figure 16 Analytic Overview

4.3.1 Professional Formation – Approaches and Choices

Professional formation is understood as "*the series of diverse and variable, social and historical, processes of development…"*(Evetts 1999) adopted by

occupations to attain recognition as professions. Some scholars discerned specific processes, including a sequence of functions (Caplow 1964), a set of steps (Wilensky 1964) and stages to a steady state (Larson 1977). The approach adopted depends on what the occupation sees as it's overall purpose.

Four types of professional organisation have been identified in the literature, first by Millerson (Millerson 1964) [Ch 2] and then by (Harries-Jenkins 1970). Not all these organisational types engage in professional formation. According to Millerson the vast majority of British professional associations can be classified as "qualifying associations" whose general aim is the "*advancement of a subject-area and/or the technique involved in its practice*"(Millerson 1964p38). Millerson also claims that these associations tend "*to the control of professional content and the elevation of professional status*" (ibid). On this view, the purpose of the association conditions the desired process of professional formation. Simple inspection of the APM Articles of Association clearly indicate that it is a qualifying association. Furthermore, it's charitable objects are "*to advance the science, theory and practice of project and programme management for the public benefit".* This conditions the routes available and is discussed in the next chapter (§5.2).

4.3.1.1 Routes Available

As noted in Chapter 2, scholars have tended to view approaches to professional formation as collegial, referencing traditional professions such as medicine, law and accountancy. This type of professional tended to be in private practice, was educated to at least first degree level, and held qualifications from an occupational organisation (Saks and Adams 2019).

More recently, new types of profession have been identified to interpret modern organisational forms, particularly in relation to knowledge based occupations (Kurunmäki 2004; Pache and Santos 2013; Noordegraaf 2015). These may be characterised as corporate professions.

With these different perceptions of profession, professional formation could follow different paths, one leading to recognition of an occupation reflecting traditional characteristics and another that reflects new

organisational characteristics (Hodgson et al. 2015). Traditional occupations typically seek to form professions by emulating the classic professions of medicine and law. In contrast, corporate professions seek to engage with large firms (Kurunmäki 2004), often professional service firms (Muzio et al. 2011). These contrasting approaches are summarised in Table 14 below. Hodgson et al. (2015) maintain that APM's approach to professional formation was based on a hybrid model that combines aspects of both collegial and corporate logics. This allows APM to draw on tactics they saw as best suited to the particular circumstances they faced, following Millerson's (1964) argument that each occupation follows its own path. It will be recalled that project management presents some significant differences from what might be called traditional professions.

Table 14 – Professional Formation Approaches (After Hodgson et al. 2015)

	Collegial Professional Formation	Corporate Professional Formation
Model	Established professions such as engineering	New forms of managerial specialisms and knowledge based occupations
Geographical jurisdiction	National	International
Appeal	Public good	Commercial value added and technical expertise
Mode of professional formation	Closure regimes supported by mastery of formal body of knowledge	Proactive engagement with organizations and markets and ability to add value to users
Stakeholder focus	State, members and wider society	Domestic and multinational corporations
Membership types	Single-tier membership	Multi-level membership structure
	Individual membership	Individual and organizational membership
Occupational closure	Knowledge domain captured in abstract body of knowledge, tested by written examination	Co-production of situated knowledge with industry, focus on competences

	Collegial Professional Formation	Corporate Professional Formation
	Professional association regulates ability to practice	Qualification embedded in corporate procurement and recruitment policies
Outcome	Recognised by Royal Charter	Not licensed/regulated

APM appears to have adopted an approach that sought formal recognition as a profession via their pursuit of a Royal Charter, arguing that such an award would place them at the same level as established professions such as engineers and IT specialists (see §4.3.2). Such a stance has implications for occupational boundaries.

4.3.1.2 Professional Formation

Informants were not directly questioned on the process of professional formation as it was assessed that few would have a view of the sociological aspects of the process; instead, indirect questioning and interpretation of responses to questions allowed coding to the categories shown in Figure 17 to be abstracted. As it transpired, two informants (AC 2 and POL 7) did have some understanding of relevant processes and two others (BOK 2 and BOK 4) made some direct comment on the process.

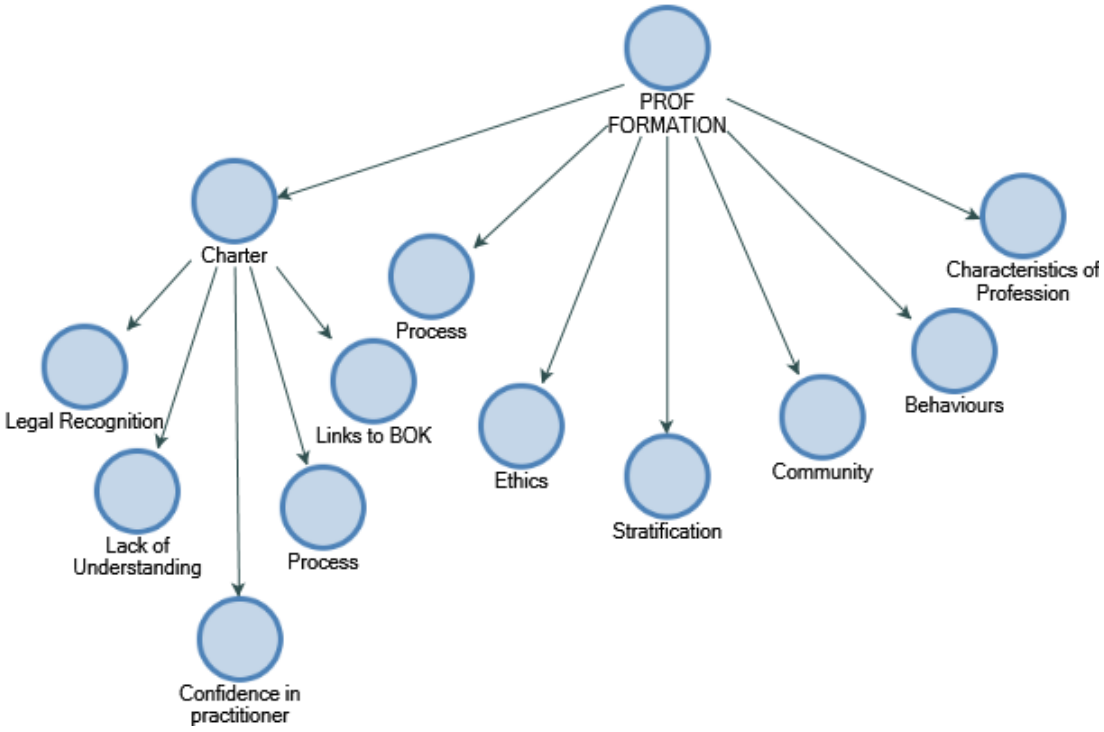

Figure 17 Professional Formation

Most informants recognised that there is a process of professional formation or at least an activity related to it but few had identified any steps or milestones beyond the achievement of a Royal Charter. Prac 10 noted tendencies at the Ministry of Defence (MOD) indicated a greater awareness of project managers as more than subject matter experts which was *"useful from a professionalisation of the project management function ..."* perspective. Prac 10 related this shift in emphasis to defining the boundaries of PM. More specifically, the role of the BOK was recognised:

> *"if you are going to make it profession with formal statutory responsibility, you have to have a Body of Knowledge in order … to underpin that…"* (AC 2)

One academic noted "*a number of common factors in professions"* (AC 3), while another believed that "*what's new is our desire to make it a profession*" (AC 5) which can be taken to indicate recognition of a process. However, there were those who *"… don't think there's formalised process necessarily*" (POL 1) because

> *"… if it doesn't follow that process … that formal process, it will evolve into it because it's the natural progression of any professional discipline."* (POL 1)

APM leadership and all the informants were familiar with role of ethics in professional formation. A common view saw ethics as

> *"… a central component, it is one of the defining features of a profession, it's as a professional behaving ethically and the mechanisms in place to be held to account."* (POL 7)

APM has long had a Code of Conduct which is taken to meet its ethical requirements and there is also a section devoted to it in all versions of the BOK. The Policy lead stated that they:

> *"… were well aware of was the professionalism of the individual in terms of their competence, so demonstrating their knowledge and their ability to do it, but also the professionalism and the ethics side of it, so they are bound by a code of professional conduct and you expect someone who turns up to do your project, if they are Chartered, that they can be held to account by their professional body if they do something unethical."* (POL 2)

Other informants simply referred to Privy Council requirements to indicate the need to include ethics in definitions of the profession. They saw ethics as "*something which protects the people that we serve…"* (BOK 4) and part of the behavioural aspect of profession. Inculcating modes of professional behaviour was cited as *"all the stuff about you being a professional, you know, ethics…"* (BOK 3) and the need *"to behave, and behave ethically…"* (Prac 8) was best covered by

> *"… working with skilled and competent people so they not only pick up the techniques of how to do things but they pick up the sort of ethical stream and how to behave…"* (Prac 8)

Informants saw the community aspect as important. A typical view was that:

> *"… the community element is absolutely essential, the community element determines a lot of what we can do, what we normally do, so it normalises certain aspects within the discipline for better and for worse."* (BOK 2)

Although this was not specifically related to the BOK, it could logically be interpreted as needing the BOK to help develop the identity of the group as Larson (1977 p40) claims, so that the occupation becomes a

> *"… community that bands itself together", based "… like any other community we have rituals. We have procedures, we have things that we do together and things that unite us." (*BOK 2)

This BOK Developer went on to explain the way in which the BOK does this and indicated that ownership is an important aspect:

> *"I think generally we probably accept that a body of knowledge is something that belongs to the community [pause] it's not um purely academic body of knowledge …"* (BOK 2)

The current (and all previous) BOKs have been aimed specifically at the project manager, in part to reflect the original name (Association of Project Managers) but also to focus on what was originally seen as the purpose of the BOK – to act as a foundation for credentialling (Willis 1995). This purpose leaves open issues such as how the different roles equate and how this is perceived by the public.

> *"… so, what constitutes a chartered project manager and what constitutes a chartered professional who's actually a business analyst? So how do you, how would you equate their knowledge, their skills their performance, their competencies?"* (AC 1)

Others, including practitioners (Prac 2 and 4), policy team (POL 2 and 6) and BOK Developers (BOK 2 and 4) were concerned more specifically about specialists within PM such as planners, schedulers and risk managers, and how they fitted into the assessment framework.

4.3.1.3 Contribution to Recognition

This section deals with recognition of project management as a profession by a range of internal stakeholders. More than 200 responses were recorded under this theme. These responses were wide-ranging and while interesting, many did not relate to the role of the BOK. Responses have been analysed to provide collateral for some of the potential objections to recognition by others, such as employers and the general public. This section relates to Objectives 2 and 3. Responses have been categorised as shown in Figure16.

Informants were asked whether they regarded PM as a profession as an entry to the interview. With one exception, all informants thought PM to be a profession,. One (AC1) felt the jurisdictional challenges prevented PM from being recognised as a profession. Another academic felt that although PM could be considered be a profession, it was not a discipline, thus also challenging its jurisdiction.

Informants reported contrasting public views of PM that they felt affected recognition although these views appear to have little to do with the BOK. Some noted the impact of the media, particularly television programmes such as *The Apprentice*, colour the public view of PM, presenting it as something hierarchical, rigid and dictatorial (AC 6). Others (AC 1, AC 2) felt that few understood the role, seeing PM as an "accidental" or part time role so "*you've not got widespread societal acknowledgment of a project manager as being a professional"* (AC 1). Most informants recognised the importance of the public perception:

> *"… to get the recognition you need the wider community … wider society to actual say ok we accept you as a profession otherwise you're just self-defining."* (AC 1)

There was concern that few outside the profession knew that the BOK existed or consulted it; "*the lay person probably wouldn't look at* [the BOK] (AC 6) or *"…be bothered to read it"* (Prac 8). Informants saw many barriers to recognition. Jurisdiction issues were cited by several academics, as reported at §4.3.2 and some doubted that project management could be seen as a full time occupation so

> *"… the view of most organisations is that actually it's more of a vocation that can be strapped on the side of something else."* (Prac 3).

while others reported the tendency of practitioners to *"fall into the profession"* (POL 5) and *"nobody seems to go into project management as a direct route …* (AC 1). On the other hand, this may be a generational perception as it was also started that

> *"… accidental project managers [pause] of which I guess people of our generation were, we had another profession and then we started doing projects."* (BOK 3)

and the younger generation perceive that

> *"… project management is an emerging profession still …" and "… increasingly I think you will find that people are, um, choosing project management as a profession as first choice."* (POL 6).

There was also a perception that PM simply did not fit the image of a profession so

> *"… we are the poor, the poor distant cousins who not, er, who don't quite belong in a business school."* (BOK2)

Furthermore,

> *"… project management didn't really have a place, look, because it's not an academic, you know, it's not really an academic discipline…"* (BOK3)

and

> "*not everything in project management … has been tested from an academic perspective."* (POL 6).

4.3.1.4 Impact of the Royal Charter

The award of the Charter resolved some definitional issues. APM had submitted 50 letters of support from Government departments, agencies and other professional bodies with an interest in project management as part of the application for incorporation under the Royal Warrant. This effectively removed competition over ownership of the occupation and cleared the path to incorporation.

Jurisdictional issues such as those with the Chartered Institute of Management were resolved by showing how other management disciplines had emerged from parent occupations. As one Policy informant explained, when challenged, the response was:

> *"… hang on you're on our turf, but what we said was well, hang on, you can't make that argument when HR [Human Relations] has evolved and now has CIPD [Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development] and all the other management professions have spun out of that and in a sense [pause] when a profession comes of age you can actually demonstrate how it is part of maybe a parent profession that has actually grown up and formed its own identity."* (POL 2)

This moved the ownership away from managing industry specific projects and programmes to the more general project domain and a similar line was deployed in relation to other organisations with an overlapping interest in project management:

> *"… we said we are the specialists which is similar to the argument which we used with everybody else, people like the Institute of Civil Engineers or Structural Engineers or Chemical Engineers or RICS [Royal Institution of Chartered Surveyors]. We said look you've got*

> *terrific knowledge in project management as it applies to your sector, what we would like to be is a pan-sector authority on project management who can speak for everything so we actually complement your expertise and are not actually a direct conflict."* (POL 2)

It was widely recognised that the award of the Charter was a significant achievement since it demonstrated a type of formal recognition at governmental level, if not amongst the general public. It encouraged others to view PM as a profession:

> *"I do indeed [believe PM is a profession] yes I do [pause] and I think others do too particularly because it is recognised as a chartered profession."* (POL 2)

This level of recognition was seen as significant because it acknowledged the importance APM placed on public benefit, one of the key Privy Council requirements. At the policy level, this recognition was clearly acknowledged:

> *"… in terms of a milestone in what differentiates something that is a profession from something that isn't a profession, chartered status is widely recognised to be that milestone that you need to reach …"* (POL 1)

The BOK was seen as an important component of the submission, not just because it was required by the Privy Council:

> *"… if you're trying to become a chartered body for a profession it is important that you have a recognised body of knowledge."* (BOK 4)

but because it is *"a foundational document that everything else builds on …"* (BOK 3). The artefact demonstrated possession of a suitable body of knowledge and was duly included in the application. It did not attract comment from the Privy Council Office although Judges in both the Judicial Review and the Appeal commented on its existence and suitability.

Despite the long-running campaign, some informants did not fully understand the implications of achieving the accolade. Some viewed it as simply another qualification that members expected to achieve easily and so were disappointed to find that

> *"… nobody gets in by grandfather rights, there has to be a formal assessment of some kind of their capabilities"* (BOK 4).

Other informants saw the Charter as "*more akin to legal recognition*" (AC1) which somehow seemed to be a less valuable form of recognition.

Some informants anticipated issues such as interference with operational policies *"as once you start introducing external regulation"* (BOK 4) inconsistencies emerge. Others saw jurisdictional issues over "*where does project management end as a profession*" (Prac 8) and balancing roles in judging competence as AC 1 remarked (see §4.3.2.2)

Academic informants held a more challenging view of the value of the BOK in the campaign for the Charter. One felt that

> *"… chartered status has a tenuous link that needs to be understood and fed back to the project management body of knowledge so even at that stage there is only a tenuous link between being considered a consummate professional by APM and APMs body of knowledge."*

and

> *"…the relationship between the body of knowledge and the Chartered status which actually I think will probably be fairly tenuous because in order like last time I looked you need a range of APM qualifications, then you need to do your portfolio and then you get Chartered…"* (AC 5)

The requirements for the award of Chartered Project Professional (ChPP) qualification are set out in the Chartered Standard (APM 2019b) which outlines several access points for the award. The BOK provides a summary of how APM view the discipline and as already stated, provides a base upon which other things build,

> *"… it's only connected in so far as it's seen as a foundational document that everything else… "* (BOK 3).

Thus, while the BOK provides a view of the domain of project management, it does not provide other important parameters for credentialling. The underpinning nature of the BOK shows there is some link between ChPP and BOK; it may be indirect but it is present.

Policy informants insisted that demonstrating competence:

> *"… is terribly important because one of the [pause] guiding principles of chartered status is that it gives [pause] a guarantee of satisfaction to users…"* (POL 2)

The award of the charter was seen as an end point for many informants. Seemingly, some had not thought of what might come after the award while for others, it played to what might be termed the traditional characteristics of professions, outlined in Figure 4.

Figure 18 Distinctive characteristics of profession

All occupations require their practitioners to have a degree of expertise, if only for identification purposes. A house painter requires demonstrable skills in painting, a builder has the knowledge and skills to build a house to an acceptable standard. For a 'professional', the combination of skill and knowledge is elevated to a high level and is often equated to successful conclusion of a complex task. An occupation that offers a physical service can point to a completed artefact as their measure of success. For an occupation such as PM, this is more difficult because

> *"… one of the things with buying professional services is that you are buying blind so you to have something on which to rely so the competence element …"* (POL 2*)*

In practice, expertise is difficult for PM to demonstrate because there are so many well documented cases of project failure, and in a variety of business sectors (Morris 2013b). One way of reducing the impact of such failures is to develop "*a prescribed way of doing things"* (Prac 9) which provides assurance that there is *"… something which is not [just] this is my idea of how I'm going to do this"* (BOK 4). The BOK contributes to the perception of expertise by acting as a standard to provide guidance that clients can understand. However, informants' perceptions (see §4.5.2.1) were that it does not fulfil that function.

A single informant acknowledged the significance of autonomy,

> *"…project management has very little authority and autonomy in their own right and especially when you're dealing with other professions like engineering."* (AC 1)

However, this comment is more about recognition and the establishment of occupational jurisdiction than professional autonomy. There is another issue for PMs because in anything other than a very simple project, there should be a Sponsor (or owner, Senior Responsible Officer etc) who approves plans, changes and controls resource allocations. Some see this as a restriction on the PM's autonomy but in practice, the PM retains sufficient autonomy through expert knowledge and expertise which the Sponsor often does not possess to make recommendations that are rarely opposed. Hence the significance of the Royal Charter:

The authority commanded by a PM is also difficult to evaluate since it can be similar to leadership, depending on how the characteristic is defined. Informants seemed to equate authority to accountability or responsibility so that:

> *"in the other industries I mentioned you are much more held to account and there is much more visibility of people being held to account … We're not hearing project managers being sacked from an EPM or taken to court for project management things."* (Prac 2)

Similarly, another perspective is that

> *"… who is, to use the words, accountable, responsible, etc for specific activities is absolutely critical."* (Prac 10)

However, here are limits to what the PM can achieve since they must interface with the organisation that owns the project and controls the resources necessary to carry out the work. The PM's task is often complicated by shifts in the owner's priorities. This can be a matter of finance, changed strategic direction or problems of ethics. For example:

> *"It's all very well having a vision that a project is going to be fully sustainable and carbon neutral but then when push comes to shove and costs start to increase and time starts to expand, the temptation is to throw that aside. Now the project professional, as a professional, should be pushing back on that and saying this project shouldn't be proceeding in this way." (*Prac 9)

This notion of professional responsibility is perhaps on the extreme edge of authority but it raises ethical aspects not often linked to authority.

Overall, practitioner expectations about expertise, autonomy and authority have not been raised by informants. However, expertise seemed to be a *sine qua non* which did not need elaborating because informants assumed this is something that practitioners possess. Authority and autonomy have strong links to knowledge so it is interesting that apart from a single academic, informants had not associated the BOK with these characteristics.

According to several informants, the Royal Charter represented parity with other professions. As one influential informant stated:

"*The main external driver for APM seeking chartered status was to place project management on a par with the other established professions"*. (POL 2)

This would mean that project management became a profession of first choice and enjoyed parity of esteem with other chartered professions.

4.3.1.5 Section Summary

This section has reviewed responses concerning professional formation, positioning the route adopted by the exemplar organisation and has highlighted some important barriers to recognition (Fig 19), relating these to the BOK.

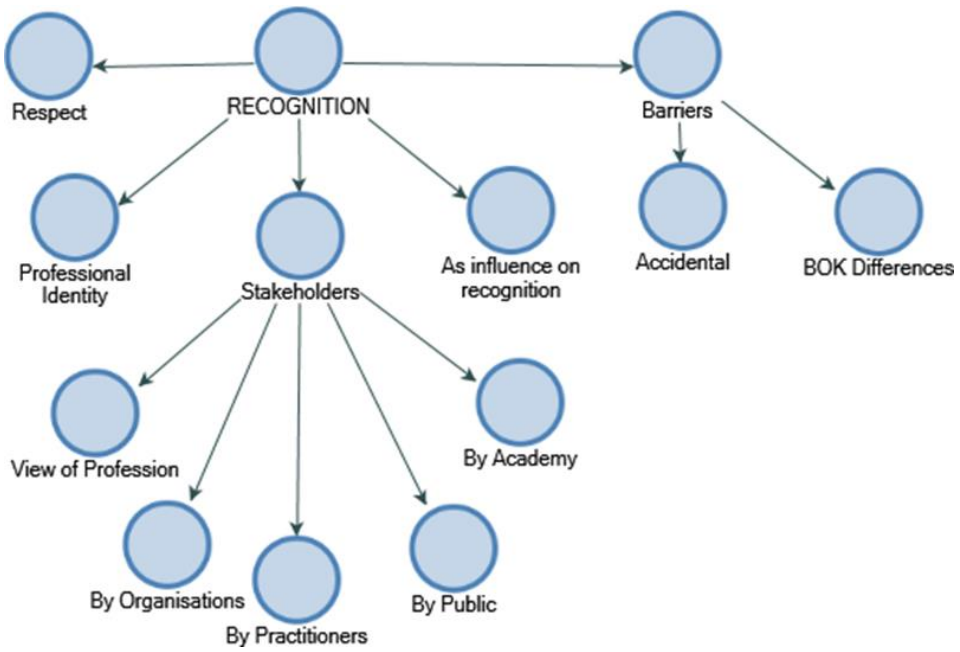

Figure 19 Factors affecting Recognition

The importance of the award of a Royal Charter and its relationship to the BOK has been described. Not all informants saw the award as positive and anticipated problems with role delineation and equivalence, member attitudes to further assessment of competence and in the process highlighted the lack of understanding of the purpose of the Charter and the conditions surrounding it.

4.3.2 Area of Interest

The Oxford English Dictionary defines an expert as "*someone who is very knowledgeable about or skilful in a particular area*" (Brown 1993). In the sociology of professions, this particular area is known as its jurisdiction and is often claimed by the establishment of an association of practitioners since professional associations are formed when "*a relevant group perceive the need to occupy and defend for its exclusive use a particular area of competence territory*" (Eraut 1994, p.165). So the jurisdiction is closely related to the knowledge that is needed to establish such competence.

The first priority for most occupations is to establish their area of operation. There are many ways to describe such an area but the form employed here is jurisdiction. The concept of jurisdiction was introduced by Abbott (1988) who described it as "*the link between the profession and its work…,"* asserting that it is *"the central phenomenon of professional life"* (p.20). He saw jurisdiction as a mechanism to define professions without having to rely on structural theories of professional formation involving traits or common features. Jurisdiction is broader than simply establishing the scope of an occupation and includes control of the work and social aspects, thereby referring to the work actually performed, as opposed to work merely said to be done. Thus, jurisdiction is not just about boundaries but other features specific to the occupation under analysis as illustrated in the basic themes from the analysis shown in Figure 20. All these aspects affect the way the body of knowledge is conceived and enacted.

