Copyright is owned by the Author of the thesis. Permission is given for a copy to be downloaded by an individual for the purpose of research and private study only. The thesis may not be reproduced elsewhere without the permission of the Author.

PRE-SERVICE PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION IN A CLIMATE OF CHANGE: A QUALITATIVE CASE STUDY

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Education
at
Massey University
Palmerston North
New Zealand

Veronica Carmina Marks
1996

370.7122
Mar

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the provision of pre-service primary teacher education by Hilltop College of Education (pseudonym) in a rapidly changing environment. The researcher used a qualitative case study design and a modified grounded theory approach to data collection and analysis. Change theory provided the theoretical underpinnings and the conceptual framework guided the data collection. The in-depth semi-structured interview and document analysis were the two data collection techniques employed. A total of forty-one administrative and teaching staff [thirty-three from the College and eight from Belmont University (pseudonym)] and nine student teachers participated in the study.

The fieldwork spanned a period of fourteen months - October 1993 to December 1994. The data analysis revealed that pre-service primary teacher education, provided both intra- and inter- institutionally, was a rapidly changing entity in form, nature and orientation. Change was influenced mainly by external factors and the political factor was the most influential. The latest innovations - the B.Ed. degree programme and it delivery in affiliation with Belmont University - constituted a desperate effort by the College to ensure its survival. In keeping with the grounded theory approach, the researcher developed a substantive theory of survival.

The substantive theory of survival explicated the College's survival process. Survival necessitated change but it was change intended to ensure self preservation. The history of past negotiations, strong proactive leadership, the strategies employed and the ability to use the contextual factors to its advantage, ensured an affiliation agreement on more favourable terms for the College, compared with past negotiations.

The College maintained its autonomy, secured a partnership agreement based on equity: 'fifty-fifty' sharing of administration and programme delivery, and equal representation and voting rights in the joint Faculty of Education. However, in operational terms, the College did not have the power to get the University to honour the agreement. The University's attitude, in part, threatened the affiliation, the B.Ed. programme and, by extension, the College's survival. In the long term, the College's survival will depend on the developments associated with the B.Ed. degree programme, the affiliation with Belmont University and its ability to respond appropriately and effectively to the demands of a rapidly changing environment.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am indebted to a number of persons who, in very special but different ways, contributed to the completion of this thesis. First, sincere thanks are due to my two supervisors, Associate Professor Wayne Edwards (OBE), of the Department of Policy Studies in Education, and Dr Joy Cullen, of the Department of Human Development Studies, whose intellectually rigorous standards and excellent research capabilities provided the challenge, inspiration and motivation every step of the way.

To my advisor, Associate Professor Peter Ramsay, in the School of Education, Waikato University, for his valuable contribution in making my goal achievable, I am, indeed, grateful.

Thanks are due to the management, staff and students of Hilltop College of Education and the staff of Belmont University who participated in this study. Without their involvement and unwavering support, this study could not be completed.

Special thanks to my husband, Anthony, for his resolute support, tolerance, constructive criticism and confidence in my ability to persevere to the end.

Thanks are due to my sponsors, the New Zealand Vice-Chancellors' Committee, for the opportunity to undertake this research as a New Zealand Commonwealth Scholar. Without their generosity, this thesis would not have begun.

Sincere thanks to Mrs Judith Nathan and the staff of the Training and Development Unit, Massey University, for their support, particularly in the area of physical resources.

Finally, to all my friends and well wishers who supported me throughout the entire process, thank you for helping me to "hang in there".

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract ii
Acknowledgements iii
Table of Contents iv
List of Appendices xii
List of Tables xiv
List of Figures xvii
Glossary xviii

Chapter .... Page

CHAPTER ONE: Introduction 1
- Background to the Study 1
- Delimiting the Study 4
- Purpose 5
- Objectives of the Research 5
- Research Question 5
- Rationale for a Conceptual Framework 6
- Organisation of the Thesis 9
- Summary 9

CHAPTER TWO: Literature Review 10
- Introduction 10
- Overview of Major Changes in Teacher Education 10
- Global Issues and Problems in Teacher Education 14
  - The Content of Teacher Education Programmes 15
  - Education Policy 19
  - Research on Teacher Education 24
- International Research on Teacher Education Programmes 28
- Institutionalised Pre-service Primary Teacher Education in New Zealand 34
- Research on Teacher Education Programmes in New Zealand 37

International Literature on Institutional Amalgamations in Tertiary Education .. 41
Amalgamations in Tertiary Institutions in New Zealand 48
Summary 51

CHAPTER THREE: Conceptual Framework 52

Introduction 52
Change Theory 52
  Implementation Theory 53
    Pre-implementation 53
      Overview of Factors Associated with Pre-implementation 55
    Implementation 58
      Key Factors in the Implementation Process 60
      Key Themes in the Implementation Process 65
    Change Process Theory 69
      The Nature and Process of Change 70
      Change and the Individual 72
    Change Management Theory 74
      The Role of Management 75
      The Professional Development of Teachers 76
      The Culture of the Organisation 78
    Overview of Change Theory 81
Alternative Orientations in Teacher Education Programmes 82
  The Feiman-Nemser Conceptual Orientations Framework 83
      The Critical-Social Orientation 84
      The Personal Orientation 85
      The Technological Orientation 86
      The Practical Orientation 86
      The Academic Orientation 87
  The Katz and Raths Framework for Research on Teacher Education Programmes 88
      Goals 89
      Characteristics of the Candidates 89
      Characteristics of the Staff 89
      Content 89
      Methods 89
      Time or Timing 89
      Ethos 90

Regulations 90
Resources 90
Evaluation 90
Impacts of the Programme 90
Developing the Conceptual Framework 91
Summary 93

CHAPTER FOUR: Research Methodology 94

Introduction 94
Purpose 94
Objectives of the Research 94
Research Question 94
Overview of Approaches to Research in Education 95
Qualitative Research 96
Philosophical Assumptions of Qualitative Research 97
Interpretive Phenomenology 98
Characteristics of Qualitative Research 99
Context 100
Lived Experience 100
Patterns of Experience 101
Judging or Appraising 101
The Nature of Qualitative Data 102
The Case Study Approach 103
Classification of the Case Study 104
Characteristics of the Case Study 105
The Grounded Theory Approach 107
Theoretical Foundations of Grounded Theory 107
Theoretical Sampling 108
Constant Comparative Analysis 109
Coding in Grounded Theory 110
The Use of Memos in Grounded Theory 111
Using Grounded Theory 112
Modifications to the Grounded Theory Approach 114
The Macro-Micro Level Gaps and the Missing Elements in Social Research 114
History 117
Power 117

Reliability, Validity and Generalisability 121
  Reliability 122
  Validity 123
    Triangulation 125
  Generalisability 127
The Research Site 129
The Participants 130
Selection of Participants 130
Data Collection Techniques 131
  The Interview 131
  Document Analysis 133
  Reflexivity 133
Summary 135

CHAPTER FIVE: Research Procedure and Data Analysis 136

Introduction 136
The Research Procedure 137
  Approval and Entry into the Institution 137
  Preliminary or Initial Data Collection Phase 137
  Data Examination after the Preliminary or Initial Data Collection Phase 139
  Phase 1 142
  Phase 2 143
  Phase 3 144
  Overview of the Research Procedure 145
Data Analysis 146
Summary 150

CHAPTER SIX: Data Presentation: Part One 152

Rationale for Data Presentation 152
Data Presentation 152
  Category One: Organisational Structure 153
    1.1 Complexity 153
    1.2 Operational 157
    1.3 Accountability 161
    1.4 Culture 162

Category Two: Mission 166
  2.1 Vagueness 166
  2.2 Clarity 168
  2.3 Product 170
  2.4 Uncertainty 172
  2.5 Quality 174
Category Three: Involvement 176
  3.1 Levels 176
  3.2 Managerial 178
  3.3 Departmental 178
Category Four: Programme 180
  4.1 Types 181
  4.2 Development 183
  4.3 Congruence 186
  4.4 Methods 187
  4.5 Resources 188
Category Five: Evaluation 190
  5.1 Levels 191
  5.2 Types 197
Category Six: Selection 198
  6.1 Complexity 198
  6.2 Competitiveness 200
  6.3 Flexibility 201
Category Seven: Support System 201
  7.1 Hierarchical 201
  7.2 Developmental 204
Category Eight: Relationship 206
  8.1 Inter-institutional 206
  8.2 Community 208
Summary 209

CHAPTER SEVEN: Data Presentation Part Two: The Substantive Theory of Survival 210

Introduction 210
  The Context 211
    Education Policy 212
    The Marketability of Graduates 212

International Trends in Teacher Education 214
Research in Teacher Education 214
Category 1: Initiation 216
1.1 Coercive 219
1.2 Instrumental 220
Conceptual Processing 225
Level 1: Awareness 225
Level 2: Interpretation 226
Level 3: Decision Making 226
Category 2: Preparation 226
2.1 Antecedents 226
2.2 Mobilisation 231
2.3 Planning 236
Conceptual Processing 239
Level 1: Awareness 239
Level 2: Planning 239
Level 3: Decision Making 241
Category 3: Negotiation 241
3.1 Systemic 241
3.2 Naturalistic 251
3.3 Problematic 255
Conceptual Processing 260
Level 1: Networking 260
Level 2: Securing 262
Summary 262

CHAPTER EIGHT: Data Presentation Part Three: The Substantive

Theory of Survival 265

Introduction 265
Category 4: Implementation 265
4.1 Disorganised 265
4.2 Deficient 284
4.3 Changing 293
4.4 Impacting 298
Conceptual Processing 311
Level 1: Awareness 312
Level 2: Miscalculation 312

        Level 3: Interpretation 312
        Level 4: Decision Making 313
      The Survival Process 313
    Summary 319

CHAPTER NINE: Discussion and Conclusion 320

Introduction 320
Discussion of the Findings 320
  Programme Factors 321
    Orientation 321
    Goals or Objectives 323
    Courses 325
    Methods 329
    Technical Assistance, Practice and Feedback Mechanism 330
    Time or Timing 332
    Resources 333
    Evaluation 335
  Factors Related to the Inter-institutional Provision of Teacher Education ... 337
    Organisational Management 337
    Power and Control 341
    Culture 345
    Identity 350
  Factors Related to the Substantive Theory of Survival 352
    The Survival Process 352
      This Study's Contribution to Theory 356
    The Major Key Learnings from the Survival Process 359
      Nature 360
      Leadership 361
      Strategies 362
      Guidelines 363
Conclusions 364
  Pre-service Primary Teacher Education 365
  The Survival Process 367
  Methodology 370
Recommendations for Further Research 371
Afterword 373

Appendices 374

Documents 404

Bibliography 407

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendices 374

Appendix A: List of Guiding Questions 375

Appendix B: Sample Interview Schedules 377
  B-1 Initial Semi- Structured Interview Schedule 378
  B-2 Semi-Structured Interview Schedule - College Staff 380
  B-3 Semi-Structured Interview Schedule - University Staff 381
  B-4 Semi-Structured Interview Schedule - Student Teachers 382

Appendix C: Goodlad's Nineteen Postulates for Teacher Education Programmes 383

Appendix D: Letters to Participants 385
  D-1 Sample Letter to College Staff 386
  D-2 Form Attached to D-1: Sample Letter to College Staff 387
  D-3 Sample Letter to University Staff 388
  D-4 Sample Letter to Student Teachers 389
  D-5 Letter to College Staff Acknowledging Response 390

Appendix E: Sample of Field Notes 391

Appendix F: College and University Staff Questionnaire, Demographic and Other Data 392
  F-1 College and University Staff Questionnaire 393
  F-2 Table F 1 College and University Staff Demographic Data 394
  F-3 Table F 2 College and University Staff Academic Qualifications 394
  F-4 Table F 3 College and University Staff Experience in Teacher Education 395

Appendix G: Student Teachers' Questionnaire and Demographic Data 396
G-1 Student Teachers' Questionnaire 397
G-2 Table G 1 Student Teachers' Demographic Data 398

Appendix H: Sample of Open Coded Transcript 399

Appendix I: Record of Expenditure in Time on Data Collection 400

Appendix J: Core Curriculum and Curriculum Extension Courses in Diploma of Teaching and B.Ed. Degree Programmes 401

Appendix K: Structure of the B.Ed. Degree Programme 402

Appendix L: The Faculty of Education's Management Structure 403

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 *Characteristics of Change* 71

Table 2 *Factors Related to Change at the Individual Level* 73

Table 3 *Characteristics of Inappropriate Management* 76

Table 4 *Guidelines for Managing Change* 77

Table 5 *Conceptual Orientations in Teacher Education* 83

Table 6 *Category 1: Organisational Structure* 154

Table 7 *Category 2: Mission* 166

Table 8 *Category 3: Involvement* 177

Table 9 *Category 4: Programme* 181

Table 10 *Percentage of Course Development and Approval Criteria in Forty-two Course Outlines* 185

Table 11 *Category 5: Evaluation* 191

Table 12 *Category 6: Selection* 198

Table 13 *Category 7: Support System* 202

Table 14 *Category 8: Relationship* 206

Table 15 *Category 1: Initiation* 216

Table 16 *Property 1.1 Coercive - Key Learnings from the Survival Process* 219

Table 17 *Property 1.2 Instrumental - Key Learnings from the Survival Process* ... 224

Table 18 *Category 2: Preparation* ... 227

Table 19 *Property 2.1 Antecedents - Key Learnings from the Survival Process* ... 231

Table 20 *Property 2.2 Mobilisation - Key Learnings from the Survival Process* ... 235

Table 21 *Property 2.3 Planning - Key Learnings from the Survival Process* ... 238

Table 22 *Category 3: Negotiation* ... 241

Table 23 *Property 3.1 Systemic - Key Learnings from the Survival Process* ... 251

Table 24 *Property 3.2 Naturalistic - Key Learnings from the Survival Process* ... 255

Table 25 *Property 3.3 Problematic - Key Learnings from the Survival Process* ... 260

Table 26 *Category 4: Implementation* ... 266

Table 27 *Property 4.1 Disorganised - Key Learnings from the Survival Process* ... 283

Table 28 *Property 4.2 Deficient - Key Learnings from the Survival Process* ... 293

Table 29 *Property 4.3 Changing - Key Learnings from the Survival Process* ... 298

Table 30 *Property 4.4 Impacting - Key Learnings from the Survival Process* 312

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 The Researcher's Conceptualisation of Change Theory 54

Figure 2 The Conceptual Framework Developed by the Researcher 92

Figure 3 The Paradigm Model.. 111

Figure 4 Research Procedure from Preliminary Data Collection to Writing 138

Figure 5 The Formal Organisational Structure of Hilltop College of Education 155

Figure 6 The Hilltop College of Education Continuum of Functions 157

Figure 7 The Context of the Survival Process 215

Figure 8 Initiation: The First Step in the Survival Process 225

Figure 9 Preparation: The Second Step in the Survival Process 240

Figure 10 Negotiation: The Third Step in the Survival Process....................... 261

Figure 11 Implementation: The Fourth Step in the Survival Process 314

GLOSSARY

Affiliation (educational): A type of amalgamation or merger in which two or more institutions or sub-unit(s) thereof, enter into an agreement for the purpose of shared academic programming, administrative efficiency, or shared resources and services. Participating institutions preserve their identities and governance structures (adapted from Samels, 1994).

Belmont University (BU): Pseudonym for the university in this investigation. The term is used interchangeably with the 'University'.

Hilltop College of Education (HCE): Pseudonym for the research site: the New Zealand college of education where the investigation was conducted. The term is used interchangeably with the 'College'.

Kaiarahi: Maori term used for Intake Supervisor, which when translated in English means 'care giver'. The Intake Supervisor is an academic advisor and support person for student teachers.

NZCTE: New Zealand Council for Teacher Education. The NZCTE is a national umbrella body with membership of institutions providing teacher education. It was established in 1991 to represent and voice the interest of 'member' institutions.

NZQA: New Zealand Qualifications Authority. This body is a Crown agency with powers of validation for all national qualifications. The body also has a regulatory function.

NZVCC: New Zealand Vice-Chancellors' Committee. A committee of all Vice-Chancellors of New Zealand universities.

Pre-service primary teacher education: The initial deliberate preparation of prospective teaching personnel for primary schools.

Whanau: Maori term which when translated in English means family.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Change can be defined as the modification of existing conditions in response to current forces or predictable future needs (Freiberg & Waxman, 1990). Historically, change in teacher education has been linked to reform efforts intended to improve the quality of education in schools (Popkewitz, 1987). However, Goodlad (1990) and Tisher and Wideen (1990) observe that change in teacher education has tended to lag behind reform efforts in education, resulting in a 'mismatch' between teacher preparation and the aims and objectives of 'schooling'. Similarly, several authors (for example, Lanier & Little, 1986; Bush, 1987; Goodman, 1988) argue that, despite the numerous reform efforts in teacher education, there has been no fundamental change in the preparation of teachers. However, within recent times, there have been claims that contemporary education reforms are reshaping teacher education (Freiberg & Waxman, 1990) and that teacher education is in the midst of profound change (Hargreaves, 1993, 1995). This study was concerned with change in teacher education. More specifically, this study examined how one New Zealand college of education was providing pre-service primary teacher education in the context of a rapidly changing environment.

Contemporary education reforms have assumed a holistic orientation (Hargreaves, 1994) and there have been system-wide restructuring efforts in countries such as Australia, Britain, New Zealand, and the United States (Ibid). One of the commonalities across countries introducing education reforms within recent times is the belief that economic regeneration could be achieved through improvements in education (Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, 1986; Knight, Lingard & Bartlett, 1993; Fitzsimons, 1995). A corollary to this assumption is the importance of the teaching profession in implementing education reforms. Furthermore, there is also the argument that the quality of education in schools cannot improve unless there are improvements in teacher education (Holmes Group, 1986). Consequently, teacher education has been pushed under the spotlight [Bush, 1987; Organisation for Economic and Co-operative Development (OECD), 1990] and there has been a proliferation of reform efforts aimed at improving initial teacher preparation in countries such as Australia, Britain and the United States (Tickle, 1987; Aspin, 1993; Knight, 1993; Turner, 1993).

Both system-wide education reforms and those specific to teacher education have assumed diverse forms and have impacted in different ways on teacher education. While research on the effects of some reform efforts on teacher education is now emerging in countries such as Britain (Tickle, 1994) and the United States (Hargreaves, 1995), in others, the research is yet to get started. In New Zealand, for example, there has been no research on the impact of the system-wide restructuring efforts in education of the late 1980s with specific reference to teacher education. Given this lack of similar New Zealand research in the area, this study, which investigated change in the provision of pre-service primary teacher education in a rapidly changing environment, was intended to fulfil a need. In conducting the research, the researcher focused on one New Zealand college of education: Hilltop College of Education (pseudonym).

Prior to the introduction of the education reforms in New Zealand during the late 1980s, colleges of education (formerly teachers' colleges) came under the control of the Department of Education, although each had had its own council since the late 1960s (Snook, 1991). Funding for these institutions was centralised through the Department of Education and was allocated annually. Funding was based on fixed staffing entitlements for approved courses and a general expenses grant derived from 'weighted student hours' (Ibid). Colleges of education were restricted mainly to pre-service teacher education and were not empowered to grant degrees. However, most colleges of education had entered into some form of relationship with their local universities to enable student teachers to pursue concurrent university study (Renwick, 1993).

The education reforms brought numerous changes for the colleges of education, particularly in administration (Learning for Life I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Learning for Life II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Education Amendment Act 1990). Briefly, colleges of education became fully autonomous institutions with greater responsibility and demands for accountability. There were contracts (charters) for operating; colleges of education were to be bulk funded on the basis of a rolling triennium; funding was tied closely to the number of student teachers; colleges of education were required to meet all costs, including capital spending; their qualifications and programmes had to be validated by a national qualifications authority; teacher education became an open market with increased competition; the chief executive officer of the colleges was to be the sole employer of all staff; the Ministry of Education was to be responsible for policy development; and, colleges of education could opt to operate as 'stand alone' institutions or in affiliation with other tertiary institutions (although the latter was later emphasised).

Generally, the reforms brought change in all areas of operation for the colleges of education: from administration to evaluation. These changes set the wheels of change in motion at the colleges of education. However, for some colleges of education, these changes were followed by innovations of a greater magnitude. The college of education where this investigation was conducted fell into the latter group. While this investigation focused primarily on the latest innovations introduced by Hilltop College of Education [the affiliation with Belmont University (pseudonym) and the B.Ed. degree programme], these changes were examined in relation to the preceding changes. The researcher adopted this approach in keeping with Freiberg and Waxman's (1990) observation that, "change is a cumulative process, with each new successful modification building upon previous efforts to form a new strata of efforts, ideas, processes, and products" (p. 617).

The literature revealed that, among other factors (discussed in greater detail in Chapter Two), teacher education was an established field of inquiry (Wragg, 1982; OECD, 1990; Tisher & Wideen, 1990). Second, teacher education programmes were perceived as sub-standard (Holmes Group, 1986; Marsh, 1990; Knight et al., 1993). Third, there was need for more research on teacher education programmes, including their contexts (Lanier & Little, 1986; Howey & Zimpher, 1989; Feiman-Nemser, 1990; Goodlad, 1990; McNamara, 1990; Tisher & Wideen, 1990). Fourth, the initial preparation was a critical part of the professional development of teachers (Freiberg & Waxman, 1990; Renwick & Vize, 1990). Fifth, teacher education was currently in the midst of profound change (Hargreaves, 1993, 1995). Finally, research studies in teacher education with a positivistic orientation had not contributed much by way of understanding the complex nature of the field (Popkewitz, Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1979; Lanier & Little, 1986).

At the time of this investigation, pre-service primary teacher education in New Zealand seemed to be inundated by change. There seemed to be little time to consolidate one innovation before another had to be implemented. In some instances, multiple changes had to be implemented concurrently. At the same time, as the changes multiplied, the 'turbulence' and uncertainty in educational organisations providing teacher education increased.

In order for the present study to make a useful contribution to the New Zealand research in pre-service primary teacher education and teacher education generally, the researcher had to give careful consideration to certain factors. These factors included the purpose of the study, the research design, the context, and the existing research in the field. However, the first step was to establish the parameters of the study.

DELIMITING THE STUDY

Several factors guided the researcher's decision to conduct a single site case study investigation. First, the preliminary reading revealed that New Zealand's colleges of education had varying types and levels of relationships with their local universities: from 'stand alone' to amalgamation (Renwick, 1993). Furthermore, the establishment of various types of inter-institutional relationships to provide pre-service primary teacher education programmes was one of the most recent changes in teacher education. Therefore, the factor 'relationship with local university', was recognised as an important criterion for decision making.

Secondly, the literature review revealed that along the continuum of relationships (mentioned earlier) two colleges of education and their local universities had recently entered into affiliation, while another was close to making the final decision about amalgamation. At the same time, one teacher education institution was fully amalgamated with its local university (Ramsay, 1992; Smithells, 1992). The latter institution was eliminated as a possible research site because of its geographical distance. At that point (April, 1993), there were three institutions for the researcher to consider.

Prior to making the final decision about the parameters of the study, the researcher held discussions with several prominent educationists in May 1993. In July 1993 the college of education on the verge of making its final decision about amalgamation terminated negotiations in that direction. Given this development and the possible ramifications, the researcher ruled out that institution as a possible research site. Consequently, the researcher was left with two colleges of education to consider. After careful consideration of factors such as the accessibility of the research site, time, finance, and 'relationship with local university', the researcher selected Hilltop College of Education as the research site.

The research site was a metropolitan college of education established in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. At the time of this investigation, Hilltop

College of Education offered pre-service programmes in early childhood, primary and secondary teacher education, and advanced studies programmes for practising teachers. However, pre-service primary teacher education was the major focus of its operations. As the study evolved, it was further delimited to two related pre-service primary teacher education programmes (the Diploma of Teaching programme and the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree programme) and the affiliation with Belmont University. The Diploma of Teaching programme was offered solely by the College, while the B.Ed. degree programme was offered in conjunction with Belmont University. However, the joint delivery of the B.Ed. degree programme was only in one component: the education courses.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to examine how pre-service primary teacher education was provided by Hilltop College of Education in a rapidly changing environment. The researcher focused on two related pre-service primary teacher education programmes (the Diploma of Teaching and the Bachelor of Education) and the College's affiliation with Belmont University.

OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The objectives of this research were to:

1.1 Examine the selected pre-service primary teacher education programmes (the Diploma of Teaching and the Bachelor of Education) offered by Hilltop College of Education.

1.2 Determine how pre-service primary teacher education was provided by Hilltop College of Education in a climate of change.

RESEARCH QUESTION

In order to fulfil the objectives of this study, the researcher sought to answer the following (guiding) research question:

How is pre-service primary teacher education provided by Hilltop College of Education in a climate of change?

This study evolved as the fieldwork progressed. In the early stages, the fieldwork was exploratory. Using the conceptual framework (see Figure 2, p. 92), the researcher formulated a number of questions (see Appendix A) which guided the initial exploratory data collection phase. The researcher also used these questions to develop the initial interview schedules (see Appendix B).

RATIONALE FOR A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Education is fundamentally a broad field of practice and enquiry that lacks a unifying knowledge base or clearly defined disciplinary foundation. Symes (1992), for example, observes that "education is an irregular area of understanding, without parallels in the spectrum of knowledge" (p. 32), while the Holmes Group (1986) postulates that education is the discipline of the disciplines. Consequently, some educational research problems can be explored from a philosophical, psychological or sociological perspective while others are more amenable to holistic or multi-disciplinary enquiry (Hocking & Caldwell, 1990). Where educational research problems do not fall into a particular field or discipline, the alternative is to develop a conceptual framework. In the present study, all efforts at trying to 'tackle' the research problem from a specific disciplinary perspective proved futile. Consequently, the researcher decided to develop and use a conceptual framework.

Hocking and Caldwell (1990) define a conceptual framework as: "a set of concepts which serves to focus the investigation, providing a guide to the formulation of sub-problems and research design as well as to the organisation and analysis of findings" (p. 7). Miles and Huberman (1994), writing about conceptual frameworks, observe that:

> A conceptual framework explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied - the key factors, constructs or variables - and the presumed relationships among them. Frameworks can be rudimentary or elaborate, theory-driven or commonsensical, descriptive or causal. (p. 18)

And, Sowden and Keeves (1988), writing about the purpose of a conceptual framework, contend that:

> A conceptual framework serves to describe and explain the major facets of an investigation. It identifies the key factors and the assumed relationships between them. It is not essential that such relationships should be causal. They may simply involve sequences which occur over time, or alternatively there may merely be a pattern in the events or between the factors being observed. (p. 516)

The use of conceptual frameworks in qualitative research is debatable. Social anthropologists and phenomenologists believe that social realities are usually too complex to be approached with conventional conceptual frameworks or standardised instruments. Hence, they advocate a more emergent, inductive approach to data gathering (Miles and Huberman, 1984, 1994). From this perspective, the conceptual framework should emerge empirically in the course of the investigation and the most important research questions and actors are identified as the research progresses.

Miles and Huberman (1984, 1994) argue that highly inductive, loosely structured studies are more appropriate when the research is focused in exotic cultures, understudied phenomena or complex social realities and when there are no time constraints. However, when the object of research is a better understood social phenomenon, a highly inductive, loose design is pointless. Furthermore, these authors observe that:

> Predictably enough, most of the qualitative research now being done lies between these two extremes. Something is known conceptually about the phenomenon, but not enough to house a theory. The researcher has a fairly good idea of the parts of the phenomenon that are not well understood, and knows where to look for these things.... Finally, the researcher usually has some initial ideas about how to gather the information. (1984, p. 27)

Like Miles and Huberman (1984), the researcher subscribes to the view that "any researcher, no matter how unstructured or inductive, comes to field work with some orienting ideas, foci and tools" (p. 27). Secondly, although there are many gaps in the research in teacher education, the area under investigation, it is not an unstudied phenomenon. Several reviews and handbooks of research in teacher education and teaching (for example, Peck & Tucker, 1973; Travers, 1973; Wragg, 1982; Koehler, 1985; Lanier & Little, 1986; Wittrock, 1986; Houston, 1990; Tisher & Wideen, 1990) have identified gaps in the research on teacher education and suggested the type of enquiry likely to be most useful.

Several authors (for example, Miles & Huberman, 1984, 1994; Sowden & Keeves, 1988; Hocking & Caldwell, 1990) claim that there are many benefits to be derived from using a conceptual framework. First, a conceptual framework sharpens the research objectives by identifying who and what will be examined. Second, a conceptual framework forces the researcher to be selective: it suggests which variables should be eliminated and 'postulates' relationships between the persons and the factors being investigated. Third, a conceptual framework determines the kind of information that should be collected, thereby increasing the likelihood of significant findings. Fourth, a conceptual framework simplifies the complex task of interpreting results. Fifth, a conceptual framework ensures some form of consistency in multi-site studies involving multiple researchers. Finally, a conceptual framework makes research cumulative from one investigation to the next.

The preceding observations all suggested a structured approach, using a conceptual framework, as the most appropriate method for conducting the investigation. Given this conviction, the researcher embarked on the task of developing a conceptual framework. The researcher began by identifying the major elements (or concepts) associated with the phenomenon: teacher education.

Working from the broad interest area, the rudimentary research problem and the relevant literature on teacher education, three important elements were identified: the people, the programme and the context. Based on the literature review, the researcher rationalised that pre-service primary teacher education programmes were offered by people, for people, in specific contexts. These three elements emerged as the most important dimensions in the conceptual framework. The three elements - people, programme and context - formed the three 'bins' (Miles & Huberman, 1984) used in the conceptual framework in this study (see Figure 2, p. 92).

Guided by the literature, the researcher proceeded to identify the sub-concepts and their relational connections to the major elements (people, programme and context) and the specific research problem. The process was iterative because the research problem, in conjunction with the literature, assisted in the identification of the sub-concepts. Similarly, as the sub-concepts were identified and relationships were established, the researcher was able to refine the research question. In identifying the sub-concepts, the researcher drew heavily on two frameworks in the literature: the Feiman-Nemser (1990) conceptual orientations framework and Katz and Raths' (1985) framework for research on teacher education programmes.

The events in the rapidly changing environment impacting on and shaping pre-service primary teacher education constituted the contextual sub-concepts in the conceptual framework. As mentioned earlier, the pervasiveness of the concept of change, in relation to teacher education, and the context in which teacher education was provided, could not be ignored. In commenting on the use of the term 'theoretical framework', Hocking and Caldwell (1990) explained that this term had a broader scope and might precede and assist in building a conceptual framework. Consequently, the researcher turned to change theory for the theoretical underpinnings of the study. A more detailed explanation of the conceptual framework is presented in Chapter Three.

ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

The researcher presents the report in nine chapters. In this chapter, the researcher introduced the research problem, stated the purpose of the study, set out the objectives, introduced the research question, and outlined the rationale for developing a conceptual framework. The researcher presents the literature review in Chapter Two. In Chapter Three the researcher focuses on the theoretical underpinnings and the conceptual framework. The research methodology is the focus of Chapter Four, while Chapter Five provides an overview of the research and data analysis procedures. In Chapter Six, the first of the data presentation chapters, the researcher presents background data on the provision of pre-service primary teacher education, focusing on the changes. Chapters Seven and Eight carry data on the substantive theory of survival. In these two chapters, the researcher traces the College's bid for survival as a provider of teacher education in a rapidly changing environment. Finally, in Chapter Nine, the researcher discusses the findings of the investigation and presents the conclusions.

SUMMARY

In this chapter the researcher outlined the genesis of the study, introduced the reader to the problem, gave an overview of the rationale for developing a conceptual framework, stated the purpose of the study, presented the objectives and the research question, and explained how the literature helped to shape and guide this investigation. In the next chapter the researcher presents the literature review.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

Strauss and Corbin (1990) observe that, in the grounded theory approach, the technical literature (reports of research studies and theoretical or philosophical papers) has various uses. First, the literature can be used to stimulate theoretical sensitivity. Second, the literature can be used as secondary sources of data. Third, the literature can be used to stimulate questions and to direct theoretical sampling. Finally, the literature can be used as supplementary validation.

In keeping with the grounded theory approach, the literature review served all of the purposes identified by Strauss and Corbin (1990). Additionally, the literature review provided useful background information on the research in teacher education. This study was evolutionary, consequently, some of the literature may not bear direct relevance to the findings. However, as Strauss and Corbin observed, "since discovery is our purpose we do not have beforehand knowledge of all the categories relevant to our theory" (p. 50). Therefore, it was impossible to determine, at the outset, which areas of the literature would not relate directly to the findings. In any event, it was important to be aware of the existing research literature.

In order to appreciate the inclusion of the literature reviewed in this chapter, the reader is asked to bear in mind the evolutionary nature of the study and the diverse purposes for which the literature is used in the grounded theory approach. The literature review is presented under these major headings: overview of the major changes in teacher education (focusing primarily on institutionalised primary teacher education), global issues and problems in teacher education, international research on teacher education programmes, institutionalised pre-service primary teacher education in New Zealand, research on teacher education programmes in New Zealand, international literature on institutional amalgamations in tertiary education and amalgamations in tertiary institutions in New Zealand.

OVERVIEW OF MAJOR CHANGES IN TEACHER EDUCATION

From its inception to the present, institutionalised primary teacher education has seen a number of changes. The evolution of institutionalised primary teacher education dates from the beginning of the nineteenth century and the establishment of specific training institutions or centres called 'normal schools' modelled on the eighteenth century Austrian *Normalschule* and the German *Lehrerseminar* (DeLandsheere, 1987). However, it was the model of the *Schullehrerseminar* and its equivalent 'normal school' (used in Western countries) that became normative in the nineteenth century. Teachers' training colleges were called 'normal schools' on the grounds that there was some single approved norm (Wragg, 1982). Typically, 'normal schools' were open to students who had completed their primary education. This entry level requirement was the point at which initial teacher education began in almost every country (Turner, 1993). As the level of education improved over the years, the entry level requirements were raised accordingly. However, the rate of development and the nature of the changes in teacher education varied from country to country (Ibid).

While the 'normal schools' provided institutionalised teacher education, they did not attract a student population which was homogeneous in its aspirations (Goodlad, 1990). Their emphasis on character building and morality, rather than a liberal education, resulted in a 'profession' with ill-defined intellectual borders which was open to persons of varying educational backgrounds. Further, this legacy, in part, has contributed to teaching's current status as a 'semi-profession' (Freiberg & Waxman, 1990; Leavitt, 1991). The legacy of this early foundation has continued to plague primary teacher education and there is still no consensus of opinion on primary teachers' academic preparation.

As mentioned earlier, traditionally, changes in teacher education have been linked to reforms in 'schooling' (Harte, 1972; Popkewitz, 1987). Hence, historically, teacher education is related to the development of 'schooling'. Popkewitz, for example, observes that:

> As schooling evolved as a social form to prepare children for adulthood, there also developed a specialized occupational group with control and authority to work out the charter of its everyday life. The occupational group developed certain specialized bodies of images, allegories and rituals which explain the 'nature' of schooling and its division of labor. The conduct of teacher education can be understood, in part, as a mechanism for legitimating occupational patterns of labor to new recruits. (p. 3)

Generally, primary teacher education programmes have seen considerable reformation from the days of the first normal schools. Many countries have already established primary teaching as a graduate profession (for example, Britain and the

United States) while, in others, the trend is slowly taking root (for example, New Zealand). Similarly, the conceptualisation of teacher education has also seen considerable transformation. Teacher education or teacher development, as it is referred to in the literature (DeLandsheere, 1987; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992), is now conceptualised as having three phases: pre-service, induction and in-service. These three phases constitute the continuum of teacher education described by Fullan (1991). Fullan sees teacher education as a life-long process which, from day one (pre-service), should be perceived as a career-long proposition. In the majority of countries, however, this holistic view of teacher education is the ideal, only on paper. Unlike other professions (for example, medicine and law) teacher education does not have international similarity. The nature of teacher education is largely dependent on the level of economic development, the social and political context, the local culture, and history. These factors account for the diversity in teacher education programmes which cover the broad spectrum from no specific preparation to university degrees (DeLandsheere, 1987).

The pursuit of quality as a general priority in education policy has been a hallmark of recent years (the 1980s and 1990s) and with it has come the growing perception of the pivotal role of teachers in implementing education reforms. Tickle (1987), for example, observes that: "many have come to believe that schools were liable to change for the better only if the education of teachers could change to provide an effective avenue of school reform" (p.11). The teacher is the 'linchpin' in all education reform efforts because it is the teacher who must implement the changes to effect improvement. Hargreaves (1994) outlines the pivotal role of the teacher in education reform efforts thus:

> The restructuring of schools, the composition of national and provincial curricula, the development of bench-mark assessments - all these things are of little value if they do not take the teacher into account. Teachers don't merely deliver the curriculum. They develop, define it and reinterpret it too. It is what teachers think, what teachers believe and what teachers do at the level of the classroom that ultimately shapes the kind of learning that young people get. (p. ix)

The recognition of the importance of teachers in implementing education reforms is one of the factors influencing contemporary reform efforts to improve the quality of initial teacher preparation. Consequently, tertiary institutions providing teacher education (including pre-service primary) have been required to: restructure their programmes, introduce quality assurance measures and provide greater accountability. The quality assurance measures have been introduced to ensure that institutions providing teacher education meet certain standards. 'Quality' in tertiary institutions is determined by the following: the characteristics of their graduates, the nature and process of their educational activities, the nature and appropriateness of their resources (human, material and physical), the management of their operations, and their organisational climate and culture (Aspin, 1993). In addition, standards for assessing teacher quality have also been introduced in several countries (Tickle, 1987; Freiberg & Waxman, 1990; Knight et al., 1993; Darling-Hammond, Wise & Klein, 1995). According to the Organisation for Economic and Cooperative Development (OECD) [cited in Aspin, 1993], teacher quality is assessed on these dimensions: knowledge of substantive curriculum areas and content; skills of effective pedagogy; reflection and the ability to be self-critical; empathy and the commitment to acknowledge the dignity of others; and, managerial competence.

The issue of quality in teacher education programmes is central to the vigorous debate about the predominant model of teacher education (institutionalised teacher education) [Tickle, 1987; Hargreaves, 1994]. This model, the policymakers argue, is deficient because graduates are not adequately prepared for their jobs in the classroom (Morrison, 1989; Marsh, 1990). As a result, there has been an increasing shift towards more field-based teacher training (particularly in the preparation of secondary teachers), with Britain leading the way (Goodson, 1993). This shift towards more field-based training reflects the power and influence of external constituencies (for example, business enterprises and commerce) on teacher education. In addition, this shift has resulted in changes in some teacher education programmes.

Another change in teacher education has been the trend towards rationalisation through the amalgamation of tertiary institutions providing teacher education (Harman & Meek, 1988; Martin & Samels, 1994). Attempts at amalgamation (discussed later in this chapter) are fraught with difficulties as the British, Australian, United States and New Zealand examples show. At the time of this investigation, the New Zealand institution (Hilltop College of Education) where this research was undertaken had entered into an affiliation agreement with its local university (Belmont University). As this development was directly related to the provision of pre-service primary teacher education, the focus of this research, the affiliation was an integral part of the present study.

In this section, the researcher presented a brief overview of the changes in teacher education (particularly, the evolution of institutionalised primary teacher education), noted the changing public perception of the profession and highlighted some of the major factors influencing change in teacher education. The literature revealed that, compared with the 'normal schools' of the early days, there were sufficient diverse approaches and stages of development to construct an international continuum of teacher education. This diversity was grounded in the differing economic, social, political, cultural and historical factors impacting, in varying degrees, on the form and nature of teacher education world-wide. The predominant trends were towards primary teacher education as a graduate profession, the amalgamation of tertiary institutions providing teacher education, increased involvement by policymakers, greater emphasis on quality and accountability, and increased field-based teacher education. At Hilltop College of Education, pre-service primary teacher education did not remain unaffected by these trends.

GLOBAL ISSUES AND PROBLEMS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Although the changes designed to effect improvement in teacher education have increased, Lanier and Little (1986) observe that the problems associated with the field have not been eradicated. In the literature on teacher education, the major issues and problems affecting the field have been described in several ways. Leavitt (1991), taking a global perspective, sees these factors as the major problems in teacher education: recruitment, the content of teacher education, governance, research, professionalism, teacher educators, in-service teacher education and the development of indigenous teacher education programmes. Katz and Raths (1992) and Russell (1993), who adopt a more specific approach, focus on modes of delivery and pedagogical content knowledge, respectively. They refer to the major issues in teacher education as dilemmas. Knight et al. (1993), on the other hand, focus on the problems as they relate to pre-service teacher education and identify these concerns: the need to recruit applicants of high academic quality, the content and length of pre-service teacher education, the importance of the practicum, and the need for improved supervision. Finally, several authors (for example, Harman & Meek, 1988; Beeson, 1991; Ramsay, 1992) have identified the amalgamation (or in some cases closure) of tertiary institutions providing teacher education as a current issue.

While all the issues mentioned in the preceding paragraph are important and are present, in varying degrees, world-wide, they cannot all be discussed in detail in a single study. Accordingly, the researcher discusses only the issues with a direct bearing on the present investigation. These issues have been grouped for discussion under the following sub-headings: the content of teacher education programmes, education policy and research on teacher education. Separate sections are devoted to international research on teacher education programmes and amalgamations in tertiary education because this study investigated change in the provision of pre-service primary teacher education mainly through two related programmes (the Diploma of Teaching and the B.Ed) and the affiliation with Belmont University.

The Content of Teacher Education Programmes

The issue of what should constitute the content of teacher education programmes continues to be a popular subject of debate in the literature. There are two major opposing camps on the issue: those who advocate more discipline-oriented subject matter programmes and those who advocate more practice-oriented programmes. Leavitt (1991) argues that these differing positions are derived mainly from the fact that teacher education "must relate to two entities with radically different mind-sets - the university and the public school" (p. 324). Consequently, there is always the tension between the university's focus on the academic and the school's interest in knowledge for practical purposes. However, in some countries (for example, New Zealand), the major constituencies influencing teacher education are the schools (the employers of the graduates) and the government (the major financier). Hence, the tension is primarily between what the schools want and what the government wants.

As the debate about the content of teacher education programmes persists among the different stakeholders and new lines of argument develop, one constant remains: the question of how best to prepare teachers. From this overarching controversial question emanate subsidiary issues such as questions about whether there is a body of knowledge undergirding teaching, questions about a universal body of knowledge for the teaching profession, questions about the importance of theory in teacher education programmes, and questions about the perceived theory-practice 'hiatus' in teacher education. While there is still no unanimity of opinion on these issues, a number of observations about the content of teacher education programmes have been made by various researchers and writers (for example, Howey & Gardner, 1983; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983; Holmes Group, 1986; Shulman, 1986, 1987, 1990; Beyer, 1987; Liston & Zeichner, 1987; Howey & Zimpher, 1989; Goodlad, 1990; Tom & Valli, 1990; Darling-Hammond et al., 1995, among others), and national standards for entry into the profession have been established by some countries.

Traditionally, the disciplines have provided the foundational knowledge in teacher education programmes but, generally, the content of teacher education programmes is influenced by people's preferred orientation (Feiman-Nemser, 1990). Shulman (1986, 1987), in his discourse on the 'content knowledge of teachers', provides a comprehensive list of the different categories or domains of knowledge: subject matter content knowledge; general pedagogical knowledge; pedagogical content knowledge; curricular knowledge; knowledge of learners and their characteristics; knowledge of educational contexts; and, knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds. These domains of knowledge are what Shulman believes teachers should have and, by extension, teacher education programmes should provide. However, the extent to which each of these categories of knowledge is included in teacher education programmes is dependent on the particular orientation adopted.

Liston and Zeichner (1987) argue for content that emphasises the development of prospective reflective practitioners with the skills needed to evaluate and integrate knowledge, and assess learners' needs and classroom contexts. Borman (1990), on the other hand, argues for the foundations of education as an essential component of teacher education programmes. At the same time, there are others (for example, Shulman, 1986, 1992; Bullough, Jr., 1993) who advocate the use of cases (similar to the legal profession) in teacher education programmes. However, Goodlad (1991) argues that teachers must learn the pedagogy essential to the enculturation and trait development of the young and the knowledge and skills necessary to participate in the continuous renewal of schools. Snook (1992) contends that a good teacher education programme should contain these six essential dimensions: knowledge, interpretive skills, research on teaching, applicative studies, teaching skills and attitudes. Finally, Clarke (1985) observes that the content of teacher education programmes should be derived from the following: an analysis of the skills teachers use in the field; an examination of what teachers will be doing in the future; and, the identification of what teachers should be doing.

Teacher education must also satisfy education policy. Hence, both the content and the status of teacher education programmes have been influenced by education policy. In Britain, for example, one of the government's requirements (through its Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education) is that initial teacher education "should include at least two full years course time devoted to subject studies at a level appropriate to higher education" (Marsh, 1990, p. 186). McNamara (1991) confirms Marsh's observation and also notes that a similar policy has been introduced in the United States. At the same time, the sub-sets of this regulation (outlined by Marsh) require that teacher education programmes translate subject study into a language which could "interrogate both higher education study and primary children's learning" (Morrison, 1989, p. 98). The requirement of subject studies for primary teacher certification is substantiated by evidence in Her

Majesty's Inspectors' (HMI) reports (particularly in the 1970s), that initial teacher education courses are not preparing primary teachers adequately enough for dealing with the range of curriculum areas offered in the primary schools (Tickle, 1987; Marsh, 1990). In the case of the United States, Freiberg and Waxman (1990) observe that the recommendations of the National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education (1985), the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986) and the Holmes Group (1986) have also influenced the content of teacher education programmes.

These differing orientations and influences account for the diversity in teacher education programmes and, as orientations change, so does the content of teacher education programmes. While there is support for the different orientations in teacher education programmes suggested in the preceding paragraphs, concerns have been expressed about each one. The emphasis on the foundations of the discipline is grounded in the philosophy that teachers should have a sound knowledge base of the subject areas above and beyond the curriculum they are expected to deliver. However, Shulman (1990) cautions that each discipline is separate and disconnected and the result has been an 'educational' foundation (or knowledge base) that is distinctly fragmented. A solution to this problem, Shulman (1986) suggests, is for the teacher to have lateral curriculum knowledge. He or she should be "familiar with the curriculum materials under study by his or her students in other subjects they are studying at the same time" (p. 10). With regard to the reflective orientation, Darling-Hammond et al. (1995) argue that the ability to reflect is dependent on one's knowledge base. Furthermore, knowledge and reflection cannot be separated:

> To be constructive ... teacher reflection must be informed by knowledge about learning and pedagogy and grounded in instructional purposes and concerns for the effects of one's actions on learners. The capacity to reflect in an informed and thoughtful manner is critical to the transformation of complex knowledge into action and to the development of further knowledge based on practice. (p. 32)

With regard to the use of cases, Bullough, Jr. (1993), based on his study of case records as personal teaching texts, concluded that the approach was complicated but useful for encouraging beginning teacher development and promising as a method of teacher education. Furthermore, the approach allowed the teachers to keep in touch with their development; increased their self confidence; enabled them to see themselves as producers of legitimate knowledge; enabled them to take greater control over their professional development; helped them to consider their values; and, facilitated reflectivity of various kinds.

However, Shulman (1992) cautions that, compared with other professions, the case method of teaching does not exist: "we are far removed from any received doctrine or orthodoxy regarding case methods" (p. 2). While Shulman identifies many potential benefits of the approach, he also identifies several disadvantages. First, there are the costs involved, both in time and money. Secondly, cases are difficult to teach and the procedure is inefficient because of the time factor involved. Thirdly, cases are episodic, discontinuous and hard to structure and organise holistically to facilitate students' understanding. Finally, cases are susceptible to over-generalisation.

Finally, Darling-Hammond et al. (1995), based on their review of the literature, make the following observation:

> Some kinds of preparation appear to make more difference than others. Standard knowledge of subject-matter is important up to a point: For example, out-of-field teachers are less effective than teachers who have been prepared to teach a given subject. However, past the level of basic subject-area preparation, most studies find that greater preparation in child development, learning theory, curriculum development, and teaching methods has a stronger influence on teacher effectiveness than does additional subject-matter preparation. In addition, intensive clinical guidance in learning to teach is extremely important to the effectiveness of beginning teachers. These findings suggest a structure for teacher licensing that includes all three components of preparation as a prerequisite for permission to practice. (p. 27)

The preceding observations have implications for the preparation of teachers and the content of teacher preparation programmes, particularly pre-service primary teacher education. There is a strong suggestion that programme developers should draw on the vast body of knowledge and research in teaching and teacher education that is currently available. Secondly, programme developers should also consider the wider political, economic and social contexts in which teachers have to work. Thirdly, while all the components of teacher education programmes are important, there is need to ensure that they strike the right balance and are well integrated. Finally, in a rapidly changing environment, teacher education programmes cannot remain static, particularly if teachers are to meet the needs of their clientele and to fulfil their leadership role.

Education Policy

One of the factors influencing change in teacher education (including pre-service primary teacher education) is education policy (mentioned earlier). The influence of education policy on the form and nature of teacher education world-wide is well documented in the literature. The political factor is a major influence primarily because governments are either the sole or major financiers of teacher education. However, the level of governmental control varies across institutions (usually by type) and countries. For example, Meek (1988a) notes that, while universities in Britain and Australia share financial dependency, in Britain, unlike Australia, local education authorities (LEAs) have a greater degree of control over colleges and polytechnics.

One of the distinguishing features of contemporary education policy is the question of whether the emphasis is on centralisation or decentralisation. The issue of centralised and decentralised control of teacher education is both controversial and political (Tickle, 1987). In some countries (for example, Nigeria and St. Vincent), control is highly centralised; in others (for example, Australia, Britain, New Zealand and the United States), institutions offering teacher education have greater autonomy. However, in most countries where there is greater autonomy, the reality of the situation is that the checks and balances imposed to monitor institutions have the obverse effect: they tend to make the education system highly centralised. Whatever is handed out with one hand is taken back with the other and claims of devolution of power amount to a tighter grip on the reigns from the centre. Given the increasing emphasis on quality control and accountability, it appears that autonomy and decentralisation, applied to teacher education, now have different connotations. This observation is supported by Popkewitz (1987) when writing about the situation in the United States:

> While the general tenor of debate focuses attention on communal problem-solving, the actual strategies to alter the control mechanisms of educational systems involve a continuum of elements of centralization, decentralization and devolution of decision-making. Strengthened procedures of accountability through standardized testing procedures and revised certification programs have been introduced in teacher education to provide greater control by the state. At the same time, local authorities and universities have been called upon to develop alternative curricula for teacher education, reflecting demands for decentralization and, in some instances, devolution of decision-making. (p. vii)

Snook (1992), writing about the New Zealand situation, also supports this observation:

> I think the Picot changes and those that followed Tomorrow's Schools really deceived the New Zealand people because they were told that they were going to get increased local autonomy, and the government would progressively withdraw. In fact, of course, central government and the people that control it have never been more powerful, though local communities are increasingly held responsible when things go wrong. (p. 6)

In Chapter One, the researcher noted that contemporary education reforms have assumed a holistic orientation. This orientation is linked to the universal concerns about the quality of education provided in schools. These concerns have been redirected at teacher education and have resulted in the ongoing debate over the nature and type of teacher preparation provided by tertiary institutions. As mentioned earlier, the world-wide call for reforms in teacher education is rooted in the argument that tertiary institutions are not producing the type of graduates required to provide 'quality' education in schools. However, while the critics all agree that there is need for change in teacher education, the reform proposals are diverse - ranging from extended teacher education programmes (Tickle, 1987; Knight et al., 1993; Darling-Hammond et al., 1995) to field-based teacher education (Borman, 1990; Leithwood, Begley & Cousins, 1992; Whitty, 1993).

These diverse proposals for change in teacher education are mainly structural and they address different purposes. In Britain, for example, the government's policy is to move away from institutionalised teacher education to field-based training (Everton & White, 1992; Dart & Drake, 1993). At the same time, education policy intended to address concerns in initial teacher preparation such as low academic entry qualifications, the relevance of courses, and programme fragmentation, have resulted in curriculum changes, higher and more stringent selection criteria and increased requirements for certification (Tickle, 1987). In the United States, the Holmes Group (1986) advocates postbaccalaureate teacher preparation and professional development schools which it hopes will enhance the professional status of teachers, expand the empirical base of teaching and create career opportunities to check the attrition rate. At the same time, Clark (cited in Howey & Zimpher, 1989) proposes a postbaccalaureate entry into initial teacher preparation and Tom (cited in Howey & Zimpher, 1989) suggests a redesign of professional education at the baccalaureate level. Finally, Freiberg and Waxman (1990) observe that the current evolution of reform efforts in the United States has been a case study in political power and changes in teacher education have been mandated in these areas: admission standards, certification, curriculum, and incentives.

The British situation has not been singular where political influence is concerned regarding the shift towards increased field-based teacher education. The shift towards increased field-based teacher education is fast becoming a global trend (Goodson, 1993). While Britain is leading the way in this direction, North American and other European states and countries are following the same path (Ibid). At the same time, some New Zealand politicians (and citizens) are debating the issue, advocating a move in that direction. Knight (1992), for example, observes that, "fifty years on we find a vocal group in the community advocating a return to a school-based model of teacher education" (p. 9). Finally, in Australia, school-based teacher education is seen as the panacea for the problems of quality and relevance in teacher education (Knight et al., 1993).

Where the locus of control is concerned, Popkewitz (1987) notes that, in Britain, the organisation and control of teacher education "has been under continued pressure as the government monetarist policies are applied to the university and school sectors" (p. vii). This sentiment is echoed by several other authors (for example, McNamara, 1993; Russell, 1993; Whitty, 1993). In fact, what McNamara abhors is the British Government's attempts to influence and determine how teacher educators should do their job and how they should prepare student teachers for the classroom. Hargreaves (1994) describes the British Government's policy as draconian with the intent of making teacher education "more utilitarian and less reflective and questioning" (p. 6). Similarly, Leavitt (1991) argues that interventions by state or national governments in the work of teacher education institutions tend to diminish their authority by "imposing specific curriculum and certification requirements" (p. 324). In short, education policy seems to be aimed at deprofessionalisation.

Joining the debate, Whitty (1993) argues that the requirement by the British Department of Education and Science (currently the Department for Education) that student teachers should be taught "ways in which pupils can be helped to acquire an understanding of a free society and its economic and other foundations" (p. 266), suggests a re-educative function of State control over the curriculum of teacher education. At the same time, this stipulation appears to be in total contradiction to the argument that the theoretical component of teacher education is irrelevant and subversive (Lawlor, cited in McCulloch, 1993). Whitty also argues that, in Britain, the government has characterised itself as democratic and the educational establishment as elitist. Furthermore, the government's debate is about giving control of teacher education to teachers in the schools rather than to the teaching profession as a collectivity through a general teaching council.

In Australia, the changes in teacher education introduced during the period 1987 to 1992 were tied closely to the general reforms in education and were driven primarily by economic and industrial considerations. Knight et al. (1993) observe that the level of efficiency of the teaching workforce was a major concern and the education policy was aimed at reconstructing and standardising teacher education as an industry in a corporate manageralist model under the Federal Government's direction. Thus, there was a shift in emphasis from professionalism to training and competency based standards. In the process, teacher educators were marginalised and had little input in the decision making process.

Among the education reforms introduced in Australia during the period 1987 to 1992 was the introduction of a unified national system of higher education. With the introduction of the unified national system of higher education came the transformation of the colleges of advanced education into universities. This change and the accompanying need to measure up to the older established universities forced the newer universities to introduce numerous innovations to improve the quality of their programmes. Some of these changes, cited by Knight et al. (1993), included: curriculum changes; the extension of pre-service training to four years (in some cases); the development of masters' and doctoral programmes in education; the recruitment of more highly qualified staff; more emphasis on staff development (upgrading of academic qualifications); and, moves to establish a research base and scholarship similar to the 'traditional' universities.

In New Zealand, three education reviews (between 1987 and 1989) preceded the system wide education reforms of the late 1980s: *Administering for Excellence: Effective Administration in Education* (1988) [The Picot Report]; *Education to Be More* (1988) [The Meade Report]; and, *Report of the Working Group on Post Compulsory Education and Training* (1988) [The Hawke Report]. The first of these reviews focused mainly on primary and secondary education, the second on early childhood education and the third on tertiary education. From these reviews and subsequent reports, the government produced four education policy documents: *Tomorrow's Schools: The Reform of Education Administration in New Zealand* (1988) [primary and secondary education], *Before Five: Early Childhood Care and Education in New Zealand* (1988) [early childhood education], and *Learning for Life*

I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen (1989) and *Learning for Life II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen* (1989) [tertiary education].

The reforms in tertiary education, intended to actively encourage excellence, had the following principal features:

> 1. Decision making would be decentralised, which would give institutions independence and freedom to make operational and management decisions relating to the nature of their service, efficient use of national resources, and demands of accountability.
> 2. The Ministry of Education would be established as a policy ministry to provide comprehensive policy advice on education and training. Policy development would encompass all aspects of post-compulsory education.
> 3. There would be both a new mechanism and approach to funding by the government based on a common formula. The Government was committed to: being the principal financier of post-school education and training, the expansion of the sector, "broadening" the funding base, and, increasing the proportion of private funding in tertiary education.
> 4. There were to be changes in the funding of scholarships and research, based on accountability and effectiveness of research and scholarship.
> 5. A National Education Qualifications Authority (NEQA) would be set up to provide an across-the-board (general) approach to the validation of qualifications in all tertiary institutions.
> 6. The Government was committed to making tertiary education accessible to all groups in society by removing barriers to access for under-represented groups. Equity measures would be instituted through institutions' charters and corporate plans.
>
> (Adapted from Learning for Life I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989, pp. 2-3)

These principles were the foundation of the reforms in teacher education that were to follow. Although the major changes were introduced in Chapter One, it is appropriate to revisit them here. Briefly, colleges of education became fully autonomous institutions with greater responsibility and demands for accountability. There were contracts (charters) for operating, funding was tied closely to the number of student teachers, and teacher education became an open market with increased competition. In addition, the intention was to make primary teaching a degreed profession (P 2; P 3; P 46) and colleges of education could opt to operate as 'stand alone' institutions or in affiliation with other tertiary institutions (although the latter 'option' was later emphasised). Where programmes were concerned, colleges of education had to ensure that the courses they offered were directly related to the teacher's job in the classroom. At the same time, the Education Amendment Act 1990 also removed the constraints that inhibited cross-sectoral mergers (Ramsay, 1992; Smithells, 1992). Hilltop College of Education, like other colleges of education, had to incorporate the changes mandated by the government. Therefore, the reforms set the 'wheels of change' in motion at the college of education where this investigation was conducted (mentioned earlier). These initial changes preceded the latest innovations examined in this investigation - the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University.

The observations in the preceding paragraphs reflect the extent to which change in teacher education is politically driven. There is a direct relationship between the extent of political influence in teacher education and financial control. However, to examine the political influence on the basis of the financial criterion alone is to attempt a simplistic analysis of political interference and efforts to control teacher education. Political interference must be seen for its 'real' intent. Generally, for the government, the teacher training system is seen as a powerful vehicle for the transmission and perpetuation of its ideology. In this regard, Wilkin (1992) observes that teacher training:

> provides access to the hearts and minds of the next generation, and in the priorities given to training within different subject areas, the system can contribute to a healthy economy ... as the basis of ideological strength and stability. To influence and, more, to control teacher training is thus politically attractive. (p. 307)

Wilkin's (1992) observation is supported by Musgrove (1979) who observes that, "courses of teacher training are among the 'legitimating ideologies' which, it is said, ensure the reproduction of social inequality and the continued dominance of the ruling class" (p. 63). Therefore, in the final analysis, the government's bid to control teacher education is an attempt to "steer society towards its own ideological goals" (Wilkin, 1992, p. 319) and maintain the status quo. Where the government's influence on teacher education was concerned, Hilltop College of Education was not bypassed.

Research on Teacher Education

In Chapter One, the researcher mentioned that research cannot be conducted in isolation: oblivious of existing research in the field. Hence, a review of the literature on research in teacher education is both appropriate and necessary. There are several reviews of research on teacher education (for example, Peck & Tucker, 1973; Wragg, 1982; Lanier & Little, 1986; Houston, 1990; Tisher & Wideen, 1990; Leavitt, 1992). However, research on teacher education from immediately after the Second World War to the present can be put into three broad categories using Tisher and Wideen's framework. In discussing teacher education, these authors designate the two decades immediately after the Second World War as the early period of research when few studies were conducted. The period from 1965 to the early 1980s, they claim, marked the slow development of a body of research in the area. During this period, research in teacher education was dominated by the positivist approach (Jacknicke & Rowell, 1987). However, the period from the early 1980s to the present (Tisher and Wideen's third category) has seen a rapid increase in research (in the area) and researchers have shifted increasingly towards other approaches, mainly the situational-interpretive inquiry orientation (Ibid). However, despite this rapid increase in research, Lanier and Little (1986) argue that the lack of a body of research is one of the major factors inhibiting improvement efforts in teacher education.

In commenting on the contribution of research to the field of teacher education (mentioned in the previous chapter), Popkewitz et al. (1979) observe that the quantitative studies have not contributed much by way of understanding the complex nature of teacher education. Another observation is that there are noticeable gaps in the body of research in the field (McNamara, 1990; Tisher, 1990; Wideen & Holborn, 1990). At the same time, Lanier and Little (1986) contend that existing data do not provide clear portraits of the explicit pre-service curriculum in different settings. Similarly, Feiman-Nemser (1990) notes that current research in the field does not provide an understanding of the relative effects of selection, compared with socialisation, or the relationship between opportunities to learn and learning outcomes in different types of pre-service programmes. Further, several authors observe that teacher education programmes are considered to be sub-standard (for example, Lanier & Little, 1984; Holmes Group, 1986; Marsh, 1990; Knight et al., 1993). These observations all suggest the need for further research which should be carried out deliberately and systematically to fill the existing gaps and to provide a better understanding of the nature of teacher education.

One significant byproduct of the increasing number of education reforms since the mid-1970s is the growing recognition of the crucial role of teachers in implementing educational change. However, one of the most predominant findings across studies in teacher education is the 'mismatch' between teacher education programmes and the aims and objectives of 'schooling'. Goodlad (1991), for example, based on his study of teacher education in several school districts in the

United States, explains that a large percentage of teachers are not thoroughly grounded in the knowledge and skills required to effect change - regardless of the education reforms instituted. This observation is also highlighted by Tisher and Wideen (1990) in their synthesis of research on teacher education from twelve countries. At the same time, Tickle (1987) observes that, if teachers are to perform the roles that are expected of them, policymakers need to be clear about what kinds of teachers are desired and "provide the kind of teacher education most likely to produce particular qualities of professional practice and leadership" (p. 11). However, the quality of the graduates is related not only to the programmes offered but also to the quality of the recruits themselves. For example, Ramsay and Battersby (1988), in their study of 'in school' training in New Zealand, reported that, "both teachers college staff and associate and Normal School teachers commented that the calibre of the intake was not sufficiently high to ensure a good practitioner at the end of the training programmes" (p. 12).

There is still no consensus of opinion on what should be the focus of research efforts in teacher education. The ongoing debate on this question is a byproduct of the tension between the university and teacher education on the one hand and the schools and teacher education on the other hand. Leavitt (1991) notes that this is a universal problem and lists six countries where it is a major issue, namely: Australia, Brazil, Canada, Egypt, Malawi, and Malaysia. He further notes that there is a growing feeling, especially in countries where there is a paucity of funds, that research should be more action-oriented. Further, research should address policy issues for the improvement of the quality of teacher education programmes with emphasis on greater cost effectiveness. The university, on the other hand, is disposed to conducting more theoretical and generalisable research. However, Leavitt (1992), in his summation of major changes in teacher education, observes that, with few exceptions, the preparation of teachers was being brought, increasingly, under the province of universities. This observation suggests that, in the long term, the universities' orientation could dominate research in teacher education.

While the debate about the orientation of research studies reflects the polarisation in the field, there is consensus of opinion that there is need for more research in teacher education programmes and the contexts in which they are provided. Several authors (for example, Howey & Gardner, 1983; Lanier & Little, 1986; Howey & Zimpher, 1989; Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992) have commented on the paucity of research in this area and have emphasised the contribution which research into initial teacher education programmes could make to the field. These observations supported the need for the present study which investigated the provision of pre-service primary teacher education in the context of a rapidly changing environment.

The major global issues discussed in this section underscore the difficulties associated with teacher education. While it is important to recognise the problems, it is equally important that they are not accepted as givens that cannot be changed, neither can they be wished away. The tertiary education institutions offering teacher education have been criticised for the lack of relevancy of their programmes. In particular, the usefulness of education theory has been questioned. Collectively, the criticisms levelled at teacher education, the emphasis on providing 'quality education', and the links established between economic regeneration and improvements have all contributed, in some form, to the changes in teacher education.

To summarise, while teacher education is recognised as a field of research in its own right, the literature has shown that there is need for more research in teacher education, particularly teacher education programmes and the contexts in which they are provided. With the increase in education reforms has come the recognition of the pivotal role which teachers play in their implementation. This observation has ramifications for teacher education. Teacher education programmes must prepare teachers to meet the needs of 'schooling' and, at the same time, fulfil their leadership role. Consequently, it is imperative to examine the interrelatedness of the different parts of the education system and to appreciate the fact that reforms in 'schooling' necessitate corresponding reforms in teacher education in order to effect improvement. It follows, then, that the system must be viewed holistically and teacher education must see itself as part of that whole and must recognise its role in the wider context. In this regard, Hargreaves (1994) observes that:

> In education, as in other walks of life, things go together. It is the interrelationship of changes that lends them a particular coherence; that gives them one particular thrust rather than another. Meaningful and realistic analysis of educational change ... requires us to relate part to whole - the individual reform to the purpose and context of its development. And it requires us to look at the interrelationships between the different parts in the context of that whole. (p. 8)

In Chapter One, the researcher established that the most recent education reforms in New Zealand were system-wide endeavours. Hence, in conducting this investigation, it was necessary for the researcher to relate the changes in teacher education to the system-wide education reforms to get a better understanding of the phenomenon.

INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH ON TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

Several searches of data bases, both manually and by computer (for example, ERIC, Dissertation Abstracts International and the British Index to Theses), produced a substantial number of research studies, books and papers about teacher education and research on teacher education. While most of the research was peripheral to the present study, there were several research studies, books, reports and papers (for example, Champion, 1983; Howey, 1983; Clark, 1984; Ellis, 1984; Gickling et al., 1984; Hoffman, 1984; Howey, 1984; Johnson-Slaughter, 1984; Lanier & Little, 1984; Benz & Newman, 1985, 1986; Felder, 1985; Fraser, 1985; Gades, 1985; Hosseiny, 1985; Locke, 1985; Ayers, 1986; Holmes Group, 1986; Scott, 1987; Skipper, 1987; O'Loughlin & Campbell, 1988; Howey, 1989; Howey & Zimpher, 1989; O'Donnell, Schneider, Seidman & Tingitana, 1989; Goodlad, 1990; Tisher & Wideen, 1990; Parker, 1991; Kohut, Jr., 1992; Mertz & McNeely, 1992; Gilroy & Smith, 1993; Rodriguez, 1993) which provided valuable information on the state and nature of teacher education and diverse types of teacher education programmes. However, few of these studies provided comprehensive descriptions of pre-service primary teacher preparation programmes. A similar observation was made by Andrew Hargreaves (personal communication, 5 July, 1995), a renowned researcher in the field.

The literature revealed that teacher education programmes spanned a broad spectrum from a liberal arts orientation to a practical, craft orientation (Zeichner, 1983, 1993; Howey & Zimpher, 1989; Feiman-Nemser, 1990); varied in duration from one to five years (Tickle, 1987; Knight et al., 1993; Darling-Hammond et al., 1995); were offered primarily by higher education institutions (for example, universities and colleges of education); typically combined institutionalised and 'in school' training (teaching experience) in some form; and, varied considerably in their content and focus within and across countries. Generally, teacher education programmes have been criticised by policymakers and the public for not producing the type of product (trained teachers) that could improve the quality and standard of schooling (Marsh, 1990; Apple & Jungck, 1992). A corollary to this criticism is that higher education institutions were out of touch with education practice and teacher education should be located in schools (mentioned earlier).

One of the most recent changes in teacher education in some countries is increased field-based teacher education (Goodson, 1993) [mentioned earlier]. Field-based teacher education suggests a narrow definition of teacher training: one limited to the technical operations which teachers are expected to perform. There is also the suggestion that experiential learning is simple and straightforward. Russell (1993), however, argues that experiential learning is neither simple, straightforward nor automatic, while McCulloch (1993) observes that the necessary technical expertise of teachers cannot be deduced from an apprenticeship model. Similarly, Clarke (1985) cautions that, "further emphasis on the practicum, simply in the form of additional practice, is useless" (p. 68). However, Everton and White (1992) contend that there are some partnership schemes (for example, the scheme at the University of Leicester) which demonstrate that there is no cause to be alarmed about field-based teacher education. At the same time, Everton and White observe that there is a difference between "a cut-price 'sitting next to Nellie' approach, and a carefully planned and properly co-ordinated partnership scheme built on existing good practice and rooted in sound educational theory" (p. 144). The underlying suggestion here is that, if teacher education (or the greater percentage thereof) is shifted to the schools, then the organisational structure, funding policy and, by extension, the culture of schools must be transformed to facilitate the shift.

Another area of concern in the literature on teacher education programmes is the dichotomy between theory and practice (Tickle, 1987; Ramsay & Battersby, 1988; Goodlad, 1990). The issue of the theory-practice gap in teacher education programmes is one of the major criticisms of policymakers, researchers, authors, student teachers and practising teachers alike (Gickling et al., 1984; Knight et al., 1993). Gickling et al., in their survey of preferences for teacher training, reported that many practising elementary and special education teachers in their sample felt that the content of most courses (both education and liberal arts) "was too 'textbook' oriented, emphasizing the theory without translating the theory into classroom action" (p. 38). Further, some of these respondents reported that they wanted a more practical or 'hands on' approach. Similarly, Rodriguez (1993), in his preliminary analysis of a year long study of six student teachers, reported that these student teachers felt that their academic work (theory) was unrelated to teaching.

Teacher education programmes have also been criticised both for their theoretical orientation (Knight et al., 1993) and for their 'superficiality' and weighted technical orientation. Lanier and Little (1984), in their review of research on teacher education, concluded that studies of the curriculum of initial and continuing teacher education showed that they were fragmented, shallow and overly technical.

Similarly, Howey and Zimpher (1989), in their study of six elementary teacher education programmes, found that the foundations of education received limited attention in some programmes, while the Holmes Group (1986) observed that teacher education was intellectually weak. O'Loughlin and Campbell (1988) also observed that, "the primary focus of conventional teacher preparation usually centers on a narrow, prescriptive form of training" (p. 12).

The history of pre-service teacher education in many countries (for example, Australia, Britain, Canada and the United States) is one of politically driven curriculum recommendations. However, a common observation across the literature is that these top down prescriptions (Hargreaves, 1994) either never get incorporated into teacher education curricula or are implemented minimally and in diverse forms (Freiberg & Waxman, 1990; Knight et al., 1993). Ellis (1984), who analysed six major reports on teacher education in the United States from 1933 to 1983, concluded that the major reasons for the recommendations from these reports not having a more significant impact on teacher education curricula was that each report was founded on the purposes and assumptions of its own author(s) and ignored other proposals in the field. In addition, Ellis reported that the recommendations tended to reflect the ideas and trends of their times, resulting in little accumulation of knowledge or any linear development of ideas. Similar observations were made by Knight et al. (1993) in commenting on the impact of reform efforts in Australia.

In the area of student teachers' perceptions of teacher education programmes and teaching, there were studies of student teachers' perceptions of teaching prior to entering teacher education programmes (for example, Mertz & McNeely, 1992) and studies of student teachers' perceptions of teacher education programmes during or after completing training (for example, Benz & Newman, 1985; Skipper, 1987; Rodriguez, 1993). Mertz and McNeely, in their study of student teachers' pre-existing constructs, found that student teachers entered training programmes with "well formed, influential cognitive constructs about teaching; that students come with a variety of constructs; and, that the constructs can be identified and accessed" (p. 11). While O'Loughlin and Campbell (1988) made a similar observation, they also pointed out that the consequence of ignoring student teachers' existing ways of knowing was that, "students go through the motions of mastering separate [emphasis in original] knowledge without ever making the connections that would help make this knowledge their own" (p. 17). Rodriguez (1993) supported the preceding observation and suggested that teacher education programmes must find ways of tapping into student teachers' belief systems to facilitate the construction of more significant meaning and deeper understanding of education theory.

One of the reports on teacher education often cited is that of the Holmes Group (1986). The report produced by the Holmes Group was the product of a consortium of education deans and chief academic officers from the major research universities across the fifty states in the United States. The research (studies and consensus-building deliberations) on which the report was based took place over a fifteen month period. The goal of the group was twofold: the reform of teacher education and the teaching profession. With regard to teacher education, the group concluded that teacher education was a 'non-programme', professional courses were neither interrelated nor coherent, and the curriculum was seldom evaluated for its comprehensiveness, its redundancy or its responsiveness to research. While the Holmes Group advocated a strong liberal arts and disciplinary background, the Group also contended that teachers should possess far more than subject matter knowledge. The Group observed that a programme of professional studies must integrate the following components to qualify as a comprehensive plan for teacher education: the study of teaching and schooling as an academic field (education); knowledge of the pedagogy of subject matter; the skills and understandings implicit in classroom teaching; attitudes, values and responsibilities of the teaching profession; and, the integration of all aspects of professional studies into the clinical experience. Further, the Group recommended the establishment of professional development schools. It must be noted, however, that the Holmes Group has been criticised for its seemingly technical rational orientation (Beyer, 1987).

The National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education (1985), whose brief was primarily to examine teacher education (across the United States) and to make policy recommendations, observed that there was need for improvement in teacher education programmes, including financial and material resourcing. Based on its findings, the Commission recommended that teacher education programmes should include integrated liberal arts studies, subject specialisation (in the curriculum component), and professional education. Further, the Commission recommended that teacher education should continue to be located in colleges and universities and adequate financial and material resources should be provided. The taskforce of the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986), on the other hand, recommended undergraduate degree programmes that provide a broad liberal education and a thorough grounding in the subjects to be taught; the establishment of teacher education as a graduate profession; and, the abolition of undergraduate degrees in education. Furthermore, the taskforce recommended that elementary (primary) teachers should be able to demonstrate "a substantive understanding of each subject they teach" (p. 73). The recommendations in these two reports and those of the Holmes Group (1986) have all contributed to policy and programme changes in initial teacher preparation (Freiberg & Waxman, 1990).

Howey and Zimpher (1989) provide one of the most detailed descriptions of teacher education programmes in their work, *Profiles of Preservice Teacher Education*. Howey and Zimpher's study is described in greater detail because the study covered several of the programme factors in the conceptual framework used in this study (see Figure 2, p. 92). The authors examined the preparation of elementary school teachers in six different pre-service teacher education programmes. These six research sites ranged from a small liberal arts institution to large research-oriented universities all located in the midwest region of the United States. From the cross-institutional analyses, Howey and Zimpher reported that, in the area of curriculum, the educational value of studies in the disciplines were not acknowledged by student teachers; the foundations of education were given limited attention in several of the programmes; the emphasis in most institutions was on the technical and communicative dimensions of teaching; there was rarely any focus on the moral and ethical dimensions of teaching; and, little attention was paid to group processes, the promotion of social development within classrooms, and the use of intervention skills to alter classroom climate. With regard to the nature of teacher education, Howey and Zimpher reached several conclusions. First, teacher preparation was a labour intensive job. Second, some teacher educators also taught in elementary schools. Third, there was a high demand on teacher educators' time. Finally, teacher educators gave a considerable amount of their time to student teachers outside of formal instruction and supervision.

In the area of pedagogy, Howey and Zimpher (1989) reported that: the lecture and discussion format was the predominant instructional approach; the quality of instruction varied within and across faculties; and, the use of modern technology was rare. With regard to programme evaluation, Howey and Zimpher found little evidence of systematic programme evaluation. In the area of research and development, only some institutions, particularly those with a research mission, were involved in research. The authors reported numerous examples of curriculum articulation between the activities which occurred in the institutions and those which occurred in the schools. Generally, the supervising teachers (in New Zealand, termed associate teachers) were usually aware of what student teachers were expected to do.

Goodlad (1990), in his book, *Teachers For Our Nation's Schools,* reported on a study of teacher education conducted by the Center for Educational Renewal (founded by Goodlad and two colleagues). The study included twenty-nine institutions engaged in teacher training. Two teams of researchers spent a total of three hundred days collecting data through individual and group interviews, classroom observations and questionnaires, across the twenty-nine sites, from student teachers near the completion of their training, faculty staff (teacher educators), presidents, provosts and deans of universities, and students and selected individuals across several school districts. In addition, case histories of the research sites were prepared by educational historians.

Goodlad (1990), from this rich data base, concluded that reforms in teacher education had failed to effect desired changes because they had been piecemeal and unrelated to the reform efforts in schooling. Second, there was a lack of programme coherence and theory was separated from practice. In this regard, Goodlad recommended that the initial and continuing education of teachers should take place in a scholarly setting that ensures the blending of the theoretical and the practical through a unique joining of school and university cultures. Third, there was a debilitating lack of prestige in the teacher education enterprise because none of the institutions included in the investigation had organised and supported teacher education as a mission in its own right. Consequently, Goodlad suggested that any college or university providing teacher education that was unwilling to give it priority should either go out or be put out of the business of teacher education. Fourth, Goodlad reported that teacher education suffered from a stifling regulated conformity. Finally, Goodlad concluded that teacher education was like a derailed train, confused and without direction. In order to put the train back on track, Goodlad proposed nineteen postulates for teacher education programmes. These nineteen postulates (which were adopted by the institution under investigation) are included in this study in Appendix C.

The literature reviewed in this section revealed that, in the area of programmes, teacher education was a field of layered complexities. The existing research pointed to a number of deficiencies across diverse programmes which needed to be addressed in order to effect improvement in teacher education. The research on teacher education programmes provided 'foundational' information which assisted the researcher in designing the present study in order to make a contribution to the field. The literature also highlighted the need for more research on teacher education programmes which focus on the contexts of their provision. This study investigated the provision of pre-service primary teacher education in the context of a rapidly changing environment. The researcher focused primarily on the changes introduced by Hilltop College of Education through the examination of two related programmes (the Diploma of Teaching and the B.Ed.). In the next section the researcher discusses the literature on institutionalised pre-service primary teacher education in New Zealand.

INSTITUTIONALISED PRE-SERVICE PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION IN NEW ZEALAND

Institutionalised primary teacher education, which began with the establishment of the first 'normal school' in Dunedin in 1876 (Ramsay & Battersby, 1988; New Zealand Department of Education, 1989; Knight, 1992), was an alternative form of teacher preparation to the existing pupil-teacher apprenticeship system. By the Education Act of 1877, primary teacher education was established on a national basis and the name 'normal school' was changed to 'training college' in 1905 (Harte, 1972). The teacher training colleges were secular, State controlled, and patterned their operations on the British and Scottish systems (Ibid). However, student teachers enrolled at the Dunedin Normal School (from its inception) had the option of doing concurrent university study.

Primary teacher education had a 'chequered' existence during the first three decades of the twentieth century. During the economic depression of the 1930s, the teachers' colleges closed for a period of two to four years. Although the Atmore Report of 1930 (cited in Harte, 1972; Taylor, 1978) recommended institutional mergers between the teachers' training colleges and the universities, the recommendation was not followed through. However, by that time, institutionalised primary teacher education had become an integral part of the education system. The training colleges also outlived the Currie Commission's recommendation in 1962 for the establishment of institutes of education (cited in Taylor, 1978).

From its earliest beginnings to the present, the essential curriculum of primary teacher education has remained practically unchanged (McGrath, 1994). Although some curriculum components and their time allocation have undergone modification, McGrath observes that:

> The traditional view of covering the school curriculum subjects, education courses, academic studies and teaching experience in schools remains very much in the structures of current courses. A perusal of all the colleges' 1994 calendars illustrates this point.... It is apparent there are courses in: Professional Education, General Studies, Curriculum Studies, Teaching Experience, Subject or Selected Studies. (p. 5)

While the weighting of the core components of primary teacher education varies across institutions and programmes, there is some standardisation on the criterion 'hours of instruction'. This characteristic is a byproduct of the government's education policy of the early 1980s, which was designed to ensure that all colleges of education were delivering a common curriculum [United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), 1990; McGrath, 1994]. A framework was established to guide the number of hours allocated to the study of the various components and 'sub-components' across the different programmes. This tendency to dissect the curriculum, reinforced the notion that, "training or education occurs in universities (usually subject studies or education), the colleges (education, methodology and some 'options') and the schools (teaching experience)" (McGrath, 1994, p. 6).

At the time of this investigation, the institutions providing teacher education offered one, two and three year primary teacher education programmes leading to certificates and diplomas, and a four year programme (in conjunction with their local universities) leading to a Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree. Student teachers at all institutions also had the option of doing concurrent university study towards other undergraduate degrees (for example, Bachelor of Arts and Science degrees), as UNESCO (1990) observed:

> concurrent university study is encouraged, with each college and local university determining in consultation the extent to which there will be cross-crediting of completed course requirements to the college diploma or university Bachelor degree. (p. 112)

The certificates and diplomas were awarded by the colleges of education while the degrees were conferred by the universities. Although all teacher education institutions, at the time of this investigation, were offering Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree programmes (in conjunction with their local universities) for primary student teachers, different kinds of arrangements existed between each institution and the university conferring the degree (UNESCO, 1990; Renwick 1993).

At the time of this investigation, although the content of teacher education programmes varied across institutions, all programmes included the basic components of curriculum studies, professional studies, subject studies and 'in school' training in some combination. In the case of the degree programmes, there were also compulsory university courses and electives. In some diploma and certificate programmes, there was scope for specialised training or subject study.