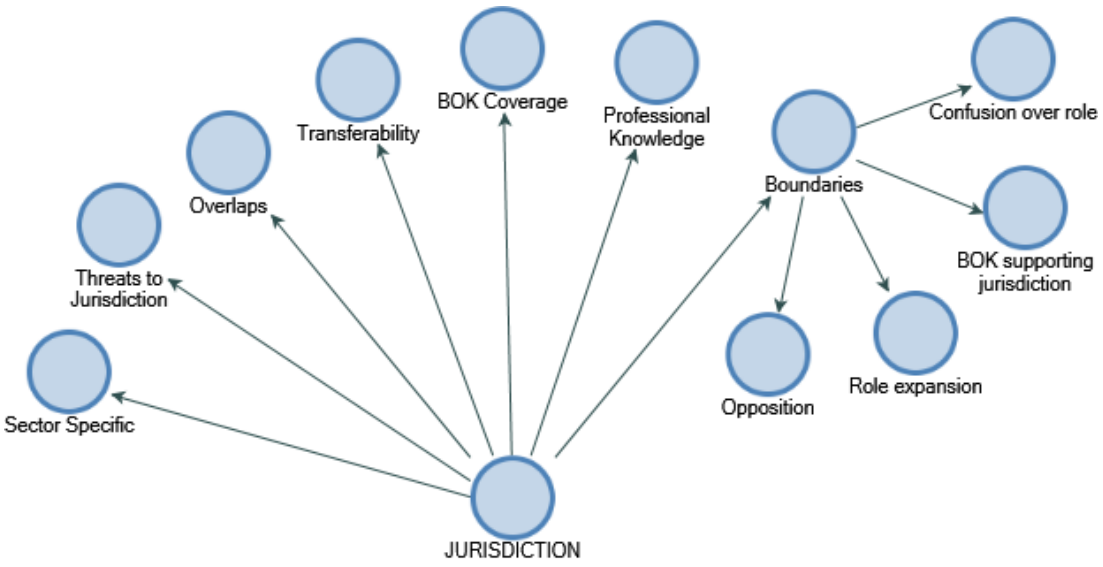

Figure 20 Factors influencing Jurisdiction

The purpose of this theme is to address the factors relevant to Objective 2 (see §2.8) and to a lesser extent, to Objective 1. The importance of this organising theme is that it shows how the occupation sees itself and what it offers the user or client. Broadly speaking, informants see the BOK as setting up boundaries and being affected by a number of other factors. While the award of a Royal Charter (see §4.3.1.4) resolved a number of boundary issues, other difficulties remain.

4.3.2.1 Boundary Setting

Most informants had a clear understanding of the scope of the project environment so few made direct comment on boundaries. Some were more concerned with how PM fits in organisations so the view that the BOK

> *"…clearly articulates where that P3M function then interacts with the other portions of this as an HQ organisation and how it underpins the processes and procedures more widely in a department."* (Prac 10)

is significant and is supported by other informants, particularly amongst academics (e.g. AC 2, AC 3, AC 5). At its simplest, the BOK *"helps to define what the scope of the profession is…"* (AC 2) but some anticipate difficulties in defining the boundaries of PM because

> *"…there's always going to be places at the edge where one profession bleeds into another or there are shared, um.., pieces of knowledge and understanding…"* (BOK 4)

This manifests, for example, in the portfolio domain *"… which is really business planning, it's business strategy and planning…"* (Prac 8) where in order to overcome organisational issues, "*blockers that were out of their control so they'd go up a level",* thus bypassing problems. And so

> *"To me, a portfolio manager is a manager of a business. They're not a grown up project manager, grown up programme manager, they're a manager of a business."* (Prac 3)

The perception that PM is not a discrete occupational domain remains a challenge and is clearly a matter of concern, at least within the academic community, exemplified by AC1 who said "*I don't think it's got a jurisdiction, I don't think its secured that jurisdictional claim*." This view is also recognised by some practitioners (e.g. Prac 4) but importantly, this is recognised at the policy level where the BOK is seen to play an important role:

> *"…you need the body of knowledge to define the profession, to set the boundaries, to evolve as things go on and to allow others to see that it is a discrete profession and different from others."* (POL 2)

Furthermore, PM plays a part in many other occupations and the BOK describes *"other things which are not project management"* (POL 1) it is recognised that

> *"… most of the topics, I would say, in the body of knowledge share [pause] are shared with other professions, it's the combination and the context in which they operate which makes them unique"* (POL 1)

This poses problems as:

> *"…in some discipline areas it's I think practitioners find it quite difficult to disentangle themselves from being an engineer and being a project manager."* (BOK 4)

There is also a need to protect one's jurisdiction. Just as PM emerged from engineering, some parts of the project domain are being colonised by others who see themselves as discrete occupations. For example:

> *"… business analysts are taking over a lot of the upfront activities the project managers have abrogated in more recent times."* (BOK 2)

Role expansion, confusion over responsibilities and division within the domain all threaten jurisdiction. As the BOK is an important communication

medium both internally and externally, it needs to support the jurisdiction claimed. Thus, *"It represents the profession as it's practiced…"* (Prac 3). This leads into a number of other factors that affect jurisdiction and how the BOK is structured so that it reinforces jurisdictional claims, amongst other needs.

4.3.2.2 Contributing Factors

In establishing their jurisdiction, APM has suffered from a variety of challenges including opposition from other, longer established professions. Sometimes these challenges are rooted in fear of losing control of their own jurisdiction and so PM has been seen as a threat with some practitioners noting that others claim the domain as their own:

> *"The resentfulness from development managers, or architects, or even contractors … who are you? What do you know? This is our job."* (Prac 2)

Others see PM in a subsidiary role as *"it tends to be secondary to an awful lot of other disciplines"* (AC 1). It becomes important that the BOK sets out a coherent discipline by saying "*this is what the profession is*" and sets out "*things that a PM needs to do…"* (AC 6) so that the client can understand what is being offered and judge whether it meets their needs.

One of the major areas of contention over PM's jurisdictional claims is found in the assertion that PM is a transferable discipline that can operate across a range of domains. Some informants held that this is not possible, as AC1 expressed it,

> "*I don't think you can have project managers in one particular sector hopping into another*"; (AC1)

several practitioners firmly took the opposite view. On the other hand, some see it differently, like one of the Policy Team who is also a senior practitioner working at Sellafield expressed his view more forcefully:

> *"[I] know diddly squat about the inside of a reactor or a railway, but that's not the point, I can set up the commercial structures, I can organise the teams, I can track the projects, I can do all those things, I don't need to understand the mechanics."* (POL 7)

Similarly, some observers see PM as an integrating function. For instance, in the fight against the Covid 19 virus, scientists developed solutions in the form of vaccines and little of the PM contribution was reported but

> "…*where we've really done well is in implementation of solutions and so forth…which is absolutely, which is the area of project management*." (BOK 1)

Similarly, the disparity between how projects are conducted by various industry sectors calls into question whether a single body of knowledge is appropriate. While there is a view that a single body of knowledge is not sufficient (e.g., AC 6 and Prac 2), most informants held a view similar to Prac 6 who *"wouldn't want to see in the BOKs stuff that is specifically related to a specific industry"* and this was reflected in the research that underpinned both the 4th and 5th editions of the BOK (Morris et al. 2000; Morris et al. 2006b).

These factors combine to provide a backdrop to the professional knowledge needed by a practitioner, and therefore govern the content of the body of knowledge. Practitioners felt guidance on good practice to be essential although this on its own is not sufficient.

> *The BOKs, as they are written in both those cases [referring to APM and PMI] is (sic) more about a representation of accepted good practice rather than a genuine attempt to identify and signpost the totality of knowledge that could be applied to a given situation.* (Prac 3)

The knowledge requirements of a profession, especially one rooted in practice like project management, tend to be different in character to classic professions such as medicine:

> *"… the knowledge of which we're seeking to make a body of is inconsistent and difficult to replicate, often [pause] difficult to articulate [pause] all in all the characteristic of the subject makes [pause] makes the knowledge much less reliable than more let's call them pure knowledge domains that don't have to be that pure.* (BOK 1*)*

This knowledge is still seen as special, at least by practitioners:

> *"I think it is a special branch of knowledge which practitioners can use or abuse to the benefit of the laity who don't have that knowledge."* (Prac 7)

4.3.2.3 Section Summary

The data has shown that the importance of identifying the field is understood at the policy level and formed an important backdrop to the application for the Royal Charter. Boundary setting is seen simply as an exercise to delineate the profession rather than erect any barriers or claim exclusive ownership. It is not clear whether the BOK is an effective tool in describing the occupational area as unique. The data shows that challenges are still mounted by older established occupations and the sector specific aspects raise issues over levels of expertise. These factors are compounded by the expansion of the field from the management of single projects to the more strategic management of multiple projects.

4.3.3 Nature of the Formal BOK

It has long been established that professions are based on an esoteric body of knowledge (Murphy 1988). Expert knowledge is unique to each occupation, so its direct contribution is interesting but does not explain why some occupations become recognised as professions and others do not. Thus, the technical content of a BOK, which may define the occupation itself, does not indicate whether the owning occupation may be regarded as a profession. As there are different types of knowledge, there should also be different types of BOK to reflect these forms so it will be necessary to explore different forms of BOK. There is little to illuminate how expert knowledge encapsulated in a BOK is used in professional formation. These factors are key to the understanding of how occupational bodies use BOKs to achieve recognition as a profession (Objective 5).

4.3.3.1 Design Aspects

This theme addresses how the BOK is developed and relates to Objectives 3 and 4. It addresses the specification of the BOK in terms of its composition, design and presentation. This section sets out informant views on the specification in terms of how it meets the needs of the occupation, the purpose of the BOK, what it is required to achieve and general parameters of the BOK as an artefact. Informant responses were coded as shown in Figure 21.

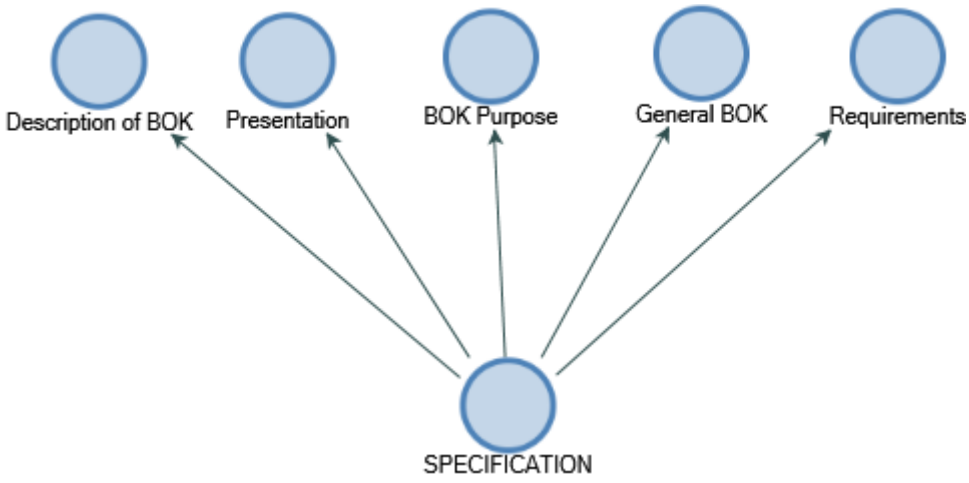

Figure 21 Factors affecting BOK Specification

Informants had no strong views on the specification needed for APM's BOK nor could they agree on the purpose for the BOK as an artefact might have.

> *"I don't really understand why any professional…er… budding profession would attempt to write down everything that's known about their subject in a thing called a body of knowledge." and "… it closes it down; it makes the profession insular and then incapable of learning from any other profession."* (Prac 1)

Similarly. There was a view that BOKs represent the personal views of the authors and limit learning.

> *"… neither of them [PMI and APM BOKs] really is a BOK as such because they represent someone's view about how things should happen. They're not wholly inclusive of alternative views that … alternative may be dissenting views.* (Prac 3)

Some also challenged the need – "*that pre-supposes that we need bodies of knowledge"* (AC 5), but its purpose was "*to be helpful to a practitioner*" (AC 6). An academic also thought the BOK "*helps to stabilise the profession" by "… saying, this is what the profession is"* (AC 6). While this indicates a view that the BOK is aimed solely at practitioners, some senior practitioners saw a need for some differentiation, to reflect a range of experience in practitioners:

> *"What we must do is write bodies of knowledge for the B teams. The people who want to read it, in a way." (*Prac 2)

That the primary readership is the practitioner seemed to be endorsed by others as the BOK was seen as:

> *"…more about a representation of accepted good practice rather than a genuine attempt to identify and signpost the totality of knowledge that could be applied to a given situation." (*Prac 3)

There was more consensus amongst academic informants who tended to see the BOK as a basic level view of what practitioners need to know, more in the light of a syllabus, defining common ground. The latter conforms with the APM's Consultation Report (Association for Project Management 2018b) which states this as one of the objectives for the 7th Edition. One informant saw the BOK as raising both Practical and academic challenges:

> *"… it provides a stepping-stone to conversation, the stepping stone to really creating a profession [pause] and it gives a certain element of identity. It then raises all kinds of questions… should it be updated, is it a permanent document, is it something that an evolving document … who evolves it, who's views should be considered but it's something that offers a common, a common ground, a basis for conversation, a beginning of recognition of identity which perhaps some of the older disciplines bypass or [pause] or didn't need through different methods of sharing knowledge." (*BOK 2)

These extracts show that informants see the BOK as a low level syllabus aimed at new entrants to the profession but with the potential to open up wider discussion. This presents difficulty for the developer as a wider document is necessarily a longer document and there was concern over its size (*"I don't think it necessarily needs to be an extensive tome…"* POL 3). If it is

> *"… too big, too cumbersome, it just reinforces the opinion in some people's minds … who just see project management as a massive bureaucratic overhead." (*Prac 10)

There was a distinct feeling that the days of hard copy BOK lie in the past. Some wanted an "*electronically maintained and updated" version* (Prac 10), others saw operational advantages "*with an electronic format and make it a sort of tree of knowledge" (Prac 2)* because "*the Wikipedia role that says that things can be updated continuously*" (Prac 3). The policy view was

> *"… people are moving so far away from the printed book towards online materials…everybody … can have different versions, they can use them in different ways …" (*POL 2)

Informants displayed some consistency over formatting and overall design aspirations. However, for the most recent version, (Association for Project Management 2019a), only one Developer displayed any knowledge of a specification and this was confined to layout and production rather than knowledge content. Some design parameters were set out in APM briefing documents (APM 2018b, 2018a) available to members.

4.3.3.2 Stakeholder Concerns

None of the informants were content with the formal BOK as currently published and a variety of concerns emerged. Some of these are internal matters such as technical content, responsibility for identification and development of that content, management of the mechanics of development, and updating. While these are all important matters, they do not provide insight on the contribution of the BOK to the transformation of an occupation into a profession. Others, though, require analysis since they open issues that influence credibility, effectiveness or the way the occupation is perceived, all of which are pertinent to professional formation. Concerns were related to areas shown in Figure 22:

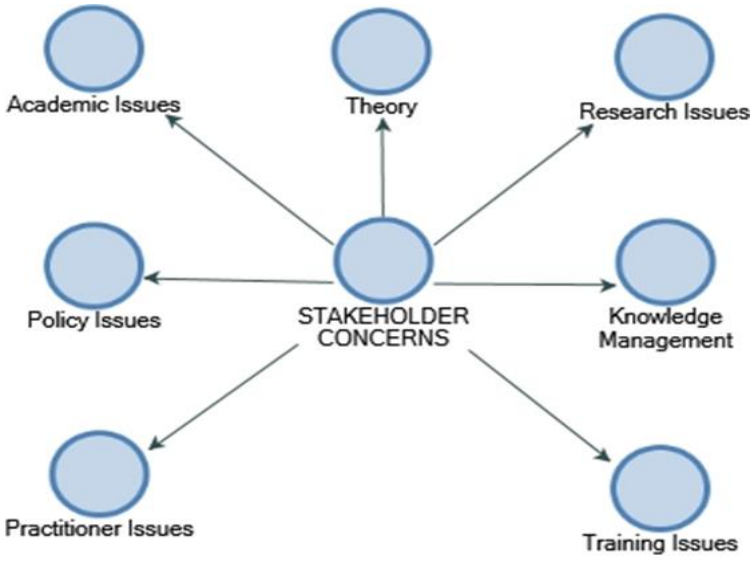

Figure 22 Issues raised by Stakeholders

The most notable concern related to theory. Informants did not reach consensus about the place of theory in the BOK. Two aspects were identified: the overall concept of theory specific to PM and how much theory, as opposed to practice, should underpin the content. Many were concerned that there was no obvious underpinning theory, for example,

> *"there is a lot of theory in the universities and academia and in other places but that's not reflected at all in practice or in the BOK"* (Prac 4)

Others such as AC6 thought that "*in terms of the broader publications for PM there's plenty of theory*" but that also was not visible in the BOK. A belief that PM is atheoretical was also expressed by some practitioners e.g.

> *I don't think we'll ever get to a point where you will have a truly, how shall we say, hard and fast project management theory that you could apply in every context* (Prac 10)

and endorsed by at least one Academic who remarked "*I think the PMBOK has no underlying theory really…that's a difference. I think, between the APM and the PMBOK*" (AC2), implying that some theoretical underpinning could be perceived in the APM BOK.

The other aspect, the balance between theory and practice in the BOK, linked to several distinct areas. Informants raised concerns about who developed the BOK (e.g. Prac 4), their motivation (BOK2) and depth of technical knowledge (Prac10). Others (POL 3, Prac 10, AC 1) were concerned about how well the BOK reflected "real life", particularly the complexity of the field. Some practitioners were concerned about the level of complexity that needed to be conveyed within the formal BOK.

The mechanisms for developing the BOK attracted comment from each of the stakeholder groups. Some were concerned with who carries out the development. Informants identified three possible contributing groups, practitioners, consultants and academics. Stakeholder groups displayed little consistency in preferred developers. The inclusion of academics was seen as generally useful since this could identify

> *"… any holes in the areas where you can tighten up. … The second area, in my view, would be to contribute new thinking to it".* (Prac 10)

Another practitioner, with considerable academic experience, was concerned that *"The problem is with academia is that PM is not seen as a profession"* (Prac 4). The position of academic involvement and theory was succinctly summarised by BOK2 who pointed out that *"the researchers play a part but theory and Practise do diverge and will diverge".*

Management of Knowledge in the BOK did not cause concern but one informant with specialist knowledge management experience commented that

> *"you can write some things down or record them in some other form, umm that represent some of the knowledge that is held by a body of professionals, so I think the real body of knowledge is held collectively by practitioners, academics and so on, not written down, but what's written down in what I think you mean when you say a body of knowledge, what's written in a book, what's published is a representation of some of that knowledge"* (Prac 1)

4.3.3.3 Section Summary

This section has surfaced views the design, structure and style of the formal BOK, highlighting issues of representation, comprehensiveness and specification. The views from each of the four stakeholder groups were seen to be heterogenic, perhaps reflecting the overlapping roles of informants. The place of theory in the BOK was challenged but not as might have been expected along functional lines as practitioners should their support for academic input and BOK Developers appreciated issues that frustrated practitioners.

4.3.4 Use in Practice

Having identified stakeholders and their needs in relation to professional formation, it remains to identify how these stakeholders use the BOK to contribute to achieving professional recognition. While the need to have a BOK is well known, there has been no differentiation of types of BOK, how they are used in practice or other potential uses. Furthermore, little has been said about how this contributes to professional formation.

Most of the issues identified by informants have been addressed under other categories so this theme represents residual aspects relevant to the use of bodies of knowledge in professional formation of occupations. The purpose of this theme is to identify any additional aspects related to informant roles and their needs in relation to professional formation. This theme supports the use of the BOK in relation to Objectives 3 and 4. Although issues were investigated in relation to the needs of each informant set, many of the issues that emerged were not clearly linked to informant

role. This was, however, a convenient structure for the results as shown in Figure 23. It was instructive to note how stakeholder perceptions ranged across the roles. Practitioners observed issues related to academic roles while academics perceived some of the problems faced by the policy team and BOK Developers were conscious of both academic and practitioner issues.

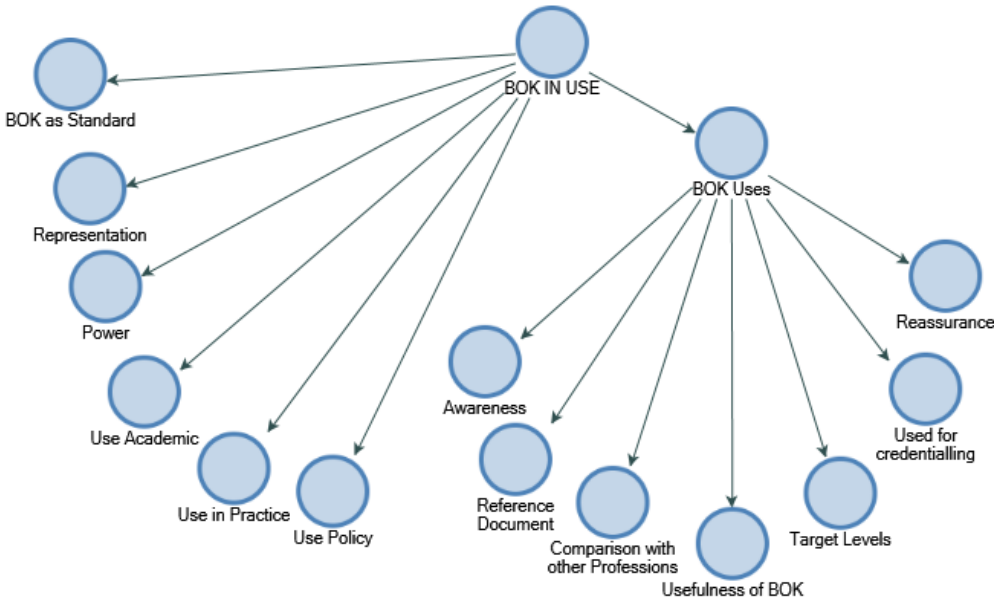

Figure 23 Uses of the BOK

4.3.4.1 BOK as used in Practice

All informants recognised the foundational nature of the BOK and some saw it as underpinning other elements of APM's professional formation

> *"[T]he body of knowledge should be the bottom of the pyramid and hold the rest of it up …"* (BOK 3)

Some expressed concern that it is not well aligned with these other elements of professional formation:

> *"… thinking about our qualifications and our standards and whereas we all say, well yes, of course it's aligned to the body of knowledge. I don't know whether that is as explicit as we like to think it is …"* (POL 3*)*

There was also some discussion concerning the theoretical content (BOK 2, POL 6) and the balance needed to keep the artefact relevant to the practitioner (Prac 8, BOK 3). Others complained "*that it didn't reflect real life*" (BOK2) or that the BOK *"reflects practice as it was 5 years ago"* (Prac

3) and that academics upon whom the profession depends to build the connection to the academy and intellectual credibility were needed. Akin to this attitude, the research base caused some concern for the policy team (POL 6) while POL 4 questioned whether the research into projects was of any Practical use as it appeared to be "*research for research's sake*" and

> *"The trouble is some of the academics, although they have the mental discipline, are worried more about the actual perform[ance] of doing the research than what the research is actually telling them."* (Prac 4)

The validity of the credentialling system was called into question by some informants: whether it covered the career spectrum from apprentice (POL 3 and POL 6) to the post Charter practitioner (POL 7) or the range of roles and industry sectors (AC 1, Prac 7 and 10). Others wondered where credentialling should sit, "*should it be within the universities or should it be under the umbrella of the professional bodies*" (AC 1).

4.3.4.2 Potential Uses

This theme was intended to identify uses of the BOK that were not included in other themes. Few informants saw alternative or unexpected uses for the BOK. Some saw it as a mechanism to reassure practitioners that they were following approved practice because

> *"…here is something which, which shows that I did the right thing".* (Prac 10)

and it

> *doesn't just give the P3M functioners (sic) reassurance but they are part of the organisation and understand how they dip in to it* (AC3)

As a mechanism that could help non-specialists understand the nature of the profession, only one informant saw this as a potential use:

> *"I think having the body of knowledge in terms of that has been a really powerful communication tool …"* (Prac 10)

but another wondered whether it might be useful for

> *"…people who might not be members of APM but who are interested in project management and interested in what APM might say …"* (BOK3)

4.3.4.3 Academic Uses

Use by Academics was seen as an important aspect and mainly related to specific educational activities. These were regarded as a major factor by informants: insights came from 20 informants and were resolved into the 3 organising themes shown in Figure 24. This number of responses is greater than might be expected from some of the stakeholder groups, but to some extent reflects the multiple roles of informants.

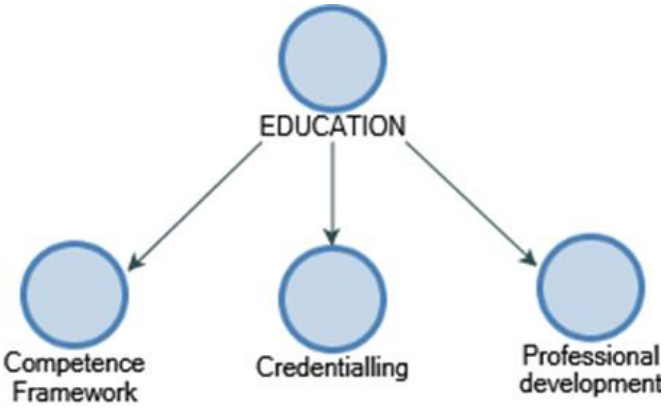

Figure 24 Educational uses

Many of the insights reflected general concerns about the relationship between the professional body and the academy. While these are interesting, they are only relevant here if they shed light on how the BOK can or does contribute to professional formation.

Some saw the BOK as a means of informing educational providers of APM's perception of the profession. For example one experienced Academic, the course leader for a Project related MSc, felt that the BOK

> *"… makes it easier for professional bodies but also other interested stakeholders such as universities and training providers to be then able to pronounce that they are delivering the world of project manage to others so it makes it a clearer statement of who we are and what we do"* (AC 3)

A common use, albeit indirectly linked to professional formation, is its role as a significant input to course design. A practitioner view of the BOK concerned its link to education as "*it's a curriculum isn't it?"* (Prac 8) or "*a syllabus that then points to further information*" (Prac 10). More significantly, it was also seen as "*a foundational document that everything else builds*"

(BOK3) but some academics questioned its value as it can be seen *"as a baseline really, I think they are almost just an introductory insight"* (AC 1).