An important development in education policy which will impact profoundly on the form and nature of teacher education is the move towards establishing system-wide unit standards (competencies) for national qualifications (a National Qualifications Framework), including the teaching profession. The New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) was mandated to develop unit standards for all levels of education and training in order to create a proposed 'seamless' education system (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 1993). While the unit standards for the national qualifications in primary and secondary teacher education were developed in 1993 (Gibbs & Munro, 1993; C. Gibbs, personal communication, 16 February, 1996), these unit standards were not specific to any level of training or qualification within the teaching profession. As Gibbs and Munro (1993) noted, some unit standards "will need to be demonstrated at the initial teacher qualification stage; others will need to be demonstrated for subsequent qualifications" (p. 1). However, the unit standards for the initial national teaching qualification (and entry into the profession) are currently being developed (C. Gibbs, personal communication, 16 February, 1996). The intention is that institutions providing teacher education will incorporate the unit standards into their curriculum and student teachers will have to demonstrate that they have met these standards in order to qualify for the national teaching diploma (Gibbs & Munro, 1993; McGrath, 1994; Gibbs, 1995) and, by extension, entry into the profession.

In summary, there have been several changes in the provision of pre-service primary teacher education from its inception to the present. A notable change has been a shift from the use of the word 'training' to 'education'. At the same time, the curriculum structure for primary teacher preparation has seen little change over the years. While student teachers have had the opportunity to undertake university study over the years, within recent times university study has assumed greater importance given the local and international trend towards making teaching (including primary) a graduate profession. All colleges of education now offer a B.Ed. degree programme in conjunction with their local universities. Finally, another important development which will impact profoundly on the nature and form of pre-service primary teacher education in the near future is the proposed introduction of unit standards for the initial national teaching qualification. In the next section, the discussion shifts to the New Zealand research on teacher education programmes.

RESEARCH ON TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN NEW ZEALAND

The New Zealand research on teacher education covers a broad spectrum. There are historical studies of teacher education or specific teacher education institutions (for example, Check, 1947; Smith, 1949); studies in teachers' attitudes and student teachers' self efficacy (for example, Isherwood, 1975; Jaquiery, 1977; Gibbs, 1994); studies in teacher selection (for example, Elliot, 1974; Batchelor, 1986; Pelesikoti, 1986; Smith, 1992); and studies in teacher socialisation (for example, Ennis, 1972; Battersby, 1981; Kingston, 1983). However, there is a paucity of research on teacher education programmes or aspects thereof. For example, Battersby and Ramsay (1987), reporting on their study of 'in school' training, write: "it is the first nationwide study into in-school training in New Zealand" (p. i). Another important observation is that most of the available research studies on teacher education are master's theses or projects and many are dated. While there was no New Zealand research in teacher education with a similar focus adopted by the researcher in the present study, it was necessary to review the New Zealand literature on teacher education programmes to provide background information.

The research on primary teacher education programmes included the longitudinal study by Renwick and Vize (1990, 1991, 1992, 1993a, 1993b); programme evaluation studies (for example, Murdoch, 1978; Simpson, 1994); studies in teachers' perceptions of programmes or aspects thereof (Morley, 1976; Gardiner, 1982); studies of 'in school' training (for example, Morley, 1976; Battersby & Ramsay, 1987; Ramsay & Battersby, 1988; McGee, 1995); national inquiries into teaching and teacher education (for example, New Zealand Department of Education, 1979; Education and Science Select Committee, 1986); and, national reviews of education, including teacher education (for example, New Zealand Department of Education, 1930, 1962). Although not specific to teacher education programmes, the Organisation for Economic and Co-operative Development's (OECD) study on teacher quality (Ramsay, 1993) is mentioned here because of its implications for teacher training programmes.

The most recent national inquiry into the quality of teaching, including pre-service teacher education, was conducted by the Education and Science Select Committee in 1986. The Committee's terms of reference included an examination of the professional development of teachers to identify the efficiencies and deficiencies in the systems of recruitment, training and teaching (Education and Science Select

Committee, 1986). Based on the data collected through oral and written submissions, discussions with selected individuals, groups, and organisations, the Committee made four recommendations. First, the agencies providing teacher education should co-operate in the area of research to identify the common core of teacher education (essential theoretical and practical components) across all levels of training. Secondly, the required teaching skills and competencies should be clearly identified. Thirdly, there should be greater flexibility in the content, length and entry points of courses. With regard to flexible entry points, the recognition of prior learning was recommended. Finally, the Committee recommended the strengthening of the structures to improve the connections between college lecturers and student teachers on 'in school' training.

The longitudinal study by Renwick and Vize (1990, 1991, 1992, 1993a, 1993b), which focused on the process of teacher education from the perspective of a cohort of student teachers, is recognised as a landmark study in primary teacher education programmes. The study began in 1989 at the commencement of the student teachers' training and ended in 1992 on the completion of their first year as beginning teachers. Three colleges of education participated in the study. While the exact numbers (over the four year period) are difficult to decipher, given the method of reporting, the study began with a total of seven hundred and forty-one (741) student teachers entering the three colleges of education in 1989. The researchers collected data on the participants' perceptions of their training programmes during training and one year thereafter using questionnaires and interviews. Reports were published annually from 1990 to 1993. Additionally, a final report was published in 1993 (Renwick & Vize, 1993b).

While some of the findings in the Renwick and Vize (1990, 1991, 1992, 1993a, 1993b) longitudinal study are cited elsewhere in this report, in this section, the researcher focuses mainly on some of the pertinent, broader generalisations. The authors reported that: the present system of teacher education produced competent and committed beginning teachers; the college courses and practical component enabled student teachers to lay the foundation of professional knowledge and skills; the objectives the colleges had addressed best were those related to knowledge of curriculum and the acquisition of teaching skills; student teachers felt that the programmes were not intellectually rigorous and rated the objective related to extending their academic education the lowest; the practicum was the most important part of their training programme; and, at the end of their training ninety-seven percent (97 %) of the student teachers were either confident or very confident about teaching.

In the area of preparation for teaching, Renwick and Vize (1993b) reported that beginning teachers felt that they were well prepared for teaching in the following areas: the primary schools' curriculum, particularly in the areas of reading, physical education, mathematics and language; various aspects of planning and classroom management such as unit planning, daily planning and evaluation, management techniques, classroom organisation and environment, and behaviour management, among others; and, teaching practice. The areas in which beginning teachers felt that they were not well prepared for teaching included: administration, assessment, and record keeping; 'implementing' courses; classroom management and teaching skills; and, some curriculum areas.

An important observation about the reporting of the findings by Renwick and Vize (1993b) was the difficulty (for the reader) in determining on what percentage of the participants some of the conclusions were based: for example, the finding that ninety-seven percent (97 %) of the student teachers were either confident or very confident about teaching at the end of their training. The reader would have to refer to two earlier reports (Renwick & Vize, 1992, 1993a) to determine the number of participants. Another important observation was the fact that some findings were contradictory. For example, the final report (Renwick & Vize, 1993b) carried these findings: generally, students reacted positively to the college programme because of the range of courses of high standard offered; and, generally, students reacted negatively to the college programme because of the lack of intellectual stimulation and challenge of some courses, particularly in the first year. Similarly, the authors reported that beginning teachers felt that they were well prepared for various aspects of planning and classroom management yet, at the same time, they reported that beginning teachers felt that they were not well prepared in the area of classroom management.

In the area of 'in school' training, several studies (for example, Morley, 1976; New Zealand Department of Education, 1979; Education and Science Select Committee, 1986; Ramsay & Battersby, 1988; McGee, 1995) reported on the difficulties associated with this component of teacher education programmes. While all researchers reported that student teachers perceived the practicum as the most important part of their training, Ramsay and Battersby observed that student teachers' compartmentalisation of theory and practice (the theory-practice gap) was directly related to:

> the structure of teachers colleges, the patterning of school based experiences, the nature of the knowledge presented within teachers college courses, and an emphasis on a non-critical and non-reflective approach to in-school training. (p. 15)

Almost a decade before Ramsay and Battersby's (1988) investigation, a similar observation was documented in the *Review of Teacher Training* (New Zealand Department of Education, 1979).

> The practical school experience is, in most instances, an artificial situation in so much as the student does not have responsibility for a class. The main emphasis while "on section" is on the planning and presentation of lessons with little attention being given to the multiplicity of other tasks which contribute to the job description of "teacher". This is a result of the lack of close co-ordination between the colleges and the schools, a lack of the appreciation by many associate teachers of the aims of the "section", and a lack of co-ordination between the stage of college courses and what the student does in the schools. (p. 33)

Ramsay and Battersby (1988) also concluded that the 'in school' training experiences in all colleges were based on a 'banking' concept. The emphasis, they claimed, was on 'filling up' student teachers with large amounts of information, analogous to depositing funds in a bank, with the hope that this investment would pay dividends. However, these authors further observed that:, "given the lack of a coherent, systematic, critical, and theoretically informed teacher education programme in New Zealand, it is doubtful whether this hope is achieved very often" (p. 15).

The New Zealand OECD study of teacher quality (Ramsay, 1993) was part of an international study of teacher quality initiated in 1992. The overall research had three parts: teacher seminars in which teachers were to discuss the characteristics of quality teaching; an investigation of an innovative teacher education institution; and, a case study of five quality teachers and the impact of national or local policies on their programmes (Ramsay, 1993). The study referred to here (Ramsay, 1993) covered the third aspect and was based primarily on the observation and analysis of the capacities and behaviours of five quality teachers (primary and intermediate) and their relationship to the achievement of desired teaching outcomes. The five teachers, their school principals, the chairpersons of the Boards of Trustees, and practising teachers in the schools were also interviewed and data were collected from parents 'informally'. The study reported fifteen capacities and behaviours of quality teachers which were associated with improved student outcomes. These capacities and behaviours ranged from high intellectual ability to desirable personal and professional qualities such as patience, tenacity and commitment.

The findings of this study had implications for teacher education and the production of quality teachers in several areas. First, the desirable characteristics of 'quality' teachers were identified. Secondly, there were implicit suggestions for reforms in teacher education programmes if the intention was to produce 'quality' teachers. Finally, the study provided useful information for policymakers 'intent' on improving student performance.

In summary, the literature on research in teacher education programmes in New Zealand revealed that there was a paucity of research in the area. Secondly, there was need for more systematic research on the diverse pre-service primary teacher education programmes, offered in equally diverse contexts, in order to identify the strengths and weaknesses in the field (particularly from the perspectives of the constituencies involved). The literature also suggested that greater use could be made of research in efforts to improve teacher education programmes. In the next section the researcher discusses the international literature on amalgamations in tertiary education.

INTERNATIONAL LITERATURE ON INSTITUTIONAL AMALGAMATIONS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

Amalgamations, mergers, affiliations or federations in higher education are neither novel nor recent occurrences. Harman (1983), for example, records the federation of the Claremont Colleges in the United States which was initiated in the 1920s and Meek (1988b) mentions the mergers in British higher education prior to the second world war. Similarly, Creswell and Roskens (1983) write about the phenomenon of inter-institutional mergers in the United States in the 1950s and 1960s, while Temple and Whitchurch (1994) cite the British mergers in the 1960s of several smaller institutions to form polytechnics. However, from 1980 to the present (the time of this investigation), both forced and voluntary mergers have picked up momentum in Australia, Britain and the United States (Martin & Samels, 1994).

While there are diverse kinds of amalgamations, Harman (1983) defines amalgamation as:

> a process whereby two or more formerly separate and independent higher education institutions become legally and organisationally a single entity under the managerial responsibility and control of a single

> governing body and single chief executive officer. In this process, unless special arrangements are otherwise made, all assets, liabilities and responsibilities of the former institutions are transferred to the single new or continuing institution. (p. 114)

Harman's definition puts amalgamation at one extreme of Peterson's (cited in Harman, 1983) continuum of organisational co-operation and linkage. This continuum moves from co-operation through co-ordination to unitary structure and it covers voluntary co-operative agreement, formalised consortium, federation, and amalgamation, in that order, moving from left to right along the continuum.

The terms amalgamation, merger, affiliation and partnership have been used loosely in the literature to refer to instances where tertiary institutions have 'come together', through diverse arrangements and agreements, in order to rationalise their operations. In a number of instances, these diverse associations are mandated by government policy, either explicitly or implicitly. Consequently, for some institutions, amalgamations have been forced (Linke, 1983; Collis, Hughes & Beyers, 1988; McKinnon, 1988; Meek 1988b; Temple & Whitchurch, 1994), either overtly or covertly.

The underlying argument for enforced amalgamations by governments, regardless of the country, is primarily three-fold: to reduce funding costs in tertiary education in the interest of economy; to respond to demographic trends, particularly the decline in population growth [although Meek (1988a) and Temple & Whitchurch (1994) report a pre-1970 expansionary phase of British higher education]; and, to diversify the academic offerings of tertiary institutions. In any event, where mergers in tertiary education have involved providers of teacher education, it has been on the receiving end (Harman, 1983). In Australia, for example, Porter (1988) observes that the decrease in the Federal Government's funding, associated with amalgamation in the 1980s, was directed particularly at teacher education.

Amalgamations are classified in various ways. Harman (1983) suggests seven methods of classification: voluntary and involuntary amalgamations; consolidations and acquisitions; sectoral and cross-sectoral amalgamations; institutions covering similar fields of study and institutions with different interests; classification by the number of institutions being combined; classification by the nature of the process of integration; and, classification on the basis of the results achieved. Samels (1994), on the other hand, provides an alternative framework based on the different types of merger models: pure merger, consolidation, transfer of assets, consortium, federation, association, joint venture, and affiliation. In the present study, the type of amalgamation (or merger) was affiliation.

Affiliations, according to Samels (1994), involve a set of mutual promises and anticipated academic benefits which, collectively, can provide mutual faculty exchange opportunities, joint enrolments, transfer articulations, shared library resources, joint externships, and other related advantages. Compared with other merger structures, affiliations have the least intrusive impact on the participating institutions. They also provide a period of collegial confidence and trust building in preparation for potentially more permanent educational partnerships. There are numerous examples of the different types of mergers described by Samels (see, for example, Millet, 1976; Harman, 1983; Cantor, 1988; Collis et al., 1988; Goedegebuure & Vos, 1988; Harman & Meek, 1988; Kroder & McLintock, 1988; McKinnon, 1988; Meek, 1988a, 1988b; Porter, 1988; Martin & Samels, 1994; Samels, 1994; Temple & Whitchurch, 1994).

While there is a growing body of literature on amalgamations in higher education, the available United States literature is more extensive when compared with that of Britain and Australia. Generally, the literature on amalgamations or mergers tends to focus primarily on: the reasons for mergers, the timing of mergers, the perceived status of participating institutions, the consequences of mergers, the merger process, merger planning and future prospects of mergers. While most writers tend to focus on the chronology of events in the amalgamation process, they usually present the reasons for amalgamation as factors influencing amalgamation.

The reasons for amalgamation are many and varied and are well documented in the literature. Several authors (for example, Millet, 1976; Harman, 1983; Cantor, 1988; Collis et al., 1988; Goedegebuure & Vos, 1988; Harman & Meek, 1988; Kroder & McLintock, 1988; McKinnon, 1988; Meek, 1988a, 1988b; Porter, 1988; Martin & Samels, 1994) have identified two or more of these factors as the reasons for amalgamation in the cases they have discussed: political factors; financial factors; factors associated with programme duplication or diversification and the spread of the disciplines; factors related to enrolment such as competition for students, declining enrolments and desirable enrolment size; factors related to improved institutional status; factors related to geographical location; factors related to human resources, including job security; and, social factors. However, the factors that influence amalgamation in one situation can inhibit achievement in another situation. Martin and Samels, for example, observe that the goals of mergers will be affected by predictable factors such as institutional history, geographic distance, regional traditions, state regulations, industrial agreements, and specific financial parameters. Similarly, Millet reported that, while geographical proximity played a major role in helping to bring about successful mergers in most of the cases he studied, there was one case of a failed merger where the geographical separation of the two institutions was a major stumbling block.

In dealing with the process of amalgamation, authors tend to focus on the events before, during and after amalgamation. Collis et al., (1988), McKinnon (1988) and Cantor (1988), for example, trace the process of amalgamation chronologically, beginning with an historical overview. While all authors emphasise the complex and problematic nature of the amalgamation process, Meek (1988a) observes that cross-sectoral amalgamations are the most difficult and involve more changes than any other form of institutional merger. Further, Harman (1983) observes that cross-sectoral mergers pose special problems not only at the institutional level but also at the system level in the areas of funding, co-ordination and accreditation. Problems associated with the amalgamation process range from routine issues such as the location of notice boards to more complex issues such as accreditation. In any event, Kroder and McLintock (1988) explain that the problems of amalgamation are inherent because "the very nature of the process results in a new entity with internal tensions not experienced within the previously independent organizations" (p. 136). Hence, there will always be conflict and tensions associated with differing ideologies; the establishment of new organisational structures, policies and procedures; and, the ambiguity surrounding personal roles, functions and job security. However, Meek (1988b) notes that cross-sectoral amalgamations have greater potential for achieving innovation.

Amalgamations have both positive and negative effects at the institutional and individual levels. However, the nature of the consequences of amalgamations is dependent on factors such as the status of the institutions involved, the size of the institutions, the business of the institutions, the reasons for amalgamation, the people involved, and the context of the amalgamation. The benefits of amalgamation identified in the literature (Millet, 1976; Cantor, 1988; McKinnon, 1988; Samels, 1994; Temple & Whitchurch, 1994, among others) include: improved institutional status; diversification of operations, particularly programme expansion; acquisition of property; increased enrolment; increased funding; increased staffing, including new positions; staff promotions and empowerment; increased opportunities for staff development; a single consolidated and centralised administration; more cost effective operations, including shared human, material and physical resources; mutual growth opportunities; a larger consolidated students' association; and, increased community involvement and support. McKinnon (1988), for example, writing about the amalgamation of Wollongong University and Wollongong Institute of Education makes the following observation:

> The merger has been a potent means of invigoration, giving the University a strength and variety that would not be otherwise possible, especially if we had remained a traditional university and college. Practical benefits have also included the enhanced possibilities for programmes and projects that have attracted funding from outside the usual Commonwealth sources, for example, the Illawarra Technology Centre.(p. 117)

Similarly, in the Loughborough University of Technology and the Loughborough College of Education amalgamation, Cantor (1988) reports that the University stood to benefit from the acquisition of buildings and recreational and sporting facilities; the expansion of the disciplines through the incorporation of the faculty of arts and the physical education department; the establishment of a department of design and technology; and, increased enrolment.

The detrimental effects of amalgamations identified in the literature (for example, Millet, 1976; Harman, 1983, Harman & Meek, 1988; Kroder & McLintock, 1988; Meek, 1988a, 1988b) include: the loss of identity and status (for both institution and staff); job losses; ambiguity of roles and functions; loss of institutional and personal autonomy and power; stress, anxiety, tension and conflict among staff; changes in organisational culture and climate; programme reductions resulting from rationalisation; decreased funding; reduced opportunities for institutional expansion and staff development and promotions; contraction in enrolments; loss of property; debt acquisition; fragmented organisational structure and inefficient and ineffective administration; the absence of legal mechanisms or ambiguous legal structures and procedures for operating; reduced involvement in decision making; inter-institutional conflict and resistance to change; and, tension and conflict among students and students' associations. Kroder and McLintock (1988), writing about the amalgamation of five colleges to form the Sydney College of Advanced Education, attest to the detrimental effects at the time of the amalgamation thus:

> At the time of the amalgamation, the new College existed in name only. It possessed a single Governing Council, and after November 1981, it had a Principal, Registrar and Bursar, but the role of the Central Administration was ambiguous and most attempts to rationalize the College's resources were resisted strongly. Each Institute retained a large administrative staff which, in several instances, was as large as applied in the respective former Colleges. "Colleges" policies and procedures were not in place and were resisted

> when proposed. The provision that each institute was to be a semi-autonomous teaching entity was extended to administrative autonomy and jealously guarded by the Institutes and the Institute Boards alike. The activities of the College administration and, by implication, common College approaches to issues were restricted to a minimum. (p. 136) [emphasis in original]

At the individual level, the impact of mergers on staff is generally more severe and more detrimental when compared with management. Gibson (cited in Harman 1983), who examined cross-sectoral merger proposals (between universities and teachers' colleges) in New South Wales from 1969 to 1975, found that, at the individual level, merger proposals generated anxiety among staff in both types of institutions. In the case of the university staff, anxiety was rooted in these factors: the academic standing of teachers' college staff and their courses, the possible loss of status by the incorporation of a lesser institution, the dangers of closer associations with the State Education Department (which funded teacher education), and the likely effects of the changing balance between disciplines. In the teachers' colleges, there was anxiety about job security and status. Ndambuki (1994), in her study of the impact of institutional amalgamation on organisational structure, culture and decision making, found that the differing perceptions of power and authority were sources of tension and conflict within and between the academic units in the amalgamation. Furthermore, the differing perceptions over which culture should prevail in the amalgamated institution (another source of conflict and tension) made it difficult to achieve cultural integration.

While amalgamations resulting from the national reorganisation of higher education systems are politically driven (Meek, 1988a), Martin and Samels (1994) observe that, in the United States, there is an increasing shift towards voluntary mergers in higher education. These mergers are based on the philosophy of complementary growth. Furthermore, mergers, particularly at the collegiate level, have become one of the most creative and effective means for achieving academic excellence rather than to avoid bankruptcy, as is often thought. While Martin and Samels also report that there are similar types of mergers in Australia and Britain, Temple and Whitchurch (1994) explain that, in Britain, mutual growth mergers constitute a strategy for managing change in response to the turbulent political and economic environment. The mergers within the University of London from 1980 to 1989 are examples of complementary growth mergers in Britain. Similarly, Martin and Samels cite several complementary mergers of both public and private institutions of higher education in the United States (for example, the joint academic programme offered by Camden County College and Glassboro College, and the three-way merger among Widener University in Pennsylvania, the Delaware Law School and Brandywine College) where the new approach has been successful.

Complementary or mutual growth mergers signal a new way of thinking, managerially and strategically, about higher education. According to Martin and Samels (1994), this new philosophy of mergers promotes the mutual growth and enhancement of the missions of both institutions and claims to be collaborative, participatory and ethical. Furthermore, the mutual growth approach has the potential to stimulate the staff of both institutions to new levels of professional development by peer example and increased institutional support. Martin and Samels, from their own experience with mergers and the work of other researchers, have identified ten core principles of mutual growth mergers. Such mergers: enhance complementary institutional missions; encourage mutual growth; strengthen overall academic offerings; strengthen financial bases; stabilise enrolment and student market share; improve administrative efficiency; accomplish economies of scale; use public relations opportunities; expand the alumni base; and create new institutional synergies.

There are many lessons to be learnt from the literature on amalgamations. Several writers (for example, Millet, 1976; Harman, 1983; Goedegebuure & Vos, 1988; Harman & Meek, 1988; Meek, 1988a, 1988b; Martin & Samels, 1994; Samels, 1994; Temple & Whitchurch, 1994) provide useful advice and guidelines based on their experience and knowledge of amalgamations. First, there is no one formula or set of rules that can be applied to all merger situations because each context is different. Second, strong leadership, dedicated to the change process, is necessary for the success of mergers. Third, there must be a core of 'key actors' in the institution(s) who are committed to the change and are prepared 'to push it through'. At the same time, where the planning of mergers has taken place between 'institutional elites', in an atmosphere of secrecy, the results have been negative. Hence, it is imperative to inform and involve even those persons on the periphery from the outset. Fourth, mergers do not easily transcend normal organisational politics and conflict. Fifth, people are important in bringing about mergers. Sixth, successful mergers require candid analyses and creative financial planning well in advance of implementation. Seventh, planning is a critical factor in the success of all mergers. Eighth, the change process must be managed and administrators must be sensitive to the risks and opportunities which mergers present for their subordinates. Ninth, mergers take time to be accomplished. The literature suggests a period of at least ten years for the changes brought by mergers to be accepted. Tenth, mergers are legal acts involving legal agreements and legal relationships.

Finally, the forces that drive mergers seldom, if ever, originate solely from within the institutions involved; they are usually external to the institutions. In the next sub-section the researcher discusses the New Zealand literature on amalgamations in tertiary institutions.

To summarise, amalgamations, mergers, consolidations or affiliations - whichever the ascription - all share the common element of change in one form or another. The literature has shown that, regardless of the country, the form, nature, timing and frequency of mergers between or among tertiary institutions are influenced, in varying degrees, by economic, political, financial, historical, social and organisational factors. At the same time, while mergers are influenced by diverse factors, financial exigencies or perceived financial benefits play a major role in most mergers. Where mergers are forced, the political factor is the primary mover. The consequences of mergers, like the factors influencing them, are diverse and they affect the constituencies involved in different ways.

Within recent years, mutual growth mergers have become increasingly popular in countries such as the United States, Britain and, to a lesser extent, Australia. Mutual growth mergers appear to be a strategy for survival in the competitive marketplace. The literature on mergers provide useful guidelines for people considering or embarking on mergers. However, there is one point in the literature, bypassed by many authors, which needs to be emphasised: the legalities of mergers. Mergers have advantages and disadvantages. However, in a climate where stringent economic measures and rationalisation are emphasised, complementary growth mergers seem to hold some hope for tertiary institutions in the future.

AMALGAMATIONS IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN NEW ZEALAND

Compared with other countries (for example, Australia, Britain and the United States), amalgamation in higher education in New Zealand is relatively new. The literature search produced a chapter in a text (McGrath, 1988), a conference paper (Ramsay, 1992), a research project (Smithells, 1992) and two dated papers on the relationship between New Zealand's colleges of education (then teachers' colleges) and universities (Renwick, 1978; Taylor, 1978).

The literature on institutionalised primary teacher education in New Zealand shows that colleges of education have a longstanding relationship with the universities (Harte, 1972). Briefly, New Zealand has a tradition of open access to university study, no limitations on part-time study and opportunities for obtaining a degree by the accumulation of course credits (Taylor, 1978). Although there have been calls to shift teacher education to the universities (Harte, 1972) or to institutes of education (Taylor, 1978), colleges of education are still a feature of New Zealand's education system in the 1990s. However, there have been changes in the relationships between some colleges of education and their local universities ranging from affiliation to full amalgamation.

The most recent instance of a sectoral amalgamation in tertiary education in New Zealand appears to be the politically driven amalgamation of the Auckland Teachers' College and the Auckland Secondary Teachers' College which took effect in 1985 (McGrath, 1988). As a result of the merger, the two former autonomous institutions came under one management team headed by a 'Principal:Co-ordination' position, but the two positions of principal of the former colleges were retained. While staffing remained under the control of the two principals, the institutions were reorganised under three separate schools: the School of Primary and Early Childhood Teacher Education, (PECE), the School of Secondary Teacher Education (STE) and the School of Social Work (SSW). Within this broader structure, there were faculties (of subject areas) constituted of staff across the three schools (staff of the two former institutions). By 1987, the two merged institutions, known as Auckland College of Education, were issuing a single calendar and time-table.

McGrath (1988) made several observations about the amalgamation. First, the councils of both institutions were favourably disposed to the merger. Second, neither of the two institutions was under threat of closure. Third, there were differences of opinion with regard to autonomy. The Auckland Teachers' College favoured a combined institution, while the Secondary Teachers' College was favourably disposed towards two autonomous institutions. Fourth, McGrath observed that the amalgamation discussions were open and that this facilitated communication and the dissemination of information. However, the problem of how to effect better communication across the schools remained unresolved. Fifth, two student teacher representatives were actively involved in the amalgamation discussions and the reorganisation. Sixth, efforts to combine secondary and third year primary student teachers on some courses failed because the course requirements of the two schools were not standardised to allow full participation. Finally, the two teacher education schools maintained most of their distinct cultures.

The first cross-sectoral amalgamation in New Zealand, between the former Hamilton Teachers College and the University of Waikato, was formalised at the beginning of 1991 (Ramsay, 1992; Smithells, 1992). Prior to the introduction of the Education Amendment Act 1990, cross-sectoral mergers were not possible because of the different forms of governance across tertiary institutions. Each university was established under its own act of parliament and was governed by its own council, while polytechnics and teachers' colleges fell under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education. The Education Amendment Act 1990 brought all tertiary institutions under one system. The only distinction was that universities retained their own acts (Smithells, 1992).

There were several factors that influenced the amalgamation of Hamilton Teachers' College and the University of Waikato in 1991. First, Hamilton Teachers' College had become a fully autonomous institution (Education Amendment Act 1990). Second, there was a desire to further improve teacher education. Third, there was an awareness of the vulnerability of smaller tertiary institutions. Fourth, the amalgamation was seen as an advantage to the university. Finally, people in key positions were favourably disposed to amalgamation (Ramsay, 1992).

Both Ramsay (1992) and Smithells (1992) observed that the amalgamation process was rushed, there was not enough time for planning, it was time consuming, and a number of important issues remained unresolved prior to implementation. Consequently, amalgamation was frustrating and difficult for the people involved, the administrative structure did not work according to the proposed plan, and there was ongoing tension resulting from cultural conflict. There had been role changes, workloads had increased (in some instances) and issues related to status and salary structure across all groups of employees remained a source of tension and conflict. While Smithells reported that both academic and general staff in her study (seven months following amalgamation) had identified perceived and actual positive and negative changes (for example, the marginalisation of some areas of education, increased contact with schools, changes in conditions of service and salary scales, and more emphasis on academic study and research, among others), many staff members had become alienated due to the frustration and changes. Further, many participants felt that it was too early to determine the value of the amalgamation for both institutions. Smithells concluded that, given the disparity in size between the two institutions, the amalgamation was "more realistically a 'takeover' or an 'absorption' of the Teachers' College by the University" (p. 80).

In 1992, the Auckland College of Education entered into affiliation with the University of Auckland to establish closer relations and to offer a Bachelor of Education degree programme (currently in its fifth year of implementation). Efforts to obtain literature on this affiliation were unsuccessful. While the researcher was aware that at least one internal evaluation of the programme had been conducted (L. Massey, personal communication, August 9, 1995), the report was not accessible. Hence, the researcher could not report on this affiliation.

To summarise, the New Zealand literature on amalgamations in tertiary education produced similar findings to those recorded in the international research. However, the paucity of New Zealand research in this area made this study all the more important. One of the changes in pre-service primary teacher education examined in this study was its provision by Hilltop College of Education in affiliation with Belmont University. Hence, this study could make a useful contribution to the New Zealand research in teacher education given the thrust towards amalgamation in tertiary institutions.

SUMMARY

The literature reviewed in this chapter revealed that teacher education, particularly pre-service primary teacher education, was a rapidly changing entity. There were common concerns world-wide about the nature and form of teacher education. An important observation was the need for more systematic research in teacher education, particularly in the area of programmes. While change in teacher education was driven mainly by external factors, the political factor appeared to be the most influential. At the time of this investigation, the major trends in teacher education in New Zealand were towards making primary teaching a graduate profession and the establishment of closer working relationships (amalgamation or affiliation) between colleges of education and their local universities. Hilltop College of Education was following these trends through the introduction of two major changes: the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University.

The present study, the first to examine the provision of pre-service primary teacher education in the context of cross-sectoral affiliation (in New Zealand) [one of the changes at Hilltop College of Education], is breaking new ground. Therefore, the study is significant because it addresses two important issues: cross-sectoral affiliation and the provision of pre-service primary teacher education in the context of affiliation. In the next chapter, the researcher focuses on the conceptual framework and the theoretical underpinnings of the study.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

INTRODUCTION

The traditional view of quantitative and qualitative investigations is that quantitative studies involve a highly structured approach while qualitative investigations involve a minimal amount of structuring and a very loose design (Sowden & Keeves, 1988). Contrary to this view, most qualitative researchers now take a 'middle ground' position between these two extremes (Miles & Huberman, 1984; Sowden & Keeves, 1988). Further, Sowden and Keeves also contend that qualitative researchers recognise the usefulness of conceptual frameworks, regardless of how rudimentary, in guiding investigations. Conceptual frameworks provide a structure for qualitative researchers and they eliminate the tendency, common in loose designs, to collect huge amounts of irrelevant data.

Under the heading 'Rationale for a Conceptual Framework', in Chapter One, the researcher explained the thinking behind using a conceptual framework in the present study. Further, the researcher explained that the broad area of interest, the research problem and the literature, guided the selection of the three major dimensions or parameters (Katz & Raths, 1985) in the conceptual framework, namely: people, programme and context. In developing the conceptual framework, the researcher used, primarily, the literature on teacher education, the literature on change theory, the Feiman-Nemser (1990) conceptual orientations framework and the Katz and Raths (1985) framework for research on teacher education programmes. In this chapter, the researcher discusses change theory and the two frameworks (Feiman-Nemser's and Katz and Raths'), and explains how she developed the conceptual framework.

CHANGE THEORY

Change theory provides the theoretical underpinnings for this investigation. There is now a large body of literature on change theory. However, there are differing views and conflicting statements, among authors, about the history of research on the change process. For example, Fullan (1986), a name synonymous with change theory, claims that the history of serious research on the change process dates back to 1971. In a later work, *Change Forces: Probing the Depths of*

Educational Reform, Fullan (1993) writes: "it is remarkable how far the study of educational change has come in the last thirty years, since it started in earnest in the 1960s" (p. vii). Despite the controversy, there is evidence in the literature to support the claim that research into the change process began much earlier than the dates suggested by Fullan (Bennis, Benne & Chin, 1971; Havelock, 1971; Lewin, cited in Cherrington, 1989). However, the differing views aside, the literature (for example, Gross, Giacquinta & Bernstein, 1971; Sarason, 1971, 1982; Crowther, 1972; Fullan & Pomfret, 1977; Kaabwe, 1980; Fullan, 1982, 1991; Huberman & Miles, 1984; Ramsay, Hawk, Harold, Marriott & Poskitt, 1993, among others) has provided valuable insight into the nature of the change process, particularly in relation to educational innovations, their implementation, and the institutions and individuals involved. In this study, the researcher draws heavily on the work of Michael Fullan.

There are two broad categories of change theory in the literature: 'implementation theory' (Woodman & Pasmore, 1987; Oliver, 1992) and 'change process theory' (Fullan, 1985; Oliver, 1992). According to this classification, 'implementation theory' addresses what needs to be done and how to ensure that planned change is successful, while 'change process theory' focuses on explaining the dynamics of the change process. However, a closer look at the literature suggests that there are not just two, but three broad interrelated categories of change theory: 'implementation theory', 'change process theory' and 'change management theory'. Figure 1 is a holistic representation of the researcher's conceptualisation of change theory. It includes the three broad categories and their associated factors. Figure 1 provides a framework for presenting the literature on change theory.

Implementation Theory

Implementation theory covers pre-implementation and implementation. These two components of implementation theory are discussed under this section.

Pre-implementation

Pre-implementation is "that process that leads up to and includes a decision to adopt or proceed with a change" (Fullan, 1991, p. 47). Pre-implementation or initiation can assume many different forms. Typically, at this stage, an individual or group, for whatever reason, initiates, promotes or advocates an innovation. This innovation can be a new programme, policy changes, changes in the organisational structure of an institution or a combination of one or more of these factors.

Change Theory

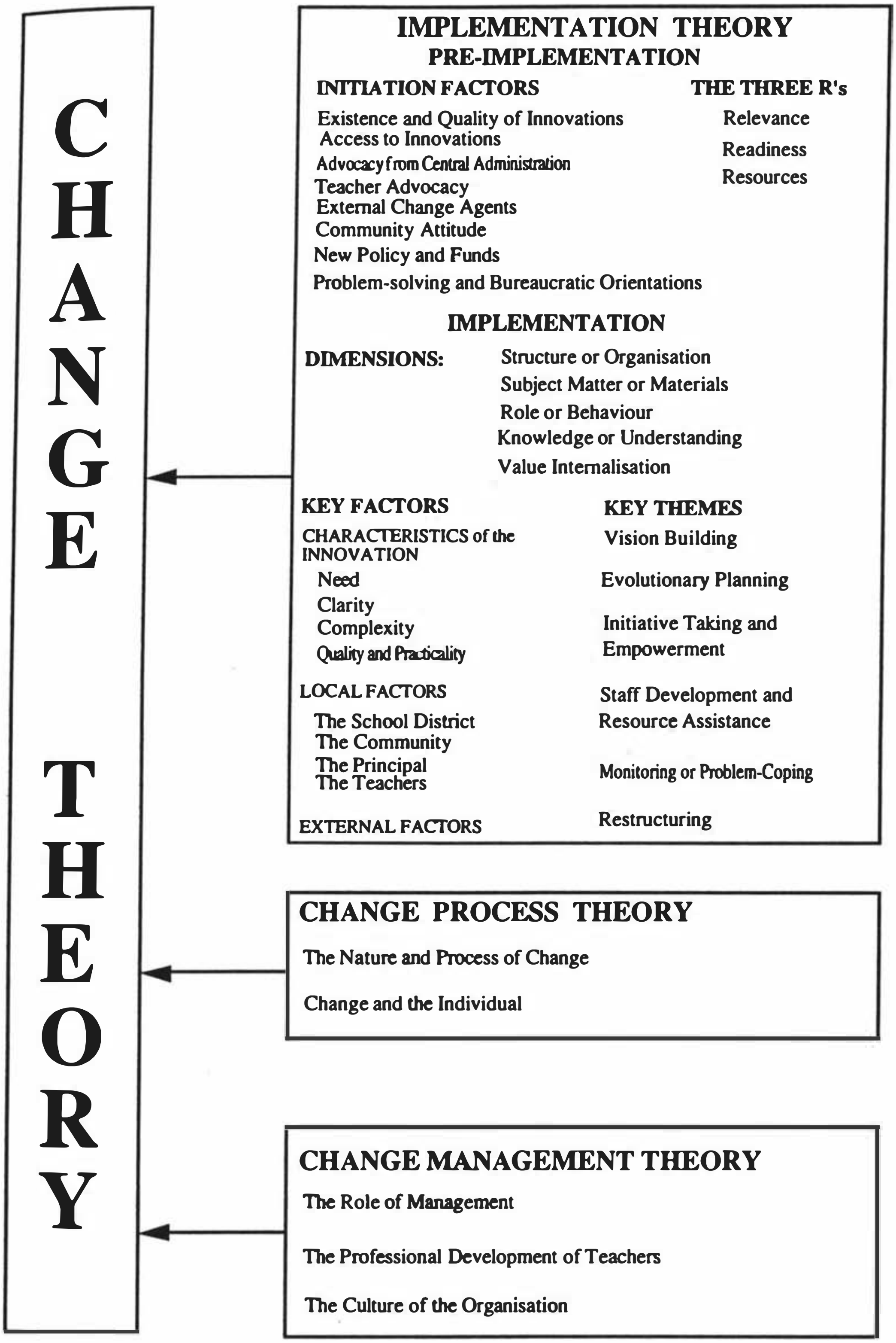

CHANGE THEORY
IMPLEMENTATION THEORY
PRE-IMPLEMENTATION
INITIATION FACTORS
Existence and Quality of Innovations
Access to Innovations
Advocacy from Central Administration
Teacher Advocacy
External Change Agents
Community Attitude
New Policy and Funds
Problem-solving and Bureaucratic Orientations
THE THREE R's
Relevance
Readiness
Resources
IMPLEMENTATION
DIMENSIONS:
Structure or Organisation
Subject Matter or Materials
Role or Behaviour
Knowledge or Understanding
Value Internalisation
KEY FACTORS
CHARACTERISTICS of the INNOVATION
Need
Clarity
Complexity
Quality and Practicality
LOCAL FACTORS
The School District
The Community
The Principal
The Teachers
EXTERNAL FACTORS
KEY THEMES
Vision Building
Evolutionary Planning
Initiative Taking and Empowerment
Staff Development and Resource Assistance
Monitoring or Problem-Coping
Restructuring
CHANGE PROCESS THEORY
The Nature and Process of Change
Change and the Individual
CHANGE MANAGEMENT THEORY
The Role of Management
The Professional Development of Teachers
The Culture of the Organisation

Figure 1. The researcher's conceptualisation of change theory.

Fullan (1991), writing about the initiation process, contends that "the best beginnings combine the three R's of relevance, readiness, and resources" (p. 63). Relevance covers the practicalities of the innovation and includes the interaction of factors such as the need, clarity of the innovation, and its utility. Readiness refers to an institution's practical and conceptual capacity to initiate, develop or adopt an innovation. Readiness may be examined on two levels: the individual level and the organisational level. Both the individuals responsible for implementing the change and the institution in which it will be implemented must have a certain level of readiness to take the innovation on board. The last of the three R's, resources, involves the accumulation and provision of support in the change process. These three factors: relevance, readiness and resources are interrelated. Therefore, the extent to which individuals and the institution perceive an innovation to be relevant, their level of readiness and the extent to which support is provided will, to a large extent, determine the success of the initiation process.

Although the three factors mentioned in the preceding paragraph are of paramount importance for the success of the initiation process, there are countless other factors associated with initiation which influence decision making. Fullan (1991), based on his extensive research on the change process, identifies these eight categories of factors: (a) existence and quality of innovations; (b) access to innovations; (c) advocacy from central administration; (d) teacher advocacy; (e) external change agents; (f) community pressure, support or apathy; (g) new policy and funds; and (h) problem-solving and bureaucratic orientations (see Figure 1, p. 54). These eight categories of factors are associated mainly with programme or curriculum change. The researcher has redesignated the sixth and seventh categories 'community attitude' and 'new policy and funding', respectively because they seem to be more appropriate ascriptions.

Overview of Factors Associated with Pre-implementation

The first category of factors, existence and quality of innovations, is concerned with the availability and examination of new educational innovations (for example, new programmes). During the examination process, the issue of programme quality features prominently (Fullan, 1982) and so do clarity and perceived advantage, particularly where teachers are the decision makers (Fullan, 1991). However, compared with administrators, central office personnel and policymakers, teachers have the least access to information and the least involvement in decision making about educational innovations. Similarly, while administrators and other central office personnel have opportunities to communicate with their peers at conferences, workshops and through professional networks, teachers do not have an equivalent number of opportunities for continuous personal contact. Several studies (for example, Crowther, 1972; Gray, 1987; Marks, 1988) have shown that opportunities to meet with colleagues implementing the innovation is most important to teachers but these opportunities are usually limited.

For change to be initiated there must be some form of advocacy. The advocate could be an individual, a group or even an entire community. Fullan (1991) observes that one of the most powerful advocates is the 'chief district administrator', particularly in combination with the school board's support. In other countries (for example, New Zealand) the equivalent of the chief district administrator is the Minister of Education, who is generally at the locus of decision making. While teachers have less power to initiate school-wide or even system-wide change, where advocacy is concerned (Ibid), there is evidence in the literature (Little, cited in Fullan, 1991; Rosenholtz, cited in Fullan, 1991) to suggest that many teachers are willing to adopt innovations and implement innovations provided that certain conditions exist (for example, a perceived need for the innovation and the innovation meets quality standards). In the case of external change agents, their roles in advocacy include marketing and facilitating the change. External change agents are most influential during initiation and when they work in combination with local leaders (Fullan, 1991).

Regardless of the advocate, there are always goals or objectives for advocating an innovation. Bassett (1970) identifies three levels at which these goals exist: the societal level, the system or strategic level and the institutional or tactical level. At the societal or community level, goals usually reflect the widely held values expressed in vague philosophical terms. At the system level, goals are expressed through education policy or legislation. Goals, at the institutional level, are expressed primarily in methodological terms. While advocacy at the system level appears to be the most powerful driving force (political action influences how social goals become instituted), there are occasions when a statement of goals at each of the three levels, taken together, can provide the framework for initiating educational innovations.

Every educational institution is different and so is each community. Generally, communities tend to take one of these three positions: (a) they can bring pressure to bear on educational authorities to implement a desired innovation; (b) they can oppose the proposed implementation of undesirable innovations; or (c) they take no active part in the whole process. While Fullan (1991) notes that the most predictable initial pressure for change from the community is likely to come as a result of population shifts, in New Zealand, the community's involvement in education has increased (through education policy) with the introduction of the Education Act 1989.

Many major educational innovations are a result of changes in government policy, supported by government funding. There are examples of major educational changes initiated by government policy, at some point, in almost every country. However, one of the problems with nation-wide innovations is that what often gets implemented is far removed from what was initially intended because each institutional setting is different and people generally respond to innovations in diverse ways (Hargreaves, 1994). Furthermore, there is usually a limited time-frame for implementation and quite often a sense of urgency to get the project under way. Many innovative projects, thus engineered, result in non-implementation and poor investment of public funds (Berman & McLaughlin, 1977).

Closely related to new policy and funding is the category 'problem solving and bureaucratic orientations'. Fullan (1991) contends that some school districts use the opportunity of new policy and funding to obtain extra resources or to solve particular local problems. The resources are often channelled into other areas and the innovation for which it was actually intended is either partially implemented or not implemented. Similarly, Fullan, Anderson and Newton (cited in Fullan, 1991) in a study of four school districts in Ontario found that administrators sometimes welcomed new curriculum policies because they provided a stimulus or reminder to work in a desired direction. At the same time, Pincus (1974), in an analytic review of public schools in the United States, postulates that public schools tend to have a more bureaucratic orientation. Pincus also identifies three factors favourable to the adoption of innovations: (a) bureaucratic safety - when innovations provide resources without requiring behavioural change; (b) response to external pressure - where adopting the innovation will alleviate the pressure; and (c) approval of peer elites - where criteria are not clearly defined, whatever is popular with leading professional peers is sometimes the determining criteria.

It seems, then, that where funding is a factor, it is relatively easy for schools to adopt (as policy) complex, vague, inefficient and costly innovations even though they may not implement them. Educational institutions with a bureaucratic orientation seem to be more concerned with the political and symbolic value of initiating change as opposed to the relevance, educational advantage and improvement to be derived from implementation (Hargreaves, 1994). Furthermore, they seem to be less preoccupied with costs in time and money, especially when someone else is funding the project. Fullan (1991) observes that such an orientation may be necessary for political survival and may also be the pre-requisite for instituting real change. However, this observation is debatable, for obvious reasons.

In this sub-section the researcher focused on pre-implementation or initiation and discussed the three key factors in adoption: relevance, readiness and resources. The researcher then discussed the eight other categories of factors associated with initiation. These factors are all interrelated and work together in varying combinations to influence decisions about initiation.

Each educational institution is different and so are the settings and groups of stakeholders. People have different agendas and there are always issues of power that influence decisions one way or another. The first stage of the change process, like all other stages, is highly political and there are many diverse ways of making initial decisions about educational change. Some of these approaches are arguably more effective than others and result in more effective implementation. At the same time, one needs to be aware of the factors that influence initiation decisions because what happens at one stage of the change process affects the other stages. Nevertheless, once innovations are adopted they usually proceed to some form of implementation.

Implementation

Simply put, implementation is the actual use of a particular change. Fullan (1982) defines implementation as "the process of putting into practice an idea, program, or set of activities new to the people attempting or expected to change" (p. 54). This definition suggests a process orientation, which leads inevitably to change at the individual and institutional levels. Implementation is more complex than initiation because it involves more people. People are essential to success and what people do or fail to do in practice is crucial to the implementation process. Fullan (1991) observes that implementation is critical "for the simple reason that it is the ***means*** of accomplishing desired objectives" (p. 66). [emphasis in original]

Fullan's process oriented definition introduces the notion of 'dimensions' of implementation. In one of his earliest works, Fullan (1979) identified five dimensions of the implementation process: (a) structure or organisation; (b) subject matter or materials; (c) role or behaviour; (d) knowledge or understanding; and (e) value internalisation (see Figure 1, p. 54). These dimensions are closely associated with programme implementation. The first of these dimensions, structure or organisation, refers to both the structure of the organisation and the institution (as a whole) where the innovation is implemented. The concern here is the influence of the organisational structure on the implementation process (Gross et al., 1971; Fullan, 1972; Massey, 1980). Most educational innovations necessitate corresponding changes in the organisational structure.

'Subject matter or materials' focuses on the content of a new programme and the means by which it will be transmitted. The quality of the programme and the availability and usability of curricular resources influence the level of implementation that is achieved (Crowther, 1972; Downey, 1975; Massey, 1980; Marks, 1988). The three other dimensions: role or behaviour, knowledge and understanding, and value internalisation are closely associated with the people involved in implementing the innovation. Implementation necessitates behavioural change at the individual level, particularly for those implementing the innovation. At the same time, educational administrators are also required to change in order to manage and facilitate the change process. Gross et al. (1971), Kaabwe (1980) and Aidoo-Taylor (1983), based on their investigations, all observe that the performance of management could have a critical bearing on the implementation process. Similarly, Massey (1980), Fullan (1986) and West-Burnham (1990) all contend that the role of the administrator is a crucial factor in the change process and, from a business orientation, Deal and Kennedy (1982) emphasise the critical role of management in implementing change.

According to Fullan (1979), knowledge or understanding relates to the philosophy, assumptions, goals and means of the innovation necessary to utilise it. In broader terms, this dimension is directly related to behavioural change because change in behaviour depends on the acquisition of new knowledge, skills, attitudes and values. Value internalisation refers to the user's commitment to, and valuing of, various aspects of implementing the innovation. However, commitment to implementing the innovation does not necessarily guarantee its implementation. There are numerous factors and unanticipated developments, along the way, that can affect the entire process and the individuals involved. Fullan (1979) cautions that a high level of commitment at the outset is a condition for successful implementation rather than part of the implementation process itself. He further observes that it is only after detailed experience with the innovation that "people can really come to commitment in specific terms (or reject it)" (p. 43). [emphasis in original]

More recently, Fullan (1991) has discussed implementation using two frameworks: key factors and key themes in the implementation process. The first category of factors, he claims, is role oriented while the second is process oriented. At the same time, Trice and Beyer (1993) suggest that, from a cultural perspective, implementation can be discussed along four dimensions: pervasiveness, magnitude, innovativeness and duration. In this study, the researcher uses Fullan's classifications (see Figure 1, p. 54).

Key Factors in the Implementation Process

The key factors influencing implementation have been referred to in various ways. Charters and Pellegrin (1973) and Dalin (1978) describe them as barriers to implementation. Fullan (1982), on the other hand, sees them as factors affecting implementation and as key factors in the implementation process (Fullan, 1991). In Fullan's (1991) classification, there are three major categories of key factors: factors related to the characteristics of the change, local factors and external factors.

Factors related to the characteristics of the change. The factors grouped under this category are: need, clarity, complexity, and quality and practicality. These factors are concerned with the nature of the innovation as perceived by the institution and the implementers. The perceived need for the innovation, its clarity, complexity, and quality and practicality are factors that influence both the nature and level of implementation. With regard to need, Fullan (1991) explains that while the importance of perceived or felt need is obvious, its role is not straightforward. Many innovations are adopted and instituted without careful examination of whether they meet perceived or felt priority needs. Hence, while it is necessary for educational organisations to prioritise their needs, the extent to which the innovation addresses the need may not become entirely clear until implementation is well under way.

Clarity is directly related to the implementation dimension knowledge or understanding (discussed earlier). However, clarity also depends on a number of other factors - including complexity. Complexity can be considered on two levels: the level of difficulty associated with the innovation and the extent of personal change for prospective implementers. The more complex the innovation, the greater the extent of personal change and the difficulties associated with implementation. While there is a direct relationship between the complexity of the innovation and the personal demands of implementation, there seems to be an inverse relationship when complexity and gains are juxtaposed. It seems that, the greater the complexity and corresponding scope of personal demands, the greater the chances of success or achieving change of some magnitude (Crandall, Eiseman & Louis, 1986; Meek, 1988b). In this regard, Berman and McLaughlin (1977) found that ambitious innovative projects were less successful in terms of outcomes achieved but that they generally promoted greater change at the individual level than less ambitious projects. At the same time, however, being overly ambitious can result in massive failure (Fullan, 1991).

Implementation is also influenced by people's perceptions of the quality and practicality of innovations. Quality is relative, difficult to define and has different meanings for different groups of people. In the context of this study, quality can be interpreted as what an innovation is seen to offer, by way of improvement, compared with innovations of a similar type. The practicality of an innovation, on the other hand, is concerned with what Doyle and Ponder (1977-78) refer to as the 'practicality ethic'. The 'practicality ethic' has three dimensions: congruence, instrumentality and cost. These three dimensions are the major criteria on which teachers tend to assess innovations (Fullan, 1982). Both quality and practicality should be considered in relation to prospective implementers.

Local factors. In this category of key implementation factors Fullan (1991) has listed the following: the school district, the community, the principal and the teacher. These local factors all interact in diverse ways in each organisational context to influence the level of implementation of educational innovations. The researcher discusses each of these key factors in greater detail.

The school district. Fullan (1991) uses the term school district to refer specifically to individual local school districts. In this study, the equivalent of Fullan's definition of the school district is the local school system or the wider education system. This broader designation is adopted because in some countries (for example, New Zealand) control within the wider education system is still centralised through the Ministry of Education.

The implementation of innovations is a way of life in most systems of education in the 1990s. In this regard, the history of past change efforts represents a significant precondition in relation to the next new innovation. In any event, change initiated at the district or wider system level commonly involves the implementation of the same innovation across all schools (for example, the changes introduced in New Zealand by the Education Act 1989). Often, system-wide innovations are not well supported by the initiators and some schools divert the funding and resources provided to other projects (Fullan, 1991).

Both district-wide and system-wide innovations fail to recognise the uniqueness of each educational institution and the fact that each institution is a complex social organisation (Hargreaves, 1994). Each innovative project at the individual institutional level has its own unique agenda, priorities, participants, resources and support systems. These different dimensions interact in varying ways to influence the level of implementation achieved in any organisation. Consequently, it is not unusual to find that the same innovation may be successful in one institution and a 'disaster' in another (Huberman & Miles, 1984; Ramsay et al., 1993). In this regard, Sarason (1971), Goodlad (1975) and Marsh (1988) have all commented on the influence of the school's 'ecosystem' on implementation.

The community. In his discussion of the community, Fullan (1991) focuses narrowly on the literature about school boards. However, the community also includes all parents, other organisations and individuals with an interest in education. The involvement of the community in implementing change is becoming increasingly popular. Ramsay et al. (1993), in their study of 'parent-school' collaborative decision-making found that some schools managed the introduction of the partnership approach better than others. These authors observed that:

> Where people were able to discuss matters in non-threatening environments, where they genuinely valued and supported other people's ideas, where novel ideas were fostered and nurtured, where a climate of respect existed between all involved (parents, teachers, and students), rapid change became a strong likelihood. (p. 156)

Although the community brings influence to bear on implementation, it is difficult to generalise about the role of the community because it consists of many subgroups. Each innovation is different and has the potential to galvanise all kinds of subgroups into action. Some subgroups may be very supportive while others may be extremely negative. Community action is also influenced by political forces or activities outside the immediate school community. Therefore, community response is unpredictable and contingent upon a number of other factors. Nevertheless, the community can bring pressure to bear to effect change. Marsh (1988), for example, cites the case of the withdrawal of the social studies programme "Man: A Course of Study" from Queensland public schools because of pressure from national religious groups.

The principal. At the institutional level the principal is one of the main agents in the implementation process (mentioned earlier). Many studies in programme implementation have found that administrative support is crucial to the success of implementation (Crowther, 1972; Berman & McLaughlin, 1977; Kaabwe, 1980; Massey, 1980; Martin, Saif & Thief, 1986-87; Ramsay et al., 1993). Similarly, Deal and Kennedy (1982), from a business orientation, highlight the important role managers play in instituting change at the organisational level (mentioned earlier). However, despite management's crucial role, Fullan (1982) observes that there is considerable evidence in the research that principals, quite often, do not play an active role in the implementation process.

The teachers. Teachers are the main change agents at the school level. Hence, the level of implementation achieved is dependent on what the teacher does or does not do in the classroom (Hargreaves, 1994). In this regard, individual teacher characteristics and collective or collegial factors are worth consideration. Where the individual teacher is concerned, Huberman (1988) found that the psychological state of a teacher can be more or less predisposed toward considering and acting on innovations. However, the psychological state can be permanent or changeable, and depends upon the individual and the organisational setting. Ramsay et al. (1993), for example, observe that some schools have a higher percentage of change-oriented teachers than others. This observation suggests that organisational culture influences or shapes an individual's psychological state. However, Fullan (1991) observes that some teachers, depending on their personality, previous experience, and stage of career are more self-actualised and have a greater sense of efficacy. Further, these teachers are more inclined to persist in the effort required to achieve successful implementation.

For teachers, peer interaction is critical during implementation because they are, during the process, engaged in 'interpreting' the innovation for themselves and their students. Several researchers have found that interaction with peers was the most valuable and effective method of implementation for teachers (Crowther, 1972; Steier, 1978; Massey, 1980; Gray, 1987; Marks, 1988). Sarason (1982) explains that, for teachers, implementing change is "an unlearning and learning process" (p. 286). Change in behaviour takes place gradually and in stages, and involves learning new meanings, new behaviours, new skills and new beliefs. Interaction is the primary basis for social learning. Hence, the importance of peer interaction becomes all the more obvious. At the same time, not only do teachers need opportunities to meet and interact with peers, but peer support is also vital (Little, 1982). Coming to terms with new meanings, behaviours, skills and beliefs depends, to a large extent, on whether teachers work as isolated individuals or have opportunities to interact with and get support from their peers.

External factors. Factors external to the local environment also influence implementation. Whether the education system is highly centralised or decentralised, ministries of education play an important role in the introduction of new innovations through education policy. Where the education system is decentralised, there may be individual, provincial, state, or local departments of education that bring influence to bear on implementation. Other agencies and organisations such as research and development centres, non-governmental organisations and faculties of education also impact on the implementation process.

Sarason (1990) argues that new legislation and policy originate from public concerns that the education system is not doing a satisfactory job. Consequently, new innovations are introduced to satisfy public demands. The general argument used to mobilise the government into action, according to Sarason (1971), runs thus:

> the school is a reflection of our society as well as the principal vehicle by which its young are socialized or prepared for life in adult society. Therefore, it should not be surprising that discussion of any major social problem ... quickly centers on what schools are and what they should be. The initial response seems to be what the federal government should or could do, and the government, in turn, usually takes action which in one way or another impinge on the social setting. (p. 7).

However, the belief that all new legislation and policy are a direct result of public pressure is a misconception. New legislation and policy are often spin-offs from governmental ideologies, with or without public input through open forums or written submissions. Codd (1990), for example, contends that the education reforms in New Zealand, introduced in the latter half of the 1980s, were influenced by a shift in the government's policy from the Keynesian to the monetarist position rather than public pressure.

The policymakers and the local practitioners exist in two different worlds. Fullan (1991) notes that the quality of the relationship across this gulf is crucial to supporting change efforts when there is agreement and to problem solving when there is conflict. Fullan also claims that the root of the problem seems to be that the parties concerned have not learned how to establish a 'processual' relationship with each other. In the long run, innovations either never get implemented or what gets implemented is a gross distortion of what was originally intended. Berman and McLaughlin (1977), in the Rand four year study, found that innovations were altered extensively during the implementation process and varied considerably depending on the organisational context.

Key Themes in the Implementation Process

At the beginning of the section on implementation theory, the researcher explained that implementation theory would be discussed using two approaches, namely: key factors and key themes. The key themes in the implementation process: (a) vision building; (b) evolutionary planning; (c) initiative-taking and empowerment; (d) staff development and resource assistance; (e) monitoring or problem-coping; and (f) restructuring, are derived from the school effectiveness and school improvement literature.

Vision building. The first key theme, vision building, influences and is influenced by the five other key themes. Vision building, also referred to as the mission of the institution (Renihan & Renihan, 1984; Watkins, 1986), is concerned with the values, purpose and direction the institution will take. Regardless of the organisation, a vision of what the organisation ought to be appears to be vital to its success, particularly during times of rapid change (Leithwood et al., 1992). Vision building, as the term suggests, is a dynamic interactive process. Miles (cited in Fullan, 1991) observes that vision is two dimensional: a shared vision of what the institution can look like and a shared vision of the change process. Fundamental to these two dimensions is the shared sense of purpose concerning the characteristics of the change and the change process itself. There is also an underlying suggestion of the necessity to create an environment conducive to change - a culture of change.

In a similar vein, Leithwood et al. (1992) contend that, to be of greatest value, a vision must be shared. Hence, they advocate a shared, defensible vision. Such a vision (the product of collective thought and discussion), they argue, provides a standard for comparison and allows for the detection of discrepancies between what is desired and what exists. In addition, these authors also identify several other characteristics of a defensible vision:

> A defensible vision makes for responsible autonomy in a leader. It is also the basis for proactivity, for determining priorities about how to spend time now, for setting clear goals, and for other aspects of planning. Useful, defensible visions are the product of careful thought, systematic effort and continuous evaluation and refinement. (p. 31)

However, as reforms become more complex or are targeted for entire education systems, vision building becomes more difficult because it must reflect a broader agenda and involve larger numbers of people. Getting larger numbers of people involved and securing commitment becomes a more demanding task for which strategies must be carefully selected and executed. Fullan (1991) stresses that while there is wide agreement that vision building is crucial, in practice, it is not well understood. Further, vision building is a highly sophisticated dynamic process which few organisations can sustain. Vision building is difficult largely because its formation, implementation, shaping and reshaping is an ongoing process (like change itself). It follows, then, that vision building demands, among other strategies, effective evolutionary planning.

__Evolutionary planning__. Evolutionary planning refers to the 'built in' flexibility for the ongoing adaptation and reshaping of initial plans during the implementation process. While it is essential to have a plan at the outset, because implementation is not a fully predictable process, there are always new and unintended developments along the way which necessitate changes in the original plan. For this very reason, the plan should have flexibility and should evolve along the way as adaptations are made to facilitate successful implementation. Louis and Miles (cited in Fullan, 1991) outline the underlying assumption of evolutionary planning as follows:

> The evolutionary perspective rests on the assumption that the environment both inside and outside organizations is often chaotic. No specific plan can last for very long, because it will either become outmoded due to changing external pressures, or because disagreement over priorities arises within the organization. Yet, there is no reason to assume that the best response is to plan passively, relying on incremental decisions. Instead, the organization can cycle back and forth between efforts to gain normative consensus about what it may become, to plan strategies for getting there, and to carry out decentralized incremental experimentation that harness the creativity of all members to the change effort. This approach is evolutionary in the sense that, although the mission and image of the organization's ideal future may be based on a top-level analysis of the environment and its demands, strategies for achieving the mission are frequently reviewed and refined based on internal scanning for opportunities and successes. Strategy is viewed as a flexible tool, rather than a semi-permanent expansion of the mission. (pp. 108-109)

Chin and Benne (1976) contend that strategies for implementing planned change fall into three general types: the empirical-rational, the normative-re-educative and the power-coercive (see Chin & Benne, 1976, for a detailed discussion). However, principles similar to those of evolutionary planning are fundamental to strategic planning (Crandall et al., 1986), collaborative and collegial planning (Purkey, 1986; Watkins, 1986), and effective planning in business organisations (Peters, 1987). When evolutionary planning is examined critically, there seems to be a strong argument for some level of congruency between the type of planning approach and the process for which it is intended. Compatibility is, therefore, important. To choose a rational planning model, then, for a process that is not fully predictable is tantamount to creating an environment for numerous, unnecessary problems. Marsh (1988) claims that even if rational approaches are carefully developed, "they have little impact because schools don't operate on these principles" (p. 21).

Initiative taking and empowerment. The third key theme, initiative taking and empowerment, touches on the social aspect of the implementation process. The degree of implementation of any innovation depends largely on what people do or fail to do in the organisational setting (mentioned earlier). Organisations are essentially about people and empowering people to facilitate implementation is crucial to the whole process (Whitaker, 1993). Empowering entails getting people involved in collaborative planning and decision making so that there is some degree of ownership. Empowering also entails providing training and human, material and financial support for the people involved in the process. The 'risks-takers' or those who take the initiative in getting the process in motion also need support.

Staff development and resource assistance. Change, by its very nature, involves learning new knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. The acquisition of new knowledge, skills, values and attitudes, required to effect change in behaviour takes place gradually (Boag, 1980). Given the demand for change at the individual level, staff development is critical to sustaining the implementation process. Fullan (1979) suggests that in-service training should be an ongoing part of planned educational change because the problems with implementation are usually recognised during the process, not before.

However, the amount of in-service training is not necessarily related to the quality of implementation. Where pre-implementation training is sustained, particularly if a number of different trainers are involved, implementation is enhanced (Marks, 1988). Huberman and Miles (1984) contend that "large-scale, change-bearing innovations lived or died by the amount and quality of assistance that their users received once the change process was under way" (p. 273). Fullan (1991), on the other hand, observes that the problem with staff development is that:

> most forms of in-service training are not designed to provide the ongoing, interactive, cumulative learning necessary to develop new conceptions, skills, and behavior. Failure to realise that there is a need

> for in-service work *during implementation* is a common problem. (p. 85) [emphasis in original]

Similarly, a number of researchers have attributed the lack of understanding of innovations, mis-implementation, or non-implementation partly to inadequate in-service, inappropriate in-service or no in-service during the implementation process (Crowther, 1972; Downey, 1975; Kaabwe, 1980; Coles, 1981; Podrebarac, 1982; Aidoo-Taylor, 1983).

Staff development and resource assistance appear to be more effective when a number of strategies are employed. Marks (1988) suggests the use of several implementation strategies, that the strategies employed should be complementary and that efforts are made to ensure their effectiveness. Further, while in-service training is the most popular strategy used, "a user support system, including peer support and resource support are also important strategies" (Ibid, p. 95). On a similar note, Huberman and Miles (1984), in their study of implementation, observe that high-assistance sites employed these strategies:

> external conferences, in-service training sessions, visits, committee structures, and team meetings. They also furnish a lot of ongoing assistance in the form of materials, peer consultation, access to external consultants, and rapid access to central office personnel. (p. 273)

Monitoring or problem-coping. Monitoring the implementation process is just as important as determining the level of implementation at the end. Fullan (1991) explains that monitoring serves two functions: it provides access to good ideas; and, it exposes new ideas to scrutiny. Essentially, monitoring includes checking the information systems and resources and acting on the results through problem-coping and problem-solving. As information is accessed, problems are identified, good ideas are disseminated, mistakes eliminated and promising practices further developed.

Information gathering during implementation is also useful for evolutionary planning and organisational problem solving. Organisational problem solving involves decision-making about ongoing staff development and assistance, materials, organisational arrangements and the innovation itself. If the information is used effectively, then the benefits to the organisation can be tremendous in the long term.

Restructuring. In broad terms, restructuring refers to the way in which educational organisations are reorganised as they implement innovations. Restructuring is concerned with areas such as organisational arrangements, roles, finance, governance and education policy. As mentioned earlier, most innovations necessitate corresponding changes in organisational structure (Gross et al., 1971; Fullan, 1972; Massey, 1980). Similarly, the education reforms in New Zealand of the late 1980s necessitated the system-wide restructuring of administration in education (Education Act 1989; Education Amendment Act 1990). Fullan (1991) observes that while there is not much empirical evidence of positive effects of restructuring, it is obviously important as a theme in implementation.

In the preceding sub-sections, the researcher discussed implementation theory under two broad categories: pre-implementation and implementation. The literature on implementation theory shows that implementation is a dynamic, complex, social and political process. The process is influenced by a number of factors, in varying combinations, across all contexts. While the literature provides some insight into the process, the approach adopted must be tailored to suit the particular context.

The literature has shown that although the process is difficult, there are instances where innovations have been implemented with a reasonable degree of success (Huberman & Miles, 1984). Successful implementation demands more than just knowledge of the dimensions of implementation, the key factors and the key themes. At the same time, Saylor, Alexander and Lewis (1981) observe that failure to recognise the change in one or more of the dimensions of implementation might result in adopting the form but not the substance of the innovation. Implementation also demands a willingness to learn, a good understanding of the dynamics of the change process and the strategies involved, and knowledge of how change can be successfully managed. The strategies selected and the form(s) in which they are put into operation should be guided by the context. This observation suggests a contingency approach. In the next sub-section, the researcher discusses change process theory.

Change Process Theory

There are several definitions of change in the literature. Fullan (1985) sees change as a process which takes place over time. At the individual level, Fullan describes change as: "a process whereby individuals alter their ways of thinking and doing. It is a process of developing new skills and, above all, of finding meaning and satisfaction in new ways of doing things" (p. 396). Neville (1992), on the other hand, defines change as "a discontinuity in the life of a person or organisation ... a movement from the familiar to the unfamiliar" (p. 106), while West-Burnham (1990) contends that change is a "natural and inevitable social process to which organisational and individual behaviour should be attuned" (p. 93).

These definitions suggest that change is a complex, transformative phenomenon. Change is holistic and both the individual and the organisation in which he or she works are required to make adjustments, adopt new approaches or modify old ones, learn new skills or even experiment with novel ideas. Change process theory is concerned with the dynamics of the change process. The researcher discusses change theory under two sub-headings: the nature and process of change, and change and the individual (see Figure 1, p. 54).

The Nature and Process of Change

Drawing from the literature on change theory (for example, Fullan, 1985, 1986, 1991; Cherrington, 1989; Deal, 1990; West-Burnham, 1990; Neville, 1992; Ramsay et al., 1993; Trice & Beyer, 1993) the researcher compiled a list of the characteristics related to the nature of change. This list of characteristics is presented in Table 1.

Several models for implementing organisational change have been developed (see for example, Marsh, 1988; Lewin, cited in Cherrington, 1989; Deal, 1990; Neville, 1992). These models, which can be classified as technological, political or cultural (Corbett & Rossman, 1989), depending on their dominant perspective, include the situational analysis model, the collaborative school management model, the systematic rational model, the concerns-based adoption model, the people-centred action model, the negotiation model, the naturalistic model, the organisation development model and the action research model (see Marsh, 1988, for a more detailed discussion). It is impossible to describe all the different change models in one study. However, the researcher provides three examples, namely: Lewin's, Neville's and Deal's, in that order.

Lewin (cited in Cherrington, 1989) developed one of the earliest and most popular models of the change process. He conceptualised the change process as having three phases: unfreeze, change and refreeze. Unfreezing is equivalent to the pre-implementation stage. In this phase, the need for change is either felt or created and a plan for implementation, designed to minimise resistance, is developed. The second phase is the implementation of the innovation. Change affects both the people in the organisation and their roles. The organisation itself undergoes restructuring, and the resources and necessary technology are provided to carry out the objectives. Refreezing is the final stage. Change is internalised and institutionalised and the organisation refreezes, while evaluating and monitoring the outcomes of the change.

Table 1

Characteristics of Change

1. Change is a process - a complex activity operating at the deepest level of the individual, group or organisational psyche.
2. Change is context bound - success in one context does not necessarily guarantee success in another.
3. Change is endemic and inevitable. It is the only thing that is permanent.
4. Change does not follow a stepwise procedure but, at the same time, each succeeding cycle supports and builds on the previous cycle.
5. Change is holistic and problematic.
6. Change and resistance are inseparable.
7. Change takes place over time and the process cannot be hurried.
8. Change involves risk taking.
9. Change involves adopting different beliefs and understandings and different ways of doing things.

Neville (1992) depicts change as a five-phased cyclical process: resist, deny, change event, commitment and explore. Neville's change cycle is analogous to the process bereaved people go through to internalise loss in their lives. The cycle begins with resistance to the change, moves to denial that the change is happening, then to the stage where the inevitability of the change is accepted. This recognition is followed by commitment to change then active involvement or exploration. The change is then finally internalised and accepted.

Both of these change process models endorse the claim that change is a process which takes place over time. Lewin's cycle (cited in Cherrington, 1989) suggests that change within organisations moves smoothly from one phase to the other. Lewin's model also suggests a period of stability as the organisation refreezes. However, in the rapidly changing environment of the 1990's, change is ongoing. Organisations are continually adopting new innovations; therefore, the process is cyclical. There seems to be little or no time to refreeze. Similarly, Neville's (1992) cycle also suggests an incremental, stepwise process. In reality, however (as Neville observes), members of an organisation are more likely to be at varying stages of the change cycle. Therefore, movement from one phase to the next is not simultaneous for the entire organisation. For obvious reasons, then, change process models can be misleading and difficult to utilise.

From a cultural perspective, Deal (1990) suggests a transformative approach to change which involves a "collective renegotiation of historically anchored myths, metaphors, and meanings" (p. 9). Deal's transformative change model has three phases: decline, awakening and reordering. The first phase is a period of decline when 'first order' changes are attempted without significant improvement. In the second phase, there is an awareness of both the futility of 'first order' efforts and the possibilities for improvement in 'second order' changes (cultural transformation). The reordering phase, described as a 'trapeze-like' process, involves shifting from traditional ways of functioning and moving towards new ways of operating. At this stage, the organisation accepts a new world view.

Educational organisations embarking on the change process have a wide range of models to choose from. While the models may not fit organisations precisely, they can be tailored to suit. 'Top down' and 'bottom up' (Hargreaves, 1994) combinations could also be contrived. The choice of model will, no doubt, be influenced by the organisation, the nature of the innovation and the people involved. Similarly, regardless of the model used, change will affect both the institution and the people involved.

Change and the Individual

Knowledge of the nature of the change process is crucial to understanding how change affects the individual. First and foremost, change has a profound effect not only on the organisation undergoing change but also on its members. Change affects all aspects of an individual's life. Neville (1992) contends that:

> Change is holistic: it does not differentiate between work and home or leisure time. Whether the individual is consciously aware of it or not, every aspect of life is changed. This includes physical well-being, emotional stability, social relationships, work life, intellectual life and even the spiritual dimensions of a person's life. (p. 110)

It is not unusual to find that individuals in the change process need the support of family and friends. Huberman and Miles (1984), in their school improvement study, found that in high-assistance sites "even close relatives helped out a good deal, often by handholding and talking through difficulties" (273). The factors affecting people involved in the change process are many and varied. In Table 2, the researcher has compiled a list of important factors in the change process at the individual level, from Fullan (1985) (points 1 to 7) and Neville (1992) (points 8 and 9).

Table 2

Factors Related to Change at the Individual Level

1. Change takes place over time, therefore, the individual needs time to accept and come to terms with change.
2. The initial stages of any significant change always involve anxiety and uncertainty for the person expected to change.
3. Ongoing technical assistance and psychological support assistance are crucial in order for the individual to cope with anxiety.
4. For the individual concerned, change involves learning new skills through practice and feedback - it is incremental and developmental.
5. The most fundamental breakthrough occurs when the individual can cognitively understand the underlying conception and rationale with respect to 'why this new way works better'.
6. Conditions within the organisation (peer norms, administrative leadership) and in relation to the organisation (e.g., external administrative support and technical help) make it more or less likely that the process will succeed.
7. Successful change involves pressure, but it is pressure through interaction with peers and other technical and administrative leaders.
8. Change affects every aspect of an individual's life - social, physical, creative, intellectual, spiritual, emotional, future and professional.
9. Change affects the self identity of every individual.

It is necessary to understand how change affects the individual because the impact of change on the individual has implications for change managers and their approach to change management. As Fullan (1985) cautions: "it is necessary to understand the psychological dynamics and interactions occurring between individuals in schools as they experience change before we can decide which strategies are most effective" (p. 396).

To summarise, in the rapidly changing environment of the 1990's, change is a way of life in educational organisations. Change is by nature a complex, painful learning process. Given the inevitability of change, the message to educational organisations and the individuals working in them seems to be: adopt an attitude that is receptive to change. Whitaker (1993) sees this change in attitude as a paradigm shift. He explains that:

> What we are now witnessing in the world of change is the attempt to create a paradigm which is characterized by the acceptance of temporariness rather than certainty, by possibility rather than unlikeliness and integration rather than exclusion. Such a paradigm is a departure from the idea of singular solutions to problems to an appreciation of complex and multiple solutions. It is a way of thinking that recognizes that in apparent dichotomies there are the seeds of new connections and partnerships. (p. 20)

Whitaker (1993) underscores the fact that there is need for greater receptivity to change. There is also an underlying suggestion that there are multiple strategies that can be employed in the process of reinventing, reordering and redefining 'objects'. Given the nature of change and the multiplicity of the factors involved, there is certainly a need to manage the process to maximise achievement.

Change Management Theory

Change management theory is concerned mainly with those factors underlying the success of the change process. From the preceding discussion of implementation theory and change process theory, it is clear that for change to be successful it should be managed. The process should be managed from the outset - from the time of initiation.

Compared with the literature on implementation and the change process, the literature on change management is limited. However, the literature in the preceding sections provides valuable information for managing change. First, the literature suggests that managing change requires a good understanding of the change process and the factors that both promote and inhibit implementation. Secondly, the context in which change takes place is a critical factor. Therefore, managing change requires a good understanding of organisational culture and how to institute cultural change. Thirdly, change management demands, on the part of change managers, a leadership style that is both collaborative and authoritative. Finally, what is done or not done for the most important actors in the change process - the implementers - determines the level of success achieved.

The foregoing observations suggest that there are three critical factors to be considered in managing change: the role of management; the professional development of teachers; and, the culture of the organisation (see Figure 1, p. 54). The researcher discusses each of these three factors as it relates to managing change.

The Role of Management

Fullan (1985) stresses that there are four fundamental factors underlying successful change processes: a feel for the improvement process on the part of leadership; a guiding value system; intense interaction and communication; and, collaborative planning. The extent to which these four fundamental factors are present in an organisation undergoing change is a function of management.

Several authors have discussed the critical role of leadership in managing the change process (for example, Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Kilmann, 1984; Fullan, 1985, 1986, 1991; West-Burnham, 1990; Neville, 1992; Trice & Beyer, 1993) [mentioned earlier]. The most pervasive message is that the effective change manager must begin by first creating an adaptive culture or a culture of change. Further, without an organisational culture conducive to change, prospective change efforts are doomed to failure.

The leadership style is another critical factor in change management. Leithwood et al. (1992) observe that, while schools need to change, for change to bring improvement 'expert' or 'problem solving' leadership is necessary. 'Problem solving' leadership, according to these authors, encompasses both transactional and transformational leadership processes and emphasises the concept of the educational leader as an organisational designer. Central to the organisational designer's role are: developing a shared, defensible vision; assisting members of the organisation in addressing the challenges encountered in their effort to achieve the vision; and, increasing the capacity of organisational members to address the challenges they face more successfully (Ibid). Similar observations are made by Whitaker (1993) with regard to leadership.

Managing change is a highly complex and sensitive process. West-Burnham (1990) identifies four significant barriers to creating educational organisations that are receptive to change: conservatism of educational organisations, concern about resources, the volume of demands for change and inappropriate management style. Of these factors, inappropriate management style appears to be the most critical because the extent to which the other factors constitute barriers to change is largely a function of management. While some educational organisations have been able to adopt new initiatives with minimum stress or disruption, others have been unable to respond effectively. West-Burnham argues that educational organisations that do not respond effectively to change display one or more of the characteristics of inappropriate management listed in Table 3.

Table 3
Characteristics of Inappropriate Management

1. Lack of leadership, an absence of explicit goals, recognition and empowering.
2. Undeveloped middle managers, i.e. no infrastructure to translate principle into action, to ensure the development of individuals or to make the most efficient and effective use of resources.
3. Limited understanding and application of the principles of planning, budgeting, managing motivation and evaluating.
4. A lack of recognition of the social side of work, failure to provide the adults in schools with an appropriate working environment.
5. Inappropriate working procedures which are based on power relationships (and political processes) and often humiliating administrative procedures.
6. Immature social networks based on competition, secrecy, fear of criticism.
7. Lack of effective delegation and therefore, implicitly, a lack of trust and willingness to develop.
8. Restricted and poor quality communication, usually one-way rather than two-way.
9. A deference to experience rather than knowledge, skills and ability to act.

Source: West-Burnham 1990, p. 95

The nine characteristics presented in Table 3 suggest what change managers need to guard against. Neville (1992), in her discussion of change management, also gives some guidelines for change managers. A list of these guidelines, which the researcher compiled, is presented in Table 4.

The Professional Development of Teachers

The importance of training for individuals implementing the innovation can never be over-emphasised. Staff development as it relates to the change process has already been discussed in the sub-section on key themes in the implementation process and will not be repeated here. What the researcher proposes to deal with here is the need to recognise the importance of the personal dimension in the change process. Whitaker (1993) stresses that professional development is essentially about professional learning and organisations which develop and adapt are, by necessity, learning organisations. These organisations are concerned with gaining new knowledge, acquiring new skills and forging new values and beliefs. Learning, then, is the essence of change. Therefore, the desire to learn is a prerequisite of change.

Table 4
Guidelines for Managing Change

---

1. Engender a culture of change.
2. Prepare for change.
3. Adopt an appropriate leadership style.
4. Recognise and reward efforts, achievements and abilities.
5. Find out where individuals are in their change cycle and provide support and support systems.
6. Help individuals to participate.
7. Be aware that the group most threatened is middle management.
8. Introduce staff to the concept of the change cycle and ensure that they understand and can monitor their own progress through the cycle.
9. Establish an effective communication system.
10. Ensure initial commitment to change through strong advocacy.
11. Recognise signs that members are not coping with change.
12. Be prepared to cope with varying forms of reaction among staff.
13. Create groups to direct the change process.
14. The manager should not be the only one involved in managing the change process - the more collegial the climate, the more likely it is to succeed.
15. Be prepared for emergencies and for the unexpected.
16. Deal with resistance and be wary of collusion and how to deal with it.
17. Recognise that change is usually misunderstood and misinterpreted.
18. Be prepared to take risk and create a culture that is able to accept risk-taking.
19. Provide staff development.

Adapted from Neville, 1992.

Creating a need to learn has much to do with motivation. It follows, then, that attention to motivational factors can help managers to develop appropriate leadership styles. What is required here is essentially a sensitivity to staff needs and aspirations. Whitaker (1993, p. 40) claims that any group is likely to have the need to be: (a) supported; (b) heard; (c) noticed; (d) encouraged; (e) trusted; (f) appreciated and valued; (g) informed; (h) helped to clarify ideas; (i) helped to develop skills and abilities; and (j) challenged and extended. West-Burnham (1990) contends that the process of creating an institution that is capable of growing assumes effective leadership. Creating the culture which satisfies the needs of the people involved is vital to the success of an organisation. In this regard, Whitaker observes that "leadership can be said to be effective when staff consistently experience these motivational factors" (p. 40).