Despite some negative views, the BOK has a place as AC 4 pointed out:

> *"…the body of knowledge is absolutely helpful in informing practitioners and academics of what should happen, what it doesn't then do is [say] how things should happen, and that how part of it is very much … left to interpretation of individuals…"* (AC 4)

While some informants regarded credentialing as an important aspect of professional formation, others took a different view. One practitioner questioned the value of any credential, saying

> *"…are you an RPP [ChPP], have you got an MSc in PM which is going to enhance your career with this qualification and all the rest of it. In 40 years of doing this job, of hiring Project Managers and being hired, no one has ever asked me that question."* (Prac 4)

Nevertheless, some informants saw the BOK as a vital component of professional formation because, together with the competence framework, it "*forms the basis of developing the syllabuses and assessment criteria*" (POL 6).

There were mixed views of the relations between the Competence Framework and the BOK. One of the informants who introduced the concept of the Competence Framework and drove its initial development took the view that

> *"…the competence framework effectively overtakes the body of knowledge because it's about what people are expected to do and to what standard and identifies in particular, context which specific knowledge might be needed there to support that at the time…"* (BOK 4)

The policy perspective was that the two are complementary:

> *"…for the body of knowledge to be useful it has to be complimented by other things which correspond to that body of knowledge [pause] competence framework being one for example, education being another…"* (POL 2)

Thus the Competence Framework provides *"…depth to the BOKs breadth."* (POL 1) thus *"… you think [of] the body of knowledge as the 'what' and the competence framework is the 'how' "* (POL 6). From a policy perspective, the Competence Framework was seen as "…*above the*

knowledge that's in the body of knowledge…" by providing *"the application criteria in terms of what it is you need to be able to do to be competent in that area"* (POL 6) which enables the suite of qualifications to be developed.

The practitioner view was encapsulated by a practitioner who noted that *"both are necessary"* (Prac 5) and another who felt "*they should have a lot in common*…" (Prac 1). This is to some extent supported by the view of two BOK Developers (BOK 4, BOK 7) who believed it provided context for assessment that the BOK alone could not offer.

4.3.4.4 BOK as Means of Control

Professions are sometimes accused of exerting control over access to professional services and specialist knowledge (see for example (Larson 2013) or (Johnson 1972)). BOKs can be seen as a means of providing control over the profession by helping to consolidate power or to exert control over key aspects such as entry to the profession, progress through the qualification system and the technical performance of practitioners, all of which are relevant to Objectives 2 and 4. Informants were asked about these aspects. Not all power relations are linked to the BOK and only those so linked are reported here, as illustrated in Figure 25:

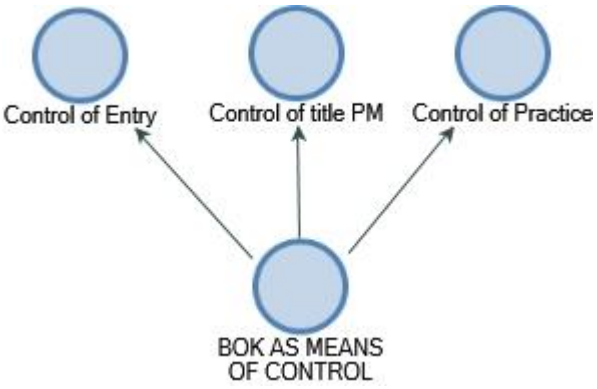

Figure 25 BOK as a means of control

One practitioner specifically saw the BOK as a control mechanism where

> *"… there is still this element of power associated with it, you know people want to have commercial ownership and generate revenue from dissemination of knowledge and certification of competence."* (Prac 6)

However, the same informant saw those with this power as "*the practitioners who have the power and control over the, you know, guiding of the profession*" (Prac 6) which was manifested by *"…expressing regulation in a way that reinforces the power of the vested interest parties…".* This informant was

> "…*quite cynical about some of the things that go on where there is a strong leadership group which has more knowledge and more power than the regulators or the practitioners."* (Prac 6)

Another practitioner saw power in the hands of those who develop the BOK, it is developed by

> "… *people who have a vested interest and have the time available make the input and have the biggest way on it. It's not the people doing the job." (*Prac 4)

It might have been expected that power might have been an issue for the Policy informants but no other informants addressed power issues directly. Power may also be seen as control particularly of practice. One informant believed some control was needed because

> *"… it is only by them [practitioners] being regulated that there's any protection of those individuals against malpractice or things going wrong".* (BOK 4)

This was against a background of certification but as POL 7 remarked, PM "*doesn't yet have a licence to practice but I think that is coming"*. At present, the consensus view was that the BOK provides a sort of audit tool so that Practitioners are *"able to judge themselves and their peers by the same standard."* (BOK 4).

Control of entry attracted more comment with each stakeholder group indicating that some control will be needed, as one academic noted:

> *"if you're going to professionalise then you're going to have to control the practitioners in this sense, who is allowed to become a practitioner"* (AC 1)

The policy set also commented that some form of entry control would be essential in terms of credibility alone. Interestingly, this was seen not as a control mechanism. Instead, *"… there is that balancing act between barriers, not barriers to entry, criteria for entry"* (POL1). Study of APM documents shows that It does not make use of its BOK as a mechanism to

control entry. Entry to the profession is regulated only to the extent that Chartered Project Managers must apply to and be assessed by APM. Similarly, APM do not seek to control use of title.

4.3.4.5 Section Summary

There is a range of views on the use of the BOK within and between stakeholder groups. Most individuals agree the main use is in connection with credentialling and education of practitioners while a few informants indicated a link to establishing the scope of PM. There seems little consensus at the group level beyond agreement on credentialling. Policy use seems to have been restricted to simply providing a BOK for Chartering purposes but not to serve any policy function. It should also be noted that the use of the BOK influences, and is influenced by, jurisdiction since it relates to the tasks carried out by the occupational group.

4.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the findings from data gathered through 28 semi-structured interviews from four stakeholder groups, and secondary data extracted from examination of official documents from the exemplar organisation. The interviews presented a wide range of rich data and included many interesting views: not all were directly relevant to the matter in hand and the findings here represent only those aspects relevant to professional formation. The secondary data extraction provided background to illuminate perceptions of the formal BOK in the context of professional formation.

Revision to the data collection design resulted from a reflexive review in line with Bourdieu's notion of the need for "*constant (re)formulation-expression of its use and its meaning*" (Deer 2012). Additional interviews were undertaken to broaden the base of stakeholders. The interview population was specifically selected to represent the views of four different but to some extent overlapping stakeholder groups and as might be expected, a diverse range of views emerged. There was a notable lack of consistency within and between stakeholder groups, some of which is attributable to the overlapping roles noted above.

The next chapter takes these findings and relates the practice that emerged from the data and interprets it to relate themes to a general understanding of the relationship between BOKs and professional formation.

Chapter 5 Discussion

5.1 Introduction

The findings presented in the previous chapter represent the opinions and views of informants drawn from a single, exemplar, occupation. In this Chapter, these views are abstracted to offer a perspective of the role of the formal BOK in professional formation. This is achieved by considering the themes identified from the primary data and relating them to the literature to interpret their meaning. Thus the outcome moves from the specific to the general and avoids becoming simply the history of a single campaign of professional formation.

The purpose of this Chapter is to relate the primary data to the objectives in order to determine how knowledge is used when occupations seek to become recognised as a profession. This is done by relating emergent themes to the objectives and discusses the implications for the formal Body of Knowledge. The discussion links the findings to theoretical frameworks relevant to modern professional projects, focusing on formal bodies of knowledge and why they are important to professional formation.

The data from the study have provided an insight into how four distinct groups of stakeholders viewed their formal BOK in practice and in professional formation. A number of key themes (see Table 15) emerged which serve to highlight the main considerations and perceptions of the informants. However, it should be noted that the themes did not “emerge”, as (Braun and Clarke 2006) argue. Rather, they are identified as a result of active interpretation of the links formed within the data captured during the study. The data have been subject to a holistic examination and significant highlights selected for closer interrogation.

5.1.1 Emergent Themes

Themes were identified in the content analysis presented in Chapter 4. These themes are mapped against the objectives in Table 15.

Table 15 – Objective and Theme Cross Reference

Themes / Objective	Routes § 4.3.1	Charter § 4.3.1.4	Boundaries § 4.3.2	Closure § 4.3.4	Structure § 4.3.4	Purpose § 4.3.3	Stakeholder § 4.3.3.2	Credentialing § 4.3.4.1	Real world use § 4.3.4
1 Methods employed	✓	✓		✓					✓
2 Defining the field			✓			✓	✓		
3 Nature of knowledge			✓		✓		✓	✓	
4 Stakeholders & their needs		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓
5 Use of BOK	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓

5.1.2 Chapter Content and Structure

The literature indicated that some form of process is generally involved in professional formation so Objective 1 sought to identify the process adopted. Current sociological utilises a variety of terms to label this process, all of which are contested. In this study, the term professional formation is used in order to avoid alignment with any particular school of thought and any potential biases that might entail.

Objective 2 relates to defining the dimensions of the occupation in order to understand what the occupation entails in terms of the behaviour, expert knowledge and how these are used to establish the jurisdiction. These dimensions are needed, *inter alia*, to identify an appropriate body of professional knowledge. The Objective 3 addresses the nature knowledge to support claims to the existence of a unique area of work. Professions are generally stratified in terms of function and technical specialisation so the Objective 4 identifies stakeholders and their requirements in terms of professional formation. The Objective 5 identifies how the BOK is used in

practice and how that relates to professional formation. The objectives were logically derived to support the research aim and further developed from the literature. They are fully described in Chapter 2 but outlined below for ease of reference:

Objective 1: Explore the methods used by membership associations in their professional formation. See § 2.7

Objective 2: Explore how formal Bodies of Knowledge are used by emergent professions to define/establish their area of interest. See § 2.8

Objective 3: Identify the nature of the formal Body of Knowledge employed by the membership association. See § 2.9

Objective 4: Identify BOK Stakeholders (Internal and External) and their stated needs. See § 2.9 and §2.10

Objective 5: Identify how the BOK is used by stakeholders to meet the needs of professional formation. See §2.9

The discussion is framed around these objectives, drawing on evidence from the findings in Chapter 4.

5.1.3 Occupational Context

There is reason to suppose that the nature of the work environment has changed significantly in the last few decades as new forms of employment, expanding bureaucracy and the emergence of multinational Professional Service Firms (PSF) all demonstrate. Against this background, new occupations based on expert knowledge continue to seek recognition as professions. Many of these are so called knowledge occupations and originate in the management domain. The exemplar occupation, Project Management, is an example of a newly emergent discipline seeking such recognition.

5.2 Objective 1 – Approaches to Professional Formation

Employment changes in the last fifty years or so have resulted in different patterns of employment for professionals. Hitherto, most professionals were in private practice and enjoyed a considerable degree of control over the work they undertook, commanded authority over their judgement and

were free from bureaucratic processes. More recently, most professionals seem to be employed by large PSFs as (Evetts 2011b) claims or State bureaucracies such as the National Health Service. Against this background it is to be expected that approaches to professional formation have also changed. This section discusses the drivers for professional formation and highlights the significance of the different approaches and the influence these have on the Formal BOK.

5.2.1 Models

As noted in the previous chapter (§4.3.1, p.111) the literature provides many examples of approaches to professional formation, all of which invoke the notion of expert knowledge and several emphasise the control of the production of producers of such knowledge. These models can be abstracted into three types of approach: the collegial, the corporate and hybrid forms.

These approaches differ in many respects (see Table 3 p.45) as they offer different perspectives. While all these aspects are important in professional formation, here, only those relating to knowledge are considered. The collegial approach makes public benefit a major factor while the corporate targets commercial value and technical expertise. In terms of BOKs, the collegial approach draws on methods adopted by established professions such as medicine and engineering which are based around mastery of a body of knowledge. This body of knowledge is not usually a Formal BOK such as those found in many new occupations (see Appendix 4) but one that has been built up over many years, and represents an abstract knowledge domain (Freidson 1999). This mastery can be tested by examination, leading to formal qualifications and is often administered in a University setting. The corporate approach, by contrast, is based around situated knowledge developed in commercial organisations and, according to (Hodgson et al. 2015) "*include the development of competence-based qualification processes which test real skills often in organizational settings*".

The collegial and the corporate approaches may be considered polar extremes of a spectrum of approaches to professional formation. The literature indicates that they may not be mutually exclusive, which opens the

possibility of an approach which lies somewhere between the two extremes where the membership association employs tactics it deems appropriate from each approach. This might be seen as a hybrid approach.

5.2.2 Selection

There are several factors that influence selection of an approach to professional formation. The first factor is structural. The exemplar organisation is comparatively young but its structure is similar to traditional bodies such as the Institution of Civil Engineers (ICE) and Institution of Mechanical Engineers (IMechE), all of which are structured on collegial lines. Many members of the exemplar are also members of other collegial associations and its senior members so it might be expected that a collegial approach would be selected.

A further structural factor is the nature of the knowledge base of the occupational institution. The data (§4.3.1) show that APM had a Formal BOK, developed initially to support its qualification system (Willis 1995) which was originally assessment based. Certification later included an examination based qualification which was eventually abandoned. The approach selected would need to support the qualification regime not least because certification is a major income stream (Walkinshaw and Dore 2017).

Another major factor is the origin of pressure for professional formation. McClelland (1990 p107) identifies pressure *from within*, a path successfully followed by collegial occupations such as medicine and law (Evetts 2011b). Pressure from within originates with the individuals members of the occupational institution. Professional formation under this approach is often collegial in nature. The other approach identified by McClelland is pressure *from above*, where agencies outside the institution drive occupational formation. These agencies include employers and senior management in PSFs. This approach is common in the Information Technology sector (Evetts 2011b) and the knowledge economy. In APM's case, such pressure came from members of its Corporate Partners.

While the literature provides two approaches, the exemplar organisation adopted a third approach that combined elements of both

collegial and corporate approaches in order to achieve recognition. This selection has been shown to be strongly influenced by the point of origin / power block driving professional formation, either from inside i.e. from individual members on the one hand: and from above, i.e. from corporate partners on the other.

APM, with its senior membership whose experience was mainly of collegial types of occupational bodies and structured along traditional lines, might be expected to adopt a collegial approach to professional formation yet a hybrid model was adopted. The data show (§4.3.1.2) that APM was under pressure from two sources, one from within, i.e. its practitioner members who saw the award of a Royal Charter as recognition of professional status; and the other, external, from its Corporate members who had their own, different reasons for seeking professional formation

As will be seen in the next section, APM adopted the pursuit of a Royal Charter in its campaign for professional status. Achieving this accolade would satisfy the expectations of both sources of pressure but for different reasons. The data show (§4.3.1.4) that practitioner members had expectations that achieving recognition as a profession would bring benefits in terms of status, both occupationally and socially, as is traditionally associated with collegial professions. There might also have been an expectation of greater recognition of the importance of their work as well as improved remuneration (Evetts 2011b). Corporate expectations are likely to be many and various but other research indicates that major corporations such as BAe Systems and Rolls Royce "*needed 'Chartered [status]' … as a means of leapfrogging their project managers over their engineers, in terms of status and influence*" (Hodgson et al. 2015 p753). Furthermore, the government had a very clear interest in the professional formation of project management, as shown by the number of Ministries that provided letters of support in the Charter campaign.

It can be seen that APM followed a hybrid course of action, maintaining its existing assets (BOK and credentialling) and structure (see §4.3.1.2, p.113) but playing to the appeal of both individual members through its emphasis on public good and the aspirations of its corporate

partners through their involvement in policy development (Association for Project Management 2004).

5.2.3 Royal Charter

Royal Charters are seen in the literature as the end point of an occupation's professional formation (Millerson 1964; Macdonald 1995) because it is formal recognition by the Crown, and therefore by implication, the government, that the occupation is a profession. This can be seen as a form of occupational closure because the Privy Council makes clear that Royal Charters are awarded to "unique professions" (Privy Council 2019). There are a number of important implications but for the purpose of this research, only those relevant to the Formal BOK are considered.

So far as the BOK is concerned, the key aspect is the establishment of the "unique profession" since this effectively proclaims that the occupation is distinct from others and implies that it must have an independent body of related knowledge. This does not imply a formal BOK but does form the basis for establishing one. This recognition also serves to delineate the area of operations, another reflection that a body of professional knowledge must exist.

In practice, APM's Formal BOK was submitted to the Privy Council Office but attracted little attention, according to a member of the Policy Team. This informant also stated that its omission from the initial application would have attracted adverse comment. The BOK was, however, noted as an indicator of independent existence and was thus a significant factor in the High Court appeal that cleared the way for the eventual grant of the Charter (Master of the Rolls 2015). The Royal Charter also takes account of expected levels of education necessary for entry to the institution as well as "*the academic and other qualifications required for membership of the various grades*" (Privy Council 2023), another aspect that is dependent on the BOK.

5.2.4 Influence of the BOK.

In most occupational organisations with a formal BOK, its development and use comes at an early stage in their professional formation so it provides an influence on the strategy adopted. The approach selected is required to

appeal to stakeholders, mainly the organisation's members, in order to retain their support. In the case of APM, these were both individual and corporate stakeholders. Their interests clearly overlap but they also have different needs in relation to professional formation. It has been shown that the interests of these two sources of pressure differ in several respects but both require an expert knowledge base which is encapsulated in the BOK. Put simply, so far as the BOK is concerned, individuals seek knowledge for their own purposes linked to status and personal reward while corporate partners seek commercial value. This can raise issues around the structure and content of the BOK, a point that is amplified in §5.5 (p.155). The exemplar organisation had developed its formal BOK as early as 1989 and was regularly updated as the occupation developed. This BOK preceded the selection of professional formation strategy by nearly twenty year.

5.3 Objective 2 – Defining the Professional Domain

In any transformation process, it is clearly important to know what is being transformed. In the sociology of professions, there are several reasons to define the professional domain which are addressed below but the major need is to separate the occupation from others so that a distinct product can be seen. This description provides an outline of the domain derived from the work carried out and effectively sets out the "product" on offer to the client.

New occupations, if they are to establish themselves in the workplace, need to demonstrate their independence and that they are not part of some other occupation. Establishing jurisdiction is one way of differentiating the new occupation from others and, as has been shown above, is a requirement for the award of a Royal Charter which requires that *"the institution concerned should comprise members of a unique profession"* (Privy Council 2019) and so the description of the occupation should be considered existential.

5.3.1 Purposes of Jurisdiction

Abbott introduced the notion of jurisdiction to convey "*the link between a profession and its work"* (Abbott 1988 p20). Borrowing the term from the legal domain, jurisdiction sets out what or who has the authority to

deal with a problem. Jurisdiction claims authority to deal with problems, so it is not sufficient to simply describe the occupation. The claim must also show that the occupation deals with specific problems of interest to a client and has the capacity to solve these problems. This implies that these problems are amenable to professional practice, and as Abbott (1988 p57 - 58) explains, these problems can be diagnosed, treatment can be specified and can be treated successfully. A means must be found that indicates the work content is of sufficient complexity to stand comparison with other professions. To successfully claim a jurisdiction is no easy matter since, like profession itself, there is little agreement on how it is defined.

5.3.2 Role of the Body of Knowledge

Establishing professional jurisdiction must include some demonstration that client problems need specialist diagnosis and treatment that can be separated from simple craft skills that can be learned by repetitive practice. This indicates that superior and specialised knowledge that goes beyond that of the normally educated individual. This establishes the need for a defined corpus of knowledge that can be imparted by specialist education and training. This is referred to as an occupation's Body of Knowledge.

The Body of Knowledge is required to cover all the major areas within the boundaries claimed but the boundaries can only be set from practice, what practitioners actually do, so jurisdiction and the Body of Knowledge are interdependent. Changes in practice and inclusion of new areas work require changes to both the body of knowledge and then to the jurisdiction claimed. Some indication that the practitioner is following approved practice is also needed so some form of qualification is needed. These qualifications need to be shown to be rigorous and require special education. Collegially based professions have specialist schools or university courses to qualify entrants. In the early development of the occupation, qualification need not be university based but must be credible.

Thus, jurisdiction mediates the knowledge claims of the occupation and hence gives shape to the knowledge needed to support the work carried out by practitioners while the jurisdiction boundaries are set by existing knowledge. This was acknowledged by most informants despite some

misgivings about the currency of the BOK content. This is not to say that the BOK necessarily states all the knowledge requirements of the occupation but it must indicate where knowledge cannot be standardised, i.e. where "*individual talent*" comes into play. As Jamous and Peloille (1970, p.112) note, professions are *"…occupations whose indetermination / technicality ratio is high".*

5.3.3 Tensions

Informants generally reported that they saw the BOK as something that shows the dimensions of the profession. Some (e.g. PRAC 10) saw it as defining the occupation in terms of its position in organisations. As reported earlier (§4.3.4.1 p.133) there is some concern that such positioning is not entirely clear and there may be some blurring of definition at the boundaries, a particular issue for some practitioners. Nevertheless, informants believed the BOK to be foundational and that much else is built upon it.

As part of its definitional role, some informants saw the BOK as an important part of the credentialling system. As an occupation rooted in practice, project management credentials have been based mainly on the ability of the candidate to deliver results. APM's original qualification, the Certificated Project Manager, was based on experiential evidence. An additional qualification, APMP, was knowledge-based and clearly reflected the content of the BOK as does its successor, the APM Project Fundamentals Qualification (PFQ). All subsequent credentials are based on competence assessment. It was suggested that the BOK could play a part in competence assessment.

The secondary data shows that APM's credentialling is based around competence assessment. The BOK is seen by both academics and policy informants as a foundation upon which everything else builds but some feel the Competence Framework is more important, at least within the credentialling system (See §4.3.4.3 p.134). Others believe the two play complementary functions with the BOK defining the "What needs to be known" and the Competence Framework setting out the ""How" aspects. The interaction between the two has wider implications such as curriculum design and continuing professional development but these are outside the

scope of this research. Education, training and professional development are all clearly important to the image of a profession but do not contribute directly to professional formation.

5.3.4 Implications for the BOK

It is clear from informant responses reported in Chapter 4 (§4.3.1) that the BOK is regarded as a foundational document. As it was developed for a particular purpose well before the process of professional formation began, it may be considered to have some impact on the process. There is no evidence to suggest that it was used as an active part of the application for the Royal Charter despite it being submitted to the Privy Council Office with other document.

Informants considered the BOK to delineate the occupation and this view is supported by the periodic revisions and expansion of the BOK. These updates reflect the major changes in project management, particularly the inclusion of programme and portfolio management which move the discipline from a niche specialism into the main stream. Most informants also believe It feeds into the credentialling system which is an aspect the Privy Council Office consider in their evaluation of applications.

APM's choice of approach to professional formation did not affect the BOK, rather the choice of approach was influenced by the BOK. This might be expected since the BOK had been in use for many years before the process was begun. In the short time since the award of the Charter, an updated version of the BOK has been developed but no major changes have been made.

It is clear that BOKs can be a significant factor in claiming jurisdiction although there is no evidence to show that APM has actively used theirs for this purpose.

5.4 Objective 3 – Professional Knowledge

The sociology of professions literature (Freidson 1986b, 2001; Eraut 2005) makes clear that professional knowledge differs from what Freidson calls "*everyday knowledge*" (Freidson 2001). Occupations such as project management which can be seen as part of the knowledge economy are

defined by their knowledge base (Brint 2001) and this gives rise to the formalisation of this knowledge into formal BOKs. However, knowledge can also be categorised into types by the way it can be documented. This section addresses the nature of knowledge used by occupations in their professional formation.

5.4.1 Types of Knowledge

The nature of professional knowledge is addressed in the literature and summarised in Chapter 2 (see §2.9.2 p.56). It is generally accepted that professional knowledge is of two types, explicit and tacit. By definition, explicit knowledge can be documented and in the case of project management, it is captured in the formal BOK. It is also generally accepted, in the literature and by informants, that there is other relevant knowledge which is cannot be captured in a formal BOK. This category of knowledge is seen by some as an essential part of professional practice while Polanyi (1966, p.7) notes that "all knowledge is *either tacit or rooted in tacit knowledge…"* (emphasis in the original). On these accounts, the body of professional knowledge for any given profession should somehow contain both tacit and explicit knowledge, in order to allow a role for judgement over how to approach a problem, select the tools from the body of knowledge and then apply them effectively. Some of these tasks depend on explicit knowledge while others rely on tacit knowledge.

By definition, professional knowledge captured in the formal BOK is limited to the explicit and must therefore be considered incomplete. Informants recognised that the BOK could not contain all relevant knowledge. This prevents the BOK from being seen as comprehensive and the membership association needs to demonstrate that practitioners have the necessary all round knowledge to deal effectively with client problems.

While the role of tacit knowledge is outside the scope of this research, it is clearly important in professional formation since it may be seen as an integral part of the knowledge base of a professional. As previously noted (§5.3.2 p.148), tacit knowledge allows individual talent to be applied (Jamous and Peloille 1970).

A small number of informants saw a role for some form of apprenticeship (e.g. PRAC2) and others for building experience to supplement formal knowledge (e.g. AC1). Others (e.g. BOK 4) still saw industry specific knowledge as both contextual and tacit, an aspect that had been explicitly addressed in surveys conducted during two BOK development projects. The outcome in both cases was that it was neither necessary nor desirable to include industry specific aspect and so the notion was rejected (Morris et al. 2000; Morris et al. 2006b).

5.4.2 Knowledge Acquisition

The data show (§4.3.4 p.132) that the BOK is used by stakeholders for a variety of purposes including personal development, training and education. For it to be effective, for these stakeholders, the capture of relevant knowledge needs to be comprehensive to ensure that the full range of knowledge needed to support the profession is identified and included in the BOK. The BOK represents Fincham's "*emergent codified knowledge*" (Fincham 2012 p11) so the origin of this knowledge is of interest.