Given the preceding observations, it is imperative that the change manager recognises the importance of adopting or developing an appropriate leadership style. The manager should also be cognisant of the fact that it is his or her responsibility to ensure that staff needs are met and that adequate ongoing training, using a variety of strategies, is provided. Additionally, proper support systems should be provided throughout the entire change process to complement training. The underlying message here is that if institutional development is to be successful it must begin with the people involved because organisations are essentially about people. The importance of people and their development is expressed quite succinctly by West-Burnham (1990) in the following excerpt:

> Organisations only have reality through the experiences of the individuals working in them and so managing change comes down to enhancing the ability of individuals to learn and to communicate that learning within the context of the organisation as a whole.... Thus, the process of creating a school which is capable of growing so that change is a norm begins with the individual. (p. 96)

The Culture of the Organisation

The last factor to be considered in change management theory is the culture of the organisation. In the discussion on the role of management, the researcher mentioned that the effective change manager must begin by creating an adaptive culture or a culture of change. Schein (1985) sees both creating and managing the culture as important functions of leadership. He observes that:

> Organisational cultures are created by leaders, and one of the most decisive functions of leadership may well be the creation, the management, and - if and when that may become necessary - the

> destruction of culture. Culture and leadership, when one examines them closely, are two sides of the same coin, and neither can really be understood by itself. In fact, there is a possibility ... that the only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create and manage culture and that the unique talent of leaders is their ability to work with culture. If the concept of leadership as distinguished from management and administration is to have any value, we must recognize the centrality of this culture management function in the leadership concept. (p. 2)

There are several definitions of culture in the literature. Deal and Kennedy (1982) see culture as the "glue" that holds organisations together. Owens and Steinhoff (1989) define culture as the "shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and norms that knit a community together" (p. 11). Trice and Beyer (1993) see culture as the "collective phenomena that embody people's responses to the uncertainties and chaos that are inevitable in human experience" (p. 2). Finally, Kilmann (1984) claims that "culture is to the organization what the personality is to the individual" (p. 48). The common theme of these definitions is that culture is a powerful force in any organisation. Culture is not usually documented. It is the set of unstated 'ground rules' of an organisation that all members know and share. Kilmann observes that these 'ground rules' are learned by living in the organisation and becoming part of it.

Cultural change involves a break with the past and cultural continuity is noticeably disrupted. In short, cultural change is an inherently disequilibriating process. Cultural change is by nature difficult because it involves not one change, but many changes in many cultural elements. Deal and Kennedy (1982) explain how change affects culture:

> Change always threatens a culture. People form strong attachments to heroes, legends, the rituals of daily life, the hoopla of extravaganzas and ceremonies - all the symbols and settings of the workplace. Change strips down these relationships and leaves employees confused, insecure, and often angry. (p. 157)

Trice and Beyer (1993) warn that "culture change in organizations ... may not succeed" (p. 395). These authors suggest several criteria for leaders planning to institute cultural change to consider: (a) organisational performance; (b) the fit between existing cultures and the organisation's tasks and structures; (c) the fit between existing cultures and the organisation's environment; (d) the fit between strategy and existing culture(s); and (e) the characteristics and personalities of top management.

On a similar note, Neville (1992) suggests ensuring that the organisational culture has these characteristics: (a) a stimulating intellectual environment; (b) an emphasis on the ability of every staff member and on the ability of the staff, as a group, to achieve; (c) acceptance of differences of every kind; (d) respect for the individual - everyone retains his or her dignity; (e) a non-judgemental attitude; (f) a climate of trust; (g) a shared vision, which gives the institution a sense of direction or mission; (h) clearly defined goals; (i) a 'win-win' attitude in conflict and problem-solving; and (j) a participative management style. However, ensuring that the culture reflects these characteristics is not an easy task for educational leaders. In this regard, Deal and Kennedy (1982) advise that managers find ways of 'attacking' the substance of the culture. In addition, the issue of 'a climate of trust' and the importance of 'trust' in the change process is debatable given Fullan's (1993) observation about reliance on 'trust'.

Educational leaders also need to have some understanding of how to reshape cultural patterns. Trice and Beyer (1993) suggest these guidelines: (a) capitalise on propitious moments; (b) combine caution with optimism; (c) understand resistance to cultural change; (d) change many elements but maintain some continuity; (e) recognise the importance of implementation; (f) select, modify and create appropriate cultural forms; (g) modify socialisation tactics; and (h) find and cultivate innovative leadership. While management's task seems to be overwhelming, there appears to be no way of evading it because Deal (1990) observes that unless people can 'let go' of tradition and embrace a new world view change efforts will continue to fail.

In summary, the most difficult aspect of managing the change process seems to be creating a culture conducive to change. While success of the change process depends largely on how it is managed, there seems to be an underlying assumption that the leader has all the skills and qualities necessary to do the job. In this regard, the researcher raises these questions: How equipped are contemporary educational managers for managing the change process given the rapidly changing environment? Who provides training and support for educational leaders as they go through the change process? What kind of training is needed? Who should provide the training? These questions are very important given the proliferation of changes in educational organisations, the emphasis on quality and excellence in education and the increasing competition in the global marketplace. It must be noted that while the literature provides guidelines for managing change, they tend to be very prescriptive. In addition, most authors who have developed theories of the change process suggest that change moves smoothly through clearly defined stages. On the other hand, there is also evidence in the literature to suggest the opposite. Finally, what seems to be lacking in the literature is research that examines the purpose and context of change.

Overview of Change Theory

Change theory was discussed under three broad interrelated categories: implementation theory, change process theory, and change management theory (see Figure 1, p. 54). The concept of change as a process runs through all the categories of change theory. Change is a dynamic, complex, social and political process affecting all facets of educational organisations. Change management theory is informed by both implementation theory and change process theory. While there are many interest groups or stakeholders in any one innovation project, the critical role of the key actors (for example, building managers and teachers) must be recognised.

The context in which change takes place is often overlooked. However, the literature has shown that context is a key factor in explaining why some innovations are successfully implemented in some institutions and fail miserably in others. Learning is at the heart of the change process - people are expected to learn new knowledge and skills, and to adopt different values and attitudes. It seems, then, that understanding how people learn and what motivates people to learn and to use new knowledge has potential for making the change process more successful.

The literature has shown that most authors focus on describing the change process. They suggest that change moves smoothly through clearly defined stages. However, in reality change is a ragged process. Whitaker (1993) also mentions the paradigmatic shift from certainty to uncertainty and temporariness which is associated with a culture of change. As the pace of change accelerates in the 1990s, the importance of understanding change theory and the change process cannot be ignored. At the same time, a better understanding of how to manage the change process is a necessary task for contemporary researchers and educational managers alike. The underlying message is that in order to deal successfully with a phenomenon we must understand its nature, how it works, how it impacts on people and the workplace, and how it can be successfully managed.

This study was concerned with the provision of pre-service primary teacher education in a rapidly changing environment. While the late 1980s were marked by a preponderance of education reforms in many Western countries (for example, Australia, Britain and the United States), in New Zealand, the late 1980s is remembered for the introduction of unprecedented education reforms (Codd, 1988;

Snook, 1991). The period of radical restructuring of the education system during the late 1980s (in New Zealand) was followed by rapid structural and curriculum changes in the 1990s. It was within this context of rapid educational change that pre-service primary teacher education was investigated. Hence, change theory was both important and appropriate.

In the introductory section to this chapter the researcher stated that the conceptual framework was developed from the literature on teacher education, the literature on change theory, the Feiman-Nemser (1990) conceptual orientations in teacher education framework and the Kaths and Raths (1985) framework for research on teacher education programmes. In the next section, the researcher discusses alternative orientations in teacher education programmes before moving to the two frameworks mentioned.

ALTERNATIVE ORIENTATIONS IN TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

One way of looking at alternative orientations in teacher education is to think of them in terms of paradigms (Popkewitz et al., 1979). According to these authors, a paradigm in teacher education can be thought of as a matrix of beliefs and assumptions about the nature and purpose of schooling, teaching, teachers and their education, that gives shape to specific forms of practice in teacher education.

Feiman-Nemser (1990) refers to these paradigms as conceptual orientations and writes about a conceptual orientation in the following terms:

> Ideally, a conceptual orientation includes a view of teaching and learning and a theory about learning to teach. Such ideas should give direction to the practical activities of teacher preparation such as program planning, course development, instruction, supervision and evaluation (p. 220).

The preceding definition suggests that the particular conceptual orientation(s) adopted by an institution determines the nature of the programme and guides teacher preparation. Unlike structural alternatives, conceptual orientations are not tied to particular forms of teacher preparation. For example, they can shape a single component or an entire professional sequence (Ibid).

From the mid-1970s onwards, several frameworks for investigating conceptual variations in teacher education have been proposed (for example, Zeichner, 1983; Kirk, 1986). Feiman-Nemser (1990) lists seven frameworks from 1975 to 1987 and has classified them under five conceptual orientations, namely: critical-social, personal, technological, practical and academic (see Table 5). Feiman-Nemser's classification provides a useful framework for examining the conceptual orientations of teacher education programmes.

Table 5

Conceptual Orientations in Teacher Education

Authors	Critical-Social	Personal	Technological	Practical	Academic
Joyce (1975)	progressive	personalistic	competency	traditional	academic
Harnett & Naish (1990)	critical		technological	craft	
Zeichner (1983)	inquiry	personalistic	behavioristic	craft	academic
Kirk (1986)	radicalism		rationalism		
Zimpher & Howey (1987)	critical	personal	technical	clinical	
Kennedy (1987)			application of skills; application of principles and theories		
*Zeichner (1993)	social reconstructionist tradition	developmentalist tradition	social efficiency tradition		academic tradition

Adapted from Feiman-Nemser 1990, p. 220

*Researcher's addition

The Feiman-Nemser Conceptual Orientations Framework

Feiman-Nemser (1990) observes that each conceptual orientation has a focus or thesis that: emphasises certain aspects of teaching, learning, and learning to teach; directs attention to a central goal of teacher preparation; and, manifests itself in particular practices. Each conceptual orientation is very diverse and is held together by a set of common assumptions that distinguishes the basic goals of one general approach from another.

The Critical-Social Orientation

The critical-social orientation combines a progressive social vision with a radical critique of schooling. On the one hand, there is an optimistic faith in the power of education to help shape a new social order; on the other hand, a realisation that schools have been instrumental in preserving social inequities (Feiman-Nemser, 1990). Schooling and teacher education are seen as crucial elements in the movement towards a more just and humane society (Zeichner, 1993). The teacher is seen both as an educator and as a political activist (Feiman-Nemser, 1990).

The critical-social orientation gives priority to the development of inquiry about teaching and about the contexts in which teaching is carried out. Proponents of this approach contend that the focus on fostering the development of critical inquiry skills should not be interpreted to mean that the technical skills of teaching are seen as unimportant. As Zeichner (1983) explains, the assumption is that:

> technical skill in teaching is to be highly valued not as an end in itself, but as a means for bringing about desired ends. Questions about what ought to be done take on primary importance and the process of critical inquiry is viewed as a necessary supplement to the ability to carry out the tasks themselves. (p. 6)

The prospective teacher, in this orientation, is seen as an active agent in his or her own preparation for teaching. The assumption is made that a greater awareness by the student teacher of the origins and consequences of his or her actions and of the realities that constrain these actions increases the likelihood that he or she can control both the actions and the constraints. Advocates of the critical-social orientation express a concern for helping prospective teachers to assume a greater role in shaping the direction of educational environments, according to their awareness of purposes, which can be justified in moral and ethical, as well as instrumental terms (Zeichner, 1983). Underlying this approach to teacher education is a metaphor of liberation.

Although the term 'reflective' (associated mainly with Schon, 1983, 1987) is not mentioned as a 'label' in Table 5, approaches to teacher education designed to produce reflective practitioners fall under the critical-social orientation. Schon's work on the reflective practitioner has served as a catalyst for a resurgence of interest in inquiry oriented teacher education and reflective teaching. Although, on the surface, reflective teaching and inquiry oriented teacher education appear to be similar, there is little shared meaning among authors writing about the two approaches (Grimmett, 1988). Tom (1985), for example, categorises the diverse types of inquiry oriented teacher education along three dimensions: emphasis on making teaching problematic, models of inquiry and perceptions of reality. However, Stout (1989) reports that instruction in reflective teaching behaviours is just in the beginning stages in education methods courses, while (Zeichner, 1986) observes that the existing reflective teacher education programmes take diverse forms: action research, ethnography, supervision, journal writing, and curriculum analysis, among others.

Schon's (1983, 1987) conception of reflection is based on the belief that practitioners' 'knowledge-in-action' is found in their professional actions and their reflections on and in such actions. In Schon's terms, there is 'reflection-on-action', 'stop and think' and 'reflection-in-action'. Schon argues that practitioners' professional knowledge is constructed by reflection-in-action and reflection on action, but that reflection-in-action allows practitioners to reshape what they are doing in the process of performing the action. Both types of reflection involve some form of experimentation with the practitioners attempting to create meaning from the problematic aspects of a practice situation through 'problem setting' and 'problem solving'.

Schon (1983) sees reflectivity as an alternative to technocratic rationality because in the reflective mode teaching is conceptualised as a problem solving, critical and cognitively monitored process. Reflection, in Schon's conceptualisation, is essentially a process in which educators structure and restructure their practical knowledge to derive meaning. However, others have moved beyond Schon's focus on the 'teaching act' (for example, Liston & Zeichner, 1987).

The Personal Orientation

The personal orientation to teacher education rests upon the foundations of a phenomenological epistemology and perceptual and developmental psychologies (Zeichner, 1983). This orientation places the student teacher at the centre of the educational process. Learning to teach is construed as a process of learning to understand, develop and use oneself effectively. The student teacher's own personal development is a central part of teacher preparation. Proponents of the personal orientation have a preference for classrooms in which learning derives from students' interests and takes the form of active, self-directed exploration (Feiman-Nemser, 1990). The personal orientation seeks to promote student teachers' psychological maturity and emphasises the "reorganization of perceptions and beliefs over the mastery of specific behaviors, skills and content knowledge" (Zeichner, 1983, p. 4).

The personal orientation to teacher education employs a metaphor of growth (Kliebard, 1972). Teacher education is viewed as a form of adult development - a process of 'becoming' rather than merely a process of educating someone to teach. Teaching competence is equated with psychological maturity, regardless of its definition, and prospective teachers are encouraged to find their own best ways to function as teachers (Zeichner, 1983). The central problem within this orientation is how to bring about appropriate shifts in perceptions and meanings rather than merely to promote mastery of a predefined set of behaviours and content knowledge.

The Technological Orientation

The technological orientation to teacher education focuses attention on the knowledge and skills of teaching. The primary goal is to prepare teachers who can carry out the tasks of teaching with proficiency. This orientation rests upon the foundations of a positivistic epistemology and behaviouristic psychology. Learning to teach involves the acquisition of principles and practices derived from the scientific study of teaching (Feiman-Nemser, 1990). Proponents of the approach believe that the future of teaching as a profession rests on improvements that will come from the accumulation and application of scientific knowledge (Ibid).

Competence is defined in terms of performance. The knowledge, skills and competencies to be taught to student teachers are those that are felt to be most relevant to the teaching role (defined at a particular point in time) and are specified in advance. The criteria for measuring success are made explicit and performance at a pre-specified level of mastery is assumed to be the most valid measure of teacher competency (Zeichner, 1983). The technological orientation to teacher education is a metaphor of production (Kliebard, 1972).

The Practical Orientation

The practical orientation to teacher education is based upon a conception of teaching as a craft and of teachers as 'craftspersons'. Attention is focused on the elements of craft, technique, and artistry that skilful practitioners reveal in their work. Advocates of this approach subscribe to the view that knowledge about teaching is accumulated largely by trial and error and is to be found in the wisdom of experienced practitioners. The practical orientation also recognises that teachers deal with unique situations and that their work is ambiguous and uncertain (Feiman-Nemser, 1990).

The practical orientation endorses the primacy of experience as a source of knowledge about teaching and a means of learning to teach. Teacher education is viewed as a process of apprenticeship. A master-apprentice relationship is seen as the proper vehicle for transmitting the 'cultural knowledge', possessed by good teachers, to the novice (Zeichner, 1983). Although the emphasis in the practical orientation is on the mastery of technical skills (Tom, 1980), the mastery of technical skills is, in itself, insufficient for becoming a good 'craftsperson' because teaching, like any complex sequence of activities, entails 'inexhaustive rule structures':

> The application of routinized skill sequences to practical problems may fail to bring about desired results. Since rule structures are inexhaustive, judging what should be done through a careful analysis of the immediate situation is of key importance as is the capacity to carry out whatever plan of action the analysis indicates is most likely to succeed. (Scheffler, cited in Tom, 1980, p. 318)

The preceding view suggests that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts and the mastery of a repertoire of technical skills of teaching is no guarantee that the neophyte will be able to make proper judgements about what ought to be done in a particular situation (Zeichner, 1983). Feiman-Nemser (1990) also notes that both researchers and practitioners have described the "localized, uncertain, often conflicting nature of teaching, with its concomitant demand for personal artistry, adaptability, and invention" (p. 222).

The Academic Orientation

The academic orientation to teacher education highlights the fact that teaching is primarily concerned with the transmission of knowledge and the development of understanding. The academic orientation emphasises the teacher's role as intellectual leader, scholar and subject-matter specialist. This orientation has taken many different forms depending on the view of the disciplines.

The academic tradition encompasses various images of good teaching, ranging from didactic instruction to Socratic inquiry. In the area of general goals, advocates are concerned with inducting student teachers into different ways of knowing and thinking, 'teaching the structures of the disciplines', and fostering 'meaningful' understanding of academic content. Different interpretations of these goals yield different ideas about how particular subjects should be taught (Feiman-Nemser, 1990). Proponents of the academic tradition have always stressed the importance of teachers' academic preparation. Within recent times, however, there has been a growing appreciation that the kind of subject-matter knowledge teachers need is not likely to be acquired through academic study alone (Feiman-Nemser, 1990). Darling-Hammond et al. (1995) observe that, beyond the basic level of subject area preparation, subject matter preparation is not as important as child development and learning theory. Similarly, Ball and McDiarmid (1990) argue that teaching involves more than the delivery of facts and information. Further, teachers must be able to assist students in "their development of intellectual resources that enable them to participate in, not merely to know about, the major domains of human thought and inquiry" (Ibid, p. 438).

In summary, the Feiman-Nemser (1990) framework shows that a plurality of orientations and approaches exist because people hold different expectations for 'schooling' and teacher education. Although they provide a source of ideas and practices to draw on in deliberating about how to prepare teachers in a particular context, Feiman-Nemser notes that, collectively, they do not represent a set of equally "valid alternatives from which to choose" (p. 227). Nevertheless, the framework is useful for investigating the conceptual orientations of teacher education programmes offered by educational organisations. In this regard, Hilltop College of Education was no exception.

The Katz and Raths Framework for Research on Teacher Education Programmes

Katz and Raths (1985) define a teacher education programme as "a set of phenomena deliberately intended to help candidates acquire the knowledge, skills, dispositions, and norms of the occupation of teaching" (p. 9). The phenomena that could constitute teacher education programmes are, however, numerous and varied. According to Katz and Raths, these varied phenomena are characterised and defined by broad classes of factors which they have designated, parameters. These parameters (categories of factors), they claim, apply to every teacher education programme.

The Katz and Raths (1985) framework consists of eleven parameters. This framework can be utilised in two ways. First, the framework can be used to examine, classify, and summarise research on teacher education programmes. Secondly, the framework can be used to generate research questions. The eleven interacting parameters of the framework are: goals, characteristics of the candidates, characteristics of the staff, content, methods, time or timing, ethos, regulations, resources, evaluation and impacts of the programme. In the succeeding sub-sections, each of the parameters is defined, based on Katz and Raths' brief explanation (Katz & Raths, 1985, pp. 9-10).

Goals

The parameter 'goals' is concerned with variables such as the extent to which goals are explicit, realistic, shared, specific, coherent, compatible, thematic, technical and humanistic.

Characteristics of the Candidates

This parameter covers variations among candidates such as age, sex, socio-economic status, ethnicity, academic aptitude, intellectual ability, creativity, motivation, commitment, and understandings of teaching and learning.

Characteristics of the Staff

Staff members are those whose assignments include activities deliberately intended to prepare candidates for the occupation of teaching. Among them are professors, instructors, graduate teaching assistants, adjunct professors, co-operating teachers, advisors and counsellors. These individuals may vary in age, experience, knowledge, skills, dispositions, qualifications, ideology, ethnicity, morale and reputation.

Content

Content refers to the components that constitute teacher education programmes. Content is concerned with aspects such as variation in the information, facts, knowledge, skills, techniques, competencies, ideas, philosophical tenets, texts, curriculum materials, and topics the programme presents to candidates.

Methods

This parameter is concerned with the approaches to programme delivery. Methods include variables for describing the types of activities by which the content of the programme is presented to candidates: observation in schools, fieldwork, practice or student teaching, micro-teaching, modelling, simulation, direct instruction, discussion groups and seminars.

Time or Timing

This parameter is concerned with the structural dimensions of programmes, particularly in the area of duration. Time or timing includes variables of duration covering two, three, and five years; and, variables of timing and sequencing such as temporal order and simultaneity of constituent events, activities of the programme and time of candidates' entry into the programme.

Ethos

Ethos is concerned with the distinctive characteristics and atmosphere of the particular institution. Ethos includes variables such as the characteristics of the affective quality or tone of the relationships among programme participants, as well as the content of these relationships among candidates and staff members, and aspects of the ambience of the programme.

Regulations

This parameter is concerned with policy. The variables include characteristics of graduation requirements; certification of license requirements; and, laws, regulations, legal restrictions and stipulations related to teacher education, certification and accreditation.

Resources

This parameter is concerned with the human, material and physical resources that facilitate programme delivery. Concerns focus around the availability of laboratory or demonstration schools, micro-teaching laboratory, teachers' centre, and curriculum library. Variables related to budgets, costs, and expenditures, and other financial or funding variables are included in this parameter.

Evaluation

This parameter focuses on the extent to which a teacher education programme achieves its intended outcomes. The parameter includes variables describing the frequency, objectivity, and degree of formality in the ways candidates' progress in academic work and student teaching are assessed; and, departmental and college evaluations of various aspects of the programme.

Impacts of the Programme

This parameter focuses on the effects of a programme on student teachers and graduates. The variables include the various effects of the programme - from immediate to long-term, and proximate to ultimate; the competence and evaluation of student teachers' and graduates' experiences; the proportion of graduates employed; superintendents' or principals' evaluations of the teaching effectiveness of graduates; and, the graduates' and pupils' achievements.

In summary, the Katz and Raths (1985) framework is comprehensive. However, it is impossible to investigate all the parameters and factors listed in any one study. Nevertheless, the framework guided the researcher in selecting the most relevant parameters and for delimiting the present study. In the next section, the researcher explains how the conceptual framework was developed.

DEVELOPING THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Using the literature on change theory, the Feiman-Nemser (1990) framework, the Katz and Raths (1985) framework, and drawing generally from the literature on teacher education, the researcher developed a conceptual framework of three parameters of factors designated: people, programme and context to guide the investigation. These three parameters of factors were considered the most important - given the objectives of the study. As mentioned in Chapter One, the researcher based the selection of the parameters on the rationale that teacher education was provided by people, for people, in specific contexts. These three parameters existed within the context of a rapidly changing environment which was impacting on the three parameters of factors at the time of this investigation. The conceptual framework is presented in Figure 2.

The conceptual framework has a number of factors in each parameter. These factors delimit the investigation, thereby establishing the boundaries in each parameter. The people parameter carries these factors: administration, staff and students. The programme parameter has these factors: orientation; goals or objectives; courses; methods; technical assistance, practice and feedback mechanism; time or timing; resources; and, evaluation. Finally, the context parameter contains these factors: organisational structure, education policy, support services, and relationship with university.

The researcher selected the factors in the people parameter based on the fact that educational organisations were essentially about people and people's functions within them. The three groups of people (administration, staff and students) were considered the most important stakeholders in this investigation. The researcher believed that the purpose of the study would be best served if the views of all stakeholders were represented.

The first factor selected in the second parameter was orientation. The selection of this factor was guided by the Feiman-Nemser (1990) framework of alternative orientations in teacher education. This framework was based on the premise that all teacher education programmes had an underlying philosophy about the goals of teacher preparation and the means of achieving them. There was also a view of teaching and learning, and a theory about learning to teach. For the researcher, the major implication of these observations was that any investigation of teacher education programmes should include an examination of its orientation.

Conceptual Framework

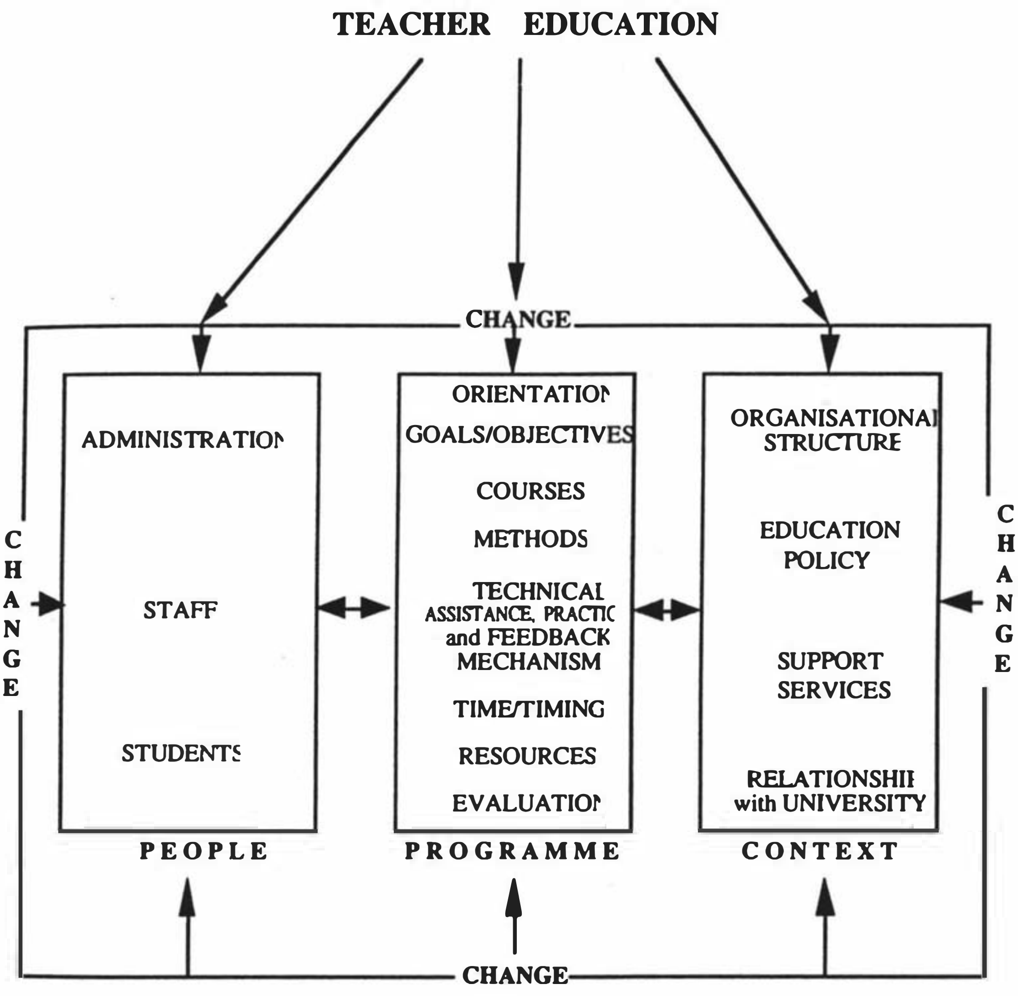

TEACHER EDUCATION
CHANGE
ADMINISTRATION
STAFF
STUDENTS
ORIENTATION
GOALS/OBJECTIVES
COURSES
METHODS
TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE, PRACTIC and FEEDBACK MECHANISM
TIME/TIMING
RESOURCES
EVALUATION
ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE
EDUCATION POLICY
SUPPORT SERVICES
RELATIONSHIP with UNIVERSITY
C H A N G E
C H A N G E
PEOPLE
PROGRAMME
CONTEXT
CHANGE

Figure 2. The conceptual framework developed by the researcher.

Katz and Raths (1985) provided a useful detailed framework for classifying and conducting research. However, it was impossible to examine all the factors in each parameter in this study. Accordingly, the researcher selected those factors pertinent to this study for investigation. The factors selected were: goals or objectives, courses, (listed as content by Katz and Raths), methods, time or timing, resources, and evaluation. These factors, along with 'technical assistance, practice and feedback mechanism', and orientation constituted the programme dimensions listed in the conceptual framework. The factor 'technical assistance, practice and feedback mechanism' was taken from change theory. It was included under the programme parameter to investigate the presence of structural operational mechanisms given the prevailing environment and the changing nature of pre-service primary teacher education at the institution where this investigation was conducted.

The literature revealed that teacher education was influenced by its context (Pearson, 1989; Goodlad, 1990; Hargreaves, 1994). Given the rapidly changing environment in which Hilltop College of Education had to operate, the contextual factors deemed pertinent to this study were: organisational structure, support services, education policy, and relationship with university.

The present study was designed to examine change in pre-service primary teacher education as it was provided by Hilltop College of Education. At the time of this investigation, the institution was in the process of implementing intra- and inter-institutional changes (see Chapters One, Two and Seven). However, these 'micro' level changes could not be 'divorced' from the context of the broader 'macro' level changes. In short, the contextual levels of change were not mutually exclusive. They all impacted on and influenced the phenomenon under investigation.

The categories of factors in the conceptual framework were all interactive, hence the two directional arrows in the conceptual framework. Change was pervasive and impacted on the three parameters of factors. Collectively, the three parameters of factors constituted the most important 'elements' that warranted investigation to get a better understanding of the provision of pre-service primary teacher education by Hilltop College of Education in a rapidly changing environment. The people involved in teacher education, the programme factors and the contextual factors all contributed to the form and nature of pre-service primary teacher education as it was provided by Hilltop College of Education.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher outlined the theoretical underpinnings of the study and explained how she developed the conceptual framework. The three parameters of factors were presented in the context of an environment of change. The researcher used this conceptual framework to guide the investigation of the provision of pre-service primary teacher education by Hilltop College of Education in the context of a rapidly changing environment. The next chapter covers the methodology the researcher used.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

This study investigated the provision of pre-service primary teacher education through the examination of two related programmes offered by Hilltop College of Education and its affiliation with Belmont University. This chapter covers the research methodology the researcher used. Before outlining the research methodology, the researcher restates the purpose, the objectives and the research question.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to examine how pre-service primary teacher education was provided by Hilltop College of Education in a rapidly changing environment. The researcher focused on two related pre-service primary teacher education programmes (the Diploma of Teaching and the Bachelor of Education) and the College's affiliation with Belmont University.

OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The objectives of this research were to:

1.1 Examine the selected pre-service primary teacher education programmes (the Diploma of Teaching and the Bachelor of Education) offered by Hilltop College of Education.

1.2 Determine how pre-service primary teacher education was provided by Hilltop College of Education in a climate of change.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The researcher investigated the provision of pre-service primary teacher education by Hilltop College of Education. In order to fulfil the objectives of this study, the researcher sought to answer the following (guiding) research question:
How is pre-service primary teacher education provided by Hilltop College of Education in a climate of change?

OVERVIEW OF APPROACHES TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATION

There are two major research paradigms in education (Husen, 1988). The first of these paradigms is modelled on the natural sciences, while the second paradigm is derived from the humanities. For the greater part of the first half of the twentieth century, educational research was dominated by the scientific paradigm. However, this dominance was challenged during the late 1960s and early 1970s by well known researchers such as Lee Cronbach and Donald Campbell who criticised the positivist emphasis on quantitative methods and stressed the importance of alternative methods of inquiry (DeLandsheere, 1988). In the midst of the ensuing debate, several writers proposed critical, dialectical, hermeneutical, and neo-Marxian paradigms as alternatives or even replacements for the then prevailing neopositivist paradigm of quantification, hypothesis testing and generalisations (Husen, 1988).

A paradigm is a view of reality (Beare, Caldwell & Millikan, 1989). Kuhn (1970) observes that "paradigms may be prior to, more binding, and more complete than any set of rules for research that could be unequivocally abstracted from them" (p. 46). The two major research paradigms in education are described mainly as dichotomies in the literature: quantitative versus qualitative, positivism versus interpretivism, rationalistic versus naturalistic, empiricism versus interpretivism and scientific versus phenomenological, among others. However, regardless of the ascription, both approaches are recognised as legitimate modes of inquiry. They are different paradigms arising from different perceptions about the nature of social phenomena and ways of understanding them. Qualitative inquiry, the research approach used in this study, has its foundation in phenomenology (developed by Schutz, 1970), one of the three strands of the second major research paradigm (Holstein & Gubrium, 1994).

While the researcher acknowledges the merits of the arguments supporting the major research paradigms, the researcher also believes that, at most, the debate is intellectually futile. The paradigmatic debate diverts attention from the fact that there are other important factors that dictate the choice of research designs and methodological approaches. A philosophical discussion of the epistemological and ontological claims of the two major research paradigms is beyond the scope of this investigation. However, in this study, the researcher opted for a qualitative case study design and a situational-interpretive inquiry approach which falls under the broad rubric of qualitative research.

Several authors (for example, Patton, 1990; Sultana, 1991; Guba & Lincoln, 1994) argue that, compared with the scientific approach, qualitative inquiry is more appropriate for investigating social realities. Furthermore, the literature on teacher education has revealed that research dominated by a positivist orientation has not contributed much by way of understanding the complex nature of the field (Popkewitz et al., 1979). This view is echoed by Lanier and Little (1986) who claim that:

> the study of social entities such as teacher education is apt to be advanced least by adherence to the classic natural science modes of inquiry. Meaningful isolation and control of variables in complex social affairs is rarely, if ever, possible and is not recognized, therefore, as a particularly fruitful line of contemporary inquiry in teacher education. (p. 528)

This study investigated the provision of pre-service primary teacher education and focused mainly on the changes introduced by Hilltop College of Education. The researcher's decision to use a qualitative approach was influenced by the objectives of the investigation and the observations in the literature with regard to research in this particular field.

QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

In their discussion of qualitative research in education, Sherman and Webb (1988) note that the term qualitative "implies a direct concern with experience as it is 'lived' or 'felt' or 'undergone'" (p. 7). Strauss and Corbin (1990) see qualitative research as "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (p. 17). Kirk and Miller (1986) contend that qualitative research is a particular tradition in social science that, "fundamentally depends on watching people in their own territory and interacting with them in their own language, on their own terms" (p. 9). These definitions all depict differing perceptions of qualitative research and are rooted in the diverse uses and meanings of the methods utilised in conducting research.

The term 'qualitative research' is used to cover a broad range of strategies. It is often used interchangeably with terms such as ethnography, case study, interpretive research, phenomenology, among others (Erickson, 1986; Kirk & Miller, 1986; Smith, 1987; Yin, 1994). Qualitative research is also referred to as naturalistic inquiry (Owens, 1982; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). However, Campbell (1988) sees these terms as labels for a generic qualitative approach, for which Denzin and Lincoln (1994) give this definition:

> Qualitative research is multimethod in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. (p. 2)

Generally, research in education draws from a number of disciplines, for example: sociology, psychology, and anthropology. However, qualitative research in education draws heavily on the ethnographic traditions in anthropology (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984) and its underlying major epistemological and ontological assumptions are grounded in the phenomenological paradigm (Firestone, 1987). There are, however, many different strands of qualitative research (Tesch, 1990; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994) which take a variety of analytic paths. While Denzin and Lincoln caution that qualitative research is "never just one thing" (p. 3), if the purpose of qualitative inquiry is viewed as a quest to gain understanding, "there is no qualitative method per se, only methods to gather information with which we must construct our qualitative understanding" (Edson, 1988, p. 44). At the same time, one can argue that there are certain commonalities across qualitative methods (for example, the importance of context and studying phenomena from the perspectives of the actors involved) that pull them together under the broad rubric of qualitative research.

Philosophical Assumptions of Qualitative Research

As mentioned earlier, qualitative research has its philosophical foundations in the phenomenological paradigm (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984; Firestone, 1987; Holstein & Gubrium, 1994). Some of the philosophical assumptions of qualitative research have been mentioned in the preceding sub-sections. However, Merriam (1988) gives this comprehensive overview:

> qualitative research assumes that there are multiple realities - that the world is not an objective thing out there but a function of personal interaction and perception. It is a highly subjective phenomenon in need of interpreting rather than measuring. Beliefs rather than facts form the basis of perception. Research is exploratory, inductive, and emphasizes processes rather than ends. In this paradigm, there are no predetermined hypotheses, no treatments, and no restrictions on the end product. One does not manipulate variables or administer a treatment. What one does do is observe, intuit, sense what is occurring in a natural setting - hence the term naturalistic inquiry. (p. 17)

Lincoln and Guba (1985) also identify five axioms of the naturalistic or qualitative paradigm. These five axioms focus on the ontological and epistemological underpinnings, the issue of generalisability of findings and causal linkages, and the role of values. First, the naturalistic paradigm posits that there are multiple constructed realities which can be studied only holistically. Research is an interactive process and the researcher and the 'object' of inquiry interact to influence one another. Therefore, the knower and the known are inseparable. Second, naturalistic inquiry lays no claim to the generalisation of findings to wider populations. The aim of naturalistic inquiry is "to develop an idiographic body of knowledge in the form of the 'working hypotheses' that describe the individual case" (Ibid, p. 38). Third, the naturalistic paradigm posits that it is impossible to distinguish causes from effects because all entities are in a state of mutual simultaneous shaping. Finally, the naturalistic paradigm operates on the principle that inquiry is value-bound. Inquiry is value-bound in at least three ways: it is influenced by the personal value system of the researcher, the values inherent in the research context, and the substantive theory used to guide data collection and analysis.

The essence, then, of the philosophical assumptions underlying qualitative research is that phenomena must be studied holistically in their natural settings from the perspectives of the individuals involved. There are multiple views of reality, hence it is impossible to have a 'single knowable reality'. In qualitative inquiry, human behaviour is best understood by interpreting people's thoughts, feelings, values, perceptions, and actions. Regardless of the qualitative strand, the centrality of the actors in the research process appears to be the major binding element. Diversity aside, however, there are several characteristics of qualitative inquiry shared by researchers. In the next sub-section the researcher outlines the tenets of 'interpretive phenomenology' (the strand of phenomenology adopted and adapted by the researcher).

Interpretive Phenomenology

Interpretive phenomenology is based on the view that social reality is "the product of the subjective and inter-subjective experience of individuals" (Morgan, 1980, p. 608). Interpretive phenomenology posits that there are multiple constructed views of reality which can be studied holistically. Within this holistic approach, interpretive phenomenology also accounts for the diverse views of reality that constitute the whole. Each individual gives his (or her) interpretation of events in the world around him (or her). Hence, interpretive phenomenology (as it is conceptualised by the researcher) posits that, in order to give the 'most accurate' interpretation possible, convergent, inconsistent and contradictory views must be accounted for. This axiom is supported by Mathison (1988) who contends that it is possible to encounter inconsistent and contradictory views in one's data for which the researcher should also account.

Interpretive phenomenology emphasises the interpretive role of the researcher. While the researcher must represent, as accurately as possible, the perspectives of the actors involved, the researcher's role is not limited to merely reproducing the spoken word. The researcher, as the interpretive phenomenologist, has the added responsibility of interpreting the data. Interpretation also includes judging and appraising the context in which data are collected in order to get a better understanding of how 'the parts' are related to 'the whole'. In this regard, the researcher's intent is not to approve or disapprove of the phenomenon under investigation or of the actions of the actors involved.

Another important tenet of interpretive phenomenology is that phenomena are best understood from the perspectives of the actors in their natural settings. Consequently, context is crucial in situational-interpretive inquiry not only for understanding the phenomena under investigation but also for determining the possible applicability of findings to other contexts. Drawing on the aforementioned tenets of interpretive phenomenology, the researcher tried to understand the phenomenon under investigation from the standpoint and lived experiences of the actors. By interacting with the actors in their natural setting, the researcher sought to interpret and explicate "how objects and experience are meaningfully constructed and communicated in the world of everyday life" (Holstein & Gubrium, 1994, p. 264).

Characteristics of Qualitative Research

Patton (1990) discusses the characteristics of qualitative research under ten themes: naturalistic inquiry, inductive analysis, holistic perspective, qualitative data, personal contact and insight, dynamic systems, unique case orientation, context sensitivity, emphatic neutrality, and design flexibility. Similarly, Lincoln and Guba (1985) outline fourteen characteristics of naturalistic inquiry. These characteristics all represent fundamental principles of qualitative research. However, regardless of the 'strand' or method of qualitative research used, there are at least four essential criteria of qualitative research studies: context, 'lived' experience, patterns of experience, and judging or appraising (Sherman, Webb & Andrews, 1984).