The development of APM's BOK is well documented in the literature, notably by Morris (Morris et al. 2000; Morris 2001; Morris et al. 2006a; Morris et al. 2006b). This work shows that some early versions were based on research but more recently, it has been updated through extensive knowledge identification through focus groups and practitioner workshops. Such development brings together a large number of volunteers, not all of them practitioners as participation has been open to academic as well. Some academics believe that development should rest more with academics who they claim are better able to abstract relevant knowledge. Such a claim is consistent with the literature, notably Abbott (Abbott 1988, 1991a) although Schön (Schön 1987) advocates a more cooperative approach (see also Fig 6, p.58 and §2.9.3 p.57).

As a comparatively young profession, the PM knowledge base is evolving more rapidly than more mature knowledge based occupations. This has two effects: first, there is a demonstrable need to update the BOK to reflect technical changes to practice and second, there is an argument for more research to underpin the formal BOK, particularly where new

functions are identified. The advent of so-called Agile techniques is an example of the first effect while the expansion of the discipline to take account of new management forms such as programme and portfolio management are examples of the latter.

However, from a professional development perspective, there remains a need for a coherent development path in order to meet the needs of stakeholders. If the development of the BOK is to be left largely to academics, as Morris et al claimed to be needed, some research framework would need to be developed which took account of gaps in the knowledge base and weaknesses of practice. It is difficult to see how such a framework might be devised without ending up with the situation Morris objected to, where the "*professional association*" tells

> *"… the academics what to think and teach, instead of having research test the concepts theoretically and the issues practically*". (Morris et al. 2006a p719)

Research based development may be a desired outcome but requires a plan or at least some coordination to pull together the array of research produced by academics since much research takes place because the subject appeals to the researcher. Such a random process is unlikely to provide an effective base for development of a formal BPL. One alternative is to employ commissioned research, as APM did when updating its fourth and fifth update (Morris et al. 2000; Morris et al. 2006b). APM rejected this approach and subsequently moved to a citizen science approach. This does not seem to have impacted on the credibility of the current BOK.

5.4.3 Implications for the BOK

The source of BOK content is something that few respondents identified as important for professional formation but it is significant because the BOK needs to be seen to be credible, that it gives support to jurisdictional claims by identifying how client problems can be identified, diagnosed and treated. To be credible, it needs to be recognised as definitive and comprehensive. This can only be achieved by having a development approach that draws

on both theoretical developments and on practice as (Schön 1987) identified.

One approach to overcoming the tacit knowledge issue is to use a credentialing system that takes account of both forms of knowledge. APM's approach has been to make use of competence testing and professional interviews to assess the tacit dimension. Both these activities are directly linked to the BOK.

5.5 Objective 4 – Stakeholder Engagement

A Body of Knowledge, whether an artefact or an abstract intellectual construct, may be used by a number of different stakeholders for various purposes. Not all of these uses are directed towards professional formation but since expert knowledge underpins professions, it is important to understand what stakeholders expect from their BOK in order to understand whether or how they use it in relation to professional formation.

For this research, four distinct groups were identified to help identify use of the BOK in professional formation. Each group could be expected to have a primary use: practitioners to inform their practice: academics to identify opportunities for research or support course development; BOK developers to refine future versions and policy makers to direct institutional objectives, including professional formation. The overlaps can be seen in Table 13 (p.107) which shows that the 28 interviews represented in the analysis included 13 informants with secondary roles. While these stakeholders were able to offer a valid view of the use of the BOK in professional formation, there are other stakeholders such as commercial trainers, professional service firms and users of the professional service, whose interests need to be taken into account.

The primary stakeholder in any professional arena is the client or user, the recipient of professional services and the ultimate judge of whether an occupation is, in fact, a profession. Important though this group is, it does not contribute to professional formation and so their interests are not relevant to this research. There are, however, other ways of looking at the use of the BOK in professional formation, particularly when considering the pressures to seek recognition and the interests of those pressure groups.

This section identifies two such groups, the professional community and addresses the use of the BOK to satisfy their needs.

5.5.1 Community

The Project Management community may be considered to consist of those groups pressing for professional recognition. These groups have been discussed earlier (see §5.2.2 p.142) and consist of those inside the membership association, mainly practitioners but also some academics and commercial trainers; and those “above”, notably corporate partners including the government, and some other professional institutions. While both groups have the same overall goal of professional recognition, their interests also display significant differences. This section addresses these similarities and differences to identify how a third group of stakeholders, those responsible for developing and implementing strategy (APM staff and the Board of Trustees), i.e. the Policy Team, harness these stakeholders interests and use the BOK in professional formation.

5.5.2 Practitioners

It has been noted that there was considerable pressure from practitioners to seek a Royal Charter. While individuals had their own reasons for seeking the Charter, many will have seen such an award as an improvement in their status and authority in the work place. This improvement could be expected to enhance their image with clients, leading to increased salaries and recognition of the value of their work. A credible BOK is an important underpinning of such aspirations and hence professional formation.

The informants for this study came from diverse backgrounds (see Appendix 6). They had been selected as representative of the major user groups of the BOK and therefore could be expected to be able to provide insight into how the BOK is used by the various categories of user. The analysis showed that few informants used the BOK solely in a single stakeholder category and their views overlapped other roles. This was perhaps inevitable as all were senior members of the profession and so had developed views over a number of years and had held a number of different roles. While their views of professional formation were similar, their views of the nature of the BOK and its uses varied considerably although all

recognised its importance. They all claimed that its main role is to set boundaries and in credentialling. It was claimed that this helped establish the ownership of the knowledge and strengthens the community. This is a manifestation of what Larson (1977) calls cognitive commonality. Larson asserts (1977, p.40) that cognitive commonality is "*indispensable if professionals are to coalesce into an effective group*". It was noted that the BOK is seen as not simply an academic artefact but something that belongs to this community.

Informants were all senior members of the professional community and so they tended to be older than the majority of APM members. It is therefore likely that they do not necessarily reflect the views of the Generations X, Y and Z. It is well recognised that these later generations have different views of occupational and institutional matters (Magano et al. 2020). Generational and other diversity aspects such as those raised by Iorgulescu (2016) and the impact of COVID-19 (Jayathilake et al. 2021) were considered outside the scope of this research so these important factors could be addressed in future work.

The analysis showed that the BOK has a multitude of uses, some directly related to individual stakeholder roles but some overlapped. This gave a blurred view of the overall purpose of the BOK which made the development of a brief for the developers difficult to achieve. It also demonstrated that an artefact used by so many different constituencies may fail to meet the needs of any of them. Despite the criticism noted in the findings (§4.3.3.2 p.111), most informants regard the BOK as a useful but imperfect tool. There are, however, ownership issues referred to in the previous section. While primacy of ownership is not disputed, both academics (e.g. AC5) and policy team (e.g. POL1) saw the BOK as "*belonging to everyone*" (i.e. BOK 4), who should develop it and who it is aimed at were disputed. Morris et al. (2006a) challenged APM's development model, claiming more academic control was needed. However, as all the development teams were managed by academics, it is difficult to see how greater academic involvement would benefit the profession. There is clearly a strong case for academic research to underpin the BOK as this will hopefully improve practice, it would also

strengthen credibility among the identified stakeholders and some corporate partners. One practitioner (PRAC9) specifically mentioned the role of theory and testing it in practice, echoing Schön (1983).

The target market for the BOK presents some problems. The BOK in its current form is monolithic, presenting its content at a single level. No account is taken of the level of reader experience or project role. This can be quite indigestible for new entrants or practitioners in roles other than as Project Manager. It can be argued that the BOK is an abstract presentation of knowledge and therefore no division is appropriate. However, the less experienced have arguably a greater need for information. Writing that a novice can understand and expecting the same text to provide the expert reader with useful information is challenging. Similarly, text written for the expert may well be too complicated for the novice. This mis-match of levels may also account for the lack of use reported by a significant number of informants.

The practitioner community is also divided by role, albeit with many common knowledge elements. The analysis showed that even in a comparatively young occupation there are elements that feel their role is not fully appreciated. An example in the case of project management is the Project Management Office (PMO). PMOs are mainly found in Corporate Partners and their functions are far from uniform. PMOs are not directly referenced in the BOK and this is a possible cause for dissatisfaction that has led to the emergence of a separate association.

5.5.3 Corporate Partners

APM has taken the views of corporate users of project management into account for many years. Their input has taken a variety of forms ranging from formal briefings for corporate members to one on one meetings. This group has also had a substantial influence on the evolution of the BOK and they were specifically consulted in the research for APM's fourth and fifth versions. It is interesting to note this consultation in the light of the rejection of sector specific content to the BOK since it might be expected that such inclusion might strengthen their appeal to their client base by demonstrating influence on the direction the profession takes. Corporate support for the

BOK should also be seen as endorsement of professional policies and such approval could be claimed as a part of professional formation.

Corporate partners formed a source of pressure to seek the award of a Royal Charter, noted earlier. Other research (Hodgson et al. 2015) showed their interest stemmed from a perceived need to improve the status of their project managers vis a vis engineers. The sociological literature points to additional expectations, particularly where professional formation is imposed from above. In this situation, autonomy and control of work passes from the practitioner to the corporate through imposition of targets and expected levels of output that can control working practices. Such control is seen as reducing discretionary decision making, i.e. autonomy (Evetts 2011b). This was not identified by informants as a significant issue.

5.5.4 Policy Needs

The third group of stakeholders noted earlier is the staff of the organisational association, which is referred to as the Policy Team. Their role is to enable the aspirations of their members to be achieved and so they must balance the needs of all other stakeholders while ensuring that the overall objectives of the association are maintained. In the case of APM, members of this group are currently specialists in various administrative functions and apart from members of the Board of Trustees, are not normally practitioners or corporate partners. In times past, the majority of the group would have been practitioners but as professional formation proceeded, full time support and specialists became essential.

APM's original BOK was developed at a time when the abbreviation stood for the Association *of Project Managers* and it reflected only the needs of those who managed projects. While this might seem logical, the occupational domain comprises more than just project managers as can be seen from APM's role descriptors (APM 2022). The change of name to the Association *for Project Management* in 1998 marked a recognition of the contribution of these other roles and their place in the occupation. It also opened the APM to a wider market which could result in additional members and related sales opportunities. However, there appears to be little acknowledgment of the knowledge needs of those carrying out these roles

and despite increasing the range of qualifications offered from the two early certificates (Certificated PM from 1991 and APM Professional from 1996), the BOK remains clearly targeted on the Project Manager. This risks the overall occupation splitting into segments where various specialists feel their needs would be better addressed by other institutions as demonstrated by the recent launch of the House of PMO (Project Management Office) and as anticipated by Abbott (1988) and McGregor and Halls (2020), thus reducing APM's jurisdiction. It also misses opportunities to broaden the educational offering, to define entry requirements and to define career paths.

One of the Policy Team's main tasks is to ensure that the interests of its key stakeholders are met. In the case of APM, this is complicated by inclusion of corporate partners whose interests differ from individual members as noted above. There was no indication of conflicts of interest in professional formation between these main stakeholders, possibly because corporate partners were not included in the informant frames (see Tables 9 & 12) although some practitioner informants were employed by corporate partners. One approach to reconciling conflicts, particularly where autonomy is concerned, is to use the BOK as a stabilising influence so that application of PM is seen to be consistent. This supports the image of PM as a consistent base for decision making by providing a visible basis for practice. Moreover, the employment of PM as a solution to client needs is defined by the employing organisation, rather than the professional association, is another reason to use the BOK as an instrument of policy as well as practicality.

Another of the Policy Team's functions in professional formation is to gain support from other institutions, especially those with a similar interest. In the case of PM, there are many institutions with a strong interest in the management of projects and in order to enlist their support, the Policy Team embarked on a campaign of enlisting what they called Like Minded Organisations (LMOs). Skilful use of the BOK could contribute to this process although there was no direct evidence that such an approach was adopted.

As enactors of institutional policy, the Policy Team and particularly those involved with credentialing and qualification would be expected to use the BOK as a key component of their work. While this is an indirect use in support of professional formation, it plays to maintaining jurisdiction and building the professional image of PM. More broadly, the BOK underpins the credentialing system which is a cornerstone of profession and so there is a close relationship with policy.

APM stated the primary reason for developing their BOK, from its first issue in 1991, was to provide a basis for credentialling (APM 2004; Saldaña 2016; Walkinshaw and Dore 2017) and so was of interest to all the identified constituencies in various ways. In fact, the credentialling lobby had become increasingly powerful as the number of qualifications increased and the income generated began to form a significant part of APM's income stream. Scrutiny of APM Annual Accounts show that examination income amounted to £2.5 million in 2021, a fall from the previous year's examination income of about £4 million. The drop is attributed to the Coronavirus pandemic. Much of this income stream comes from the accredited training providers through their block booking of examinations to conclude their courses. This income is supplemented by income from book sales, including the BOK, of around £100,000 in 2021. Pandemic conditions are unusual and it remains to be seen how the resulting "new normal" will affect credentialling in the longer term but it remains a highly important aspect of APM's activities, if only from a financial point of view. More significantly, this financial clout gives Training Providers considerable influence on the timing and extent of change in revisions of the BOK. Furthermore, there is a need to take account of their requirements, as in addition to the income they provide to APM in the way of examination fees, they also provide a means of entry to the profession for new entrants.

5.6 Contribution – Objective 5

This section draws together the influence of the BOK on professional formation. It argues that the BOK has important symbolic functions and addresses aspects of control that may not be enacted by the institution seeking professional formation. This control aspect leads to the

demonstration of expertise necessary for recognition and affects professional authority and autonomy of practice.

5.6.1 Symbolic Use

There are a number of implied uses for the BOK in professional formation including its contribution to the formation of the association itself. APM originally coalesced from a group of individuals interested in network approaches to the management of projects and evolved into a broader conception that embraced all the work done by the Project Manager. APM issued its first BOK in 1991, as the basis for its perceived need for a device to inform candidates for its certification process, of what they needed to know (Willis 1995). It also served to represent how the occupation saw itself, a measure of what Larson (1977) calls cognitive commonality. Larson's assertion (1977, p.40) that cognitive commonality is "*indispensable if professionals are to coalesce into an effective group*". Development of the BOK was initiated about 20 years after APM formed so it seems unlikely that it contributed significantly cognitive commonality but instead reinforced group identity.

For these reasons, cognitive commonality is a major factor that contributes to credibility as well as to jurisdiction. Practitioners need to be able to support the BOK and the level of support provided by the BOK tends to vary with experience, with more experienced practitioners being more likely to challenge the validity of the BOK. Trainers require a stable BOK on which to base their training but also need a credible BOK to enable them to develop courses that reflect institutional requirements and to appeal to their own corporate clients.

These issues significantly affect how the BOK can be developed and in particular, mean that major changes cannot be brought in quickly to respond to paradigm challenges. Other reputational factors can be expected to influence both education and training but this has not been directly investigated.

5.6.2 Professional Control

Traditionally, professions are seen to act to restrict or control practice (Larson 2007, 2013), usually through control of the production of producers

which they achieve by controlling the registration (where applicable) and credentialing system. This limits the development of expertise which in turn denies practitioners the authority to deal with the complexity of the jurisdiction and the autonomy of independent discretionary decision making. All three of these are deemed in the literature to be defining characteristics of profession (e.g. Adams et al. 2020). A single informant saw the use of the BOK as a means of control and even then was not specific in their meaning so it was not possible to interpret the grounds for this view.

Despite the lack of academic definition of profession, it is indisputable that expert knowledge lies at the heart of profession. From a lay perspective, professionals are expected to display expertise in their chosen field. This expertise is born of mastery of a body of knowledge, and it does not matter, as far as the layman is concerned, whether this body of knowledge is an artefact i.e. a formal BOK or an abstract intellectual construct because it gives authority to the professional to act in the domain defined by the jurisdiction. Classical views of profession also claim that the practitioner has the authority to work without lay supervision, although this view is now disputed.

5.6.3 Expertise

The literature shows that expert performance is regarded as essential, the most basic, requirement of profession (e.g. Freidson 2001). Traditionally this is based on extensive study which is then honed by practice. The data showed that expertise is largely taken for granted but how that expertise is gained was questioned. It can be argued that training and study provide a base for building expertise but these need to be founded on some credible form of syllabus that in turn depend on some form of codified knowledge. For some modern occupations, such as project management, that base is partly provided by the BOK.

Informants (e.g., POL2, PRAC3) noted that a credible BOK is an essential component of expertise as it is based on special knowledge that has been abstracted from practice and codified. According to the literature, it will not always be possible to abstract all relevant knowledge (Larson 1977) which gives rise to *indetermination* where individual talent takes the

place of the codified knowledge (see also §5.4.1). Expert knowledge, that others do not possess, has been interpreted as mystique (Haga et al. 1974), or some degree of mystery connected to the BOK, implying that not all the expert knowledge is disclosed to the general reader or cannot be codified. Such indetermination or mystique can be interpreted as tacit knowledge (Polanyi 1998). By definition, tacit knowledge cannot be recorded in a formal BOK. Inclusion of tacit knowledge is difficult to achieve in an artefact which must be coherent and offer a view of professional knowledge that promises to successfully address the problems faced by clients. The findings indicate that there are mixed views on how well the BOK fulfils the need to provide this underpinning but both academic programmes and commercial training courses were reported to make some use of the BOK.

5.6.4 Authority

Irrespective of any mystery, the credibility of the BOK is a significant factor as informants reported. This research avoided investigation of the detailed content of the BOK since it was judged that while technical content plays an important part in the professional formation, as it was thought that the role played by the BOK was more important than a technical review of BOK content. In any case, the substantial number of individual and members corporate partners indicates that APM and its BOK are considered sufficient to meet the needs of practitioners. Sales of APM's literature, and particularly the BOK, also demonstrates that APM has achieved a measure of authority. This is bolstered by the decision of the Office of Government Commerce to embed APM's competence framework within the government-wide Competence Assessment Tool (see Appendix 8). The contribution of the BOK to this authority is acknowledged by some informants so it is reasonable to claim that the BOK helps establish that authority.

5.6.5 Autonomy

According to Macdonald (1995, p.10) autonomy requires a "*regulative bargain*" that seeks the support of government. Arguably, the award of a Royal Charter forms that support. However, autonomy presents difficulties for new occupations, particularly in the modern era as the circumstances

that allowed what are now seen as the paradigm professions to develop their control of practice seem to have passed.

The paradigm professions, such as medicine and the law, built their images of autonomy resulting in close occupational control almost amounting to monopoly. To some extent, this autonomy survives, but even these paradigm professions have found their autonomy eroded by increasing bureaucracy, and managerialism (Reed 1996; Reed 2018a). The threat posed by state intervention in both professions through the establishment of the NHS and the legal aid system are examples of weakening autonomy. It seems highly unlikely that project managers could achieve anything like the autonomy achieved by these paradigm professions if only because they usually work to a project owner who controls some of the important parameters such as resource provision and allocation, who is ultimately responsible for strategic decisions. This situation is acknowledged by the informants.

5.6.6 Implications for the BOK

This section argues that the formal BOK makes a number of contributions to professional formation. It shows that the BOK fulfils a symbolic role in the formation of professional associations through its function in building cognitive commonality. In addition to its functions underpinning education and training (see §5.4.2), the BOK could play a significant role in the control of the profession through limiting the production of producers, although there was little evidence that the exemplar organisation used it for this purpose. It is also argued that the BOK is instrumental in building credible expertise by providing a consistent and transparent base for the credentialling system. This expertise underlies claims of authority to treat client problems and grants autonomy of practice.

5.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has summarised the most important findings from the empirical research. These results show that the BOK is influenced by the approach to professional formation adopted by the institution. The exemplar organisation has been shown to have adopted a hybrid approach as a result of the twin pressures exerted by its individual members and by Corporate

Partners. APM's activities in the period from the inception of its 2004 Strategy to the grant of its Royal Charter in 2017 and its award may be considered to mark the end of its professional formation. The pursuit of the Charter serves as a proxy and allows attention to be focused on the way the BOK contributes to professional formation. The award indicates that there is widespread support for recognition, even if this support is not universally endorsed at the working level.

The importance of defining the occupation has been demonstrated and the laissez faire approach adopted by APM has been shown to be effective and well supported by the BOK. This definition has been shown to link to the knowledge base for the profession. Furthermore, as PM can be seen to be a knowledge-based profession, it is important to recognise the nature of that knowledge since it underpins its delivery.

The disparate needs of the stakeholder population have been taken into account in the discussion which shows how the BOK contributes to these needs. Finally, the contribution of the BOK to professional formation has been identified through its symbolic use and through it function as a potential control mechanism which leads to the demonstration of expertise and the subsequent emergence of professional authority and autonomy of practice as contested concepts as far as project management is concerned.

The results are mostly in line with the literature on professions but project management offers some special features that challenge some long held beliefs. The issue of jurisdiction is one such aspect. Many occupations have an interest in project management and consider their context-specific needs to indicate ownership. APM was able to show that it does not represent a jurisdictional challenge to these occupations by adopting a higher perspective that benefits all sectors, especially institutional users. The way the BOK has been developed over the 30 years since its introduction has averted external jurisdictional conflicts but care will be needed to prevent internal issues fragmenting the profession.

The final chapter reviews the results and how they fit with the literature on the sociology of professions. It also reflects on the conduct of this research and offers recommendations for practice and the academy, including suggestions for further research.

Chapter 6 Summary and Conclusions

6.1 Introduction

This final chapter summarises the findings, assesses the achievement of objectives and considers their contribution to achieving the overall research aim. The processes and methodology employed are evaluated, noting strengths and areas where other approaches might help future research. The aim and objectives are re-articulated and conclusions drawn. As this is an exploratory investigation, recommendations for extending this research are identified.

6.2 Methodological Review

This section reviews how the research was carried out, reflecting on both design and effectiveness of execution.

6.2.1 Research Design

The design that emerged is illustrated in Figure 25 which indicates the replanning that resulted in the revised and expanded informant frame. This design is reflected in the structure of this thesis. All research methodologies have specific strengths and weaknesses, which in the case of that adopted here are discussed in Chapter 3. The main issues concern the overall approach adopted, the data gathering mechanism and the analytical process (see §3.6).

As there is no generally accepted definition of profession, it was acknowledged that there could be no objective test of professional formation. The sociology of professions recognises that specialist knowledge is a major constituent that underpins the concept of profession and so how bodies of knowledge affect professional formation is a valid subject for study. The research aim was formulated as:

> *To explore how formal bodies of knowledge are used*
> *in the transformation of an occupation to a profession*

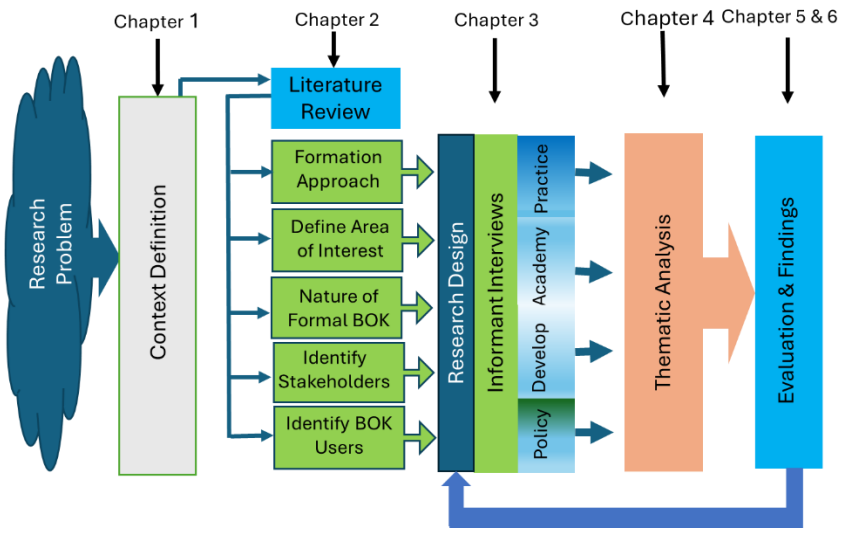

Figure 26 Revised overview of research project

The initial design anticipated a single phase of data collection but a reflective review of the analysis indicated that institutional and cultural differences between US and UK approaches did not match the research aim and did not adequately inform the objectives. Furthermore, the initial analysis revealed that an additional stakeholder group, BOK Developers, needed to be added to the informant frame. It emerged during the review of the secondary data that the training lobby exerted a powerful influence on the development of the BOK. It had been thought their interests would be satisfactorily covered by the Academic group but while there are points of similarity between the two groups, there are also differences that need to be explored in future research.

The lack of measurable outcomes of a process such as professional formation indicated that views of those most closely involved would provide insights into what took place and how the BOK contributed to the process. The range of stakeholders, and the exploratory nature of the research pushed the data gathering method towards interviews. Steps taken to maintain research credibility set out at §3.6.4 were largely effective.

6.2.2 Validity of the Results

The findings are based on semi structured interviews of a purposive sample of senior professionals, not all of whom are project managers (for instance, some of the Policy Team are general managers). While these informants were able to provide insight into important aspects of professional formation,

their views reflect their experience and values appropriate to a period in which a great deal of social change took place. Thus, these views may not reflect views of the Millennial generations or provide answers to generational challenges (See §5.5.3).

All interviews were conducted remotely. This approach was tested in what turned out to be the first phase using a hand-held recorder. While this was effective, it was difficult to manage due to equipment limitations. The second phase of data gathering took place during the national lock-down when face to face interviewing was not possible and so online interviewing was the only method available. These interviews were recorded via the Zoom™ application which helped ensure accuracy in transcribing the interviews. The design always intended to use remote interviewing so the lockdown did not interrupt the data gathering. The method was effective, partly as informants had become used to the notion of remote working but mainly because there are methodological advantages which were the main reasons for selecting this method (Shepherd 2015).

6.2.3 Methodological Strengths

This research is based on 28 semi-structured interviews representing four stakeholder groups concerned with the process of APM's professional formation and its BOK. The individual informants who make up each cohort are all senior representatives of their group and thus have an unrivalled breadth of experience and were uniquely able to inform the research. Selection of these individuals also reduced participant bias.

Having selected a qualitative approach, it was necessary to decide how best to analyse the data. Thematic Analysis (Attridge-Stirling 2001); Braun and Clarke (2006) was selected. This provided a structured and repeatable approach that could be implemented using a Computer Assisted Data Analysis software tool. The tool used, NVivo, is a good match for Thematic Analysis. The use of the approach and the tool ensured that accurate record keeping was achieved and that the analysis is fully traceable.

The exploratory nature of the research allowed a single case to be studied which enabled a narrow focus so that preliminary conclusions could

be drawn. These conclusions point to further research that can contribute to extending understanding in both the occupational domain of project management (see §6.5.1) and in the understanding of professions in the modern era (see §6.5.2).

6.2.4 Research Issues

The exemplar Association's professional formation took place over a period of some 14 years. While this is comparatively short compared to some other similar campaigns, it is a substantial period during which the BOK was updated twice, using different approaches. This was taken into account when interviewing informants but some may have based their responses on the latter part of the project, giving a distorted view. Multiple constituencies were identified to minimise hindsight bias.

Limitations to the first informant frame were identified relatively late in the research project and the subsequent re-planning resulted in a more representative informant frame. However, at an even later stage, during the analysis, it became apparent that a powerful lobby group had not been included in the revised frame. This group did not appear to have influenced APM's professional formation but their impact on BOK development needs further study to inform the professional body how best to manage their expectations. This may be an issue unique to project management but it is another topic for further research.

During the interviews, it quickly became apparent that informants did not fit into the neat classifications assigned to them. Individuals rarely fulfilled a single role as several Policy members had been senior practitioners while others had no experience of projects or professional societies. Some academics came from a practitioner background which affected their status (see Glazer 1974). Developers were either practitioners or academics or both. While such a mixed background ensured a rich data set, identification of representative group views was particularly difficult to achieve.

Semi-structured interviews allow the interviewer to determine how to control the interview and a number of different stances are possible. In the interviews here, informants were given more control (see Fig 13 p86). This

encouraged them to be open and offer wide ranging insights but inevitably resulted in longer interview and correspondingly longer transcripts which took longer to produce and significantly more effort to code.

The selection of a single BOK naturally limits the prospect of generalising these results. However, generalisation was not an aim since the notion of professionalism is, according to the literature, in transition so the intention was always to identify lines of research that could be developed in relation to new occupations attempting to transition to professions.

6.3 Conclusions

This research aimed to explore how formal bodies of knowledge are used in the transformation of an occupation to a profession. It addresses theoretical frameworks relevant to modern professional formation, focusing on formal bodies of knowledge and why they are important to professional formations. In order to achieve this aim, five objectives were established. This section assesses the extent to which these objectives have been achieved and using this evaluation, the extent to which the research aim has been attained.

This research required the selection of a suitable occupation for study. Project Management was selected because it is part of the knowledge economy, a relatively new categorisation, that had achieved a measure of professional recognition through its successful campaign for the award of a Royal Charter. It has an institutional base in the Association for Project Management that had a strategic aim consistent with the research aim. Project management also claims characteristics in portability and lack of uniformity of treatment, which hitherto have not figured in the study of professions.

6.3.1 Objective 1 – Approaches to Professional Formation

The first objective, to explore the methods used by membership associations in their professional formation, drew on documentary evidence found in Board papers and annual reports. These revealed that APM adopted a hybrid approach to its professional formation which was behind

its campaign to achieve a Royal Charter. As such, APM did not mount a campaign in the manner described by (Larson 1977 p6). No formal professional formation process had been devised and the process adopted was opaque even to well-informed senior members. This tends to support the view that APM's professional formation efforts

> "*do not conform with traditional professionalization models*" (Hodgson et al. 2015 p747)

However, a number of actions were taken that had the effect of improving the professional standing of the occupation (see §4.3.1.2). Early actions were intended to improve operations and to present a more "professional" image. The later actions, it could be argued, were intended to result in the award of the Royal Charter and so could be contributing to professional formation. Board papers (APM 2004) make clear APM's intention for the occupation to be regarded as a profession and many of the actions taken contributed to both improving operations and to increasing professional formation.

APM has long had a code of conduct, was able to demonstrate that it has a credible body of knowledge enacted as an artefact (APM 2019a) and had made limited use of it. It used the BOK to underpin its credentialling system, or at least, to inform its competence framework, all of which is recognised as professional formation in the literature. They provided a copy of the BOK to the Privy Council as part of their Charter submission.

The identification of approaches and APM's enactment of its hybrid approach to professional formation meets the first objective. A process of has been identified which concluded in the award of a Royal Charter. Although informants claimed only limited use being made of the BOK in pursuit of its professional formation, the reality is somewhat different. As will be shown later (§6.3.2), the BOK contributed to key elements in APM's professional formation.

6.3.2 Objective 2 – Defining Areas of Interest

The second objective examined how formal Bodies of Knowledge are used by emergent professions to define/establish their area of interest. In the case of APM, this proved to be a critical factor in their professional formation

since project management had been claimed by a number of mainly engineering based professions. As Royal Charters are only awarded to "unique professions" (Privy Council 2019), establishing ownership is critical. Such ownership is closely associated with jurisdiction (§5.3) and the general approach to jurisdictional claims explained (§5.3.1). No single action generates an occupational jurisdiction and APM's approach was found to consist of enlisting the support of what they called Like Minded Organisations (LMOs).

APM achieved differentiation by means of two key claims. The first, that project management exists as an identifiable occupation, separate from general management and domain management. This claim was based on growth of the discipline and the strengthening of its jurisdictional boundary through expansion into new specialisations such as the management of multiple projects, programme and portfolio management. The second claim is the strategic positioning of boundaries in a manner that did not threaten the jurisdiction of other institutions that make use of project management as part of their delivery. The first of these claims was supported by the credentialling system which is founded on codified knowledge but also entails demonstrations of practical competence. In APM's case, this is the BOK. The second aspect was the positioning of the occupational boundary to allow APM to claim that they did not threaten other, existing, professional jurisdictions. This was achieved in part by skilful development of the BOK which has consistently excluded domain specific knowledge. Jurisdiction was found to be critical in achieving recognition because it presents the professional product to the marketplace, dictates the knowledge requirements and has links to important aspects of professional formation, including credentialling. Jurisdiction is affected by knowledge derived from practice. In some cases, but not APM, jurisdiction is used to determine control over practitioners through credentialling or to set entry and educational requirements.

It seems unlikely that other occupations would be able to follow precisely the process utilised by APM to establish their jurisdiction. In part this is because no conscious plan was constructed and in part because APM required to become more "business-like" before they could become

"professional-like". This is consistent with Millerson's (1964) view that each profession adopts a unique approach to its formation but taking Larson's point (Larson 1977) that not all actions are visible, APM's actions, taken in the round, do equate to formal professional formation. Whatever process employed, it is necessary for an emergent profession to achieve the major steps identified under this objective. The identification of APM's action to achieve professional formation satisfies Objective 2.

6.3.3 Objective 3 – Nature of the formal Body of Knowledge

The third objective, identifying nature of the formal Body of Knowledge employed by the membership association is aimed at reconciling the interplay between explicit and tacit knowledge. The distinction between everyday knowledge and professional knowledge was identified and the link between professional knowledge and jurisdictional claims in emergent occupations noted (§5.4). As noted previously, project management is conducted by many other professions. Each of these other professions delivers projects in the context of their own domain and so this raises the issue of the separation of specialised knowledge; how much is generic project management and how much is domain specific and therefore could be seen to encroach on the domain claimed by other institutions.

APM overcame this problem in the construction of its BOK, which carefully and deliberately avoided the inclusion of domain specific detail. This had two effects: first, it reduced the likelihood of jurisdictional clashes and second, it enabled APM to gain support from LMOs which was needed to meet the requirements of the Privy Council for the award of a Royal Charter.

Exclusion of domain specific material allowed APM to demonstrate their jurisdictional limits in a non-threatening manner. This reduced the likelihood of jurisdictional confrontation by allowing other institutions to claim primacy in delivery within their domains but left APM able to claim overarching mastery of the complete field and thus able to provide an integrated knowledge base that was aimed at helping transfer knowledge between sectors. This played a significant part as Government was taking a close interest in project management, partly in reaction to Prime Minister

Tony Blair's attempts to reform the civil service (Blair 1999) which included a strong emphasis on project management, and partly from a recognition that Government delivery of major projects and programmes needed significant improvement (Bourn 1999).

Informants saw this setting out of the scope of the PM field, effectively saying "this is what we do". This enables a formal BOK to be developed as "this is what we use to do it" but leaves the domain specific aspects as context. This enables limits to be set in both training and education of practitioners. Although the use of the BOK as a mechanism of professional formation did not feature in any plan, it played an important part that eventually led to recognition. This outline of the nature of knowledge represented by the BOK satisfies Objective 3.

6.3.4 Objective 4 – Stakeholders and their Needs

This objective sought to identify BOK Stakeholders and their stated needs in terms of professional formation in order to understand how a BOK meets the needs of its stakeholders. In the context of this research, stakeholders were taken to mean the constituencies identified in §3.3.5 who are all internal to APM or have close links to various versions of APM's formal BOK. There are, however, other stakeholders such as users of project management, employers, trainers and the like and they were not directly consulted on the grounds that their interests were subsumed within the constituencies selected.

It became clear from informant responses that each of the four constituencies identified had differing needs and not all were related to professional formation. These multiple needs can lead to complications so far as the use of the BOK and its development are concerned since reconciling differing stakeholder requirements can be problematic. The needs of these multiple stakeholders also limit the way APM can use the BOK for policy purposes since the commercial needs of one group, such as the training and education lobby, may conflict with other priorities such as maintaining the credibility of credentialing and reacting to rapid changes in practice such as the emergence of "Agile" project management.

In such circumstances, the formal BOK requires some form of specification, or at least an approved institutional view in order to help reconcile divergent views. However, during the period under consideration (2004 – 2017), there is no indication that any form of specification had been devised before plans for BOK 7 were briefed to the Board of Trustees (Walkinshaw and Dore 2017), and then the specification only covered production matters which left lead developers to make their own judgements on boundaries, topic coverage and depth of description.

Another multiple use aspect involves the target market for the BOK. While the needs of each constituency may have been appreciated, there is also the issue of segmentation within each group of users. The needs of the novice are very different to those of the expert and it is not clear that this has been considered. This may be the cause of dissatisfaction with some taking the view that the content is “thin” and atheoretical, leading to credibility issues. Despite these potential shortcomings, sales of the BOK indicate a degree of satisfaction with the BOK and the differing levels of need catered for by additional specialist publications.

This evaluation shows that the needs of the major stakeholder groups have been met and that both individuals and corporate members continue to use the BOK. Objective 4 is satisfied.

6.3.5 Objective 5 – Stakeholder Use of the BOK

The final objective seek to identify how the formal BOK is used by stakeholders to meet the needs of professional formation. This was achieved by relating the expectations of the main constituencies exerting pressure for professional formation, those internal to APM and those who might be considered “above” (§5.5). This enabled an assessment of contributions to professional formation (§5.6). Abstracting the informant groups into these broader categories enables the specifics of a single emergent profession to be expanded into a more generic order.

Responses from practitioner and academic informants showed that their use of the BOK followed what might be called traditional uses for the BOK. They saw it mainly as underpinning the credentialling system as a guide to what might be included in training and education. Some

practitioners saw the BOK as a partial reference but neither informant group related these views to professional formation.

BOK Developers seem to relate their product to practitioner development, credentialling and education although some viewed the BOK as an informative tool to position the occupation in the public view. The Policy Team saw broader uses for the BOK and although they made no claims for its use in professional development, their responses clearly indicated that they made use of it as an instrument of policy. This manifested itself in the way the BOK was used to position APM in its jurisdiction.

There are, however, other ways to view the contribution the BOK makes to professional formation. It is clear from the responses of some of the Policy Team that the increasingly important role of the Competence Framework builds on the BOK to determine scope for the various qualifications. This is significant because the credentialling system covers more than examination based certificates, thus providing space for "indetermination" (Jamous and Peloille 1970) or a recognition of tacit knowledge. The BOK also provides an important symbolic function in that it coalesces the intellectual basis for the profession (§5.6.1) while helping to build cognitive commonality. This latter may be viewed as the acceptable face of collegiality of profession since it demonstrates how the profession sees itself.

6.4 Achievements

This research examined project management in UK as a representative example of an emergent profession in order to explore how formal bodies of knowledge are used in the transformation of an occupation to a profession. Project management presents some issues, such as overlapping jurisdiction and conflicting knowledge claims, that may not be found in other cases of professional formation. However, APM overcame these difficulties and this may offer lessons for others.

This research responds to Freidson's claim (1994 p9) that "*professionals and their practice are changing*". Other recent scholars (e.g. Faulconbridge and Muzio 2012; Susskind and Susskind 2015; Reed 2018a)

have challenged the future of professions in what Hodgson and Muzio (2011 p115) calls "*an unlikely strategy in today's political economy*" but this research shows that some occupations retain a desire for recognition as a profession.

The results show that it is still possible to establish new occupation as a profession, or at least to become recognised by the Government as an "*eminent professional body*" representing "*a field of activity which is unique and not covered by other professional bodies*" (Privy Council 2019).

6.4.1 Achievement of the Research Aim

The aim was achieved through the review of policy documents and annual reports; 28 semi-structured interviews were undertaken to investigate how a formal body of knowledge was used by a specific emergent profession.

Five objectives were identified to meet the research aim. First, it was necessary to identify how membership associations approach their professional formation. Several approaches were identified from the literature and compared with that displayed by the selected membership association (APM). Identifying the approach was needed since this is dependent on the nature of the association and has implications for how the BOK can be used. Having identified the approach, the next step was to investigate how the association determined its area of interest, or in sociological terms, its jurisdiction. Jurisdiction is important since it determines the knowledge needed to support the occupation in its professional formation. The third objective, to understand nature of the formal BOK builds on Objective 2 by developing the scope of the occupational field, effectively saying "this is what we do". This enables a formal BOK to be developed as "this is what we use to do it".

As the literature indicates, professions are underpinned by expert knowledge. Expert knowledge in project management and some other new occupations is embodied in its BOK which in UK is enacted as an artefact. Project Management is not alone in adopting this approach and several other "new" occupations also have similar artefacts. While the role of knowledge in professions has been the subject of academic interest for many years, the role of formal BOKs, such that of APM, have received little

attention. This research addresses this gap and extends work led by Hodgson (Hodgson et al. 2015; Hodgson and Paton 2016) by developing an understanding of the BOK as an instrument of policy and its use in the transformation of an occupation into a profession.

Objective 1 identifies the approach to professional formation adopted by APM. It was found that there was no formal approach as such but the actions, which fell into two broad phases, the improvement in business efficiency and actions in pursuit of the Charter, equate to professional formation. The approach took on a more formal appearance in the pursuit of the Royal Charter. Despite the declared limited use of the BOK in this campaign, the research has shown that APM's BOK contributed to this project in several important ways (see §5.7.2).

A key requirement of a Royal Charter is pre-eminence in a "unique field" which equate to its jurisdiction. Objective 2 demonstrated how APM established its jurisdiction and the role played by the BOK in describing the it, establishing boundaries and removing potential challenges through use of the BOK (see §5.3.4). The Privy Council effectively accepted this jurisdiction when it recommended the award of the Charter.

One of project management's unique features is the overlap it has with other occupations which indicates possible duplication of expert knowledge. APM was able to demonstrate its interest was confined to project management, not the domain specific delivery. Objective 3 showed that this reinforced their jurisdictional claims and opened opportunities for support for the Charter application through skilful development of the BOK.

The findings relating to Objective 4 showed that the BOK is used in by stakeholder groups a number of stakeholders and they used it in different ways. While this is hardly surprising, it presents some difficulty for developers who need to balance content and presentation to achieve a document that is useful to the various category of user. Some needs may dominate, reducing utility and credibility. Catering for different levels of expertise can also cause difficulty, particularly where a range of job types exist within the occupation. To some extent, this can be offset by use of the competence framework but the relationship between the BOK and the competence framework has received little attention. The uses that emerged

from the analysis related to establishing jurisdiction, underpinning the credentialling system at both individual and institutional level and acting as a reference for practitioners. Further analysis linked to Objective 5 revealed additional uses as an instrument of policy to maintain jurisdictional claims and moderate relations with like-minded organisations.

The results and analysis have shown how knowledge has been used in a professional formation. While there was no formal project or conscious plan, the professional body carried out a number of actions that had the effect of professional formation. The achievement of the objectives discussed above demonstrates that the overall research aim has been achieved.

6.4.2 Fit with the Literature

Broadly, this research addressed two main strands in the literature. These are the literature on professional formation, which is extensive and the other concerns project management as an example of a new type of profession. These are described in Chapter 2. This section considers the extent to which the research reported here fits with this literature.

6.4.2.1 Professional Formation

This research investigated one specific aspect of professional formation so the conclusions reached generally do not contest existing literature. It is beyond dispute that knowledge is a fundamental aspect of profession. This is regarded as a commonplace in the literature and there is also extensive reporting on the nature of professional knowledge (see inter alia Freidson 2001; Faulconbridge 2015) but how this special knowledge is used has received little attention.

This research, in the main, agreed with the literature on professional formation, supporting credentialling and establishing boundaries as important aspects. However, the manner in which APM structured their BOK was unusual in that it allowed other occupations to “share” jurisdiction. This contrasts with more competitive views on jurisdiction (Abbott 1988, 1995; Boussard 2018). While this structuring of the BOK fits with recent

conceptualisations of professional formation, it is a significant departure from collegial style approaches (Millerson 1964; Harries-Jenkins 1970).

No formal approach to professional formation was identified from APM documentation and it seems unlikely that any plan was prepared other than the campaign road map for the Royal Charter (Association for Project Management 2004). This supports Larson's assertion (1977 p6) concerning the nature of professional formation that professional formation activities are frequently opaque to members of the professional association.

6.4.2.2 Professional Formation of Project Management

The literature citing the professional formation of project management is comparatively limited, confined to work by Hodgson(Hodgson 2007; Hodgson and Muzio 2011; Hodgson et al. 2015), critical theorists including (Cicmil et al. 2006; Paton et al. 2010) and the more traditional work of Morris (Morris and Empson 1998; Morris 2001; Morris et al. 2006a).

Morris et al address the role of the BOK (Morris et al. 2006a) as part of the EPSRC research project on new directions in project management (see International Journal of Project Management 2006 Volume 24 Issue 8). Their view simply stated specialist knowledge to be essential in achieving professional recognition but offered no perspective on how this knowledge might be applied. This work, by a distinguished team of researchers was conducted 20 years ago and did not anticipate new organisational forms or the challenges to the notion of professional formation. Moreover, the main thrust of the work concerned ownership of knowledge so while it was important, it did not contribute to understanding the role of the formal BOK.

Hodgson linked project management with corporate professionalism (Muzio et al. 2011) and other models of professionalism but again there was no detailed investigation of the role played by the BOK. Hodgson's more recent work (2016) predates APM's Charter award and subsequent implementation so is unable to benefit from the more mature perspective that has developed in the five years since the award. This research does not support the ambivalence towards professional formation reported by Hodgson Hodgson et al. (2015 pp750-1); rather it reports that the award of the Charter tends to be perceived as an end in itself rather than a mark of

recognition and part of an on-going process, despite the comments of the APM Chairman (Boyce 2010 p82).

Informants in this research appeared to take it for granted that project management is a profession, which may account for the view of Charter as an end point since it marks formal recognition. These informants seemed to agree with Hodgson et al. (2015) that the Charter

> *"…represents the highest form of UK state recognition for an occupation and would symbolically place project management on the same level as established professions such as accountancy and engineering"* (p751)

Despite this, practitioner and academics alike still felt they lack recognition at the individual level.

6.5 Contribution to knowledge

As noted above, there are several recent studies of the professional formation of project management, mostly mentioning the centrality of specialist knowledge but little if any investigation of the contribution that the BOK makes to the complex process of achieving professional recognition. The research reported here addresses this gap by identifying the nature of that contribution and illustrating it with specific examples.

Although it is well known that bodies of knowledge provide boundaries and enable credentialling schemes to be developed, this research shows that there are other uses that are central to professional formation and contribute to recognition. APM adopted an unusual approach to defining its jurisdiction through the construction of its BOK. By the deliberate omission of domain specific (e.g., engineering) material, it preserved its own jurisdiction, demonstrated a specialist and exclusive knowledge and enlisted support that was to pay dividends during the pursuit of their Royal Charter. Significantly, that contrasts with the literature on jurisdiction and may point the way for other emergent professions, particularly those categorised as part of the knowledge economy. This strengthening of jurisdiction by eliminating boundary disputes at the institutional level may eventually lead to improvement in the collective mobility of project management by providing alternative career paths. This

identification of a new interpretation of a well-understood device contributes to knowledge of professional formation and also to jurisdiction in the developing field of corporate professions.

This research also identifies the BOK as a tool with significant potential for use in policy setting. Such use includes informing commercial decision making (e.g., developing publications supporting aspects of the BOK) and accreditation policy. APM achieved this by redefining its credentials at the individual level and developed accreditation of both corporate professional development and academic courses. This identification is new to scholarship and thus is a contribution to knowledge.

It can therefore be concluded that APM's BOK made a significant contribution to the professional formation of project management, an example of an emergent occupation.

6.6 Opportunities for Further Research

This qualitative study is based on 28 interviews from four categories of informant from a single occupation in a single country. The research design was exploratory so it is not expected that any generalisation would be possible but opportunities for further research were generated. Further research can be classified in two principal dimensions: methodological and specific issues but all possibilities are hindered by the lack of definition inherent in the study of professions. This limits the utility of comparative studies of occupations engaged in professional formation and between occupations in different countries. Despite this limitation, further research opportunities are available.

6.6.1 Methodological Extensions

Methodologically, this research adopted a qualitative design using a form of case research with a single occupation as the exemplar and data gathering though an interview survey. An alternative methodology might employ a quantitative based approach, perhaps employing a questionnaire survey. A quantitative approach might be suited to investigate additional stakeholder groups such as employers, training companies and higher education establishments. Similarly, a quantitative strategy could involve greater

numbers of professional association members and academics which might improve generalisability.

This study focused on an occupation in UK but much of the sociological work on professions has taken place in USA. Given the significant differences between UK and US social and legal environments, comparative studies of similar occupations, such studies would be limited to understand the significance of bodies of knowledge in different work environments. The legal differences between UK and Europe would offer similar opportunities. Such studies would offer useful comparisons with this research and the current literature but would offer little opportunity to generalise.

6.6.2 Addressing Specific Issues

As Freidson famously (2001) stated more than 20 years ago, "*professionals and their practice are changing*" but he did not anticipate the major attitudinal change that is currently seen in young people. Professional societies are already investigating how the attitudes of Generations X, Y and Z are likely to impact on their operations and it would be prudent to include investigation of how these generations view knowledge, especially as society seems to have moved into a "post truth" era. This should be a high priority since the ability of clients to trust the expert knowledge of practitioners is fundamental to the professions.

The transnational nature of professional services such as project management challenge traditional views concerning jurisdiction and cultural limitations. This opens opportunities for further research in professional formation, particularly from a knowledge perspective. Comparative studies of occupations that have successfully moved into transnational arenas such as medicine, law and accountancy, could inform emergent occupations of potential issues and approaches to overcoming them as they pursue professional formation.

In recent years, the trend in scholarly investigation of professional formation has been firmly away from what might be termed their traditional forms. Despite this, and changing attitudes to profession emanating from younger generations, professional associations tend to be Collegial, Organisational or Entrepreneurial. Combining output from the generational

studies recommended above with studies to determine whether the BOK artefact still supports these forms offers an interesting avenue for sociologists.

Some credentialling systems employed by new professions are based on competence, what the practitioner can actually do, rather than examination based qualifications based on formal knowledge. These qualifications are based on a competence framework and the links between that and the BOK are far from clear. For those occupations that rely on competence assessment, investigating this relationship should be a priority, if only to reduce overlapping and possibly nugatory work.

6.7 Reflective Review

This section reflects on personal experience as a researcher and also provides a view of the how the study was conducted. The original motivation for this research was two fold: first, to make sense of personal experience with BOKs which could make a contribution to the sociology of professions; and second, to inform personal academic practice supporting student research projects.

The return to study proved to be a very enlightening experience since it highlighted many of the issues that other, much younger, students endure and so this has had an impact on personal understanding and will certainly impact on personal academic support practice. The return to study also presented opportunities to engage with new approaches to traditional techniques such as literature searching and new tools such as specialised databases (e.g. NVivo and EndNote) which provided valuable experience to pass on to students.

The initial research design envisaged data gathering from senior members of two membership associations actively pursuing professional formation. One association is based in USA while the other is UK based. Although contextual differences were expected, it was only on reflexive review of initial coding that it became clear that these contextual differences undermined the effectiveness of the data. The nature of a profession remains, despite many decades of academic investigation, subject to conjecture and lacking in any real definition. As a result, the non-UK

interviews were rejected. All was not lost as the reflexive review also identified a missing stakeholder group so the informant frame was extended and additional interviews were conducted.