Context

Context in qualitative research is not limited solely to the actors' immediate environment of the research setting. In educational research, context also encompasses the wider educational, social, economic, and political environment influencing participants' behaviour and impacting on the phenomenon under investigation. Context is crucial in qualitative research for two reasons: social phenomena must be studied in their natural settings from the perspectives of the actors involved and meanings and understanding are inseparable from their context (Mishler, 1979).

Qualitative researchers study social phenomena in their natural settings from the perspectives of the actors involved. Smith (1987) and Shimahara (1988) observe that people's cognitive orientations and actions are influenced and shaped by their environment (historical, physical, material, social and cultural). Hence, Sherman and Webb (1988) explain that the contexts of inquiry should not be modified. People's thinking and actions must be interpreted in relation to their specific contextual circumstances. Consequently, qualitative researchers study qualities and entities and seek to understand them in a particular context (Owens, 1982; Giarelli & Chambliss, 1988; Sherman & Webb, 1988). Furthermore, context is also critical in determining the applicability of research findings from one situation to another (mentioned earlier).

Lived Experience

In qualitative inquiry, researchers derive meanings and interpretations of phenomena by studying the 'lived' experiences of the actors involved. Consequently, qualitative researchers place great emphasis on first-hand observations and on getting the participants to speak for themselves. This emphasis on observing and studying phenomena from the perspectives of the actors is what Campbell (1988) refers to as the 'generic qualitative approach'.

Closely associated with the actual experiences of the actors is the setting in which they are studied. For qualitative researchers, 'lived' experiences must be studied in their natural settings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The actors' lived experiences must be studied in their natural settings because realities are holistic and cannot be understood devoid of their contexts. Similarly, they cannot be fragmented for the separate study of the parts. In qualitative inquiry, a particular phenomenon or experience under investigation is understood as a complex system that is more than just the sum of its parts (Patton, 1990).

Patterns of Experience

The criterion 'patterns of experience' or the relationship among events is based on the assumption that people have patterns of experience which they order to make sense of their world. For this very reason, a holistic approach is employed in studying phenomena in qualitative inquiry. Patterns of experience (realities) constitute wholes and the parts of any complex system are situated within an interwoven network of interrelationships, interdependencies, and processes that constitute the system's immediate context (Patton, 1990). In short, in order to understand phenomena, qualitative researchers must study and interpret how the different events in the 'lived' experiences of actors are related to give the 'big picture'. For this very reason, Giarelli and Chambliss (1988) observe that "perceptual fields are experienced as a whole" (p. 32).

In qualitative research, interpretation is the explanation of the meanings of events or the 'lived' experiences of the participants. The criterion patterns of experience is especially important in the interpretive process. McCutcheon (1981), writing about the qualitative method curriculum criticism, mentions the importance of the construction of patterns through the analysis and resynthesis of constituent parts. This type of analysis is important not only in curriculum criticism but also in other methods of qualitative inquiry, including the method used in this study. This type of analysis is especially important because patterns of experience reveal the relationships among discrete events, thereby increasing understanding of each event and the phenomenon as a whole.

In the present study, the relationship among events was extremely important in understanding the phenomenon under investigation. Intra- and inter- institutional events and other external forces, had to be carefully examined to understand their relationship and their impact on the phenomenon under investigation.

Judging or Appraising

Another commonality across qualitative research is the notion of judging or appraising. Judging or appraising in qualitative inquiry is not intended to approve or disapprove of the phenomenon under investigation but to know or understand it better (Sherman et al., 1984). Judging in qualitative research is "an appraisal of the qualitative situation, the relation of the parts to the whole, and an indication of the potentialities that can be sought from actualities" (Sherman & Webb, 1988, p. 7).

Ross (1988) observes that the role of the qualitative researcher in curriculum criticism includes providing "reasoned judgements about the significance and value of the phenomenon" (p. 162). Ross' observation, applied generally to qualitative research, suggests that qualitative researchers also have an evaluative role in their interpretation of phenomena. However, in addition to this evaluative function, there is a sense in which appraisal is also concerned with decision making throughout the research process. In this regard, Owens (1982) observes that the researcher usually starts with broad questions and works through a conceptual 'funnel' making decisions about checking and verification as the investigation progresses. This 'filtering' process is highly judgemental.

In qualitative research, regardless of the method employed, data are collected using similar techniques and are predominantly linguistic (Stiles, 1990). Given the predominance of linguistic data across qualitative research, the researcher feels that the nature of qualitative data should be added to the list of essential criteria.

The Nature of Qualitative Data

Smith (1987) and Lowenberg (1993) contend that qualitative research is empirical. Researchers collect 'sense' data (using their eyes, ears and intuitions as instruments) about the phenomena under study and process them in some pre-determined way. Data are gathered mainly through interviews, observation and document collection or analysis. This use of multiple data sources, referred to as 'triangulation' (Denzin, 1970; Jick, 1979; Owens, 1982; Rossman & Wilson, 1985; Mathison, 1988), in part, distinguishes qualitative inquiry from 'traditional' forms of research.

Qualitative research is descriptive in that data collected are primarily in written form rather than numbers. However, the fact that qualitative researchers rely heavily on description does not rule out the use of quantitative data (Eisner, 1991). For this very reason, definitions of qualitative research as a set of methods that does not use quantitative data are simplistic and misleading.

One of the misconceptions about qualitative data is that they can only serve an exploratory function for theory. The commonly held view is that qualitative data are unsuitable for theory verification. However, Denzin (1970) contends that all data, whether qualitative or quantitative, serve four basic functions for theory: they initiate new theory or reformulate, refocus, and clarify existing theory. Furthermore, Denzin observes that:

> To the extent that any body of data is theoretically directed, triangulated, reflects the circumstances of a natural field setting, and is valid and reliable, it can be admitted into the research process. To

> disparage qualitative data because they are not rigorously scaled, or because they do not permit complicated statistical analysis, avoids the issue. Many field circumstances will not permit quantitative measurements, and frequently theories are so imprecise that quantitative data cannot be specified. (p. 120)

In constructing theory, qualitative researchers adopt an inductive approach developing theory from the data (Henwood & Pigeon, 1992). This process of theory development from data is what Glaser and Strauss (1967) refer to as 'grounded theory'.

In qualitative research, data collection and analysis are interrelated activities. Qualitative data analysis is a process that begins with the collection of the first set of data and continues throughout the research. Data analysis is not a separate self-contained phase (Tesch, 1990; Delamont, 1992). In the present study the researcher used the grounded theory approach and data collection and analysis proceeded concurrently. In the grounded theory approach, as soon as the first set of data is gathered the analysis begins (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Charmaz, 1983; Strauss, 1987; Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

In the preceding discussion the researcher looked at some definitions of qualitative research, its philosophic underpinnings, its characteristics and the most common criteria across research studies. While the multiplicity of qualitative methods makes generalisation difficult, qualitative inquiry, regardless of the method, emphasises the centrality of the 'lived' experiences of the actors involved. Qualitative inquiry denotes inductive, generative, constructive, and subjective processes. Researchers seek to interpret phenomena holistically from the perspectives of the individuals involved but, in their natural settings. For this reason, context is culture-bound and the case study approach is highly predominant. In the present study, the researcher opted for a qualitative case study design to investigate the phenomenon - pre-service primary teacher education.

THE CASE STUDY APPROACH

Historically, case study research is nothing new (Borg & Gall, 1983). The approach has been used extensively in the medical and legal professions and in fields such as anthropology, sociology, psychology and political science for a long time. However, as a method of investigation in education, the case study only became popular in the 1960s and 1970s (Merriam, 1988). The case study is defined in diverse ways and there are several types of case study used in educational research (Merriam, 1985).

Yin (1994) contends that a case study is an empirical inquiry that: "investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (p. 13). Borg and Gall (1983) state that, in its simplest form, the case study "involves an investigator who makes a detailed examination of a simple subject or group or phenomena" (p. 488). Kenny and Grotelueschen (1984) note that case studies are "intensive investigations of single cases which serve both to identify and describe basic phenomena, as well as provide the basis for subsequent theory-development" (p. 37). Hammersley (1992), in an interesting discourse in which he compares the case study with the survey and the experiment, defines the case study as "one case selection strategy" involving "the investigation of a relatively small number of naturally occurring (rather than researcher-created) cases" (pp. 184-5). Finally, Merriam (1988) explains that a qualitative case study (the method used in the present study) is "an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon such as a program, an institution, a person, a process or a social unit" (p. xiv).

In keeping with the purpose of the study, the research question, and the qualitative approach, the researcher adopted a qualitative case study design. The choice of this design was supported by the literature. Merriam (1988), for example, explained that the qualitative case study was "a particularly suitable methodology for dealing with critical problems of practice and extending the knowledge base of various aspects of education" (p. xiii). Similarly, Yin (1984) observed that the case study contributed "uniquely to our knowledge of individual, organizational, social, and political phenomena" and it allowed investigations to "retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events" (p. 14).

Classification of the Case Study

As mentioned earlier, there are several classifications of case study in the literature. Borg and Gall (1983) list these five types found in the behavioural science literature: historical case studies, oral histories, situational analysis, observational case studies and clinical case studies. Davey (1991) cites six types of evaluation case studies, namely: illustrative case studies, exploratory case studies, critical instance case studies, programme implementation case studies, programme effects and cumulative case studies. Other authors (for example, Yin & Heald, 1975; McClintock, Brannon & Maynard-Moody, 1979) have labelled case studies based on the design and number of cases (for example, single case, single case employing cluster method, and cross-site). Drawing on the classification by design approach, the researcher chose to use the single site qualitative case study design to allow for a detailed investigation of the provision of pre-service primary teacher education by Hilltop College of Education in a climate of change.

Characteristics of the Case Study

There is a tendency among some authors (for example, Borg & Gall, 1983; Kenny & Grotelueschen, 1984; Davey, 1991) to equate case study inquiry with qualitative research. However, Yin (1994) observes that, "case studies can be based on any mix of quantitative and qualitative evidence" and that case studies "need not always include direct, detailed observations as a source of evidence" (p. 14). Similarly, Sarantakos (1993) observes that the case study is a valid form of inquiry for qualitative, quantitative and evaluation studies "particularly when the research context is too complex for survey studies or experimental strategies" and when the investigator "is interested in the structure, process and outcomes of a single unit" (p. 260). Generally, case study inquiry demonstrates these distinguishing characteristics: (a) it studies whole units; (b) a single unit is one study; (c) it uses multiple data collection strategies; (d) it regards the participant as an expert, not simply a source of data; and (d) it usually investigates a typical case (Yin, 1994).

The limitations of the case study are well documented in the literature (see for example, Borg & Gall, 1983; Yin, 1984, 1994; Merriam, 1988; Davey 1991). However, Yin (1994) points out that, generally, case study inquiry is criticised for its lack of rigour, that it provides little basis for scientific generalisation and that it is time consuming. At the same time, Stake (1978) observes that case study inquiry offers a basis for naturalistic generalisation. The limitations of case study inquiry aside, Sarantakos (1993) observes that, as a research method, it: (a) assists in data collection and the formulation of hypotheses; (b) provides information on cases prior to or after large-scale studies are undertaken; (c) illustrates large studies by providing insights into specific aspects of these studies; and (d) provides supplementary information.

While the qualitative case study shares all of the characteristics mentioned in the preceding paragraphs, Merriam (1988) identifies four properties of the qualitative case study: particularistic, descriptive, heuristic and inductive. The qualitative case study is particularistic because it focuses on a particular situation, event, programme or phenomenon. The case itself is important for what it reveals about the phenomenon and for what it might represent. As Merriam observes, it is "interpretation in context" (Cronbach, 1975, p. 123) that distinguishes the qualitative case study from other research designs. The descriptive property refers to the nature of the end product. The end product is usually a detailed description of the phenomenon under study. The heuristic property of the qualitative case study is concerned with illuminating the reader's understanding of the phenomenon under study, while the inductive property indicates that, for the most part, the qualitative case study relies on inductive reasoning.

Sarantakos (1993), on the other hand, describes the qualitative case study on four dimensions: 'openness', 'communicativity', 'naturalism' and 'interpretativity'. These four dimensions are grounded in the phenomenological paradigm. 'Openness' refers to the research design and the fact that there are no restrictions imposed on the method of investigation (except, perhaps, those established by the researcher). According to Sarantakos, the researcher's actions are unrestricted and there are no pre-determined, inflexible goals or paths of action. The second dimension, 'communicativity', is based on the principle that reality emerges from interaction among actors. Action, interaction and communication constitute reality which is captured by the researcher. 'Naturalism' refers to the fact that qualitative case studies are conducted in their natural settings. Finally, 'interpretativity', indicates that for researchers using the qualitative case study, social reality is defined as 'interpreted' reality. Hence, interpretation is meaningful and significant in the investigation.

In the present study, the focus of the inquiry was on the provision of pre-service primary teacher education by Hilltop College of Education in a rapidly changing environment. The qualitative case study, given its properties and research dimensions, allowed for an in-depth investigation and interpretation of the phenomenon and the generation of theory grounded in rich descriptive data. Most importantly, however, the qualitative case study helped to provide a better understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. At the same time, the researcher developed a conceptual framework to guide data collection because the 'openness' or loose design suggested by Sarantakos (1993) was considered difficult to utilise.

THE GROUNDED THEORY APPROACH

For the purpose of the present study, the researcher had to select a strategy for data analysis and theory construction which would be compatible with the qualitative orientation and the single site qualitative case study design. In this regard, the researcher selected and used the grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), but with some modification. Grounded theory has been used more extensively in the medical sciences but it has also been adopted and used in educational research (for example, Battersby, 1981; Gehrke, 1981, 1982; Edwards, 1986).

Grounded theory, which was developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), is an approach for collecting and analysing qualitative data. Grounded theory is also an approach for constructing theory from qualitative data. Theory, according to Strauss and Corbin (1994), evolves during the actual research through the continuous interplay between data collection and analysis. This approach to generating theory evolved from a dissatisfaction with existing sociological theories and research. Hutchinson (1988) explained that:

> Glaser and Strauss believed grand theories were generated from idle speculation rather than from data and those who generated grand theories were not interested enough in research to test them out. Grand theories employ global concepts that are often poorly defined and ambiguously related to one another and everyday life.... Of more use, Glaser and Strauss believed, would be middle range or substantive theories that explained a specific area of empirical inquiry.... The grounded theory method offered a systematic approach for generating substantive theories that were born in and helped explain the real world. (p. 124)

While the generic tenets of grounded theory have remained intact, the approach has been applied in diverse ways across a number of disciplines. In addition, Strauss (1987) and Strauss and Corbin (1990) have produced works with more detailed guidelines and procedures for applying grounded theory.

Theoretical Foundations of Grounded Theory

Pragmatism and symbolic interactionism provide the philosophical foundation of grounded theory (Hutchinson, 1988; Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Corbin and Strauss postulate that there are two important principles drawn from this foundation: change and 'determinism'. First, grounded theory posits that phenomena are continually changing in response to evolving conditions. Secondly, on the principle of 'determinism', grounded theory postulates that actors have the means of controlling their destinies by their responses to conditions, although they do not always utilise those means. Therefore, grounded theory seeks not only to uncover relevant conditions but also to identify how actors respond to changing conditions and to the consequences of their actions. Change is built into the grounded theory method through the process approach used in its application (Ibid).

Grounded theory also rests on the symbolic interactionists' view that people interact with each other through meaningful symbols (Hutchinson, 1988). The 'human reality' is socially and symbolically constructed and always emerging in relation to other facts of social life. For symbolic interactionists, meaning evolves over time from social interactions (Turner, 1982; Woods, 1988). This philosophy of symbolic interactionism is reflected in grounded theory primarily in the data collection strategies of participant observation and interviewing. Researchers using these techniques try to understand the phenomenon from the perspectives of the actors within a specific setting. The notion of discovery, so fundamental to grounded theory, includes discovering, first, the world as seen through the eyes of the participants and, then, the basic social processes or structures which organise that world. Grounded theory is guided by the fundamental assumption that people have patterns of experience and that they order these experiences to make sense of their environment. Researchers using the grounded theory approach develop theory using two inter-related procedures: 'theoretical sampling' and 'constant comparative analysis'.

Theoretical Sampling

Theoretical sampling refers to the process of data collection, particularly the notion that data gathering is ongoing and should be guided by the ideas learned or generated through the analysis of data previously collected. Theoretical sampling is defined by Strauss and Corbin (1990) as, "sampling on the basis of concepts that have proven theoretical relevance to the evolving theory" (p. 176). First, the researcher must collect initial data that will provide a 'foundation' from which he or she can proceed to gather further data. Hence, data collection and analysis are interrelated and ongoing processes in the grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Charmaz, 1983; Strauss, 1987; Hutchinson, 1988; Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Data analysis begins as soon as the researcher collects the first set of data. Based on the analysis of the exploratory background data, the researcher can proceed to gather more data, using a variety of data collection techniques (for example, interview, observation, document analysis and questionnaire). The researcher follows this iterative procedure throughout the fieldwork until the theory is saturated (no more new data are discovered).

Constant Comparative Analysis

The procedure used for data analysis in grounded theory is 'constant comparative analysis'. Hutchinson (1988) notes that:

> The constant comparative method is the fundamental method of data analysis in grounded theory generation. The aim of this method is the generation of theoretical constructs which, along with substantive codes and categories and their properties, form a theory that encompasses as much behavioral variation as possible. The proposed theory is molecular in structure rather than causal or linear. (p.135)

Generally, constant comparative analysis involves an ongoing, systematic organisation and classification of the data into various categories. Denzin (1970) contends that concepts are the most important elements in a theoretical system. In grounded theory, concepts are the basic building blocks of theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). As the data gathering and analysis progress, categories of data begin to emerge. Then, as other data fit these categories, the researcher discerns propositions or sub-themes within the categories. Gehrke (1981), in her five-year study of eleven beginning teachers' role personalisation, explains how she used the procedure:

> During the first stages of analysis each incident or bit was coded into tentative conceptual categories. Review of interview notes, transcripts, and observation notes followed each encounter with teachers. Categories emerging from the data were noted. Inter- and intra- person similarities and differences in perceptions and behaviors signalled the potential categorical properties and interrelationships of categories. As the alternating coding, categorization, and data gathering continued, the analysis focused on the exploration of these interrelationships and on delimitation of the properties. Hypotheses about the categories and properties and their interrelatedness were formulated and explored through later interviews and observations. They underwent verification and modification through the analysis of data gathered in later periods. (p. 35)

Strauss (1987) and Strauss and Corbin (1990) also demonstrate the data analysis procedure. The only disadvantage is that their field of research is not education. The following example of a category, its properties and a set of related propositions was taken from Battersby's (1981) study of teacher socialisation:

Category:	The Role of the Principal
Properties:	1. Expectations and Initial Contact 2. Interaction with the Principal

Propositions: First year teachers have differing expectations of their Principal.
By the commencement of the school year, first year teachers have made contact with their Principal.
First year teachers initially react to their Principal in positive terms, e.g., "S/he is friendly", "S/he is easy to get on with". (p. 105)

Coding in Grounded Theory

In the grounded theory approach, 'coding' is the term used to cover the operations by which data are broken down, conceptualised, and put back together in new ways (data analysis). Coding is the central process by which theories are built from data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). There are three major types of coding used to analyse data in grounded theory: open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. Hutchinson (1988) labels these three major types of coding as Levels I, II, and III.

Open coding is the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising and categorising data. Axial coding is the process whereby data are put back together in new ways, after open coding, by making connections between categories, using a coding paradigm. Selective coding is the process of selecting the core category, systematically relating it to other categories, validating those relationships, and filling in categories that need further refinement and development (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Hutchinson (1988) explains that at Level I, coding breaks the data down into small pieces, and Levels II and III coding elevate the data to more abstract levels. Hutchinson also notes that in the process of coding, data that prove to be irrelevant may be discarded.

The ultimate goal of the grounded theory approach is to develop a theory that accounts for a phenomenon which is relevant to the actors involved. Theory generation originates with the identification of a core category discovered through a progressive process of open, axial, and selective coding using a paradigm model (mentioned earlier). This model, depicted in Figure 3, has six components.

The first of the six components of the paradigm model is 'causal conditions'. Causal conditions, also referred to as the precursors or antecedents, are the particular events or conditions that cause the phenomenon to occur. Phenomenon, the second component, refers to the 'object' of the investigation. The context is the specific set of properties pertaining to the phenomenon. In essence, the context represents the particular set of conditions within which the action and interaction strategies are applied.

A Data Analysis and Theory Development Model

(A) CAUSAL CONDITIONS → (B) PHENOMENON →
(C) CONTEXT → (D) INTERVENING CONDITIONS →
(E) ACTION and INTERACTION STRATEGIES → (F) CONSEQUENCES.

Figure 3. The paradigm model.
Source: Strauss & Corbin, 1990.

'Intervening conditions', the fourth component, refers to the general structural factors that facilitate or constrain the action and interaction strategies pertaining to the phenomenon taken within a specific context. Grounded theory is an action and interactional oriented approach to theory building (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Closely associated with every phenomenon are actions and interactions which are devised to manage, handle or respond to a phenomenon in a specific context. Consequences, the last of the components, refers to the outcomes of the actions and interactions which are either taken or not taken in response to a phenomenon.

Strauss and Corbin (1990) caution that unless the researcher uses the model the analyses would lack density and precision. At the same time, it is unlikely that the elements of the paradigm will be clearly differentiated or will progress sequentially. They, however, must be actively pursued (Strauss, 1987; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In this study, the researcher used the model to analyse the data and to develop the substantive theory of survival.

The Use of Memos in Grounded Theory

In order to keep track of the data analysis procedure, to stimulate further coding, and to accomplish theoretical integration, the researcher must include 'memoing' to complete the triad of analytic 'operations'. Strauss (1987) defines theoretical memoing as "writing in which the researcher puts down theoretical questions, hypotheses, summary of codes, etc." (p. 21). Memoing is a critical part of the process of generating a quality theory (Hutchinson, 1988). In order for the researcher to generate a quality theory, the descriptions of the empirical events must reach a theoretical level. Transforming data from descriptions of empirical events to theory requires the researcher to pause, in the process of coding, to record ideas to "capture the initially elusive and shifting connections within the data" (Hutchinson, 1988, p. 136). Therefore, theory building emphasises the conceptualisation and linking of ideas. In the present study, the researcher documented the analytic process throughout the investigation in a series of memos. These memos were vital in categorising concepts, in data reduction and in theory development.

Using Grounded Theory

There are three fundamental questions regarding the use of the grounded theory approach. The first question relates to the notion of sampling. What criteria does one use in selecting an individual, a group, an organisation, or a situation as a source of data? Glaser and Strauss (1967) observe that the ideal situation is to be able to choose different individuals, groups or situations as the data dictate. Corbin and Strauss (1990) explain sampling in grounded theory thus:

> Sampling in grounded theory proceeds not in terms of drawing samples of specific groups of individuals, units of time, and so on, but in terms of concepts, their properties, dimensions, and variations. When a project begins, the researcher brings to it some idea of the phenomenon he or she wants to study. Based on this knowledge, groups of individuals, an organization, or community representative of that phenomenon can be selected for study. (p. 8)

However, Glaser and Strauss note that choice is often affected by the availability of prospective participants at particular points in time.

The foregoing explanation about sampling does not provide any 'clear cut' answer to the 'problematic' issue of sampling procedures. Sampling decisions rest with the investigator. This responsibility introduces the element of variability since there are no specific criteria. Consequently, this researcher raises the question: If theoretical sampling is central to the grounded theory approach and there are no specific criteria for selecting participants and settings, should a grounded theory study be judged on the basis of its sampling procedures? However, the sampling procedure is one of the criteria listed by Corbin and Strauss (1990) for judging the quality of a grounded theory study.

The second fundamental question concerns theoretical saturation. On this issue, the researcher raises the question: How does one know when a particular category is saturated in order to stop collecting information for that category? Strauss (1987) states that theoretical saturation is reached "when additional analysis no longer contributes to discovering anything new about a category" (p. 21). However, Glaser and Strauss (1967) explain the concept in greater detail, noting that saturation means:

> that no additional data are being found whereby the [researcher] can develop properties of a category. As he sees similar instances over and

> over again, the researcher becomes empirically confident that a category is saturated. He goes out of his way to look for groups that stretch diversity of data as far as possible, just to make certain that saturation is based on the widest possible range of data on the category.... When one category is saturated, nothing remains but to go on to new groups for data on other categories, and attempt to saturate these new categories also. (p. 61)

For a 'first time' user of grounded theory, reaching theoretical saturation and making decisions about theoretical saturation could be extremely difficult. Glaser and Strauss (1967) suggest that the researcher use the procedure 'maximising and minimising differences' in order to expedite the process of theoretical saturation. 'Maximising and minimising differences' works this way: When differences in data are minimised, maximum similarity in data occurs which leads to verification of the category and generation of basic properties. When differences in data are maximised, maximum diversity in data occurs which leads to the dense development of a category's properties, and the integration and refinement of the category's properties. Glaser and Strauss also advise that whenever a category of data seems to be emerging, the researcher should collect more data on that category, from similar sources, in order to verify the existence of a definite category and isolate basic properties of the category. As other data begin to fit the category, the researcher should gather more data from a wide range of sources to develop and integrate the properties of the category. However, applying these suggestions is not an easy task.

The third fundamental question has to do with concluding the analysis and writing the theory. How does a researcher know that the theory has been developed? Glaser and Strauss (1967) explain that the end is in sight when:

> the researcher is convinced that his conceptual framework forms a systematic theory, that it is a reasonably accurate statement of the matters studied, that it is couched in a form possible for others to use in studying a similar area, and that he can publish his results with confidence, then he is near the end of his research. (pp. 224-225)

Again, this is a difficult decision for a researcher using grounded theory for the first time.

Developing and writing theory from data are challenging tasks, even for experienced researchers. Although several books on grounded theory have been written since Glaser and Strauss' work in 1967, most works explaining how theories are actually developed and written are outside the field of education. In addition, most of the studies in education using the grounded theory approach do not offer clear procedures (for using the method or developing theory) to prospective researchers. The onus is on educational researchers to adapt the procedures to suit their purposes. However, the researcher has come across one study in teacher socialisation (Battersby, 1981) where the investigator has documented the difficulties encountered in using the approach and has made suggestions for dealing with the pitfalls. Nevertheless, Glaser and Strauss (1967) suggest that in writing grounded theory, the researcher should use data to support conclusions and to illustrate how he or she developed the theory from the data (see Appendix H for a sample open coded interview transcript).

The researcher opted to use grounded theory because it was compatible with the overall qualitative research approach, particularly the qualitative case study design, adopted by the researcher. The triad of analytic operations of data collecting, coding and memoing, gave the research process rigour and helped the researcher to break through the biases and assumptions brought to, and developed, during the research process. Grounded theory also provided scope for the evolutionary development and refinement of the investigation, and allowed for modification of the approach to suit the research purpose. On the issue of modification, Strauss (1987) stated that:

> Hence we take the stand about our own suggested methods that they are by no means to be regarded as hard and fixed rules for converting data into effective theory. They constitute guidelines that should help most researchers in their enterprises.... Study them, use them, but modify them in accordance with the requirements of your own research. Methods, after all, are developed and changed in response to changing work contexts. (pp. 7-8)

Hence, it was with Strauss' permission that the researcher made the modifications outlined in the succeeding section.

Modifications to the Grounded Theory Approach

In the preceding sub-section, the researcher commented on the difficulties envisaged in the sampling procedures. In order to deal with this problem, the researcher used criterion-based sampling (discussed later in this chapter) to complement theoretical sampling. Purposeful or criterion-based sampling, used in conjunction with theoretical sampling, complemented theoretical sampling because it guided the researcher in selecting participants who were most likely to provide the information required. The complementarity of these two types of sampling was supported by Maxwell (1992) who observed that the goal of these two types of sampling was twofold:

> to make sure one has adequately understood the variation in the phenomenon of interest in the setting, and to test developing ideas about that setting by selecting phenomena that are crucial to the validity of those ideas. (p. 293)

Purposeful or criterion-based sampling used together with theoretical sampling ('sequential' criterion-based sampling) was an improvement on the grounded theory sampling procedure.

Another element of the grounded theory approach which the researcher found difficult to come to terms with was the lack of structure in the initial stages of the research. Corbin and Strauss (1990) observed that each investigator "enters the field with some questions or areas for observation, or will soon generate some" (p. 6). This approach, though open, was susceptible to time and financial wastage and irrelevant data collection. Given these weaknesses and the need for structure to guide data collection, the researcher designed and used a conceptual framework to guide data collection. Like Miles and Huberman (1984, 1994), the researcher believed that a conceptual framework was useful to circumvent the problems encountered with loose designs.

In addition to these modifications, the researcher tried to enhance the utility of the grounded theory approach by extending the analysis to bridge the gap between the micro and macro level factors related to the phenomenon under investigation. Further, the researcher also examined two other elements, namely, history and power, in relation to the present study.

The Macro-Micro Level Gaps and the Missing Elements in Social Research

Layder (1993), in his work, *New Strategies in Social Research*, observes that there are two levels at which social research is conducted: the macro level and the micro level. Layder also observes that the dichotomy between theory-testing and theory-building approaches in social research is a result of the practice by social researchers to focus on either of these two levels, to the exclusion of the other. Theory-testing is quantitative and focuses on the macro phenomena of social structure and institutions, while the theory-building approach is qualitative and focuses on the micro world of social interaction. Layder argues for bridging the 'macro-micro' gap in social research and, in the process, also identifies three elements - history, power and social theory - which he claims should be included in social research.

Traditionally, qualitative research in education has focused mainly on the micro world of social interaction, with an emphasis on description. In the present study, the researcher opted for a single site qualitative case study design and a grounded theory approach to data collection and analysis. This research design allowed for consideration of the macro level factors that were impacting on the micro world of social interaction in the context of this study. The researcher used this design because she believed that if grounded theory (and qualitative research) were to make a greater contribution to understanding phenomena and establishing links between substantive and general theories, then the gaps between the micro and macro dimensions of social reality had to be bridged, first, at the basic level of the individual research project.

Generally, the focus of grounded theory is mainly on micro level phenomena. However, Strauss (1987) explains that theories were developed at varying levels of abstraction but that at any level the theory "can be broader or narrow in scope; and it may be linked with other theory which is more or less developed" (p. 4). Although not stated explicitly in terms of linking micro levels of analysis with general theory, there is, in Strauss' statement, the underlying suggestion that macro level phenomena can be included to complement the analysis of micro phenomena, as a matter of choice. In other words, they can be included for emphasis. Similarly, there is an implicit suggestion for linking macro and micro level phenomena using the conditional matrix proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1994)

Like Layder (1993), the researcher sees social reality as a series of interdependent layers, with their own distinctive characteristics, that enable researchers to be sensitive to different units and time-scales in social processes and change. The notion of interdependence suggests more than the 'emphatic link', proposed by Strauss (1987) or the implicit suggestion proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1994). It seems, then, that grounded theory can be broadened in scope to incorporate an examination of the 'macro-micro' links in the study of social phenomena. Accordingly, in this present study the researcher attempted to move beyond the seemingly marginal connection suggested by Strauss, and Strauss and Corbin, to explore the influence of macro level structural factors on social interaction and everyday life within the context of the investigation.

History

One of the macro level factors which Layder (1993) felt needed consideration in social research was history. During the late 1980s, reforms were introduced at all levels of the New Zealand education system (Tomorrow's Schools: The Reform of Education Administration in New Zealand, 1988; Education Amendment Act, 1990; Learning for Life 1: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Learning for Life II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989). Like other colleges of education, Hilltop College of Education experienced a number of changes (for example, changes in administration and funding policy) all of which had historical significance and were important for understanding the present situation. At the same time, in the context of an ever changing environment, it was reasonable to expect that there would be vestiges of the past impacting on 'current' events. Accordingly, in this study where two institutions with different cultures established a closer working relationship to offer a pre-service primary teacher education programme, the researcher had to account for the influence of history.

In addition to tracing "the changing forms of social behaviour and institutions over time" (Layder, 1993, p. 6), history was also identified as an important factor in establishing internal validity (Denzin, 1970) [In qualitative research, internal validity, according to Lincoln and Guba (1985), is concerned with credibility]. Denzin observed that historical factors that impinged on phenomena under investigation affected internal validity if they were not accounted for and if their impact was not assessed. Further, Denzin also observed that the interview and document analysis were both suitable techniques for collecting information about events occurring before and during a research project that impacted on it. The decision to recognise history as a macro level factor in this study, and the data collection techniques were, therefore, well supported by the literature.

Another missing element in social research identified by Layder (1993) was power. The research site in this study was an educational organisation. Given the changing nature of the educational, social, economic and political environment, and the nature of educational organisations, the forces of power at play both within the organisation and external to the organisation could not be disregarded.

Power

Organisations, according to Bacharach and Lawler (1980), may be conceptualised as "politically negotiated orders" (p. 1). Furthermore, organisational life is dominated by political interactions and "politics in organizations involve the tactical use of power to retain or obtain control of real or symbolic resources" (Ibid, p. 1). Cherrington (1989) observes that "power exists in every organisation and it can create desirable and undesirable outcomes" (p. 699). Similarly, Pfeffer (1981) observes that decision making processes in organisations must be understood from the perspective of power and organisational politics. These statements all suggest that power is an inherent dimension of organisational life. In the present study, not only was it reasonable to assume that there would be intra- and inter- organisational power relations but it was also reasonable to assume that there were would be other forces of power and authority external to the organisation (Hilltop College of Education) that would impact on its everyday life.

Weber defines power as "the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance, regardless of the basis on which this probability rests" (1968, p. 53). Power, according to Cherrington (1989), is "the ability of one person or group of persons to influence the behavior of others" (p. 699). Further, Cherrington claims that this definition highlights three important characteristics of power, namely: potential, relative and acquired power. Potential power is the ability to influence others whether or not the individual uses that ability. Secondly, power is relative because individuals possess power only to the extent that others perceive them as possessing it. The third characteristic, acquired power, is concerned with the fact that individuals within organisations have the potential to increase or decrease their power base.

The purpose of this study was to examine change in pre-service primary teacher education in a rapidly changing environment. Given this context and the fact that Hilltop College of Education was offering its B.Ed. degree programme in affiliation with Belmont University, it was reasonable to expect a highly political situation with issues of power and power relations that could not be ignored. Furthermore, it was reasonable to assume that the power relations were likely to impact on the phenomenon under investigation. Additionally, the potential for increasing or decreasing their respective power bases existed for the institutions and the individuals involved.

Legitimacy in the exercise of power is also one of Weber's (1947) arguments. Legitimated power is referred to as authority. Within the organisational context, there are certain activities which are both accepted and expected by individuals holding specific positions. These activities are legitimated by virtue of the individuals' positions. In short, certain positions within organisations carry with them the power to effect defined activities. Activities, whether legitimated or not, have implications for the organisation and its members. Hence, the activities carried out, the way in which they are actioned, and their impact, must be investigated from the perspectives of the actors involved. In the context of this study, it was reasonable to assume that certain individuals, by virtue of their positions, had legitimate power to carry out certain activities.

Weber (1947) proposes three major theories of legitimate power or authority in organisations, namely: traditional power, charismatic power and rational-legal power. Traditional power is exerted by an individual who has rightfully inherited a position of status. This type of power is grounded on "an established belief in the sanctity of immemorial traditions and the legitimacy of the status of those exercising authority under them" (Ibid, p. 328). Charismatic power rests on the ability of an individual to inspire unwavering allegiance and devotion through his personal qualities and ability to command respect. The charismatic leader's directives are regarded as legitimate and his followers work on the assumption of his vision and ability to lead. The third theory of power, the rational-legal, is derived from an individual's position within an organisational hierarchy. The rational-legal model rests on the belief in the legality of normative rules and control and the rights of leaders, by virtue of their office, to exercise authority.

Lukes (1974) proposes a 'radical' three-dimensional view of power. According to Lukes' conceptualisation of power, the first dimension focuses on overt observable behaviour. Behaviour is defined as decision making on "issues over which there is an observable conflict of interests" (p. 15). Interests are seen as policy preferences and a conflict of interests is "equivalent to a conflict of preferences" (p. 14). Normative rules are adhered to and power is seen only in concrete terms: observable behaviour. In his second dimension, Lukes purports that power operations are also covert and not necessarily identifiable through observable behaviour. While this dimension moves beyond the confines of the one-dimensional view, Lukes observes that the two-dimensional view is limited because it still assumes that "non-decision making is a form of decision-making" (p. 20).

In his third dimension, Lukes (1974) focuses on the effects of the process of socialisation as a form of power. Lukes acknowledges the powerful influence of traditional social structures, values, and norms and the difficulties associated with changing them. Hence, Lukes' third dimension "allows for consideration of the many ways in which *potential issues* [emphasis in original] are kept out of politics, whether through the operation of social forces and institutional practices or through individuals' decisions" (p. 24). Power is seen as suppression. What is suppressed is latent conflict which is manifested (covertly) in a contradiction between the preferences of those exercising power and the 'real interests' of those who are excluded. Lukes argues that in order to locate power operations in society one needs to "fix responsibility for consequences held to flow from the action, or inaction, of certain specifiable agents" (p. 56). Lukes' third dimension of power is synonymous with Gramsci's (cited in Musgrove, 1979) discourse on hegemony (domination) wherein the central theme is that the dominant culture expresses and reinforces the hegemony of the ruling class.

In Althusser's (1971) discourse on 'ideology', Lukes' (1974) third dimension of power becomes more explicit. Althusser argues that society, in reproducing itself, maintains its social structure and ensures submission by the lower echelons of society to the ruling ideology - that of the elite. Education, according to Althusser, is the State's primary ideological apparatus serving the dominant elite. Through schooling, submission to the ruling ideology is ensured. Essentially, Althusser's discourse, like Lukes' third dimension of power, focuses on the effects of socialisation as a form of power. The interests of the dominant elite are secured and perpetuated through schooling and the decision making authority the 'elite' group holds. At the same time, the interests of other social classes are not addressed because they are excluded from the decision making process. Hence, the relocation of power within society is a difficult proposition.

The foregoing theoretical conceptions of power all associate the exercise of power with human agency. Power operations are both overt and covert and, according to Lukes (1977), are exercised within structurally determined limits. Further, within this overt-covert model, power operations also take many different forms. Based on the foregoing observations, it is reasonable to assume that educational organisations, being the complex structures that they are, would have many different kinds of power operations. Boulding (1989) explains that organisations are characterised by the following types of power structures:

> internal power structures closely related to the nature of the hierarchical relationships within them and external power structures outside them, whether individuals or other organizations, and they may also be objects of power exercised by other persons or organizations. (p. 188)

Boulding also explains that the external interactions of the power of different organisations constitute a highly complex network. Further, all organisations interact with and depend on others.

By focusing only on the observable interactions of everyday life, the subtle power operations that influence behaviour tend to go unnoticed. Layder (1993) explains that most qualitative approaches, including grounded theory, at most, implicitly endorse a micro view of power and the importance of a macro-structural dimension of power is either ignored or undervalued. Structural forms of power are often covert and marked by a lack of conflict and overlapping interests. Additionally, structural forms of power "involve relations of control which operate 'at a distance from the action', although they reach into the heart of such activity" (Layder, 1993, p. 171).

In the present study, the researcher acknowledged that the structural forms of power existing in the ever changing environment of the wider research context could impact on the phenomenon under investigation. Accordingly, the researcher made a conscious effort to extend the grounded theory approach beyond micro level analysis to explore the dynamics between macro structural forms of power and situated activities.

RELIABILITY, VALIDITY AND GENERALISABILITY

The concerns about the legitimacy of qualitative research are linked to issues of reliability and validity (Maxwell, 1992). The major criticism of qualitative research is that there are no strict criteria for assessing reliability and validity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Gage, 1989; Eisner & Peshkin, 1990). This criticism has come not only from advocates of the procedures of the positivist paradigm but also from qualitative researchers themselves (Altheide & Johnson, 1994). However, despite efforts to: refine qualitative methods (Kirk & Miller, 1986), formulate criteria for evaluating qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Ramsay, 1987; Altheide & Johnson, 1994) and suggest measures for enhancing validity (Owens, 1982; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Ramsay, 1987; Maxwell, 1992; Altheide & Johnson, 1994), reliability remains an area of difficulty for qualitative researchers. While Guba and Lincoln (1989) argue that the measures of reliability used in quantitative research are inappropriate and Kirk and Miller (1986) observe that qualitative research has its own measures for reliability and validity, Ramsay (1987) postulates that because direct replication is impossible, establishing reliability is also impossible. Despite the differing opinions on the issue of reliability and the absence of standardised criteria to guide qualitative research, there are some measures that the qualitative researcher can apply to enhance the reliability or 'dependability' (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) of his or her research project.