Research interviewing proved to be an enjoyable experience but was not without its problems. The process was based semi-structured interviews informed by an interview brief. The brief ensured uniformity of coverage but particular care was needed to avoid potential interviewer biases. The result was interviews that tended to be much longer than anticipated as informants were allowed more opportunity to expand their responses. On the positive side, this ensured bias was minimised and the results of each interview were rich in detail.

6.8 Closing Remarks

It seems unlikely that anyone at APM contemplated professional formation or devised a plan to do so until the campaign to achieve the Royal Charter began. Nevertheless, the early actions contributed significantly to the process and the BOK played a significant part in that work by encouraging cognitive commonality as well as providing the underlying rationale for qualifications. Later actions, geared to achieving recognition by means of the Royal Charter, were more formal and stand as proxy for the professional formation. Scholars have noted the successful transition achieved by APM but there are still questions to be answered, mainly about who judges when an occupation becomes a profession and on what basis. As matters stand, APM has achieved professional recognition from the UK government. Judgements about expertise can be made relatively objectively but how that is related to authority is highly subjective and an area where more work is needed. Whether expert occupations such as project management can ever achieve autonomy remains a challenge but its relevance remains in doubt.

Despite these unanswered questions, it can be seen from the results of this research that the BOK serves as a key aide in the transition from occupation to profession. Morris et al. (2000 p156) claim that the BOK is

> "…*the ontology of the profession; the set of words, relationships and meanings that describe the philosophy of project management.*"

But it is more than that. While this perspective clearly reflects the academic view of the BOK, it is limiting as this research shows. The BOK is a powerful policy instrument that evolves to reflect practice.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 – Acronyms and Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Meaning
APM	Association for Project Management
APM BOK	Association for Project Management Body of Knowledge
ATO	Accredited Training Organisation
BOK	Body of Knowledge
BSI	British Standards Institute
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
CPM	Critical Path Method
CRMP	Centre of Research in the Management of rojects
DoD	US Department of Defense
ENAA	Engineering Advancement Association of Japan
EPSRC	Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council
GAC	Project Management Institute Global Accreditation Center for Project management Programs
GMPP	Government Major Projects Portfolio
ICB	International Competence Baseline
IPA	Infrastructure and Projects Authority
IPMA	International Project Management Association
ISO	International Organisation for Standardisation
LMO	Like Minded Organisations
MPA	Major Projects Authority
NAO	National Audit Office
NHS	National Health service
P3M	Project, program and portfolio management
PAC	Public Accounts Committee (House of Commons Committee)

Abbreviation	Meaning
PM	Project Management
PMA	Project Management Association
PMAJ	Project Management Association of Japan
PMBOK®	Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge®
PMI	Project Management Institute
PSF	Professional Service Firm
RDMP	Research Data Management Plan
ROW	Rest of World
UCAS	University and College Admissions Service
UK	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
USA	United States of America

Appendix 2 – Glossary

Project – A unique, transient endeavour undertaken to achieve planned objectives (BSI).
Project Management – The application of processes, methods, knowledge, skills and experience to achieve objectives (BSI 2020).
Professional Project – The totality of actions undertaken by a Membership Association in pursuit of professional status.
Body of Knowledge – The unique knowledge claimed by an occupation. This may be formally recorded or may refer to the sum total of relevant knowledge. The latter typically incudes tacit knowledge.
Professional Formation – The process by which an organisation transforms in to a profession
Domain Knowledge – Knowledge specific to an occupational sector such as construction, Information Technology

The words project and project management have entered the language and many people have a basic grasp of their meaning. The common understanding seems to define a project as some special activity and includes expectations of reward and levels of performance. However, within the discipline, these terms have specific meanings and it is important to understand these. For the purpose of this work, the definitions used are those defined in PD ISO/TR 21506:2018 (BSI 2018) See above.

Project management can be applied to single and multiple projects: the term is used here to include programs (a group of related projects and change management activities that together achieve beneficial change for an organisation) and Portfolio Management (management of a group of an organisation's projects and programs) (APM 2019a).

The project definition is open to challenge since it is evident that the "unique" aspect has limited application. While acknowledging Heraclitus' famous encomium concerning stepping into rivers twice, if projects do not have significant similarity, it would not be possible to abstract general rules

for their management, nor would it be possible to construct a Body of Knowledge (BOK) or a body of knowledge.

Appendix 3 – Literature Review Process

Key Word Search – Profession

Initial Search

Modifiers	Hits	Remarks
None	15,100, 653	unmodified
Peer reviewed journals	3,193,262	
+NOT medical, health	1,714,635	Did not remove all medical related topics, e.g. nursing
+AND project management	6,206	
+full text	5,134	
+knowledge	1,163	
+BOK	156	All abstracts reviewed

Note: no date range modifiers

Follow Up (date range 2015 – 2021)

Modifiers	**Hits**	**Remarks**
None		Date range January 2015 – September 2021
Peer reviewed journals		
+NOT medical, health		
+AND project management	5,274	
+full text	3094	Academic journals only
+knowledge	1234	
+BOK	98	All titles reviewed

Key Word – Sociology + Professions

Initial Search

Modifiers	Hits	Remarks
Date range 2000 – 2015	2078	
Peer reviewed only	1,365	
+ England, UK, GB	245	All abstracts reviewed
+USA only	233	Unexpectedly low, all abstracts reviewed for Phase 1

Follow Up (date range 2015 – 2021)

Modifiers	Hits	Remarks
Date range 2015 – 2021	321	“Sociology of Professions”
Peer reviewed only	283	
+ England, UK, GB	44	All abstracts reviewed

Main books and pre 2000 papers identified using snowball approach

Key Word – Bod* of Knowledge

Key Word	Hits	Remarks
Date range 2000 – 2016	32,009	
+NOT medical, accounting, legal nursing	28,006	
+AND Project Management	701	Too many irrelevant titles so adjusted Key Word
Project Management	74,884	
Body of Knowledge	727	
Project+Management	653	
Body+of+Knowledge	629	

Follow Up (date range 2017 – 2021)

Key Word	Hits	Remarks
Date range 2017 – 2021	11665	
+NOT medical, accounting, legal nursing	10307	
Project Management	327	
Body+of+Knowledge	144	All inspected, no relevant papers found

Specific Journals Search

Journal	Hits	Remarks
International Journal of Project Management		Date Range 2017 – 2021
Body of Knowledge	88	All titles inspected, none relevant

Note:

1 All issues included.

Journal	Hits	Remarks
Project Management Journal		
Body of Knowledge	77	PMBOK not used
+NOT IJPM	38	

Note: recent PMI policy prevents submission of articles relating to Bodies of Knowledge. No new articles returned (PMI policy prevails)

Journal	Hits	Remarks
International Journal of Managing Projects in Business		Date range from Start – 2016
Body of Knowledge	15	
+NOT PMJ	15	

Follow up search covering period 2017 – 2021 produced 2 articles already identified through publisher alerts

Journal	Hits	Remarks
Journal of Occupations and Professions		Date range from Start - 2021
Body of Knowledge	3	All examined
Authority + Autonomy + Expertise	3	All examined

Note: 12 month embargo

Key Word – Professional + Knowledge

Key Word	Hits	Remarks
Date range 1980 – 2016	4,264	
Date range 2000 – 2016	4,127	
Review articles	19	All resulting abstracts reviewed
Academic journals only	3,695	+NOT medical etc Sampled only

Appendix 4 – Extant BOKs

The table below lists some research (shown as R) into BOKs in other occupational areas and a selection of published and proposed BOK (numbered).

#	Title & Description	Abbreviation
R	**Towards an International Event Management Body of Knowledge (EMBOK** **Authors:** Silvers, Julia Rutherford; Bowdin, Glenn A. J.; O'Toole, William J.; Nelson, Kathleen Beard **Source:** Event Management, Volume 9, Number 4, 2005, pp. 185-198(14) **Publisher:** Cognizant Communication Corporation **DOI:** https://doi.org/10.3727/152599506776771571	EMBOK
R	Corporate security: Using knowledge construction to define a practising body of knowledge DJ Brooks - Asian journal of criminology, 2013 - Springer Security is a multidimensional concept, with many meanings, practising domains, and heterogeneous occupations. Therefore, it is difficult to define security as a singular concept, although understanding may be achieved by its applied context in presenting a domicile …	
R	**Towards a distinctive body of knowledge for Information Systems experts: coding ISD process knowledge in two IS journals** Juhani Iivari , Rudy Hirschheim , Heinz K. Klein First published: 06 September 2004 **https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2575.2004.00177.x**	

#	Title & Description	Abbreviation
R	**A review of prior common body of knowledge (CBOK) studies in internal auditing and an overview of the global CBOK 2006** Mohammad J. Abdolmohammadi, Priscilla Burnaby, Susan Hass Managerial Auditing Journal ISSN: 0268-6902 Publication date: 1 October 2006 The 2006 global common body of knowledge (CBOK) study is part of an ongoing research program that will broaden the understanding of how internal auditing is practised throughout the world.	CBOK
R	**Evolution of a body of knowledge: An analysis of terrorism research** **Information Processing & Management** **Volume 33, Issue 1, January 1997, Pages 91-106** Edna O.F.Reid This study provides an analysis of the development of contemporary terrorism research in the United States. Using on-line bibliometrics, tracing and citation analysis, it explores how terrorism researchers interacted with other knowledge producers to shape the perception of terrorism.	
R	**Redefining Professional Knowledge in Athletic Training: Whose Knowledge Is It Anyway?** Patrick O. McKeon, PhD; Jennifer M. Medina McKeon, PhD; Paul R. Geisler, EdD, ATC *Athletic Training Education Journal* (2017) 12 (2): 95–105. https://doi.org/10.4085/120295	

#	Title & Description	Abbreviation
1	Software Cost Estimating BOK Nesma and ICEAA in cooperation with several international organizations and professionals in the software industry are working on the development a Software Cost Estimation Body of Knowledge (sCEBOK). This body of knowledge will contain relevant knowledge to fulfil the role of Software Cost Estimator and will be the basis for training and certification. https://nesma.org/scebok/	sCEBOK
2	Business Analysis BOK ***A Guide to the Business Analysis Body of Knowledge (BABOK® Guide)*** **is the standard for the practice of business analysis** and is for professionals who perform business analysis tasks. **Recognized globally as the standard of business analysis**, it guides business professionals within the six core knowledge areas, describing the skills, deliverables, and techniques that business analysis professionals require to achieve better business outcomes.	BIZBOK
3	Business Relationship Management BOK ATLANTA, Sept. 21, 2021 /PRNewswire-PRWeb/ -- **Business Relationship Management** Institute (BRM Institute), its new editorial team, and many volunteers from the single, global BRM community have spent many months revamping their extensive article library accessible to all **Business Relationship** Managers (BRMs) who are members of the Institute, and will reveal it during their annual conference, BRMConnect, on October 4, 2021. [ABSTRACT FROM PUBLISHER]	BRMBOK
4	Data Management BOK The **Data Management Body of Knowledge** (DAMA-DMBOK2) presents a comprehensive view of the challenges, complexities, and value effective data management. The second edition of DAMA International's Guide to the Data Management Body of Knowledge (DAMA-DMBOK2) updates DMBOK1	DMBOK

#	Title & Description	Abbreviation
5	Industrial Engineering BOK The book provides an updated collation of the body of knowledge of industrial and systems engineering. The handbook has been substantively expanded from the 36 seminal chapters in the first edition to 56 landmark chapters in the second edition	IEBOK
6	Software Engineering BOK The Guide to the Software Engineering Body of Knowledge (the SWEBOK Guide) provides generally accepted knowledge for the software engineering profession. Available as an ISO Standard	SWEBOK
7	Systems Engineering BOK The SEBOK provides a guide to the key knowledge sources and references of **systems engineering** organized and explained to assist a wide variety of individuals. It is a living product, accepting community input continuously, with regular refreshes and updates. SEBOK version 2.5 was released 15 October 2021	SEBOK
8	Software Engineering Education Body of knowledge Various versions including Software Engineering Education and Training (CSEET)	SEEK
9	Summary: Service Integration and Management (SIAM™) **Professional Body of Knowledge** (**BOK**), Second edition has been updated to reflect changes to the market and is the official guide for the EXIN S.	SIAMBOK
10	OHS BOK https://www.ohsbok.org.au/ Developed for the Australian OHS context but has international application. The OHS Body of Knowledge (OHS BOK) is the collective knowledge that should be shared by generalist OHS professionals to provide a sound basis for understanding the causation and control of work related fatality, injury, disease and ill health (FIDI) (From OHSBOK website)	

#	Title & Description	Abbreviation
11	**GIS&T Body of Knowledge!** This Body of Knowledge documents the domain of geographic information science and its associated technologies (GIS&T).. http://gistbok.ucgis.org/	
12	***The Interior Design Profession's Body of Knowledge and Its Relationship to People's Health, Safety and Welfare***. Based on research led by Denise A. Guerin, PhD, and Caren S. Martin, PhD and published by the Interior Design Educators Council and available from **https://idec.org/**	
Other Bodies of Knowledge are in development for occupations including Dance, Human Resource Development and New Product Development.		

Appendix 5 – Royal Charters 2000 - 2019

Year	Title	Category
2000	Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development	Profession
2000	The Royal Environmental Health Institute of Scotland	Profession
2001	Chartered Institution of Wastes Management	Profession
2001	The Institution of Incorporated Engineers	Profession
2001	Chartered Institution of Wastes Management	Profession
2002	Chartered Management Institute	Profession
2002	The Institution of Occupational Safety and Health	Profession
2003	The Science Council	Education
2004	Society for the Environment	Charity
2004	The Royal Photographic Society of Great Britain	Charity
2004	The Association for Science Education	Education
2004	The Arts and Humanities Research Council	Education
2004	The Worshipful Company of Engineers	Livery
2004	The Worshipful Company of Paviors	Livery
2005	The Duke of Edinburgh's Award	Charity
2005	The Worshipful Company of Water Conservators	Livery
2005	The Chartered Institute of Public Relations	Profession
2005	Chartered Institute of Architectural Technologists	Profession
2005	The Chartered Institute of Linguists	Profession
2005	The Institution of Engineering and Technology	Profession
2006	English Association	Charity
2006	The Historical Association	Charity
2006	Hugh's Hall Cambridge	Education
2006	The Chartered Quality Institute	Profession
2006	The Royal Institute of Navigation	Profession
2007	The Technology Strategy Board	Charity
2007	The Science and Technology Facilities Council	Education
2007	The Worshipful Company of Management Consultants	Livery
2007	The Worshipful Company of International Bankers	Livery
2007	The Chartered Institute of Educational Assessors	Profession
2007	The Society for Radiological Protection	Profession

Year	Title	Category
2007	The College of Emergency Medicine	Profession
2008	The Royal Society for Public Health	Charity
2008	The King's Fund	Charity
2008	The Worshipful Company of Chartered Secretaries and Administrators	Livery
2008	The Chartered Institute of Plumbing and Heating Engineering	Profession
2009	The Principal, Fellows and Scholars of Homerton College in the University of Cambridge Known as Homerton College	Education
2009	The Worshipful Company of Actuaries	Livery
2009	The Worshipful Company of Tax Advisers	Livery
2009	Worshipful Company of Security Professionals	Livery
2009	Chartered Institution of Civil Engineering Surveyors	Profession
2009	Chartered Institute for Securities & Investment	Profession
2009	The Chartered Institution of Highways and Transportation	Profession
2010	The Firefighters Memorial Trust	Charity
2010	The Worshipful Company of Constructors	Livery
2010	The Worshipful Company of Launderers	Livery
2010	Worshipful Company of Information Technologists	Livery
2010	The Worshipful Company of Marketors	Livery
2010	The Worshipful Company of Environmental Cleaners	Livery
2010	Chartered Institute of Internal Auditors	Profession
2010	The Chartered Institute of Payroll Professionals	Profession
2011	The Worshipful Company of Arbitrators	Livery
2011	Worshipful Company of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales	Livery
2011	Chartered Institute for the Management of Sport and Physical Activity	Profession
2011	The Chartered Institute of Legal Executives	Profession
2011	Institution of Engineering Designers	Profession
2011	Oxford Centre for Islamic Studies	Education
2012	Marylebone Cricket Club	Charity

Year	Title	Category
2012	The College of Chiropractors	Education
2012	Worshipful Company of Builders' Merchants	Livery
2012	The Worshipful Company of Lightmongers	Livery
2012	The Association of Corporate Treasurers	Profession
2012	The British Occupational Hygiene Society	Profession
2012	Chartered Institute of Ecology and Environmental Management	Profession
2013	The Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom	Charity
2013	Worshipful Company of Furniture Makers	Livery
2013	The Worshipful Livery Company of Wales	Livery
2013	Worshipful Company of Hackney Carriage Drivers	Livery
2013	The Worshipful Company of Chartered Surveyors	Livery
2013	The Worshipful Company of World Traders	Livery
2013	Recognition Panel	Livery
2013	The Worshipful Company of Firefighters	Livery
2013	Honourable Company of Air Pilots	Livery
2013	Chartered Association of Building Engineers	Profession
2013	The Chartered Institute of Horticulture	Profession
2013	The Chartered Society of Forensic Sciences	Profession
2014	Chartered Trading Standards Institute	Education
2014	The Chartered Association of Business Schools	Education
2014	The Worshipful Company of Fuellers	Livery
2014	The Chartered Institute for Archaeologists	Profession
2014	Chartered Institute of Ergonomics and Human Factors	Profession
2014	Chartered Institute of Credit Management	Profession
2015	The Chartered Institution for Further Education	Education
2015	Learned Society of Wales	Education
2015	The Worshipful Company of Insurers	Livery
2015	The Institute of Practitioners in Advertising	Profession
2016	The Chartered Institute of Trademark Attorneys	Profession
2016	Association for Project Management	Profession
2017	National Citizen Service Trust	Charity

Year	Title	Category
2017	Worshipful Company of Educators	Charity
2017	Police Roll of Honour Trust	Charity
2018	Worshipful Company of Art Scholars	Livery
2018	The Chartered Institute of Information Security	Profession
2019	The Worshipful Company of Chartered Architects	Livery
2019	Academy of Medical Sciences	Profession
2019	Chartered Institute of Editing and Proofreading	Profession

Appendix 6 – Informant Summary

Stakeholder Frame

Stakeholder	Characteristics
Academic	Experience as PM course leader, preferably at Master's level. Profile should include any or all of course design, research or participation in APM accreditation, education group or relevant editorial panels.
BOK Developer	Leadership experience in any of the updates APM's BOK or editorial review team (drafting is covered by volunteers, mainly Practitioners, noting that this may include Academics as well)
Practitioner	Experienced PM, possibly Fellow of APM. Range of sectors. Experience with any or all of the following preferred: • Participation in APM Specific Interest Groups (SIGs) • Contributor to BOK update drafting;
Policy Team	Experience in setting APM policy making, covering any or all of the following: • Overall strategy (e.g. design of Royal Charter campaign; • Standards development; • Credentialing and/or Certification; • Continuing Professional Development; • Main policy document requirements (e.g. for BOK, Competence Framework).

Informant Profiles

#	ID	Profile
1	Prac 1	Founder & Committee member APM Knowledge Management SIG. PM in scientific environment and consultant to several large technical firms. Science & technology background. Also major contribution to BOK 7 development.
2	AC1	Senior Academic in Business School. Originally IT practitioner, designed new MSc in Project Management (PM) at different Universities, taught MSc PM. Recently awarded PhD for research in professional aspects of PM.

#	ID	Profile
3	BOK 4	Ex-APM employee, responsible for educational aspects and certification processes. Originator of APM Competence Framework, part of oversight team for APM BOK 5 development.
4	POL 1	APM Employee responsible for knowledge management, employed throughout Charter campaign and marketing aspects of BOK 5, Chartered member Inst of Marketing.
5	POL 3	APM employee, responsible for education and life-long learning. Recent hire but has knowledge of current practices and integration of CPD into qualification system.
6	BOK 2	Professor, Academic Editor APM BOK 7, founder of National Centre for PM. Academic with wide editorial experience of journals & extensive teaching & Course design experience.
7	BOK 1	Emeritus Professor of PM, commissioned by APM to carry out research into formal BOK and principal author of APM BOKs 1 – 4. Principal Investigator EPSRC Research Programme, extensive research and publishing profile.
8	POL 4	Ex-APM employee with extensive experience of early work on APM's campaign for a Royal Charter including assembling submission to Privy Council.
9	BOK 3	Editor and main author of latest APM BOK. Practical PM experience in engineering, PhD research on PM processes.
10	POL 2	Ex APM employee responsible for strategy formulation and implementation at highest level during the relevant period. Responsible for detailed submissions to Privy Council (only part of workload) from initial investigation to final award.
11	POL 5	APM Employee responsible for follow up on Royal Charter, integration of business as usual with changes needed after Charter award. Responsibilities include ensuring APM policies comply with Privy Council requirements.
12	Prac 5	PM Consultant with extensive experience of knowledge transfer. Specialist in project governance. Numerous assignments for World Bank and OECD. Acted in key executive role for APM prior to Charter campaign. Engineering background.

#	ID	Profile
13	POL6	APM employee responsible for certification systems and related standards. Currently working on new Competence Framework to support revised qualifications offered.
14	AC 2	Senior academic with extensive experience in accreditation (AACSB), long experience in operations & project management and risk analysis. Emeritus Prof, lately Dean of a UK Business School. Significant publishing record, mainly on risk and engineering
15	AC 3	Senior academic in Management School, manages MSc in aspects of PM and BSc planning. Recent PhD centred on PM lived experience. Background in IT.
16	Prac 6	Value Management expert, recent PhD on PM, wide experience of projects in small and medium sized enterprises. Some experience of developing national standards for BSI. Background in commerce.
17	Prac 7	Significant PM experience before moving into development of PM methodologies and certifications. Specialist in project controls. BSI committee on PM.
18	Prac 9	Director of well-known PM consultancy responsible for project and programme management. Fellow of APM. Construction background.
19	AC 5	Engineering background, founding member of Engineering PM Academy (Leeds University) Prof of Innovation management. Significant research and publication profile.
20	POL 7	APM Board 2007 – 2020, closely involved with Board activity on Royal Charter. Multi-sector background, most recently science & technology related to construction.
21	AC 4	Course leader and designer of MSc PM courses (one on IT, another Engineering). PhD on Knowledge in PM. Background in IT.
22	Prac 2*	UK Practitioner, mainly construction and media. Well known author of short starter books on PM. Experienced in professional society leadership, held major leadership positions in APM.
23	Prac 3*	Experienced practitioner with significant international experience, Cabinet Office PM development team and some experience in developing BS standards on PM. Cross sector consulting experience.

#	ID	Profile
24	AC 5*	Lately Academic and PM Course Director, developed several new MSc courses in PM. Extensive practitioner experience in UK and USA in Information systems. Also key contributor to BOK 7 development
25	Prac 8*	UK PMO expert, well known author. Extensive experience in standards development (ISO & BSI). Strong Systems background, Cabinet Office Consultant and Ex Head of Projects for major telecom firm. Multi-sector experience.
26	Prac 10*	Ex MOD, head of PM profession, currently COO IT project management firm, experienced National Standards developer. IT background
27	Prac 4*	Practitioner with wide experience of engineering and technical projects. Significant roles held at major Government scientific centres. Also acts as MSc Supervisor
28	AC 6	Lecturer in Organisational Studies at West Country University, researching bodies of knowledge in a naval environment.

Key

Symbol	Meaning
#	Interview Number
*	Phase 1 interview
AC	Academic Set
BOK	Body of Knowledge Developer Set
Prac	Practitioner Set
POL	Policy Set

Appendix 7 – Transcription Protocol

Transcription Protocol

1 Data Handling [Researcher]

Record interview using Zoom or where Zoom not possible, using Skype and Digital Voice Recorder (DVR).

Check recording is complete (on laptop).

Copy Zoom interview (C:\ drive) directory to back up drive (E:\ drive)

Transfer DVR (WAV) file to Laptop (C:\ drive)

Rename Zoom Directory on Laptop

Back up original directory (or WAV File) from Laptop to External Drive

2 Transcription Brief [for Secretarial Service]

Brief secretarial service on abstraction rules:

Clearly identify who is speaking (Interviewer in bold, Respondent normal)

Show pauses or interruptions in [square brackets] with reason if known

Do not alter language used (i.e. omit punctuation, no grammar corrections)

Where the recording is indistinct, say so [in brackets]

Do not attempt to expand abbreviations (done by Interviewer in review)

Add page numbers at foot of each page (e.g. 1 of 5)

Leave blank line after each block of text

Data handling

Documents to be sent using WeTransfer (with password)

Return transcripts via email but password protect MS Word Files

3 Process [Researcher]

On completion of interview:

Check recording for audibility and rename (for Zoom interviews Interview #.m4a; for DR recordings Interview #.wav).

Copy directory (or WAV file) from C:\ drive to OneDrive (interview back up folder)

Send renamed file to transcription service using WeTransfer (with password).

Update control spreadsheet

On receipt of transcript;

Rename transcript file to identify interview.

Add Header Box to code identify and role, add page numbers and adjust margins.

Copy file to Transcript directories (OneDrive, C:|\ drive and Back up drive.

Offer copy of transcript to Informant, requesting any changes to be made using Track Changes.

Update control spreadsheet.

Once respondent has returned transcription, check transcript against original recording against the mp4 file in the Zoom Directory:

Use Track Changes for any edits

correct any errors found, remove any identifying material, expand abbreviations if needed, etc.

Add Header Box to code identify and role, add page numbers and adjust margins.