Reliability

The literature suggests that reliability in qualitative research rests primarily on two factors: the researcher and the way in which he or she conducts the research. Kirk and Miller (1986) observe that, in qualitative research, reliability depends on explicitly described observational procedures. Hence, the most important strategy for addressing the issue of reliability in qualitative research is for the researcher to move through the research process sequentially and document the procedures explicitly and accurately (Miles & Huberman, 1984; Kirk & Miller, 1986; Ramsay, 1987). In this regard, Shimahara (1988) suggests that:

> Measures to enhance reliability ... involve a complete description of the research process, so that independent researchers may replicate the same procedures in comparable settings. This includes a delineation of the physical, cultural, and social contexts of the study; a statement of the ethnographer's roles in the research setting; an accurate description of the conceptual framework of research; and a complete description of the methods of data collection and analysis. (p. 87)

The procedures outlined by Shimahara (1988) are what Guba and Lincoln (1981) refer to as the 'audit trail'. The 'audit trail', according to Guba and Lincoln, makes it possible to: (a) examine the procedures of the study, either while it is in progress or upon completion; (b) verify a study's consistency, credibility and 'trustworthiness' through independent external auditing; and (c) replicate the study at another time. Replication, in qualitative research, is concerned with following the same procedures used in an earlier study at some later date.

Closely related to the issue of explicating the research process is the place of the researcher in the investigation. In qualitative research, the researcher is part of the setting, context, or culture he or she is trying to understand and represent. Since qualitative research is not value free (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), it is reasonable to assume that the researcher, who does not enter the field with a 'blank slate', will impact on the research. In this regard, Schofield (1993) states that "at the heart of the qualitative approach is the assumption that a piece of qualitative research is very much influenced by the researcher's individual attitude and perspectives" (p. 93). In like manner, the research process will also impact on the researcher. This inevitable two-way process requires that the researcher state his or her theoretical perspectives and predispositions prior to commencing the research and document self-reflection throughout the research process. While these measures are associated mainly with validity, in qualitative research reliability and validity are related constructs. Hence, some measures of validity are also measures that enhance reliability or 'dependability' (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Since reliability is closely associated with validity, the 'trustworthiness' of a qualitative research project is also dependent on the rigour and research skills of the investigator collecting the data. In this regard, Patton observes that:

> The validity and reliability of qualitative data depend to a great extent on the methodological skill, sensitivity, and integrity of the researcher. Systematic and rigorous observation involves far more than just being present and looking around. Skillful interviewing involves much more than just asking questions. Content analysis requires considerably more than just reading to see what's there. Generating useful and credible qualitative findings through observation, interviewing, and content analysis requires discipline, knowledge, training, practice, creativity, and hard work. (p. 11)

In the present study, the researcher outlined her predispositions prior to embarking on the fieldwork (see pp. 98-99), documented the research process throughout, and conducted the interviews in the natural setting. These reliability measures were applied in conjunction with the validity measures (mentioned later in this chapter) to enhance the 'trustworthiness' of the study.

Validity

Validity in qualitative research is 'problematic' (Ramsay, 1987). In qualitative research, the researcher is the instrument and herein lies the major problem of validity. The validity of qualitative methods is dependent on the skill, competence, rigour, honesty and integrity of the researcher. Validity in qualitative research is also difficult because qualitative methods are concerned with the in-depth investigation of a much smaller number of people and cases. Consequently, while understanding is enhanced, the generalisability of findings is reduced.

In his typology of kinds of validity in qualitative research, Maxwell (1992) discusses five categories of validity: descriptive, interpretive, theoretical, generalisability and evaluative. Of these five categories, Maxwell claims that descriptive, interpretive, theoretical and generalisability validity are most important to qualitative research. Evaluative validity, he suggests, is not central to qualitative research because qualitative researchers make no claim to evaluation. However, other authors (for example, McCutcheon, 1981; Ross, 1988) suggest an evaluative role for the qualitative researcher (mentioned earlier). Descriptive, interpretive, and theoretical validity are discussed in this section, while generalisability is discussed under the section devoted to that aspect.

Descriptive validity is the primary type of validity in qualitative research. It is concerned with the factual accuracy of the researcher's account. Ramsay (1987) emphasises the importance of the accurate representation of facts and the responsibility of the researcher in ensuring that the reports produced are accurate. Guba and Lincoln (1981), writing about the documentation of the research process, observe that documentation should cover the nature of each decision in the research plan, the data upon which it was based and the reasoning that entered into it. Similarly, Rist (1977) emphasises the importance of the accuracy of the researcher's account in achieving validity. He observes that the qualitative researcher strives for validity through personalised, intimate understandings of phenomena stressing 'close in' observations to achieve factual, reliable and confirmable data.

Qualitative research is also concerned with the meaning of the objects, events, and behaviours they describe, but from the perspectives of the actors. Maxwell (1992) equates meaning with interpretation. Interpretive validity, he explains, focuses on the accuracy with which the researcher seeks to understand phenomena from the perspectives of the participants in the situation under investigation. Maxwell further explains that interpretive accounts are "grounded in the language of the people studied and rely as much as possible on their own words and concepts" (p. 289).

Theories have two components, namely: concepts and categories. Theoretical validity, in Maxwell's (1992) typology, is concerned with the validity of an account as a theory of some phenomenon. There are two aspects of theoretical validity. First, there is the validity of the concepts as they are applied to the phenomena and, secondly, there is the validity of the postulated relationships among the concepts. Theoretical validity was especially important in this study because the researcher used the grounded theory approach.

The foregoing observations indicate some of the factors with which qualitative researchers must be concerned in order to ensure that their research reports are 'trustworthy' (Owens, 1982). The best possible procedure for qualitative researchers seems to be to identify and apply those strategies which can be utilised to establish credibility. In this regard, there are several measures the researcher can apply to strengthen the credibility of qualitative research findings. Owens suggests six techniques: (a) spend a prolonged period gathering data on site; (b) apply triangulation techniques; (c) use member checks - corroborate the interpretation of the data with those who provided the data; (d) collect referential materials - materials from the site that relate to findings and interpretation; (e) develop 'thick' description; and (f) engage in peer consultation.

The techniques aforementioned, in addition to others, were adopted by the researcher to ensure the credibility of this investigation (see Chapter Five). However, in the case of peer consultation, the researcher consulted primarily with assigned supervisors. In addition, a staff member at Hilltop College of Education (also a participant) gave an independent assessment of the thesis. With the exception of triangulation, all the techniques mentioned in the preceding paragraph are self explicit. Therefore, a brief explanation of triangulation is in order.

Triangulation

There are several definitions and types of triangulation discussed in the literature (Jick, 1979; Mathison, 1988; Denzin, 1989; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Stake, 1994). However, in its broadest view, triangulation is defined as the use of multiple methods in a single research study (Mathison, 1988; Denzin, 1989; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Janesick, 1994). Generally, triangulation is a strategy employed to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). However, triangulation is not a tool or a strategy of validation but an alternative to validation (Denzin, 1989). It is best understood as a strategy that adds rigour, breadth and depth to the investigation.

Denzin (1989) identifies four basic types of triangulation: (a) data triangulation - the use of a variety of data sources in a research study; (b) investigator triangulation - the use of several different researchers or evaluators; (c) theory triangulation - the use of multiple perspectives to interpret a single set of data; and (d) methodological triangulation - the use of multiple methods to study a single problem. At the same time, in addition to these four types, Janesick (1994) suggests another, namely: interdisciplinary triangulation - the use of multiple disciplines to inform the research process. In like manner, Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest the addition of data type triangulation.

Methodological triangulation is the type that is most widely discussed in the literature. Denzin (1989) suggests two types of methodological triangulation, namely: 'within-method' and 'between-methods'. The 'within-method' type refers to the use of multiple techniques within a given method to collect and interpret data. The 'between-methods' type refers to the use of multiple methods to investigate the same problem. Jick (1979) observes that the 'within-method' approach involves cross-checking for internal consistency or reliability, while the 'between-methods' approach tests the degree of external validity. Generally, the 'between-methods' approach is designed for convergent validation.

The use of triangulation as a research strategy is based on two fundamental assumptions (Mathison, 1988; McFee, 1992). First, there is the assumption that the bias inherent in a particular data source or method will be eliminated or cancelled out when used in conjunction with other data sources or methods. Secondly, there is the assumption that the use of triangulation will result in a convergence upon the 'truth' about some social phenomenon. Jick (1979), Mathison (1988) and Miles and Huberman (1994) all refute the claim to the elimination of bias. They argue that triangulation rarely provides a clear path to a singular view of the situation. Furthermore, triangulation provides evidence for the researcher to make sense of phenomena, it does not 'make sense' for the researcher.

Mathison (1988), in refuting the argument for data convergence, notes that there are three possible outcomes from the use of triangulation: convergence, inconsistency and contradiction. The outcome of a triangulation strategy is said to be 'convergent' when data from different sources, methods or investigators provide evidence that will result in a single proposition about a social phenomenon. When the data from multiple sources or methods produce evidence that will result in alternative propositions or when there is ambiguity, the outcome of the triangulation strategy is 'inconsistency'. When data from multiple sources or methods produce evidence that results in opposing views of the phenomenon under investigation, the outcome of the triangulation strategy is 'contradictory'.

The foregoing observations suggest that the value of triangulation is not as a strategy to solve data collection or analysis problems. Instead, the value of triangulation is in its provision of evidence from which researchers can construct meaningful propositions about the social world. In short, the value of triangulation as a technique is the use that the researcher makes of it. As Miles and Huberman (1994) observe:

> Perhaps our basic point is that triangulation is not so much a tactic as a way of life. If you self-consciously set out to collect and double-check findings, using multiple sources and modes of evidence, the verification process will largely be built into data collection as you go.

> In effect, triangulation is a way to get to the finding in the first place - by seeing or hearing multiple *instances* of it from different *sources* by using different *methods* and by squaring the finding with others it needs to be squared with. (p. 267) [emphases in original]

Miles and Huberman's argument is, essentially, that triangulation should be built into the design of qualitative studies. In this study, triangulation was part of the design in that the researcher used more than one data collection technique and different groups of stakeholders. The method of triangulation used by the researcher was data triangulation.

Generalisability

Generalisability, according to Maxwell (1992), refers to the extent to which one can extend the account of a particular situation or population to other persons, times or settings than those directly studied. One frequent criticism of qualitative research, particularly where the case study is used, is the difficulty in generalising findings to settings not studied. Firestone (1993) explains that a researcher generally uses some 'combination' of three broad arguments to make a case for the generalisability of findings. These three arguments he identifies as: extrapolation from sample to population (linked to survey research), analytic generalisation or extrapolation using a theory (linked to experimental and quasi-experimental methods) and case-to-case translation (linked to qualitative methods). Extrapolation from sample to population is considered the strongest argument for generalisability.

The second argument for generalisability, analytic generalisation, focuses on the generalisation of a particular set of results to a broader theory. To generalise to a theory is to provide evidence that purports that theory (Firestone, 1993). When a researcher generalises to a theory, the researcher makes predictions and then confirms these predictions. In a particular study, predictions hold under specific conditions, and if the predictions hold under those conditions, then they become 'scope conditions' that limit the generalisability of the theory (Ibid).

Case-to-case translation, the third argument, has its origin in efforts to use qualitative methods for programme evaluation. Case-to-case translation occurs whenever an individual in one context considers adopting a programme or idea from another. While there is considerable overlap between the study of cases and qualitative research, the two are not synonymous. Firestone (1993) explains that:

> The emphasis on upclose description fits nicely with an interest in cases, but there are traditions in qualitative research in which the case becomes difficult to identify and delimit as well as case studies that are largely quantitative. (p.17)

While it is an acknowledged fact that one of the weaknesses of qualitative research is generalisability, Firestone (1993) is optimistic that there is scope for using analytic generalisation in qualitative research. At the same time, he concurs that qualitative research is best for understanding the processes that go on in a situation and the beliefs and perceptions of those in it, and that the use of "thick" (detailed) description (Geertz, 1973) contributes to case-to-case reasoning. Lincoln and Guba (1985) are, however, more definitive and posit that case-to-case translation is the only defensible strategy. For Lincoln and Guba the investigator's responsibility is to provide sufficient descriptive data. The proof and transferability, for them, lies with the reader.

Maxwell (1992) touches on two aspects of generalisability in qualitative research: generalising within the community, group, or institution studied to persons, events, and settings that were not directly observed or interviewed (internal generalisability); and, generalising to other communities, groups, or institutions (external generalisability). Internal generalisability, he notes, is more important in qualitative research because qualitative researchers rarely make claims for external generalisability. Maxwell also notes that interviewing poses some problems for internal generalisability because the interview contact is rather brief. Furthermore, an account may be descriptively, interpretively and theoretically valid of an interviewee's actions and perspective in an interview but may miss other aspects of the person's perspective not expressed in the interview. For this very reason, then, it is important that qualitative researchers use multiple data sources.

Goetz and LeCompte (1984) argue that generalisability in qualitative research rests on the extent to which research studies provide 'comparability' and 'translatability'. Comparability, according to these authors, refers to the extent to which the components of a study are well described and delineated to allow other researchers to use the findings for comparative purposes. Translatability refers to the extent to which the researcher's theoretical perspectives and research techniques are clearly described [similar to Lincoln & Guba's (1985) transferability]. Stake (1978), on the other hand, argues for 'naturalistic generalisation'. Naturalistic generalisation is a process whereby a researcher takes the findings from one study and applies them to understand another similar situation.

Recently, Schofield (1993) has proposed a reconceptualisation of generalisation. He suggests that qualitative researchers should try to generalise to three domains, namely: to what is, to what may be and to what could be. In the following excerpt, Schofield explains these domains and mentions appropriate techniques for each domain:

> Studying *what is* refers to studying the typical, the common, and the ordinary. Techniques suggested for studying *what is* include choosing study sites on the basis of typicality and conducting multisite studies. Studying *what may be* refers to designing studies so that their fit with future trends and issues is maximized. Techniques suggested for studying *what may be* include seeking out sites in which one can study situations likely to become more common with the passage of time and paying close attention to how such present instances of future practices are likely to differ from their future realizations. Studying *what could be* refers to locating situations that we know or expect to be ideal or exceptional on some *a priori* basis and studying them to see what is actually going on there. Crucial here is an openness to having one's expectations about the phenomena disconfirmed. (p. 109) [emphases in original]

It seems, then, that case-to-case translation is the weakest argument for generalisability, yet it is the one best suited to qualitative research, particularly the case study approach. Case-to-case translation is enhanced by "thick" description that allows for "assessment of the applicability of ... conclusions to one's own situation" (Firestone, 1993, p. 18). In the present study, the researcher used a single site qualitative case study design and a grounded theory approach to data collection and analysis. The researcher makes no claim to generalisation to the wider population. However, given the measures used to establish credibility in the present study, the researcher believes that the study has a high level of comparability and translatability (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984) to other similar situations. Hence, the study could well prove useful for people in similar situations and researchers conducting similar investigations given Schofield's (1993) reconceptualisation of generalisation, Firestone's suggestion of case-to-case translation and Stake's (1978) naturalistic generalisation.

THE RESEARCH SITE

As mentioned earlier, the research site was a New Zealand metropolitan college of education (see Chapter One). In selecting the research site, the researcher considered these factors: the purposes of the investigation, the time-frame, finance, accessibility to the institution, current developments in the provision of teacher education and 'relationship with neighbouring university'. After careful consideration of these factors, the researcher selected Hilltop College of Education (pseudonym) for conducting the research. In order to protect the identity of the institution, the researcher decided not give a detailed description of the research site. However, the College was a small tertiary institution with a student population of less than fifteen hundred.

THE PARTICIPANTS

The participants in this study were forty-one staff members (thirty-three from Hilltop College of Education and eight from Belmont University) and nine Hilltop College of Education student teachers. The staff members from both institutions were representative of the various levels of the organisational structure: management through lecturer. The student teacher participants included two members of the executive of the Hilltop College of Education Teacher Trainees' Association. With one exception, all student teacher participants were second year students in the B.Ed. degree programme.

SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS

In the section under grounded theory, the researcher mentioned the difficulties envisaged in selecting participants (sampling). While the researcher found theoretical sampling useful, the strategy had its limitations. Consequently, it was necessary to work out sampling procedures to complement theoretical sampling, for a number of reasons. First, while theoretical sampling informed the researcher about which categories needed additional data (as the fieldwork progressed), there were no clear procedures for selecting the participants, particularly at the outset. Secondly, all prospective participants could not be included in the study. Thirdly, there were two institutions involved in the B.Ed. degree programme. Accordingly, the researcher used purposeful sampling (Patton, 1990) or criterion-based sampling (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984) to select the participants. This combination of criterion-based sampling and theoretical sampling was what Goetz and LeCompte referred to as "sequential" criterion-based sampling. The sampling technique used in this study was predominantly nonprobabilistic, the most appropriate for qualitative research (Merriam, 1988).

The researcher selected the first set of prospective participants based on the criterion 'involvement in the programme'. Where numbers were small, for example, the administration and staff in the University's Department of Education, and top, senior, and middle management staff at Hilltop College of Education, the researcher used the criterion 'involvement in the programme' as a basis for inviting all prospective participants to participate in the study. In the case of the teaching staff at Hilltop College of Education, the researcher added the following criteria to the one previously mentioned: full-time teaching, lecturing, tutoring, and subject department, to reduce the number of prospective participants to a manageable size. In the case of the student teachers, the researcher used the additional criterion of 'roles' to select the first two participants. The rationale being that students involved in 'other capacities' would be more informed because of their wider 'experience'. The other eight student teachers (one of whom did not participate) were selected randomly on the basis of the criterion 'second year B.Ed. student teacher'.

DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

In keeping with the case study approach, the researcher used these data collection techniques: interview and document analysis.

The Interview

The interview technique involves the collection of data through direct verbal interaction between individuals (Borg & Gall, 1983). Generally, data are descriptive and in the participants' own words. From these data, the researcher can develop insights on how subjects interpret "some piece of the world" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982, p. 135). Borg and Gall (1983) and Bogdan and Biklen (1982) list three types of interviews, namely: structured, semi-structured and unstructured. Patton (1990), on the other hand, lists three basic approaches to collecting data through open-ended interviewing: the conversational interview, the general interview guide approach and the standardised open-ended interview. Interviews are conducted either personally (one-on-one or group) or by telephone. In this study, the researcher used the in-depth semi-structured personal (one-on-one) interview.

Although the researcher experimented with the interview schedules in the preliminary stages of this investigation, the in-depth semi-structured interview was the primary data collection technique used throughout the fieldwork. The purpose of the study, the research question, the research approach and the recommendations of authors such as Borg and Gall (1983) and Carruthers (1990) guided the researcher's selection of the semi-structured interview. The semi-structured interview, according to Borg and Gall (1983), had the advantage of being reasonably objective while still permitting a more thorough understanding of the respondents' opinions and reasons behind them. Furthermore, these authors observed that:

> The semi-structured interview is generally most appropriate for interview studies in education. It provides a desirable combination of objectivity and depth and often permits gathering valuable data that could not be successfully obtained by any other approach. (p. 442)

However, Bogdan and Biklen (1982) cautioned that: "with semi-structured interviews you are confident of getting comparable data across subjects, but you lose the opportunity to understand how the subjects themselves structure the topic at hand" (p. 136).

The strengths and limitations of the interview as a data collection technique are well documented in the literature (see, for example, Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Borg & Gall, 1983; Denzin, 1989; Patton, 1990). Generally, it is the direct verbal interaction between individuals in the interview situation that is the major source of the strengths and limitations of the interview as a data collection technique. However, there are three basic sources of error in the interview situation: the predispositions of the interviewee, the predispositions of the interviewer and the procedures used in conducting the interview. The interview is a social situation. Therefore, how the participants view the researcher, the researcher's purpose for asking questions and participants' perceptions of the way in which the researcher perceives them (the participants), are significant factors in the research process. These factors all influence how participants interpret and answer questions posed by the researcher and the accuracy of the information they provide.

In addition to the three factors mentioned in the previous paragraph, Foddy (1993) identifies four other sources of factors that are likely to influence how participants respond. The first is the multi-dimensionality of any topic and the likelihood of its interpretation on a single dimension or a combination of dimensions. Secondly, is the fact that responses to any question can be made at different levels of generality. Thirdly, responses to a single topic can be made at a number of theoretical levels. Finally, responses are always framed within a descriptive, explanatory or evaluative frame of reference.

In this study, the main data collection technique was the interview. Hence, the researcher's role in the interview situation was crucial. The researcher acknowledged the need to minimise the aforementioned possible sources of variability. Accordingly, the researcher used several measures to address the weaknesses of the interview and to minimise the potential sources of error. The researcher: (a) planned the data collection procedure carefully; (b) used multiple data collection strategies; (c) visited the research site and met with prospective participants prior to commencing the fieldwork; (d) explained the purpose and objectives of the research to prospective participants; (e) tried out the interview guide in several mock interviews; (f) forwarded interview schedules to participants in advance of the actual interviews; (g) gave assurance of confidentiality; and (i) maintained a neutral stance on all questions.

Document Analysis

Document analysis was the other data collection technique used by the researcher. Documentary evidence included items such as the institution's charter, corporate plan, curricula or course outlines, minutes of meetings, papers, personal correspondence and research reports. The researcher used all relevant, accessible archival data to augment the interview data.

The strengths of document analysis are: it provides a behind-the-scenes look at the phenomenon under investigation that may not be directly observable; the information is usually stored in one location; and, it provides leads for the interviewer (Patton, 1990). Document analysis is subject to a variety of measurement errors: documents may be incomplete and inaccurate; they may be selective - only certain kinds of information may have been recorded; and, files and records are highly variable in quality (Ibid).

Reflexivity

Reflexivity is closely associated with Gouldner's (1970) notion of reflexive sociology. Reflexive sociology emphasises the importance of the awareness of the 'self' and its influence on the research process, the fact that the knower and the known are inseparable, and that research is not value free. Central to Gouldner's belief is the axiom that:

> In a knowing conceived as awareness, the concern is not with "discovering" the truth about a social world regarded as external to the knower, but with seeing truth as growing out of the knower's encounter with the world and his effort to order his experience with it. The knower's knowing of himself - of who, what, and where he is - on the one hand, and of others and their social worlds, on the other, are two sides of a single process. (p. 493)

This research was not reflexive in the strictest terms observed by Gouldner (1970) or, for example, Watson (1987). Nevertheless, It was reflexive according to

it

Ball's (1993) definition. Reflexivity, according to Ball (1993), is the "conscious and deliberate linking of the social process of engagement in the field with the technical processes of data collection and the decisions that that linking involves" (p. 33). Essentially, it is through the self as researcher that the dialectic between the social and technical aspects of fieldwork is established.

For qualitative researchers, the self is critical in the research process in two ways. First, the self as the research instrument is basic to conducting fieldwork. The researcher must establish 'rapport' with the participants and also manage the investigation. Fieldwork is fraught with uncertainties and difficulties, and maintaining the research self demands much effort, sensitivity, flexibility and discipline on the part of the researcher. In the following excerpt, Ball (1993) explains what maintaining the research self entails:

> It requires careful planning and sensitive and reflective involvement with actors in the field.... First, second, and third impressions all count. The research role must be constructed responsibly and appropriately in relation to the setting under study. The researcher must achieve a compromise between an ideal self-as-researcher and an acceptable and possible self in the field setting. (p. 33)

Secondly, the researcher's own self-awareness or self-conscious engagement in the research process provides the mechanism for data analysis in the field setting and for evaluating the adequacy of data outside the immediacies of fieldwork (Ball, 1993). The researcher's self-conscious engagement in the research process allows him or her to link data collection and analysis. Therefore, method of access, acceptability, interpersonal relationships in the field settings, and the researcher's awareness of the impact and effects of his or her presence are all important considerations for the qualitative researcher. Being a foreign student, the researcher was always conscious that ethnicity, culture and prior experience would impact on the research process. However, throughout the fieldwork the researcher stuck resolutely to the task of maintaining credibility and integrity as an investigator.

Reflexivity touches the core of qualitative research - its subjectivity. It has been mentioned before that qualitative research is neither 'researcher proof' nor 'value-free'. In fact, even in the natural sciences where subjectivity of decision making enters the research process, claims of 'value-free' inquiry are questionable (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Qualitative researchers acknowledge that, generally, people have value systems and hold value positions, hence inquiry is 'value-bound'. Therefore, qualitative researchers must examine their beliefs in the same way that they examine the beliefs of others. For the reflexive analyst, self examination is ongoing throughout the research. During the fieldwork, the researcher took several 'time-outs' (see Chapter Five) to step back and examine the research process and her influence.

In the present study, self examination, detailed description of the methods used and documentation of the research process were ongoing. Reflectivity guided choices with regard to theoretical sampling and progressive focusing. The researcher acknowledged the importance of observing good research ethics in the field. Accordingly, the researcher worked on establishing trust and 'rapport' with the participants, on gaining their acceptance from the very beginning and in maintaining a 'good' research 'persona' throughout.

SUMMARY

In this chapter the researcher discussed the research design and methods used in this study. Using appropriate, supporting literature, the researcher justified the approach adopted, delineated modifications made and explained the complementarity of the strategies used. The researcher's main data gathering technique was the interview. Interview data were complemented and augmented by data obtained mainly through the technique of document analysis. Issues of reliability, validity and generalisability were discussed and the researcher also outlined her theoretical perspective. In the next chapter, the researcher explains the research and data analysis procedures.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH PROCEDURE AND DATA ANALYSIS

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the researcher outlines the procedures used in conducting the fieldwork and analysing the data. Data collection and analysis were interactive processes, hence the researcher's decision to deal with both sets of procedures in this chapter. This study investigated the provision of pre-service primary teacher education and focused mainly on the changes introduced by the College. In keeping with the grounded theory approach, the investigation was guided by this research question:

How is pre-service primary teacher education provided by Hilltop College of Education in a climate of change?

The researcher formulated the research question in relation to the objectives of the study and the internal and wider external changing environment in which pre-service primary teacher education was provided. The researcher focused on two related pre-service primary teacher education programmes (the Diploma of Teaching and the Bachelor of Education) and the College's affiliation with Belmont University. In the initial stages of the investigation, an examination of the B.Ed. degree programme revealed that the Diploma of Teaching (the qualification across all pre-service programmes) was one of its components. Graduates of the programme would receive both a Diploma of Teaching certificate and a Bachelor of Education degree. Hence, the B.Ed. degree programme could not be investigated without also examining the Diploma of Teaching programme. At the same time, the B.Ed. degree programme and the College's affiliation with Belmont University were interrelated. Therefore, the affiliation was an integral part of this investigation.

In order to offer the best of both worlds, the researcher planned the investigation to collect data that would provide information on the provision of pre-service primary teacher education generally, through the Diploma of Teaching programme, and, more specifically, through the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University. Accordingly, the data collection and ongoing analysis provided both general 'foundational' information on the provision of pre-service primary teacher education and data specific to its provision through the B.Ed. degree programme which was offered in affiliation with Belmont University.

While the researcher focused generally on the changes introduced by the College, the two most recent innovations at the time of this investigation - the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation - were singled out for specific coverage. Overall, the research approach was open-ended and evolutionary, and emphasised 'movement' from 'the general to the specific'. Figure 4 shows the time-line of activities as the fieldwork progressed through its various stages.

THE RESEARCH PROCEDURE

Approval and Entry into the Institution

The first step for the researcher was to gain entry into the institution. The initial contact with the institution was made by the researcher's Chief Supervisor who, in a telephone call to the institution, outlined the proposed research to the Chief Executive Officer/Principal. Following this initial contact, the researcher contacted the Chief Executive Officer/Principal of the institution by telephone on 7 October, 1993, to explain the purpose and nature of the proposed research and to set up an appointment for a formal meeting.

On 26 October, 1993, the researcher made the first visit to the institution and met formally with the Chief Executive Officer/Principal. The researcher presented the proposal, explained in detail the purpose and requirements for the research project, and made a formal request to conduct the study. The researcher remained at the institution for the entire day and spent a total of two hours in three separate discussion sessions with the Chief Executive Officer/Principal. One week later, the researcher was subsequently informed by the Chief Executive Officer/Principal that the study could proceed.

Preliminary or Initial Data Collection Phase

Although the initial visit could technically be classified as part of the preliminary data collection phase, to allow for linearity in presentation the researcher chose to classify the activities of the first visit as entry seeking. However, the first visit provided valuable information for the preliminary data collection phase, particularly in the areas of sample selection and the construction of the first set of interview schedules (see Appendix B).

Research Procedure

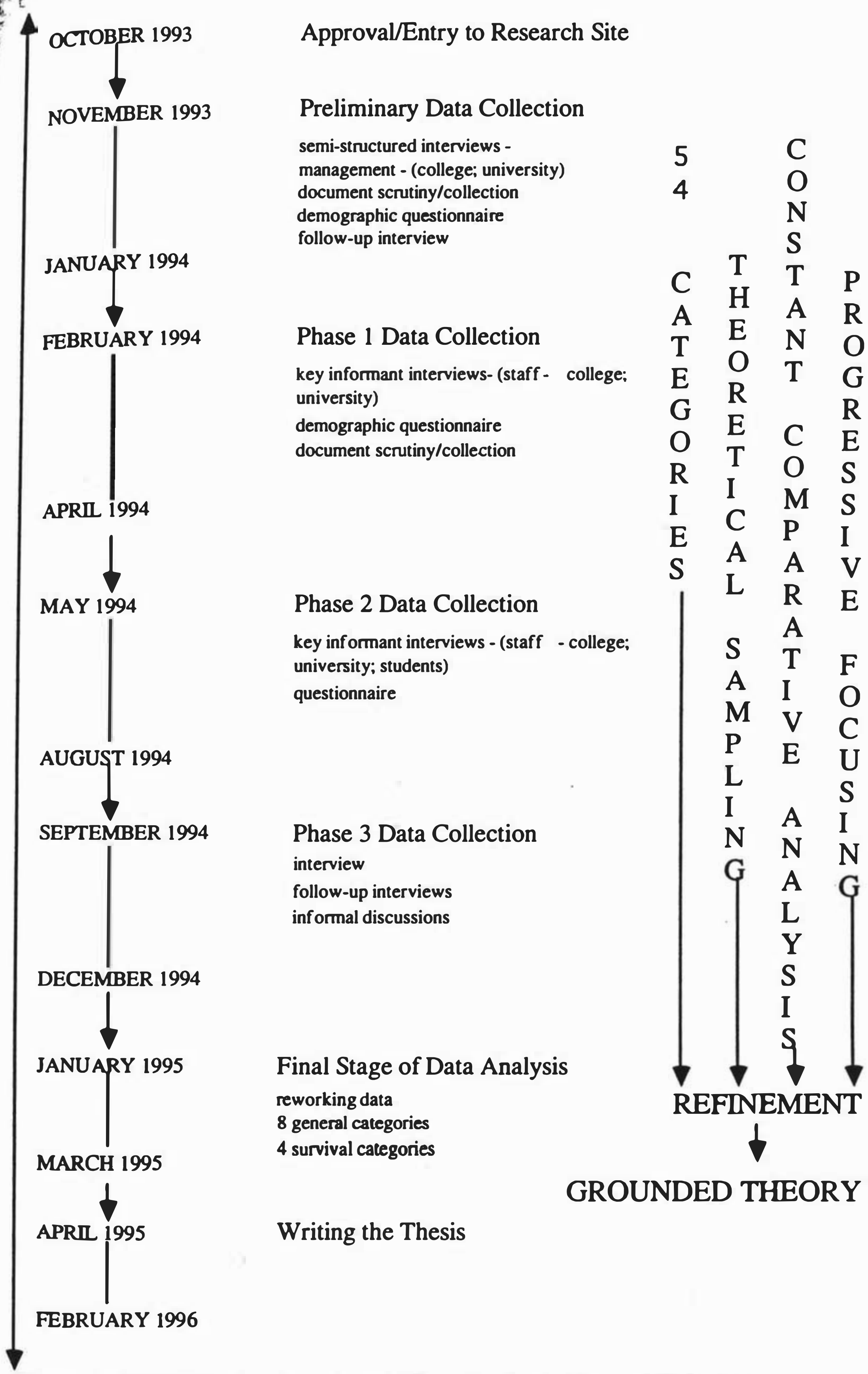

OCTOBER 1993
Approval/Entry to Research Site
NOVEMBER 1993
Preliminary Data Collection
semi-structured interviews -
management - (college; university)
document scrutiny/collection
demographic questionnaire
follow-up interview
JANUARY 1994
FEBRUARY 1994
Phase 1 Data Collection
key informant interviews- (staff - college; university)
demographic questionnaire
document scrutiny/collection
APRIL 1994
MAY 1994
Phase 2 Data Collection
key informant interviews - (staff - college; university; students)
questionnaire
AUGUST 1994
SEPTEMBER 1994
Phase 3 Data Collection
interview
follow-up interviews
informal discussions
DECEMBER 1994
JANUARY 1995
Final Stage of Data Analysis
reworking data
8 general categories
4 survival categories
MARCH 1995
APRIL 1995
Writing the Thesis
FEBRUARY 1996
54 CATEGORIES
THEORETICAL SAMPLING
CONSTANT COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS
PROGRESSIVE FOCUSING
REFINEMENT
GROUNDED THEORY

Figure 4. Research procedure from preliminary data collection to writing.

In keeping with the sampling procedures (see Chapter Four) and the evolutionary nature of the study, the researcher, on 4 November, 1993 (assisted by the Chief Executive Officer/Principal), contacted and set up appointments for interviews with three senior administrators at the College and the Dean of the Faculty of Education at Belmont University. These interviews were subsequently held at the College on 25 November, 1993, as initially planned. Except for the Dean's interview, which lasted twenty minutes (he had another engagement), all interviews were approximately of one hour's duration. The researcher subsequently conducted a follow-up interview with the Dean on 25 January, 1994.

Data Examination after the Preliminary or Initial Data Collection Phase

The foregoing set of exploratory activities constituted the preliminary data collection phase of the study. Data from this preliminary phase set the evolutionary wheel of this investigation in motion. The researcher examined the data collected in this preliminary phase during the period December 1993 to January 1994. As the researcher examined the data, using the model suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990) [see Figure 3, p. 111], a number of concepts related to the phenomenon under investigation began to emerge. This initial data examination guided the refinement of the study, the research question, the conceptual framework (see Figure 2, p. 92), and the construction of the semi-structured interview schedule (see Appendix B-2) for interviewing other participants at the College (staff).

At this early stage of the investigation, the researcher still did not have enough data to decide whether to focus solely on the B.Ed. degree programme. However, the fact that the Diploma of Teaching programme was also a component of the B.Ed. degree programme (mentioned earlier) made decision making somewhat difficult. Guided by the initial examination of the data and the conceptual framework, the researcher devised what seemed to be a workable plan (mentioned earlier) for proceeding with the investigation. The plan was to sharpen the focus of the investigation to reflect movement from the general to the specific: the provision of pre-service primary teacher education generally (mainly through the Diploma of Teaching programme) to the provision of pre-service primary teacher education more specifically (through the B.Ed. degree programme). In addition, the researcher also had to incorporate the affiliation (with Belmont University) with which the B.Ed. degree programme was intimately related.

The researcher focused more specifically on the B.Ed. degree programme for several reasons. First, the B.Ed. degree programme, the most recent innovation in pre-service primary teacher education at the College, was entering its second year of implementation in 1994. Second, no research had been done on the programme when the present study commenced. Third, the programme was being offered by the College in conjunction with Belmont University. Fourth, the B.Ed. degree programme seemed to have taken 'pride of place' in the College. Finally, the researcher believed that, with a more specific focus, the study could make a greater contribution to the field of teacher education, particularly in the area of its joint provision.

As mentioned earlier, the initial data examination also resulted in the reformulation of the guiding research question. Initially, the research question was: How is pre-service primary teacher education provided by Hilltop College of Education? This question was rephrased to include the concept of change: How is pre-service primary teacher education provided by Hilltop College of Education in a climate of change? This reformulation was necessary to reflect both the changing form and context of the phenomenon under investigation.

Although the researcher had identified change as an influential force, its pervasiveness with regard to pre-service primary teacher education at that particular point in time had not been appropriately represented in the conceptual framework. Initially, the researcher included change as a factor within the context parameter. Then, based on the preliminary data examination, the researcher reshaped the conceptual framework (see Figure 2, p. 92) to present change encapsulating the three parameters to reflect its pervasiveness.

The preliminary data examination also broadened the researcher's understanding of the applicability and the usability of the grounded theory strategy of theoretical sampling. In the previous chapter, the researcher reported that theoretical sampling had to be complemented by criterion-based sampling. However, the researcher observed that while theoretical sampling was not specific enough to guide the actual initial selection of the participants, open coding enhanced its applicability and provided useful information for formulating interview questions and focusing subsequent interviews. This initial observation of its applicability became increasingly apparent as the research progressed. The preceding observation was consistent with Goetz and LeCompte's (1984) suggestion that theoretical sampling was a strategy applied in later stages rather than in the initial stages of research. A similar suggestion was made by Rennie, Phillips and Quartaro (1988) who explained that:

> One of the main features of the grounded [theory] approach is that data collection is influenced by the outcomes of the emerging analysis. The collection proceeds through successive stages which are determined by changes in criteria for selecting data sources ... according to what has been learned from previous data sources. (pp. 141-142)

In addition to the aforementioned observation, the researcher also discovered that theoretical sampling was a useful strategy for gathering documentary evidence. At the beginning, everything seemed important to the study. However, as the researcher examined the documents and compared data, numerous questions arose which guided subsequent document collection and scrutiny. The ongoing analysis of documents also helped the researcher to differentiate between important and unimportant data and to delimit the study. The researcher began by looking generally at how pre-service primary teacher education was being provided by the College (noting the changes). However, as the investigation evolved, the researcher recognised that it was necessary to build on this general background by focusing more specifically on one programme and the affiliation with Belmont University. The researcher did this mainly by: (a) including questions specific to the B.Ed. degree programme in the interview schedules; (b) probing about the B.Ed. degree programme during the actual interviews; and (c) collecting documentary evidence.

Based on the findings of the preliminary data examination and follow-up visits, the researcher made several important decisions. Among them was the decision to increase the sample size by including participants from Belmont University involved in the B.Ed. degree programme. However, the researcher also wanted to ask questions for general background information on the provision of pre-service primary teacher education which the University staff could not provide. Consequently, one interview schedule could not be used for participants from both institutions. In addition, even within the College, modifications had to be made to the initial semi-structured interview schedule to accommodate participants in different roles: for example, middle managers participating in the study had different and additional roles, compared with lecturers. For the College's staff, these modifications were minor in the early stages of the investigation.

For participants from the University, the researcher circumvented the problem by developing another interview schedule (see Appendix B-3) which focused essentially on the B.Ed. degree programme and their involvement. These participants were also provided with a copy of the College staff's interview schedule to inform them about the scope of the investigation. In the later stages of the investigation when the researcher required more specific information about the different roles and functions of staff in the B.Ed. degree programme, the researcher modified the initial semi-structured interview schedule considerably. The extensive modification was dictated by the data examination. At that point in the investigation, the researcher needed specific data to fill the gaps and saturate the categories in the emerging theory.

The interview schedules developed for the participants from the College included general questions and questions more specific to the B.Ed. degree programme. The researcher constructed the interview schedules in this manner to fit the 'general to specific' structure of the investigation. This approach allowed the researcher to adopt a 'unique' style of data presentation that provided a general overview of the provision of pre-service primary teacher education so that the impact of the B.Ed. degree programme could be better understood and appreciated. Secondly, the approach allowed the researcher to highlight differences along the way. Thirdly, the approach was congruent with the notion of change developed in the conceptual framework because it set teacher education in the context of the ongoing changing educational, social, economic and political environment. Finally, the approach allowed the researcher to analyse the data purposefully and innovatively as she examined the provision of pre-service primary teacher education in a rapidly changing environment.

Phase 1

Phase 1 of the fieldwork entailed interviewing participants from the College and University and scrutinising and collecting additional documentary evidence. On 20 January, 1994, the researcher mailed letters (see Appendix D-1) to twenty prospective participants at the College outlining the purpose of the investigation and inviting them to participate. Included with this letter of invitation was a form (see Appendix D-2) asking prospective participants to indicate whether they were willing to participate and if so, to suggest preferred dates and times (three options, in order of preference) during the week of 14 - 18 February, 1994, to participate in an interview. Self addressed, stamped envelopes were included for return mail. The researcher followed up this initial invitation with a one-day visit to the research site on 27 January, 1994, to meet with prospective participants who wanted more information on the proposed study. By 9 February, 1994, twelve of the twenty prospective participants had responded. The researcher then informed each of these prospective participants of his or her confirmed interview.

During the week of 14 - 18 February, 1994, the researcher conducted eleven of the twelve scheduled interviews. One interview had to be re-scheduled for the week of 21 - 25 February, 1994. Rescheduling was necessary because time-table changes at the College made it impossible for the prospective participant to keep the initial appointment. While on site, the researcher set up interviews with the eight prospective participants who had not responded (see the preceding paragraph) for the week of 21 - 25 February, 1994.

Data collection during the week of 14 - 18 February, 1994, pointed the researcher to two other prospective participants. One was the incoming Dean of the Faculty of Education at Belmont University, the other, a staff member at the College. Interviews were also set up with these two prospective participants for the week of 21 - 25 February, 1994. Except for one interview which had to be rescheduled, the eleven interviews for the week of 21 - 25 February, 1994, were conducted according to schedule.