Save corrected file in Transcripts/2 – Tracked directory

Save corrected file with no tracked changes showing as pdf in Transcripts/3 – Coded directory.

Copy files to back up directories and back up to external drive.

Check control spreadsheet for any updates needed.

3 Ethical Aspects

Offer transcription to respondents, register amendments from Respondents.

Adjust transcript (if necessary).

Ensure control spreadsheet is up to date.

4 Physical File Directories Maintained

No	Name	Content
1	Consent Forms	Signed forms (with names) or email agreement
2	Coding Sheets	Anonymised
3	Transcripts	Print out of transcribed file
3a	1 - Original	As recorded

No	Name	Content
3b	2 - Tracked	With informant details, any changes either by Informant or Researcher
4	Code Book	Code List, First cycle summary, Theming summary, second cycle summary by theme extracted from NVivo

Appendix 8 – The Association for Project Management

A group of individuals interested in network analysis attending an expert seminar in Zürich in 1971 organised by INTERNET, a group of mainly European engineers, decided that a UK branch was needed. In May the following year, INTERNET (UK) was formally launched by a group of 78 enthusiasts at an inaugural meeting at the Royal Society of Arts in London. This group represented organisations ranging from major companies including British Steel, British Rail, Marconi Space and Defence, Honeywell, Taylor Woodrow and Government agencies such as the United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority. INTERNET brought together those interested in the application of network planning techniques to project planning.

INTERNET (UK) was established to exchange information concerning network techniques but quickly expanded its interests to project management more broadly. Its first President, Professor Geoffrey Trimble, had been looking to see how network analysis could be spread across the British construction industry and was working with several founding members of INTERNET (UK). He saw the fledgling organisation as a likely way to interest construction companies and others involved with projects. His courses at Loughborough had attracted considerable interest from a variety of large companies from many industry sectors. Other universities, notably Birmingham, Bradford and Herriot Watt, established similar courses and called on Prof Trimble for advice.

Early activities centred on monthly meetings where papers were presented and discussions ensued. The first seminar was held soon after INTERNET (UK) was established and was swiftly followed by the first publication, *Programs for Network Analysis*, and a newsletter, *The Bulletin*. INTERNET (UK) changed its name to the Association of Project Managers (APM) in 1975 when it registered as a company limited by guarantee. The name was changed to the Association for Project management to better reflect the nature of the occupation and recognise the wider range of roles.

APM has a long history of involvement in education and certification. It ran expert seminars, summer schools and short courses in its early years before it registered as a charity and then transferred course presentation to its trading arm (APM Group) and concentrated on credentialling activities. It offered its Certificated Project Manager qualification from 1991 until 2016, APM Practitioner from 1996 until 2019, and its Project Management Qualification

Figure 27 APM Qualifications

certificate from 2003. Its qualification scheme has been updated since it achieved Chartered status and now offers a clear route from new entrant to their highest qualification, the ChPP – Chartered Project Practitioner (https://www.apm.org.uk/qualifications-and-training/). It is also closely involved with Degree Apprenticeships and higher educational qualifications through its course and academic accreditation system (https://www.apm.org.uk/qualifications-and-training/accreditation/).

Supporting its credentialling activities, APM published it's first *Body of Knowledge* in 1991 and has updated and expanded it periodically. The first four editions were based on research carried out under the direction of Professor PWG Morris of UMIST and subsequent versions have been updated through practitioner based committees although these have been led by academic editors and some academics contributed to each edition. The latest (7th) edition was commissioned in 2017 and published 2019. The 8th edition is at the planning stage and due for publication by the end of 2022.

APM is a charity incorporated by Royal Charter. The Charter is the Association's constitution and was approved by Her Majesty the Queen on the advice of the Privy Council in October 2017. The charitable object of APM is advancing the science, theory and practice of project and programme management for the public benefit. It was originally governed by a Council comprising delegates from its Specific Interest Groups, Branch Chairs and deputies and 10 elected members. This Council was about 40 strong and had become unwieldy so a major governance review was undertaken in 2003 which resulted (in 2005) in the current governance structure of a Board of Trustees composed of up to nine elected trustees and up to three others (all non-APM Members) appointed by the Board.

The Council began to investigate the implications of an application for the grant of a Royal Charter in 1999, publishing *A road to Chartered* in early 2000. Further consultation and a strategic aim implying a Charter application was reported in 2004. Active work towards a formal application began in 2007. The application was finally submitted as a draft in May 2008 in order to:

- raise standards through a robustly assessed register of project professionals who are committed to professional development and a code of conduct;
- enhance the status and recognition of project management as a means of delivering effective change that improves our economy and society;
- facilitate continued collaboration and research with other professions to develop the practice and theory of delivering successful change across sectors and industries.

In July 2013 the Privy Council announced it was “minded to recommend” the grant to HM The Queen but legal objections were raised. Following a Judicial review that rejected all the grounds for objection, the matter went to appeal in 2015 but the objections were once more rejected. The Charter awarded was finally on 14 Oct 16 – to become effective 1 April 2017.

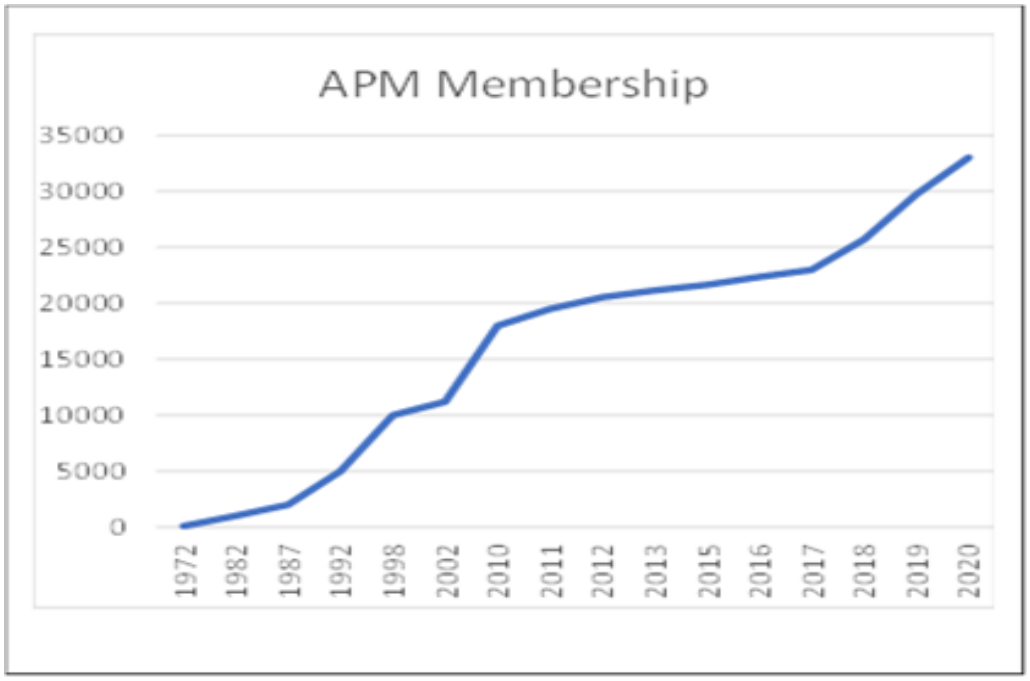


Figure 28 Membership Growth

APM can be seen as a professional body. It has a formal code of conduct, has a strong educational involvement and is committed to academic research. It currently has an annual turnover of about £10M, employs more than 100 people, has 11 Trustees and 730 volunteers supporting a membership of about 35,000 individual and 500 corporate members.

Appendix 9 – Information for Participants

Participant Information

Agreement Form

Bournemouth University

Participant Information Sheet

Bodies of Knowledge – the Case of Project Management

Invitation to take part

You are being invited to take part in a research project. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. If there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information, please contact me: my details are at the end of this briefing sheet.

The purpose of the project

The purpose of this research is to identify the role of bodies of knowledge (BOKs) in the process of the professional formation of new occupations. Although this research is concerned with BOKs in general, it is using Project Management as an example. The results should help understanding of the process of professional formation and should also assist in the development of the body of project management knowledge. This can be expected to improve the delivery of projects in all domains and will be of direct benefit to the Association for Project Management in the development of their Body of Knowledge. The research project is expected to be complete by August 2021.

Why have I been chosen?

I am seeking the views of practitioners and academics concerning the purpose, development, use and style of bodies of knowledge (BOKs). I am asking you to participate because you have played a part in either academic or practitioner aspects of knowledge development in Project Management.

Do I have to take part?

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a participant agreement form.

If you or any family member have an on-going relationship with BU or the research team, e.g. as a member of staff, as student or other service user, your decision on whether to take part (or continue to take part) will not affect this relationship in any way.

Can I change my mind about taking part?

Yes, you can stop participating in study activities at any time. You do not need to give a reason.

If I change my mind, what happens to my information?

After you decide to withdraw from the study, we will not collect any further information from or about you.

As regards information we have already collected before this point, your rights to access, change or move that information are limited. This is because we need to manage your information in specific ways in order for the research to be reliable and accurate. Further explanation about this is in the Personal Information section below.

What would taking part involve?

Taking part involves being interviewed on-line by me as the Principal Investigator. Interviews should not take more than an hour and will be audio recorded to ensure accuracy in transcription. No travel is required. Interviews take place at a time you agree. You will be offered a transcript of the interview.

What are the advantages and possible disadvantages or risks of taking part?

Whilst there are no immediate benefits to you from participating in this project, it is hoped that this work will enable a better understanding to be developed of the process of professional formation. This should assist professional bodies in the development of their BOKs.

We do not anticipate any risks to you in taking part in this study.

What type of information will be sought from me and why is the collection of this information relevant for achieving the research project's objectives?

You will be asked to give your views on a range of topics related to what the BOK represents, how it is used and the functions it is intended to fulfil. This information is intended to show how BOKs are used in support of professional formation of occupations and to indicate any improvement to their structure, design and use.

Will I be recorded, and how will the recorded media be used?

The interview will take place using the Zoom conferencing application. Interviews will be audio recorded in order to ensure accuracy. The recording of your interview will be transcribed, and the transcription used for analysis

and combined with results from other interviews. Information from the analysis may be used for illustration in conference presentations and lectures but you will not be identifiable in this use. No other use will be made of them without your written permission, and no one outside the project will be allowed access to the original recordings.

How will my information be managed?

Bournemouth University (BU) is the organisation with overall responsibility for this study and the Data Controller of your personal information, which means that we are responsible for looking after your information and using it appropriately. Research is a task that we perform in the public interest, as part of our core function as a university.

Undertaking this research study involves collecting information about you only to manage the administration of your interview. We manage this research data strictly in accordance with:

- Ethical requirements; and
- Current data protection laws. These laws control use of information about identifiable individuals, but do not apply to anonymous research data: "anonymous" means that we have either removed or not collected any pieces of data or links to other data which identify a specific person as the subject or source of a research result.

BU's Research Participant Privacy Notice sets out more information about how we fulfil our responsibilities as a data controller and about your rights as an individual under the data protection legislation. We ask you to read this Notice so that you can fully understand the basis on which we will process your personal information.

Research data will be used only for the purposes of the study or related uses identified in this Information Sheet. To safeguard your rights in relation to your personal information, we will use the minimum personally identifiable information possible and control access to that data as described below.

Publication

You will not be able to be identified in any external reports or publications about the research. Your information will only be included in these materials in an anonymous form, i.e. you will not be identifiable.

Security and access controls

BU will hold the information collected about you in hard copy in a secure location and on a BU password protected secure network where held electronically.

Personal information which has not been anonymised will be accessed and used only by appropriate, authorised individuals and when this is necessary for the purposes of the research. This may include giving access to BU staff or others responsible for monitoring and/or audit of the study, who need to ensure that the research is complying with applicable regulations.

Sharing your personal information with third parties

As well as BU supervisory staff and the BU student working on the research project, we may also need to share personal information in non-anonymised in order to comply with existing legislation.

Further use of your information

The information collected about you may be used in an anonymous form to support other research projects in the future and access to it in this form will not be restricted. It will not be possible for you to be identified from this data.

Keeping your information if you withdraw from the study

If you withdraw from active participation in the study, we will keep information which we have already collected from or about you, if this has on-going relevance or value to the study. This may include your personal identifiable information. As explained above, your legal rights to access, change, delete or move this information are limited as we need to manage your information in specific ways in order for the research to be reliable and accurate. However, if you have concerns about how this will affect you personally, you can raise these with the research team when you withdraw from the study.

You can find out more about your rights in relation to your data and how to raise queries or complaints in our Privacy Notice.

Retention of research data

Project governance documentation, including copies of signed participant agreements: we keep this documentation for a long period after completion of the research, so that we have records of how we conducted the research and who took part. The only personal information in this documentation will be your name and signature, and it will not be possible to link this to anonymised research results.

Research results:

As described above, during the course of the study we will anonymise the information we have collected about you as an individual. This means that

we will not hold your personal information in identifiable form after we have completed the research activities.

You can find more specific information about retention periods for personal information in our Privacy Notice.

We keep anonymised research data indefinitely, so that it can be used for other research as described above.

Contact for further information

If you have any questions or would like further information, please contact:

Research Team Leader Miles SHEPHERD (i7646496@bournemouth.ac.uk)

Tel 01722 341636 Mob 07709 490064

Research Supervisors Dr Gelareh Roushan (groushan@bournemouth.ac.uk)

Dr David Biggins (dbiggins@bournemouth.ac.uk)

In case of complaints

Any concerns about the study should be directed to Deputy Dean for Research and Professional Practice, Professor M. Silk, Bournemouth University by email to researchgovernance@bournemouth.ac.uk.

Finally

If you decide to take part, you will be given a copy of the information sheet and a participant agreement form to keep. Please contact the Research Team Leader to confirm your participation.

Thank you for considering taking part in this research project.

Bournemouth University

Participant Agreement Form

Full title of project: ("the Project") **Bodies of Knowledge – The Case of Project Management**

Name, position and contact details of researcher:

Miles SHEPHERD (i7646496@Bournemouth.ac.UK)

Telephone 01722 341636

Name, position and contact details of supervisor:

Dr Gelareh ROUSHAN (groushan@bournemouth.ac.uk)

Dr David Biggins (dbiggins@bournemouth.ac.uk)

Section A: Agreement to participate in the study

You should only agree to participate in the study if you agree with all of the statements in this table and accept that participating will involve the listed activities.

I have read and understood the Participant Information Sheet (i7646496 PI v3) and have been given access to the BU Research Participant Privacy Notice which sets out how we collect and use personal information (https://www1.bournemouth.ac.uk/about/governance/access-information/data-protection-privacy).
I have had an opportunity to ask questions.
I understand that my participation is voluntary. I can stop participating in research activities at any time without giving a reason and I am free to decline to answer any particular question(s).
I understand that taking part in the research will include the following activity/activities as part of the research:
• being audio recorded during the project
• my words may be quoted in publications, reports, web pages and other research outputs without using my real name or in such a way that might lead to my identification.
• my photograph will not be included in research outputs
I understand that, if I withdraw from the study, I will also be able to withdraw my data from further use in the study **except** where my data has been anonymised (as I cannot be identified).

I understand that my data may be included in an anonymised form within a dataset to be archived at BU's Online Research Data Repository.	
I understand that my data may be used in an anonymised form by the research team to support other research projects in the future, including future publications, reports or presentations.	
	Initial box to agree
I consent to take part in the project on the basis set out above (Section A)	

Appendix 10 – Ethics Approvals

Phase 1

Phase 2

Research Data Management Plan

Phase 1 Approval

Bournemouth University

Research Ethics Checklist

Reference Id	8041
Status	Approved
Date Approved	14/08/2017

Researcher Details

Name	Miles Shepherd
School	Business School
Status	Postgraduate Research (MRes, MPhil, PhD, DProf, DEng)
Course	Postgraduate Research - Business
Have you received external funding to support this research project?	No

Project Details

Title	PM Bodies of Knowledge
Proposed Start Date of Data Collection	14/08/2017
Proposed End Date of Project	29/09/2017
Supervisor	Roger Atkinson
Approver	Elvira Bolat

Summary - no more than 500 words (including detail on background methodology, sample, outcomes, etc.)

Phase 2 Approvals

Bournemouth University

Research Ethics Checklist

About Your Checklist	
Ethics ID	34720
Date Created	25/11/2020 17:04:01
Status	Approved
Date Approved	10/02/2021 10:30:37
Date Submitted	10/02/2021 09:31:11
Risk	Low

Researcher Details	
Name	Miles Shepherd
Faculty	BU Business School
Status	Postgraduate Research (MRes, MPhil, PhD, DProf, EngD, EdD)
Course	Postgraduate Research - BUBS
Have you received funding to support this research project?	No

Project Details	
Title	Bodies of Knowledge: The Case of Project Management
Start Date of Project	13/04/2018
End Date of Project	21/12/2021
Proposed Start Date of Data Collection	28/02/2021
Original Supervisor	Gelareh Roushan
Approver	Juliet Memery

Summary - no more than 500 words (including detail on background methodology, sample, outcomes, etc.)

Knowledge is widely accepted as the foundation of professions and a body of knowledge (BOK) is seen as an essential element in the processes of recognising an occupation as a profession. Despite its acknowledged significance, the role, structure and use of BOKs is largely ignored in the literature.

The purpose of this research is to determine how knowledge is used in professionalisation projects. It identifies how bodies of knowledge are used and why they are considered significant. This research focuses on contemporary British occupations seeking recognition as professions and draws on the processes used by the so-called major or learned professions to achieve their pre-eminent occupational status in the United Kingdom (UK). The research is based on a case study involving the Association for Project Management. Interviews were conducted with senior practitioners, Association Officers and academics involved with bodies of knowledge to build a picture of their BOK. This was then compared with an Ideal Type BOK developed from the sociology of professions. Significant difference were anticipated. These will be analysed to understand how this BOK was used to achieve professional status.

This research advances the understanding of the process of professionalisation. It will also assist professional associations to

Research Data management Plan

Project Title: The Role of Bodies of Knowledge in Professional projects

Data Collection

Types of data to be collected and used

Primary data is gathered from semi structured interviews which are recorded then transcribed. Data thus consists of the original audio files and anonymised transcript files. A list of informants and their affiliations will provide the index to the data.

File Formats

Data Type	Format	File Size	Quantity	Local total	Local Back up	Remote Back up	Note
Interviews	.WAV	500 Mb	30	15000 Mb	15000 Mb	15000 Mb	1
Transcripts	.RTF	30 Kb	30	1 Mb	1 Mb	1 Mb	2
Administrative	.DOCX	15 Kb	20	2 Mb	2 Mb	2 Mb	3

Table 1 Data Types

Notes:

1. Interviews consist of audio video recordings for each interview plus 2 back up files. Experience shows file size for a one-hour interview is approximately 500 Mb. Primary records are expected to be 15000 Mb and each back up set the same.

2. Individual Transcript file size is expected to be approximately 30 Kb so each set is expected to be about 1 Mb.

3. Administrative records consist of demographic and identification information e.g. list of informants and serial numbers. These data will be stored as .txt files of approximately 15 Kb each.

Data Storage and Transfer

Data consists of audio visual files collected using a laptop with secure password protected login by means of a local recording. When not in use, the laptop is stored in a locked filing cabinet. After each recording, the file

is backed up to an external Network Area Storage Device drive at the home office. This external drive is also stored in a locked filing cabinet when not in use. A further back-up file is copied to a remote BU Server. Storage and back up meet the requirements of the UK Data Service (https://www.ukdataservice.ac.uk/manage-data/store/security).

Recorded files are transferred to an external agency for transcription using a secure transfer application provided by Bournemouth University. Interviews contain no personal information, but the file name is linked to an identification list. The PI is responsible for all back up activity.

Anticipated file size and quantities are shown in Table 1.

Re-use of Previous Data

This research is unique and there is no available relevant data available. However, interview data in the form of transcripts and file identification table from an earlier phase of research collected under Ethics Checklist 8041 is available and may be re-used to inform the analysis. (including coded data files). All data is held by the PI.

Data Organisation

Data organisation is managed by use of plain language descriptive folder names. These folders cover recordings, transcripts, administrative documents and coding files. Individual file names also use plain language to allow easy retrieval. Transcribed interviews will use informant ID + suffix T for transcript or TA for anonymized transcript. The structure is consistent with guidance from the UK Data Service (https://www.ukdataservice.ac.uk/manage-data/format/organising.aspx).

Documentation & Metadata

Data are in narrative form so will only need appropriate software to access files. Study level documentation covering the purpose of data collection, method and time scale will be provided in a simple TXT file (the Interview Protocol). It is not planned to include recorded interviews or NVivo database. DOI provided on deposit in BORDaR.

Metadata standards and Tools

Not applicable

Data and Document Accuracy

Interviews will be conducted by one researcher using an interview protocol. Transcription is subject to a protocol to ensure consistent conventions are used. Transcriptions are verified against recordings by the PI.

Ethics & Legal Compliance

All parts of ethics clearance process have been completed, and documents including participant brief, agreement and interview protocol have been submitted and accepted.

Copyright and Intellectual Property Rights (IPR)

None of the data is subject to external copyright.

Storage & Backup

Data Storage and Back up

Stored on a laptop kept in a locked filing cabinet in PI's office - not on BU premises. Files are encrypted partition.

Back is carried out daily to Network Area Storage (NAS) device (encrypted drive) on site and weekly to BU H:/drive.t

Protection of Sensitive Data

Data kept on single laptop that requires user logon. Encrypted files also have controlled access. Local back-up to a Network Access Storage device encrypted and remote NAS both require logon to access.

Selection & Preservation

Data Deposit

1. Data will be deposited on BORDaR.
2. It is unlikely that the data would be re-useable as it is context sensitive. Analysed data, i.e. NVivo output might be useful to others but the results of the research should provide more useful material.
3. There is no funder and the nature of the research does not require legal retention or use as evidence unless examiners require this.
4. The value comes from the analysis, not the raw data .
5. The cost of storage probably outweighs the value.
6. The UK Data Service Data Value Checklist has been completed in respect of this project. It indicates that data are unlikely to be of sufficient importance for retention.

Data Preparation for Preservation and Access

So far as possible, recordings will contain no personal data and will be transferred verbatim to preserve the integrity of the data. These files will be transcribed to TXT files and checked for accuracy on return of each transcribed file.

Transcribed files are specifically checked for anonymity and cleaned in accordance with Data Cleaning protocol to prevent identification of informants. Cleaned data files are loaded into NVivo as part of analysis, checked visually then all interview files relating to each informant transferred to their own directory.

Data Storage Duration

Data Analysis will be retained for one year after completion of research project or as laid down by examiners. In the event that data is lodged on BORDaR, it will be stored for 10 years in accordance with University policies.

Data Sharing & Re-use

Shared data

Only interview transcripts and supporting files will be deposited in BORDaR. These are text files. Data analysis is performed using Computer Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) software. It is not proposed to retain analysis data beyond institutional requirements.

Data will be stored in the institutional repository and is shared under their access arrangements. Where data access is requested as a result of results sharing e.g. conference papers or journal articles, enquirers will be directed to the institutional open access repository. Sharing will require standard software to read the text files.

Access Restrictions

No restrictions are proposed for data stored under Institutional Open Access policies. No end user licensing requirements are imposed beyond institutional requirements.

Responsibilities & Resources

Responsibility for data management during the project

The PI is responsible for all aspects of data management. Transcription is performed externally and the agency will use a single transcriber who has experience of academic transcription. A non-disclosure agreement will be in place to help manage data privacy requirements.

Interview recordings are transferred using a BU licenced secure transfer application. Data management is included in the transcription brief and includes destruction of wav files and disposal of transcription masters.

Responsibility for data management after the project

Responsibility remains with the PI throughout. The only change in personnel occurs on completion of research project (Data is gathered to support PhD study). Residual data management responsibilities will be

transferred to Bournemouth University in accordance with institutional policy.

Resource Requirements

No additional resources will be needed. All data storage will be on existing hardware and filing systems so there is no additional cost. The workload is included in the project plan and does not impact on the deadline for completion.

Appendix 11 – Interview Brief

Section 1 – Introduction

Notes:

1. This is an indicative prompt list.
2. Follow on questions to encourage informants to expand responses may be needed

1.1 Personal introduction, thank participant for agreeing to interview.

1.2 Outline research objectives.

1.3 Reminder of Participation conditions including:

- consent and ability to withdraw;
- Anonymity aspects;
- Data management and security;
- Recording to ensure accuracy of transcription and to capture responses accurately;
- Data transcription;
- Data destruction.

1.4 Reminder that names not to be used once recording begins.

1.5 Begin recording (Point out screen indication)

Section 2 – Professional formation Process

Do you regard PM as a profession?

What factors make PM a profession?

Which factors are the most important for practitioners? Do you think professionalism is important to practitioners?

Do you think the same factors are important to academics?

Why are these factors important?

How does the BOK contribute to PM as a profession?

What ways do you think the BOK can be used? [guide to PM for individuals, or for organisations; certification basis, definition of profession etc]

Section 3 – Jurisdiction

What is the role of standards such as ISO or BS in PM?

Do you think the BOK captures sector specific practice?

What is your view of the role of the BOK in defining PM?

What purposes do you think the BOK can be used for?

Section 4 – Domain Knowledge

How does domain specific knowledge fit with the idea of a BOK?

Can PM knowledge be transferred between business sectors (e.g. construction to pharma)?

Is sector specific practice important?

Section 5 – Effectiveness

Do you think the current BOK affects how others see PM as an occupational area?

Is anything missing from the BOK?

Who uses the BOK in your organisation?

Section 6 – Users (Practitioners)

As a practitioner, do you use the BOK?

Does anything prevent you from using the BOK?

As a practitioner, how do you see BOK being developed?

How well do you think the BOK reflects practice?

What is the role of the academic in the development of the BOK?

How does theory affect the BOK?

Section 7 – Users (Academics)

How does the BOK contribute to your role as an academic?

What impact does the physical structure of the BOK have its usefulness?

How can the BOK be developed to be more convenient to use in an academic environment?

What is the role of the practitioner in BOK development?

How does theory affect the BOK?

Section 8 – Users (APM Key Players)

How was the BOK used in the process of seeking a Royal Charter?

As a key person in APM, do you use the BOK?

As a key person in APM, how do you see BOK being developed?

How well do you think the BOK reflects practice?

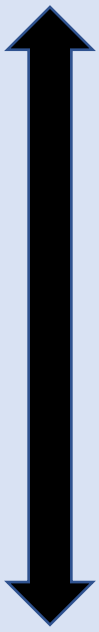
How do you think the BOK should be developed?

Appendix 12 – Six Stage Analysis

Six Stage Analysis Framework

Adapted for use with specialist software

Analytical Process	Actions in NVivo	Purpose	Iterative Processes
Familiarization with the data	**Phase 1** – Transcription, checking and multiple readings, noting potential initial codes, transfer data to CAQADS (NVivo)	**Data Management** (Open & hierarchical coding through NVivo)	Portray meaning by identifying concepts from the data.
Generate Initial Codes	**Phase 2** – Open Coding, coding interesting features in a systematic way across entire data set, collecting data relevant to each code		Refining and distilling concepts
Search for Themes	**Phase 3** – Code Categorisation – collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme		Assigning data to themes/concepts to portray meaning
Review Themes	**Phase 4** – Coding on – checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (level 1) and the entire data set (level 2), generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis		
Define & Name Themes	**Phase 5** – Data Reduction – On-going analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story [storylines] the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme	**Descriptive Accounts** *(Reordering, 'coding on' and annotating through NVIVO)*	Assigning meaning

Analytical Process	Actions in NVivo	Purpose	Iterative Processes
Produce Report	**Phase 6** –Generating Analytical Memos **Phase 7** – Testing and Validating **Phase 8** – Synthesising Analytical Memos. The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis	**Explanatory Accounts** *(Extrapolating deeper meaning, drafting summary statements and analytical memos through NVIVO)*	 Generating Themes

Developed from Braun & Clarke (2006)

Appendix 13 – CodeBook

Bodies of Knowledge

Nodes\\Stage 2 – Developing Categories

Name	Description	Files	Refs
BOK AS MEANS OF CONTROL	Contains links to use of the formal BOK as a means of control. Can include control of entry, control of practice and control of behaviour	14	55
Control of Entry	Use of BOK as means of controlling entry to profession either by establishing educational requirements, professional qualification or behavioural norms.	10	32
Control of Practice	References to BOK as means of control of practice. Includes links to codes of practice or ethical codes.	4	8
Control of title PM	References that indicate issues relating to the title Project Manager	3	4
Power	References to power of specific stakeholders, aspects that enforce control of aspects of PM including policy, commercial interests and the like	2	11
BOK IN USE	Describes how the BOK is used in real life situations, rather than theoretical uses. Expected that such uses will be made by Academics, Policy and Practitioners. Developers are not expected to use the BOK but there may be other users not listed.	26	246

Name	Description	Files	Refs
BOK as Standard	References to use of BOK as a standard. Includes formal standard, performance standard, level of expectation etc. Includes mis-use aspects such as normative nature.	15	36
BOK Uses	How BOK is used by various stakeholders. Includes stakeholder perceptions of use by themselves or how other stakeholders use BOK. Academic and Practitioner use covered elsewhere - this node refers to Organisational use (i.e. APM)	22	92
Comparison with other Professions	Use in preference to other BOKs or standards. Also how users think it compares in terms of usefulness, of effectiveness	3	3
Reassurance	How effective the BOK is in terms of reassuring users of their knowledge or abilities	4	4
Reference Document	As opposed to a Standard	10	12
Target Levels	Who the BOK is aimed at - should also link to Stratification	9	12
Used for credentialling	Uses in credentialling includes setting or assessing competencies, devising qualifications or membership grades.	6	7
Usefulness of BOK	Looks at how useful practitioners feel the BOK to be	10	13

Name	Description	Files	Refs
Use Academic	Contains references to how BOK is used in academia. Includes use for course design, research programmes. May also refer to limitations in use by academics.	8	24
Use Policy	References to how the BOK supports policy objectives	12	41
Use Practitioner	References to how practitioners employ the BOK. Includes how BOK affects Practitioners such as roles, tasks. [may need to be split to deal with uses observed from outside practice such as credentialing]. Includes how the BOK is actually used, rather than how it could or should be used. Mostly expected to cover how industry uses BOK	18	53
EDUCATION	Contains references to any form of credentialling, professional development or qualifications. Competencies are included.	24	153
Competence Framework	References to how competence framework fits with BOK, either as an artefact or a concept. Can refer to how stakeholders see competences in relation to profession, such as its part in expertise.	12	46
Credentialling	References to use of BOK in credentialling including relationship to competence frameworks, role descriptions or other means.	20	89

Name	Description	Files	Refs
Professional development	References to issues of how PMs can or should be developed. Could include supervision, support, behavioural matters.	8	18
JURISDICTION	Contains any reference to the use of the BOK to establish the jurisdiction of the profession. Follows Abbott's theories about boundaries and limits.	26	286
BOK Coverage	References to what the BOK contains, whether adequate, inadequate, omitted topics or opportunities to expand	15	42
Boundaries	References to boundaries, separation of occupations, overlap of function. Includes boundaries of occupation, interface with general management	25	105
BOK supporting jurisdiction	References to the BOK being used in establishing jurisdiction	2	2
Confusion over role	Comments about lack of understanding what PM is	1	2
Role expansion	references to the role of PM expanding, say, to include programme and / or portfolio	1	2
Overlaps	References to aspects of knowledge needed by PM as well as other occupational areas	10	21
Professional Knowledge	Knowledge specific to a profession or to PM. Includes limits to knowledge and limitations of practice.	7	9

Name	Description	Files	Refs
Sector Specific	Refers to need for specific BOKs related to particular occupational groups such as IT, Pharma, Construction etc.	16	52
Threats to Jurisdiction	Preliminary ideas on what threatens jurisdiction	3	4
Transferability	References to the ability of PMs to work in different sectors - seeing PM as a portable profession. Includes ability to reflect needs of different industry sectors.	15	53
PROFESSIONAL FORMATION	References to the process of professional formation of Project Management. Differences between PM and other occupations fits here. Note behaviour is excluded (see Jurisdiction and Control)	23	110
Behaviours	Descriptions of how affected stakeholder's behaviour. Needs some form of context to make understandable	7	13
Community	References to PM as a community, social or technical group	2	11
Ethics	References to ethical behaviour, ethical dilemmas and other aspects of "good" behaviour such as fairness, honesty and sustainability	11	26
Process	References to the process of professional formation	8	27
Stratification	References to various levels or job titles within PM such as Business Analyst and PMO specialists	15	33

Name	Description	Files	Refs
RECOGNITION	References to any aspect of recognising PM as a profession. Includes views of informants whether they recognise PM as a profession or not. Externally looks to the general public for recognition & how they see PM. Also occupation recognised by employers as well as other occupations. Requires occupation to be seen as separate from others. Thus covers recognition by whom, why and why not	26	221
Accidental	Any reference to PM as an "accidental profession" as Pinot & Kharbanda claimed	3	3
Barriers	References to barriers to PM being recognised as a profession. Includes issues raised by practitioners, particularly in terms of respect. Aspects of authority, autonomy and expertise are excluded (see Trilogy)	18	38
BOK Differences	Contains references by Informants to differences between various BOKS	5	6
By Public	Anything to do with Public recognition including barriers	5	9
By Stakeholders	Brings together how each stakeholder group sees professionalism in PM	4	7
Charter	Influence of Royal Charter on professional formation. Links to development of BOK and role BOK played in the application.	17	90

Name	Description	Files	Refs
Confidence in practitioner	Whether APM Charter inspires confidence in practitioners OR whether practitioners feel more confident that recognition is more likely OR that it raises the value others place on PM.	1	1
Lack of Understanding	Either practitioners do not understand the value of a Royal Charter OR any informant is unaware that APM has a Royal charter OR that individuals can become chartered.	3	4
Legal Recognition	References to the award of the Charter linking it to legal recognition qua Government acknowledgement of PM as profession	1	1
Links to BOK	Any notion that the BOK contributed to the successful pursuit of the Charter	2	2
Process	Any reference to the process of gaining the Royal Charter, the impact of any measure deemed to linked to the chartering process	4	13
Professional Identity	References to aspects of PM identity including first career choice, Seeing PM as distinct from sector employment.	14	34
View of Profession	References to how laymen view profession. Includes professions in general and PM in particular	14	34

Name	Description	Files	Refs
SPECIFICATION	References to essential content, design issues and limitations needed when developing a formal BOK	24	181
BOK Purpose	Contains references about the purpose of a BOK, what it is intended to achieve. Uses by stakeholder groups (Academic, BOK Developers, Policy and Practitioners) recorded separately but should be linked to this node.	22	96
Description of BOK	References to what a BOK consists of or is described. Not necessarily any specific BOK. Closely linked to Specification	13	36
General BOK	Defines BOK as non-organisation specific. i.e. not APM, PMI or other membership organisation specific	9	19
Presentation	References to how to present knowledge and the form the BOK as an artefact be represented.	7	13
Requirements	References to essential content of a BOK, links to uses but provides underlying reasons for inclusion in BOK	11	17

Name	Description	Files	Refs
STAKEHOLDER ISSUES	Matters raised as problems relating to the BOK either as a concept or to a specific BOK. Note that the aim here is to identify generic problems of the various stakeholder groups. Issues might include omission of topics, levels of detail, timeliness of review etc.	20	159
Academic Issues	References to problems encountered in academia, possible technical, theoretical or class based. Includes research aspects.	13	61
Policy Issues	References to any aspect of BOKS that impinges on APM policy, including conflicts of interest, risk aspects, Board conflicts. Includes role policy plays in BOK development.	17	56
Practitioner Issues	References to what practice needs from BOK, not necessarily what is missing but how they use it	9	28
Training Issues	References to training. impact of BOK on syllabi, what can be learned, tacit learning	7	14
TECHNICAL	References to coverage of theory, how the BOK is presented, how information is represented, updating and knowledge management issues.	22	113

Name	Description	Files	Refs
Knowledge Management	References to knowledge, various types of knowledge, how it is described, how it is or can be recorded, presentation of it, what knowledge means, how it differs from expertise.	16	50
Theory	References to theories in use in PM, not necessarily a single theory but what theory underpins PM. Application of theory in teaching or other uses	18	63
TRILOGY	References to Authority, Autonomy and Expertise - original analytic characteristics of profession	15	43
Authority	Ability of professionals to control their own work and that of others, Includes accountability.	12	22
Autonomy	References to ability to work independently - because of their knowledge?	6	9
Expertise	References to unique abilities, skill set and competence to perform work effectively	10	12

Appendix 14 – Coding Example

The following is an example of coding. In NVivo, codes are referred to as nodes and this example is a child node, part of the parent node EDUCATION. Text on screen is formatted but this has not carried over to this extract. Text in square brackets [like this] has been added by the researcher. Minor edits such as spelling are not identified. Explanatory notes have been added to assist readers who have not experienced NVivo.

Name: Credentialling

Description: References to use of BOK in credentialling including relationship to competence frameworks, role descriptions or other means.

<Files\\Phase 1 Interviews\\Academics\\Interview 24 - As Coded> - § 1 reference coded [0.28% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.28% Coverage

APM BOK is more of a syllabus that then points to further information in text and other

<Files\\Phase 1 Interviews\\Practitioners\\Interview 22 - As Coded> - § 1 reference coded [0.23% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.23% Coverage

We also want to test their experience and application of the body, you know, good practice

<Files\\Phase 1 Interviews\\Practitioners\\Interview 25 - As Coded> - § 6 references coded [2.50% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.28% Coverage

this is basis for assessment, whether it's of individuals but yes, because it's a curriculum isn't it.

Reference 2 - 0.30% Coverage

it's actually the quality of, they used to call them, pupillages in the old days. Training under agreement.

Reference 3 - 0.74% Coverage

they don’t even have the theoretical knowledge which is part of the extension for medicine and law and everything else like that. They are carrying on learning through their pupillage and the idea is to carry on learning throughout the rest of their professional career.

Reference 4 - 0.40% Coverage

all they’ve got from their degree as a grounding that shows they’re capable and competent and have the potential to become what they want to be.

Reference 5 - 0.48% Coverage

Yes. The body of knowledge would be the areas of course that this person should be good at. They don’t have to be brilliant at every bit of it. Certain bits of it would be core

Reference 6 - 0.31% Coverage

the APM BOK calls itself a body of knowledge which is really a curriculum that one should know in that profession

<Files\\Phase 1 Interviews\\Practitioners\\Interview 27 - As Coded> - § 4 references coded [2.56% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 1.42% Coverage

The other thing I would say as well before we move on is that there is a lot of things about, let’s talk about the UK, are you an RPP, have you got an MSC in PM which is going to enhance your career with this qualification and all the rest of it. In 40 years of doing this job, of hiring Project Managers and being hired, no one has ever asked me that question.

Reference 2 - 0.42% Coverage

No-one’s asked me £have you got a Master’s degree in PM, have you got this qualification or that qualification”

Reference 3 - 0.36% Coverage

they’re not worried if you’re following a BOK, you’re got and RPP, you’ve got qualifications

Reference 4 - 0.35% Coverage

there are a lot of people who would want to be a Certified Project Manager for the status.

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Academics\\Interview 14 - as Coded> - § 1 reference coded [0.21% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.21% Coverage

might help them pass exams and get some basic knowledge that they need

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Academics\\Interview 15 - as Coded> - § 2 references coded [2.77% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.66% Coverage

there is limited energy and focus and desire by the Institute of Apprenticeships to actually label a Level 7 and Masters level apprenticeship in project management

Reference 2 - 2.11% Coverage

I am going to have a huge number of project managers who are not yet chartered but hopefully are some way to being chartered so I think the way we can use the body of knowledge if we have got the right things in that body of knowledge is and the way that we can align that to a professional accreditation process if we are able to assess the right things in that professional accreditation process should be beneficial both to um the individual and the client based organisation and therefore lead to society as well.

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Academics\\Interview 2 - as Coded> - § 11 references coded [4.58% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.14% Coverage

I looked at where should this credentialing actually sit

Reference 2 - 0.24% Coverage

should it be within the universities or should it be under the umbrella of the professional bodies

Reference 3 - 0.35% Coverage

if you're looking at that in the context of the more traditional professions and even some of the newer ones you know there is this requirement

Reference 4 - 0.17% Coverage

the newer ones fall over is they don't have this you must have a degree

Reference 5 - 0.53% Coverage

if you think about the certification the APMQ for example and the PMP you know they're quite low level if you compare it with the academic levels of level 7 you know for a master degree and they're significantly lower

Reference 6 - 0.18% Coverage

I don't think they [competence frameworks] know their place at the moment

Reference 7 - 0.51% Coverage

it kind of came out to a certain degree in my research that competency and certification in many of the practitioners eyes that they didn't equate it was very much they wanted competency to be actual performance

Reference 8 - 0.58% Coverage

if you've managed to successfully manage a project that's what they equated to competency um any theoretical benchmark or anything like this that was in any way associated with certification they didn't see that as competency related at all

Reference 9 - 0.43% Coverage

this is one of contradictions is if you're going to professionalise then you're going to have to control the practitioners in this sense who is allowed to become a practitioner

Reference 10 - 0.87% Coverage

you measure that by certification first and foremost, and then the experience and the portfolio of evidence almost

[interruption] that sounds like competence [pause] competence measurement [pause] that second part

Researcher prompt

Yeah but it's I don't think the bodies of knowledge themselves I don't think they contribute as much as maybe the APM or the PMI think because

Reference 11 - 0.58% Coverage

Despite your feeling that bodies of knowledge are not particularly helpful in qualification side of things what role do you think bodies of knowledge have?

I think as a baseline really I think they are almost just an introductory insight

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Academics\\Interview 21 - as Coded> - § 1 reference coded [0.90% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.90% Coverage

If you are post graduate of you want to then enter a particular discipline a discipline-based training from APM that will then take your knowledge and apply it in a, in a context would be really, really helpful so we, we can't, higher education, can't provide that context.

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Developers\\Interview 3 - as Coded> - § 9

references coded [2.37% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.33% Coverage

it’s interesting to listen to how the debate on programme and portfolio has emerged partly from [indistinct] by what IPMA did with its four levels of competence certification

Reference 2 - 0.23% Coverage

the whole of the syllabus can’t possibly be examined using standard examination instruments like a multiple choice test

Reference 3 - 0.38% Coverage

you get a pass mark which is based on usually not much more than twenty-five or thirty per cent of getting that right so some of this is we spuriously attribute objectivity to examination systems

Reference 4 - 0.17% Coverage

we have to accept that what we’re doing is possibly the least worst of what’s available

Reference 5 - 0.23% Coverage

the qualification bit which either lets people start off lets them progress through their through their career pathway

Reference 6 - 0.32% Coverage

those really had grown in very very peculiars there was no there didn’t seem to be an overarching attempt to say what’s the structure that we want to lead people through

Reference 7 - 0.34% Coverage

The qualifications [indistinct] grown up rather in a [indistinct] way and any attempt to recalibrate that was met with resistance from the people who’d done early work with APM

Reference 8 - 0.12% Coverage

what IPMA were up to and what the government was trying to do

Reference 9 - 0.27% Coverage

the government was trying to get they were trying to get trying to get the qualifications of APM recognised on the qualifications framework

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Developers\\Interview 6 - as Coded> - § 3

references coded [1.28% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.59% Coverage

I think that focusing on some of the boundaries and especially around certification the way some of the professional organisations are doing it is probably [pause] well is the wrong way of going about it

Reference 2 - 0.28% Coverage

at that point I realised how powerful both the whole certification accreditation mechanisms was

Reference 3 - 0.40% Coverage

ATOs [Accredited Training Organisations] will not be able to change that quickly and then it'll mean that we have to change all of the examinations and we can't deal with it

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Policy\\Interview 10 - as Coded> - § 2 references coded [1.14% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.67% Coverage

we also argued that if you had a degree in another discipline it showed that you had a good working brain and the ability to assimilate facts and that should stand as proxy to a degree in project management.

Reference 2 - 0.47% Coverage

there weren't degree courses in project management for a large proportion of our profession [pause] when they started out in project management.

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Policy\\Interview 11 - as Coded> - § 4 references coded [1.72% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.20% Coverage

we had tried to act as a Chartered body in all but name for quite some time

Reference 2 - 0.44% Coverage

we had developed RPP (Registered Project Professional) as you know to be what we, what we thought would be, it was always promoted as this is Chartered level if

Reference 3 - 0.29% Coverage

we don't just want to take RPP and take off the R and stick a C in front and re-badge exactly the same thing

Reference 4 - 0.78% Coverage

probably the way it is going to go, but let’s consult properly, so there was a draft standard produced, which was very similar to RPP but there were some change, there were some differences, I can’t recall the exact detail of the top of my head, but that went out for a proper consultation

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Policy\\Interview 13 - as Coded> - § 11

references coded [6.39% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.71% Coverage

with the knowledge based qualifications it is looking much more at things like knowledge and the understanding and the definitions and being able to explain what things are

Reference 2 - 0.35% Coverage

as you get up the structure of the qualifications it is about applying that knowledge

Reference 3 - 0.51% Coverage

that case study is quite generic in nature and we have tried to sort of avoid going down one particular um industry domain

Reference 4 - 0.70% Coverage

when you get to chartered it is more around these are the competencies you need to demonstrate actually you can demonstrate those from a number of different industries

Reference 5 - 0.48% Coverage

it is the competence in project management we’re interested in, not necessarily the domain expertise that you bring

Reference 6 - 0.96% Coverage

it is that split between knowledge, knowledge and understanding the kind of assessment of capability where you are applying it to a given scenario and then demonstrating your competence which could include domain expertise as well.

Reference 7 - 0.38% Coverage

we go all the way through from basic knowledge all the way through to competence assessment.

Reference 8 - 0.64% Coverage

major project leadership, so we are looking at those projects that have that real macro impact and the different competencies that are needed in that space

Reference 9 - 0.57% Coverage

next sort of batch of specialist certificates we are looking at would be market driven so we don't know what those needs are at the moment

Reference 10 - 0.71% Coverage

body of knowledge is one side of it the competence framework is the other side, and they sit together in terms of the what project management is and the how you then do it

Reference 11 - 0.38% Coverage

those two documents then form the basis of developing the syllabuses and assessment criteria

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Policy\\Interview 20 - as Coded> - § 1

reference coded [0.30% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.30% Coverage

the body of knowledge gives you that taxonomy, that grounding for those sorts of things.

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Policy\\Interview 4 - as Coded> - § 6

references coded [2.04% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.57% Coverage

if you don't know what a competent project professional does um all mature project management organisations it's not just about individuals but if you don't know what that is you don't know what that territory is how can you assess it

Reference 2 - 0.10% Coverage

it's an underpinning um [pause] framework

Reference 3 - 0.35% Coverage

the body of knowledge goes really beyond individual certification there are certain elements which are not you can't assess at an individual level

Reference 4 - 0.51% Coverage

I think it's APMs positioning I've always felt is that [pause] our certifications our qualifications are based on the body of knowledge and the body of knowledge is based on the professions view of its discipline

Reference 5 - 0.26% Coverage

what the profession says which actually goes a little bit beyond just mechanistically following a methodology

Reference 6 - 0.24% Coverage

it would be disingenuous of people to say I've read the body of knowledge now give me a certificate

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Policy\\Interview 5 - as Coded> - § 10

references coded [3.34% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.26% Coverage

it's from that content that a lot of those standards, qualifications um are drawn

Reference 2 - 0.32% Coverage

PFQ as your sort of entry point that fundamental level of just general

understanding of terminology

Reference 3 - 0.14% Coverage

what that means and how that might be applied

Reference 4 - 0.30% Coverage

professional qualification PPQ level and what that is now in terms of based around experience

Reference 5 - 0.48% Coverage

that element of being able to communicate you know and it should as you gain experience the way that you recognise and assess that experience changes

Reference 6 - 0.30% Coverage

aspect of supervised practise?

Pause] I personally am all in favour of that [indistinct]

Reference 7 - 0.32% Coverage

on the job learning with a supervisor [pause] um the caveat being it has to be the right supervisor

Reference 8 - 0.19% Coverage

that consolidates any academic learning that you have done

Reference 9 - 0.68% Coverage

once you have a much more explicit alignment of everything to a body of knowledge or whatever the profession has then I think that really sort of solidifies it's place in terms of what it does for the profession

Reference 10 - 0.36% Coverage

once you've achieved those standards at the different levels and the competency's then you can go on the register

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Practitioners\\Interview 12 - as Coded> - § 4 references coded [2.44% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.27% Coverage

it can be examined by peers so that competent professionals can be identified

Reference 2 - 0.13% Coverage

suitably certificated and identified

Reference 3 - 1.19% Coverage

if we ever get a certificate from the likes of BSI, it defines what the scope of that certificate is. And similarly the Body of Knowledge is very broad and may well be and I haven't thought this through at all but any particular certificate issued by eh APM should perhaps define this scope that the particular certificate applies to.

Reference 4 - 0.86% Coverage

Knowledge is just one element of competence clearly um you can have the most knowledgeable boffin in the world who could repeat every one of these 200 or whatever it is pages, 250 pages um but absolutely useless project management practitioner

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Practitioners\\Interview 16 - as Coded> - § 4 references coded [2.09% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.52% Coverage

bodies of knowledge, uuh, are slippery creatures, they're not explanations of theory, they are attempts to control certification of people.

Reference 2 - 0.45% Coverage

in my mind I am thinking body of knowledge as the formal publications which are referenced for certification purposes.

Reference 3 - 0.55% Coverage

by maintaining standards, I mean people all having a level of competence above a certain threshold or at least at the point of time they do the exam

Reference 4 - 0.57% Coverage

I used the words power and control thinking to do with keeping an eye on certification keeping an eye on the market forces and guiding the market forces

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Practitioners\\Interview 17 - as Coded> - § 5 references coded [2.23% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.49% Coverage

you've got to be suitably qualified to do it and have experience, because projects are risky, risky endeavours, involves change in organisations,

Reference 2 - 0.30% Coverage

licence to practice for project managers, I think that might personally be a step too far

Reference 3 - 0.62% Coverage

it's good to have a qualified, experienced project manager or be a mentor to junior project managers coming forward, but as a licence to practice I think that might be a step too far

Reference 4 - 0.16% Coverage

chartered is a potential route to look at that

Reference 5 - 0.65% Coverage

you've got to believe in yourself and the way you do that is basically is you do the certification and exams put yourself on these intensive courses, you pass them, then you get the confidence

<Files\\Phase 2 Interviews\\Practitioners\\Interview 18 - as Coded> - § 3 references coded [1.48% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.60% Coverage

times have changed and we are far more professionally qualified project managers now than we ever did and with it the credibility of the profession um increases

Reference 2 - 0.24% Coverage

that is in part because of the qualifications and the standards

Reference 3 - 0.64% Coverage

professionally qualified people and that's why people are getting degrees at university in project management, or masters or PhD's or um eh or APM PMQ type qualification