On 28 February, 1994, the researcher again visited the research site and Belmont University. At the College, the researcher met and set up interviews with two other prospective participants for 16 March, 1994. These two interviews were deemed necessary based on the ongoing data analysis. At Belmont University, the researcher's intent was to meet with and formally invite staff involved in the B.Ed. degree programme to participate in the study. A total of five staff members, whose involvement ranged from administration to lecturing or tutoring, agreed to participate in the study. Accordingly, interviews were set up with these five prospective participants to take place over the period 28 - 30 March, 1994. Four other interviews were set up for this same period. One of these was an initial interview with a staff member at the College; the others were follow-up interviews. All interviews for the month of March were conducted as scheduled. The researcher made two follow-up visits to the research site on April 7 and 14, 1994, respectively, to seek further information, to clarify data (with participants) and to collect other relevant, accessible documentary evidence.

Phase 2

The second phase of the fieldwork took place from May to August, 1994. Although transcription and analysis were ongoing throughout the fieldwork, May to June 1994 was a period of intensive transcription and data examination. The researcher made two visits to the College in July 1994. The first visit, July 20 - 21, 1994, was to meet individually with participants for clarification of interview data and to collect additional information. On this visit the researcher also met and held discussions with two executive members of the Hilltop College of Education Teacher Trainees' Association (hereafter referred to as HCETTA) to provide information about the study and to invite student teacher participation. The second visit, July 26 - 28, 1994, was to conduct interviews with three other members of the College's staff. On this visit the researcher also set up interviews with two other prospective participants for 2 August, 1994. One of these prospective participants was a member of the College's staff, the other a staff member at Belmont University. The researcher also set up appointments to meet with two members of the executive of the HCETTA on 2 August, 1994.

While the researcher had been provided with data on the College's student population, she was unable to access students' names through the College's academic registry because of the 1993 Privacy Act. This difficulty was overcome by working through the HCETTA. Ten student teachers (including two members of the executive) were selected (see Chapter Four for selection criteria) and invited to participate in the study.

During the visit of 2 August, 1994, the researcher set up interviews with eight students and one other staff member at the College for 11 August, 1994. Interviews (initial and follow-up) were also set up with student teachers for 18 August, 1994. Of the ten student teachers, only one did not participate in the study. Except for one interview scheduled for 11 August, 1994, which had to be rescheduled for 18 August, 1994, all interviews for the second phase of the fieldwork were conducted as scheduled.

Phase 3

The third phase of the fieldwork spanned the period September 1994 to December 1994. This phase of the fieldwork was marked mainly by follow-up interviews and informal discussions with participants. The researcher conducted most of these follow-up interviews and informal discussions over the period 25 October to 10 December 1994. On one of these visits, the researcher also interviewed the external evaluator of the B.Ed. degree programme and collected copies of relevant documentary evidence.

With regard to interviewing the external evaluator, it must be noted that prior to the commencement of this study no research had been conducted on the B.Ed. degree programme. During the course of this investigation, two reviews were conducted by an external evaluator. These reviews were for internal purposes. Although the external evaluator was not included in the sample for this present study, the researcher interviewed him to get clarification of the findings documented in the evaluation reports.

Overview of the Research Procedure

The fieldwork for this study spanned the period October 1993 to December 1994. Overall, the researcher conducted a total of fifty-six tape recorded interviews (initial and follow-up) with fifty participants. Sixty-two pages of field notes were also recorded from follow-up interviews and discussions during the fieldwork (see sample in Appendix E). Field notes helped to fill the gaps in the data, forced the researcher to stand back and reflect, and pointed the researcher to new data sources.

In order to describe the participants, the researcher asked each participant to complete a short demographic questionnaire. In addition to providing demographic information, the eight second year B.Ed. student teachers who participated in the study were asked to respond to five questions related to the B.Ed. degree programme. The questionnaire and tabulated demographic and other data on staff (College and University) who participated in the study are included in Appendix F (Appendix F-1, F-2 and F-3, respectively), while the student teachers' questionnaire and tabulated demographic data are included in Appendix G (G-1 and G-2).

Transcribing the interviews was a demanding and time consuming task. However, the process had its benefits in that it allowed the researcher to establish familiarity with the data and created much enthusiasm that kept her motivated throughout the fieldwork. All transcripts were sent to participants for their scrutiny and confirmation. Except for one participant who asked that part of his response (three sentences) to a particular question be eliminated because he might be identified, changes were generally minimal ranging from the elimination of pauses to rephrasing sentences. All transcripts were confirmed and returned to the researcher.

Throughout the fieldwork, the researcher had to make numerous decisions. At various points in the fieldwork the researcher took 'time out' to review the data and the research process prior to making decisions for the next stage of the fieldwork. These 'time outs' were critical periods in the fieldwork because rigour in fieldwork, as Ball (1993) contends, "rests firmly on the researcher's awareness of what it is possible to say given the nature of the data that was [sic] and was [sic] not collected" (p. 40). The fieldwork concluded at the end of the second year of implementation of the B.Ed. degree programme. As Figure 4 shows, the researcher spent the periods January to March, 1995, doing the final data analysis and April 1995 to February 1996, writing and refining the thesis.

DATA ANALYSIS

As mentioned earlier, in the grounded theory approach data collection and analysis were interactive processes. In keeping with the grounded theory approach, the data analysis moved through several stages: the examination of the data during data collection through open, axial and selective coding (see Appendix H for a sample of an 'open-coded' interview). The major techniques employed in analysing the data were constant comparative analysis and 'memoing' (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). These two techniques were complemented by theoretical sampling. The paradigm model (see Figure 3, p. 111), recommended by two of the aforementioned authors (Strauss & Corbin) also guided the data analysis. The researcher used the paradigm model to ensure that the analyses had 'density and precision' because Strauss and Corbin cautioned that, "unless you make use of the model your grounded theory analyses will lack density and precision" (p. 99).

The analytic data processing led to the transformation of the data into a related set of categories, properties and propositions that formed an organising framework for data presentation. These categories, properties and propositions were linked by the overall core category, 'Survival'. Essentially, the provision of pre-service primary teacher education was driven by the changing environment in which the institution had to function. Change was being instituted by the College in order to survive.

As the data analysis progressed, the researcher developed a greater appreciation and understanding of the application of the grounded theory strategies of theoretical sampling and constant comparative analysis (see Chapter Four). Both strategies, particularly theoretical sampling, pointed the researcher to gaps in the data and to other possible sources of data. Through the process of 'progressive focusing' the researcher was able to conduct the investigation to fill gaps in the data, explore new sources of data and, at the same time, collect information that allowed for following a 'general to specific' framework in the data presentation.

From the outset, 'memo' writing was a feature of the data analysis. However, the researcher did not fully appreciate the value of 'memoing' in the initial stages. As the study evolved, the researcher recognised the importance of memoing and also the usefulness of field notes and repetitive reading of the data. Memoing proved useful in establishing relationships between categories, differentiating central from peripheral categories, collapsing and combining categories, identifying the core or most important category, and providing an organisational framework for presenting the results of the data analysis. The following is an example of a memo written in the early stages of the data analysis:

> Memo
>
> 12 December 1993
>
> Emerging Concepts and the Importance of the B.Ed. Programme
>
> The notions of coming together, closer relationship and partnership, keep recurring both implicitly and explicitly. It is possible that any one of these concepts can emerge as the core category, a subsidiary category, a redefined category or even be rejected later. It is, however, early days yet and I am reluctant at this stage of the analysis to draw premature conclusions. Impetuosity at this stage can result in numerous problems such as missing important concepts and failing to see possible directions in the data. Most of the properties of these concepts are embedded in the B.Ed. programme around which everything else seems to be focused at this point in time.
>
> Some important questions have also been raised. Why were the two institutions so anxious to get the B.Ed. in operation? Why the urgency? What were the personal and institutional benefits? What internal and external forces of power were/are operating to push the two institutions in this direction? Why has the B.Ed. taken centre stage? These questions must be explored in relation to the phenomenon under investigation.

Field notes were also valuable in analysing the data. They helped to fill the gaps in the investigation, pointed the researcher to important areas for further investigation and complemented the categorisation process. Repetitive reading taught the researcher that one could never read the data too often. For the researcher, familiarity led to better understanding and better understanding (she believed) to more credible interpretation and presentation.

The initial open coding of the data produced fifty-four categories. Through axial and selective coding and the use of memos the data were further reduced. Further analysis of the data (connecting and relating data and revising and reworking data constructions) led to the division of the data into two parts: background information on the provision of pre-service primary teacher education (see Chapter

Six) and data related to the most recent changes instituted by Hilltop College (the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University) [see Chapters Seven and Eight].

Overall, there were, initially, ten categories (with related properties and propositions) that provided the information on the provision of pre-service primary teacher education generally and four that provided information more specific to the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University. As mentioned earlier in this section, all these categories were linked through the overall core category 'Survival'. While the College had been instituting intra-institutional changes in order to survive, its bid to survive was not as strikingly obvious as the changes introduced inter-institutionally: the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University. The ten categories related to the general provision of pre-service primary teacher education were:

- Organisation 1
- Involvement 2
- Mission 3
- Programme 4
- Evaluation 5
- Methods 6
- Selection 7
- Support 8
- Relationship 9
- Change 10

Further analysis and examination of these ten categories resulted in their modification and reduction. Category six, 'Methods', was incorporated as a sub-category of category four, 'Programme'. Category one, 'Organisation', was redesignated 'Organisational Structure', and category eight was renamed 'Support System'. Category ten, 'Change', was subsumed by the other categories. The data were reduced to eight general categories related to the provision of pre-service primary teacher education. The eight categories after the final revisions were:

- Organisational Structure 1
- Involvement 2
- Mission 3
- Programme 4
- Evaluation 5

- Selection 6
- Support System 7
- Relationship 8

Following the revisions, the researcher enumerated the properties and propositions related to each of the eight general categories. Through these eight categories and related properties and propositions, the researcher presents data that describe the provision of pre-service primary teacher education, generally (see Chapter Six). In presenting the data, the researcher focuses mainly on the changes introduced by Hilltop College of Education prior to the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University. The eight general categories and their related properties and propositions are presented holistically on the 'pull-out' (insert) overleaf.

The four categories related to the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University (the categories in the survival process) were:

- Initiation 1
- Preparation 2
- Negotiation 3
- Implementation 4

As mentioned earlier, a number of changes had been introduced by the College prior to the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University. For the College, the changes were essential to ensure its survival. However, the College's survival 'took on' another dimension when it began instituting change in conjunction with another institution (Belmont University). Despite the fact that the College had already introduced several changes, the data revealed that its continued existence as a provider of teacher education was threatened. The survival process (traced through the four categories and their related properties and propositions) constituted a desperate effort by the College to introduce change in order to 'stay alive' (as a provider of teacher education). In keeping with the grounded theory approach, the researcher developed a substantive theory of survival specific to the institution where this investigation was conducted.

The changes instituted by Hilltop College of Education prior to the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme were intra-institutional, the B.Ed. degree programme involved Belmont University and its introduction was inter-institutional. The four categories (mentioned in the preceding paragraph) and their related properties and propositions constituted the events in the survival process and were unified (like the eight general categories and their related properties and propositions) through the core category, 'Survival'. The four categories (in the survival process) and their related properties and propositions provided the framework for the data presentation in Chapters Seven and Eight. These four categories and their related properties and propositions are presented holistically on the preceding 'pull-out' (insert).

The data in Chapter Six, although presented using a combination of codified properties, propositions and 'running' discussion (adopted from Glaser & Strauss, 1967), are at a more descriptive level compared with the data related specifically to the last two changes introduced by the College (the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University) [see Chapters Seven and Eight]. There is greater emphasis on interpretation (explanation) in Chapters Seven and Eight.

At the same time, it must be noted that there is no clear division between description and explanation. This observation is supported by Miles and Huberman (1994) who contend that explanation evolves from description: "the researcher typically moves through a series of analysis and episodes that condense more and more data into more and more coherent understanding of what, how, and why" (p. 91). These authors also contend that valid analyses require data presentations that are focused enough to permit viewing of "a full data set in the same location ... arranged systematically to answer the research question at hand" (pp. 91-92). The phrase, 'a full data set', refers to "the condensed, distilled data", (p. 92) derived from the full range of persons, events and processes investigated.

In order to fulfil the requirements of valid data analysis, the data in this study are presented in a form that allows the reader to survey 'a full data set' (systematic and holistic presentation of categories, properties and propositions). Secondly, the researcher allows the participants to speak for themselves, thereby giving, as far as possible, an accurate presentation of the events and perceptions.

SUMMARY

In the grounded theory approach, data collection and analysis are interactive processes; hence, they cannot be separated. Overall, the data analysis produced twelve categories and related properties and propositions. Eight of these categories and their related properties and propositions provided background information on the provision of pre-service primary teacher education generally (focusing on the changes). The remaining four categories and their related properties and propositions provided data specific to the two most recent changes (at the time of this investigation) related to the provision of pre-service primary teacher education by Hilltop College of Education. These twelve categories and their related properties and propositions provided a general to specific focus in the presentation of the data and were all linked through the overall core category 'Survival'. However, the researcher traced the institution's survival through the last four categories, focusing on the two most recent changes (the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University). In keeping with the grounded theory approach, the researcher proposed a substantive theory of survival specific to the institution under investigation.

The investigation began towards the end of the first year of implementation of the B.Ed. degree programme and concluded at the end of the second year of its implementation (a period of one year and two months). The researcher's expenditure in time for data collection is set out in Appendix I. In the next chapter, the researcher begins the data presentation.

CHAPTER SIX

DATA PRESENTATION: PART ONE

RATIONALE FOR DATA PRESENTATION

In the previous chapter the researcher mentioned the interrelatedness of the Diploma of Teaching and the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) programmes. However, despite this interrelatedness, they were also two separate programmes. Given these characteristics, the researcher adopted a 'unique' approach to data presentation: a general to specific focus. Overall, the data presentation begins with a general overview of the provision of pre-service primary teacher education focusing mainly on the Diploma of Teaching programme. Then, the researcher focuses more specifically on the B.Ed. degree programme and the College's affiliation with Belmont University (the two most recent changes). The data presented in this chapter gives the general overview of the provision of pre-service primary teacher education by the College. In presenting the data, the researcher focuses mainly on the changes.

The researcher used this approach to data presentation for several reasons. First, the researcher rationalised that, by using this approach, she would be able to respond appropriately to a unique situation and provide a 'holistic' description. Secondly, the researcher felt that such an approach would prepare the reader for the data presentation specific to the inter-institutional provision of pre-service primary teacher education. Finally, in order to appreciate the impact of a new programme, the reader should know what preceded that programme, particularly in this case where student teachers enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme would also graduate with a Diploma of Teaching qualification. The reader is forewarned that there is some unavoidable overlap in the data presentation because of the interrelatedness of both programmes.

DATA PRESENTATION

In the previous chapter, the researcher presented the eight general categories and their related properties and propositions. Although this general or 'foundational' information did not constitute a substantive theory, the researcher elected to use a combination of the approaches for presenting grounded theory advocated by Glaser and Strauss (1967): "either as a well-codified set of propositions or in a running theoretical discussion, using conceptual categories and their properties" (p. 31). The researcher adopted this approach to ensure consistency with the research methodology used in this investigation. The categorisation approach allowed the researcher to present the categories, related codified properties and propositions, and to show the relationship among the categories and concepts (see Chapter Five). The discussional approach enabled the researcher to include, where appropriate, the perspectives of participants to provide the reader with a general overview of the phenomenon under investigation.

Data related to the eight categories are presented in consecutive order in this chapter. For clarity of presentation, wherever excerpts are taken from interview transcripts, the researcher indicates whether the participants quoted are College staff, University staff or student teachers. To guarantee anonymity, each participant was assigned a number (randomly). Excerpts from interviews are followed by an upper case 'P' (meaning participant) and a number (the number assigned to that particular participant).

Category One: Organisational Structure

The four properties and thirteen propositions related to this category are presented as a full data set in Table 6.

1.1 Complexity

Prior to the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University, several changes had been introduced at the College. One of the areas in which there had been changes was administration. The three propositions related to this property (1.1.1, 1.1.2 and 1.1.3) reflected the complexity of the 'new' formal organisational structure. The complexity of the hierarchical formal organisational structure could be seen in Figure 5. However, the formal organisational structure was even more complex than Figure 5 shows because some internal and external levels were not included. Notable omissions were middle management positions, teaching and general staff, and student teachers. The formal organisational structure (as seen in Figure 5) was organised around a set of key executive and administrative positions. The absence of horizontal connecting lines suggested compartmentalisation or limited lateral relationships. This formal organisational structure was the product of the mandatory changes in the administration of tertiary institutions set out in the policy documents *Learning for Life I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen* (1989), *Learning for Life*

II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen (1989) and the *Education Amendment Act 1990.*

Table 6

Category 1: Organisational Structure

Properties	Propositions
1.1 Complexity	1.1.1 The College's organisational structure is complex and hierarchical. 1.1.2 External to, and at the apex of the structure, is the Ministry of Education with regulatory, policy and funding functions. 1.1.3 The College is governed by its Council and guided by its charter, statement of objectives, and education policy.
1.2 Operational	1.2.1 Policy and regulations for the levels of operation both internal and external to the organisation are outlined in the charter, statement of objectives, and other official and unofficial documents. 1.2.2 The organisational structure has, to some extent, distanced management (decision makers) from the day to day operations. 1.2.3 Auditing and evaluation policies and procedures are not well developed and fully operational. 1.2.4 There are communication problems and the system is inefficient in some areas of its operation. 1.2.5 The system of levels of operation has a built in monitoring function.
1.3 Accountability	1.3.1 The organisational structure is designed to meet management requirements set by the Ministry of Education.
1.4 Cultural	1.4.1 There is a whanau (family) type relationship between staff and student teachers. 1.4.2 Staff members value consultation, collaboration and collegiality (team approach). 1.4.3 The College has a tradition of outstanding achievement in art. 1.4.4 There are rites and rituals which have symbolic value for the College.

The components of the organisational structure directly related to pre-service primary teacher education shown in Figure 5 were the Associate Principal, the Director and Associate Directors of pre-service primary programmes, and the Director of degree programmes. In addition to these components, there were Heads of Departments and various other committees (discussed later in this section).

Hilltop College of Education (HCE), as stated in its *Charter of Goals and Purposes 1993*, was a "Crown entity governed by a Council established under the provisions of the Education Act 1989 (as amended by the Education Amendment Act 1990)" (p. 6). The various levels of operation within the organisation were linked to the College Council (the Council) through the Principal (appointed by the Council), who was also the Chief Executive Officer (see Figure 5), with responsibility for managing academic and administrative affairs. The Council, which could consist of no fewer than twelve and not more than twenty members, exercised its role guided mainly by the College's Charter [Hilltop College of Education (HCE) Charter of Goals and Purposes, 1993], the College's Statement of Objectives [Hilltop College of Education (HCE) Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996] and the government's policy as documented in the Education Amendment Act 1990 [Hilltop College of Education (HCE) Calendar, 1994). Although the Ministry of Education was not included in the organisational structure shown in Figure 5, at the system-wide level, the Ministry of Education was at the apex of the College's organisational structure and had policy, funding and regulatory functions.

Hilltop College of Education Organisational Structure

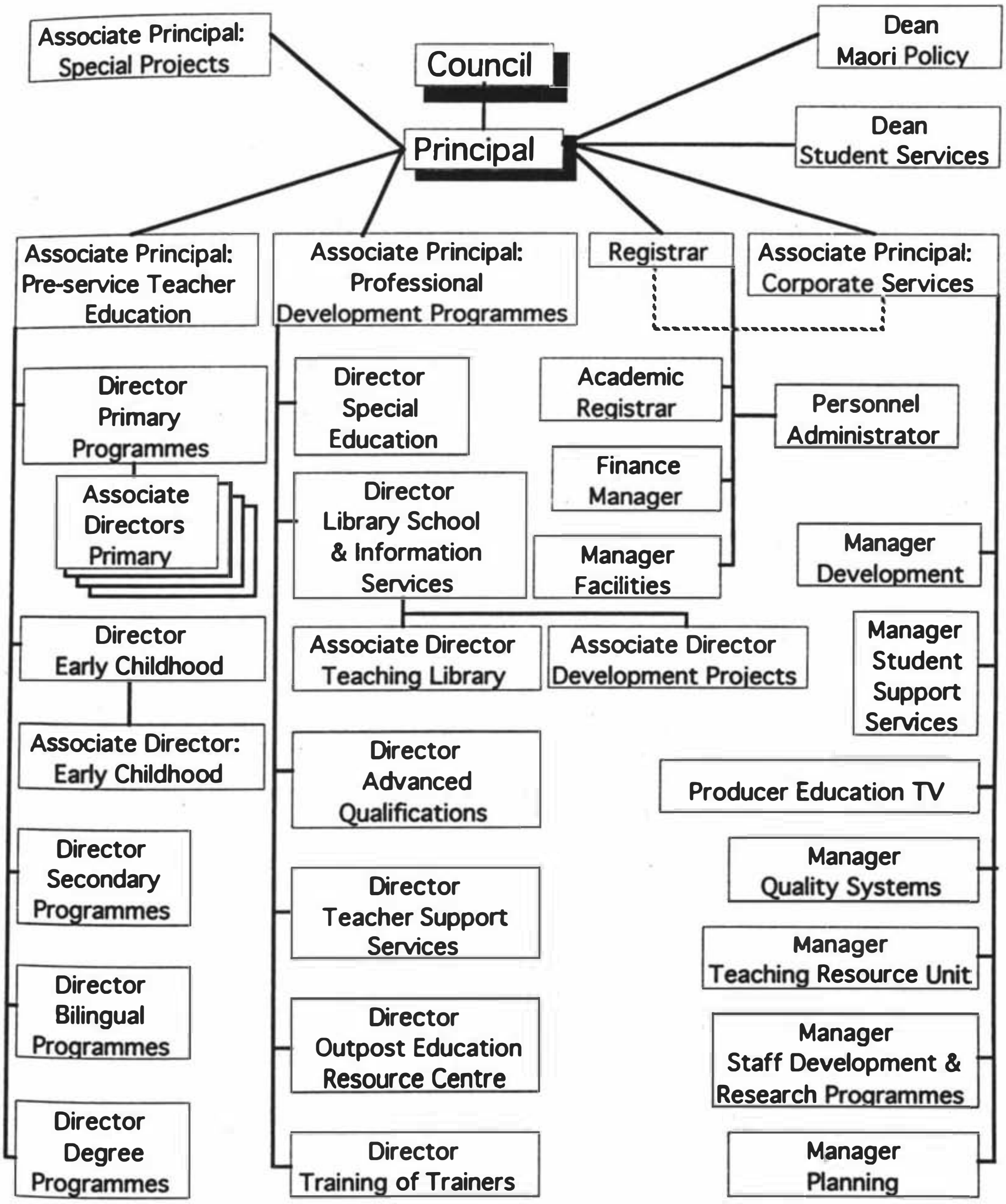

Associate Principal: Special Projects
Council
Dean Maori Policy
Principal
Dean Student Services
Associate Principal: Pre-service Teacher Education
Associate Principal: Professional Development Programmes
Registrar
Associate Principal: Corporate Services
Director Primary Programmes
Associate Directors Primary
Director Early Childhood
Associate Director: Early Childhood
Director Secondary Programmes
Director Bilingual Programmes
Director Degree Programmes
Director Special Education
Director Library School & Information Services
Associate Director Teaching Library
Associate Director Development Projects
Director Advanced Qualifications
Director Teacher Support Services
Director Outpost Education Resource Centre
Director Training of Trainers
Academic Registrar
Finance Manager
Manager Facilities
Personnel Administrator
Manager Development
Manager Student Support Services
Producer Education TV
Manager Quality Systems
Manager Teaching Resource Unit
Manager Staff Development & Research Programmes
Manager Planning

Figure 5. The formal organisational structure of Hilltop College of Education.

Another area in which the education reforms of the late 1980s brought changes was funding. As mentioned in the first two chapters, funding was tied to the student population. The College had clearly defined guidelines for accessing funding as set out in the Ministry of Education's policy: the 'Equivalent Full-Time Student' (EFTS) funding system. The EFTS funding system functioned thus:

> 3.1 The government grant to each tertiary institution ... is based on the numbers of students enrolled at the institution and the cost of running the various courses they are taking in such a way that:
> (i) a student taking a typical year's full-time tertiary study equals 1.0 EFTS unit, and the papers, units or courses taken by part-time students are fractions of 1.0 EFTS unit; and
> (ii) all programmes of study offered by tertiary institutions are grouped into cost categories.
>
> 3.2 The number of EFTS units at an institution becomes its EFTS count. Institutions are bulk-funded on the basis of their approved EFTS level, within the associated cost categories abated by the Government's current tuition subsidy policy.
>
> (The EFTS Funding System for Tertiary Institutions, 1992, p. 3)

The EFTS funding system represented one of the major changes in administration for Hilltop College of education. The intent of this policy was to make Hilltop College of Education (like other colleges of education) autonomous yet accountable for its operations. Generally, this policy resulted in a decrease in funding for the College (P 10; P 17; P 24; P 29; P 46). This decrease, in turn, influenced what the College could provide by way of programmes for the preparation of primary teachers.

In addition to the Council, the College's organisational structure also included an Academic Board. The Academic Board (an internal body) was established in accordance with the requirements set out in clauses 182 (1) to (5) of the Education Amendment Act 1990 (HCE Calendar, 1994) [another change]. Membership consisted of the Principal, representatives of College staff and student teachers and, more recently, University representatives (the B.Ed. degree programme is offered jointly with Belmont University). The Academic Board was the 'academic watchdog' with delegated powers to act pursuant to section 222 of the Education Amendment Act 1990 (HCE Statement of Objectives, 1994 - 1996). The maintenance of standards and the oversight of the assessment systems within the College, in keeping with the Charter and Statement of Objectives, were the responsibility of the Academic Board. The Council was required to consult with the Academic Board for advice before making decisions on academic matters. The role of the Academic Board is described in greater detail in the *HCE Calendar, 1994* and the *HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996.*

The College also had an informal organisational structure based on the personal and professional relationships among staff. The informal structure (which is not discussed extensively) could be constructed from the following types of interpersonal relationships: the nature and type of relationships among staff; the composition of committees; the people involved in certain activities; the people who supported certain issues; the people who sat at the same table in the staffroom; and, the people who attended social functions together. The informal organisational structure was a form of support system for staff members (particularly in a time of rapid organisational change) as this statement, by one participant (College staff), indicated:

> In my area what has worked for me has been the fact that I work with two other people who are straight from the classroom like me and we support each other.... The relationship between myself and the people that I work with is very, very important. I would not like to be in a department of the College where ... relationships are not so warm or so co-operative. (P 22)

1.2 Operational

The College functioned on a system of levels of operation which was dictated by its hierarchical organisational structure and the policy and regulations documented in its Charter, Statement of Objectives and other official documents (for example, Hilltop College of Education Course/Programme Development and Approval Policy, 1993). In addition, there were also other unofficial documents (for example, Outcomes of Primary Programmes, 1992) which, although minimally, influenced operations at the College. The operations within the College could be represented on a continuum of levels of functions from internal through external as shown in Figure 6.

The Types of Functions at Hilltop College of Education

Internal -------------------- Internal-External -------------------- External

Figure 6. The Hilltop College of Education continuum of functions.

Internally, the College had several levels of operation, for example: executive, senior and middle management, and departmental, each with its specific set of functions. The executive (top managerial staff) was the College's decision making body and the management philosophy was one of devolution of power. However, in operational terms, devolution of power seemed to be the responsibility for carrying out certain functions within the organisation, not decision making. The responsibility for carrying out certain functions was delegated to 'non-executive' members of staff as the executive deemed appropriate. The management style was, therefore, corporate, with the executive as the final arbiter in decision making.

Generally, wherever corporate style management is practised, there is always the possibility that the executive can make decisions (without consultation) on matters of institutional importance that could affect the whole organisation negatively. Decision making by the executive with regard to the restructuring of the College towards the end of 1994 (without staff involvement) [outside the scope of this study] exemplified the detrimental effects of corporate style management.

While the organisational structure (at the time of this investigation) was designed to meet sound management requirements as set out in the government's education policy (Education Amendment Act 1990), there was a sense in which the organisational structure of systemic levels of operation defeated the purpose for which it was intended. The organisational structure seemed to be designed for a two-way flow of information, consultation and participation in decision making. In reality, however, it did not always function as the 'well oiled machine' it was made out to be. This investigation revealed that: (a) there were communication problems (from time to time); (b) consultation was a controversial matter; and (c) there were differences of opinion with regard to involvement in decision making and the dissemination of information. While these issues are revisited in the next chapter, the following statements, by two participants (College staff and student teacher), reflected the level of involvement in decision making and the communication difficulties:

> I can usually only talk really about my area because just being a lecturer I don't have a lot of say in what happens further up. (P 22)

> As far as the options go, wow! Nobody knew what was going on. Nobody knew how many credits we were doing. We don't know how many credits we've got to do next year. We know that we've got six compulsory, but do we do twenty-four credits? Where is it? Are we in the afternoon groups? Are we in the morning groups at College? What lectures can we choose? What prerequisites do we need for courses? The communication seems to be really lacking. It's frustrating.... Communication is a big problem. (P 43)

The flow of information throughout the system was affected by the nature of the system itself and the fact that information from management (the executive) was not always disseminated with the urgency which was required. Instances of communication problems cited by participants included information about time-table changes not reaching staff and student teachers promptly, staff and student teachers not being informed about critical issues (for example, programme changes or options), and instances where classrooms were double booked. On the issue of course changes, several participants (for example, P 6; P 15; P 17) mentioned instances where courses were cancelled and student teachers were not informed early enough to select appropriate alternatives. Generally, the communication difficulties were a source of dissatisfaction and tension among staff and student teachers. These difficulties were associated with the changes in administration.

Although the College valued consultation (HCE Charter of Goals and Purposes, 1993), there were mixed feelings among participants about the consultation process. While some participants (in the minority) emphasised management's use of consultation and saw it as a positive approach, others (the majority) felt that consultation, as they understood the meaning of the word, was not taking place. According to the latter group of participants, decisions taken by management (the executive or top managerial staff) were foregone conclusions and consultation was merely a matter of formality and 'token' involvement. Some participants also felt that management was far removed from the day to day operations of the institution and that this was reflected in its decision making. This situation appeared to be an end product of the devolution of responsibility which was part of the College's management philosophy (but without empowerment). The philosophical underpinnings of this approach to management were grounded in the Education Amendment Act 1990.

The College's system of levels of operation had a built in monitoring function (proposition 1.2.5). There were 'check points' at various levels of the system. These different 'check points' were part of the College's quality systems for monitoring the quality 'outputs' documented in the *HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996.* The monitoring function of the College's quality systems would be discussed in greater detail under the fifth category, 'Evaluation'.

Within the framework of policy and regulations which guided operations at the College, the 'committee' was a predominant phenomenon. In keeping with this characteristic, the College had a system of advisory committees of College and community representatives. Two types of committees listed in the *HCE Statement* *of objectives 1994 - 1996* and referred to by approximately ninety percent of the participants at the College were: programme advisory committees and subject advisory committees. Through its committee structure, the College satisfied the Ministry of Education's requirements for increased community involvement.

Programme advisory committees were established for all major College programmes. Their chief function was to advise the College about the training needs of a particular industrial or professional sector that had an interest in its programmes. Most members represented relevant industry, employer or professional groups. Programme advisory committees met at least three times a year.

Subject advisory committees were established for all subject departments providing courses for student teachers and practising teachers. Their main function was to ensure that the courses offered by the respective departments met the needs of the student and practising teachers. They also had to ensure that courses were 'up-to-date' in relation to current research on teaching in the different subject areas. Most members of subject advisory committees were chosen for their knowledge of the subject areas.

The aforementioned committees and the Academic Board constituted a hierarchical system for monitoring and ensuring that academic standards were met and maintained and for advising the Council on all academic matters, including student assessment. The College, through its Council and Academic Board, had a clearly delineated policy for course and programme review or development which had to be satisfied for approval in principle. All these structures were consistent with the government's education policy. The College had to conform to the policy requirements in order to ensure its survival as a provider of teacher education.

An important observation, however, was the fact that the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) could delegate its 'authority' to another body (for example, the New Zealand Council for Teacher Education) to specify criteria for course and programme validation: "In broad terms courses and programmes within the College are validated by the New Zealand Qualifications Authority either directly or by delegation from the Authority" (HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996, p. 20). The Academic Board had to ensure that committees developing courses and programmes followed the procedures stipulated by the College's policy and met the criteria set by the external validating authority. Once the Academic Board was satisfied that all prescribed criteria were met, it made recommendation to the Council for the adoption of a particular course or programme as part of the College's programmes and operations. However, with the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme, the number of approval structures for some courses increased. This aspect is discussed in the next chapter.

The foregoing observations had implications for course and programme review or development and approval. The Academic Board was essentially an internal body with the power to recommend the adoption of courses and programmes to the Council. Given the Academic Board's composition and role, there was an underlying suggestion that the College, through the Academic Board, could maintain control over which courses and programmes were approved and offered. Although evidence of community support for course or programme approval was required (HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996), there was no built in mechanism in the College's Charter of Goals and Purposes, the Statement of Objectives or the Academic Board's terms of reference (Hilltop College of Education Course/Programme Development and Approval Policy, 1993) for the wider community, through the programme and subject advisory committees (levels at which the community was involved), to contest decisions or recommendations of the Academic Board.

1.3 Accountability

Generally, the College was accountable to the Ministry of Education, its clientele (student teachers and the schools) and the wider community. The College had to: (a) bid for its funding under the EFTS funding system (mentioned earlier); (b) account for its financial expenditure; (c) ensure that its programmes met the criteria set by the NZQA or the New Zealand Council for Teacher Education (NZCTE); and (d) ensure that there was involvement by student teachers' and the community at the specified levels of its operations. These measures of accountability were requirements stipulated in the government's policy for the administration of tertiary institutions (see, for example, Learning for Life I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Learning for Life II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Education Amendment Act 1990). Essentially, the government's policy was business oriented and driven by a market economy. The ultimate goal was to transfer the responsibility for their own operation to the colleges of education (through the devolution of power) but, at the same time, ensure that they were also accountable. Hilltop College of Education had to implement changes to satisfy the requirements for accountability in order to ensure its survival as a provider of teacher education. By instituting change, the College was responding to the changing environment in which it had to operate.

With the education reforms of the late 1980s had come an emphasis on 'accountability' and 'quality' and the need for educational organisations to restructure and put monitoring and auditing mechanisms in place. While the College's internal auditing and evaluation policy and procedures were seemingly neither efficient nor reliable at the time of this investigation (1993 - 1994), one of the positives mentioned by some participants (P 2; P 4; P 11; P 14; P 20) was that the College had acknowledged the deficiencies and was trying to make its operations more efficient.

1.4 Culture

In order to assess the impact of the changes on the College's culture (see Chapters Seven and Eight), the researcher had to describe the culture. The first proposition under this property (1.4.1) was concerned with the relationship between staff and student teachers. The relationship between staff and student teachers was generally informal but the level of informality varied among individuals and across departments. In general, there was a sense in which staff and students were like a family ('whanau'). During the fieldwork, the researcher had first-hand experience of interpersonal relationships among staff and student teachers and noted the staff's pastoral disposition. On several occasions, interviews were stopped temporarily for participants to attend to student teachers' needs. The researcher noted that student teachers were never turned away. Generally, staff had an 'open door' policy and student teachers' welfare was given priority. Staff members' pastoral disposition also included financial support for deserving student teachers. The following statements, by two participants (University staff and student teacher), demonstrated the relationship between staff and student teachers at the College:

> At the College things are much more 'whanau' based. You get a group of people who get to know each other well and they function more like a family type setting. The groups are much smaller, people get to know each other a lot better. So we actually have relationships that are not strictly academic relationships. They have a wider bearing. You go through the year with a group of people and you become friends and you do things socially with them. And the relationship between the lecturers and the students is a lot closer than probably the more formal setting of the University where we're dealing with a lot larger group of people. (P 40)

> The Teachers' College environment is like a 'whanau' and everybody helps each other. We've got the support of our lecturers. We can ask

> them for information. We've got the support network working through the student executive. (P 45)

The last three propositions under this property (1.4.2, 1.4.3 and 1.4.4) were concerned with values. While there were six values listed in the College's Charter, the interview data suggested that staff members appreciated three most: consultation, collaboration and collegiality. Consultation has already been discussed under the property 'Operational' (1.2) and will not be revisited here. The importance of collaboration and collegiality was evidenced mainly at the departmental level, particularly in activities such as course development and evaluation. The following excerpts (from College staff interviews) illustrated the importance of collaboration and collegiality:

> Yes, we all do, depending on the generation of students we teach. I teach mainly the first years and so I would write my course outline. I would do a very skeleton framework of the course outline then I would discuss it with my staff. ... is in charge of the 200 (second year students) and ... 300 (third year students). They would write course outlines and we would review those course outlines and if we think that there are things in there that need to be added we may comment accordingly. It's more of a team effort although individual staff members are responsible for each generation's delivery of courses. (P 9)

> Within the ... Department we write our programmes together, totally. We have changed the third year programme every year that I've been here which is four, coming into five years now. The entire department rewrites that programme as we see changes in the curriculum requirements and as we reflect on the success of previous years. (P 14)

The College valued its long tradition of outstanding achievements in art. However, this tradition was threatened by the latest changes that had been instituted by the College (see Chapters Seven and Eight). Similarly, the introduction of the education reforms (Education Amendment Act 1990) [particularly funding] brought a reduction in the number of selected studies courses. These were courses that student teachers could take for their own personal development. The selected studies courses (now called curriculum extension courses) were part of the College's curriculum culture and were valued by participants (College staff). This change was a sensitive issue for more than seventy-five percent of the College staff who participated in the study. In addition, the courses that remained had to be rewritten to satisfy external requirements. The College had to demonstrate that the selected studies courses (curriculum extension courses) were specifically related to the primary teacher's job in the classroom (P 4; P 10; P 17; P 24). These courses had also concretised the College's practical, humanistic and liberal philosophy underpinning its orientation to pre-service primary teacher education. Hence, the shift in the focus of these courses also represented a shift in the College's orientation to pre-service primary teacher education. The selected studies courses were further reduced with the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme (see Chapters Seven and Eight). The following statements, by two participants (College staff), reflected the impact of this curriculum change:

> The emphasis on personal development is suspect, according to some people. It has got to be seen, because we are accountable to those people out there who provide us the money, to be tied quite closely to curriculum and knowledge and development for teaching children. We have given them this new name, Curriculum Extension, not self extension, not a selected study, but a curriculum extension. That has changed our courses. We have just recently gone through a massive exercise of wading through course outlines, which are really for external consumption, trying to show that these Selected Studies, these chosen ones, are much more clearly tied to extending the knowledge of what can be done in the classroom. And there is a fine line to this. Certainly that's reasonable, but we believe that happened in the old system. (P 17)

> Oh now! there's no doubt that it's more oriented to preparation of the trainees to teach in classrooms and to have an academic qualification. It has been a whole change in philosophy for the College. (P 24)

At another level, this curriculum change highlighted the differing philosophies of the government and the College with regard to teacher education (and by extension, education). It was a case of the government's technological orientation versus the College's practical, humanistic and liberal orientation. Furthermore, this curriculum change also demonstrated the government's power to influence the nature of teacher education. The government's technological orientation (Marshall, 1992; Fitzsimons & Peters, 1994; Peters, Marshall & Massey, 1994; Fitzsimons, 1995), grounded in technocratic ideology (Codd, 1990; Marshall, 1992; Peters et al., 1994), was reflected in its intention to introduce system-wide unit standards (competencies) through the National Qualifications Framework (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 1993) and its emphasis on job specific training, skills, outputs, production, efficiency and quality. Similarly, the statement regarding the aim of the proposed 'seamless' education system to produce "appropriately skilled and adaptable people who are encouraged, supported, and recognised in their efforts to undertake life-long learning so that they participate effectively in a changing society" (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 30) also reflected the government's technological orientation.

The reduction in the number of selected studies courses also had other implications for the College. This change reduced choice and eliminated the possibility of a major and minor in curriculum subject areas and, for the departments most affected (art, music, dance, drama and physical education), marginalisation and job security were matters of concern. In this excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> We had curriculum courses, what we called Vocation Studies, and we had another large number of courses.... They were called Selected Studies.... We had the concept of major and minor in the Selected Studies area. We were able to produce phys. ed. majors, art majors, drama majors or language majors.... Before, they were able to do something like twelve Selected Studies courses in their three years here. That means that they could major in art and do six in art and they could minor in phys. ed. and do three in phys. ed., and they still had another three or four more in other selected curriculum areas where they just wanted to extend their knowledge a little bit. We were able to produce people who we believed had the basic knowledge because of our curriculum work, our Vocational Studies work, but also had knowledge in a little greater depth. And these people we felt would form resource teachers in schools.... We know very well that we produced people with enthusiasm. They had a broad base but they had enthusiasm for one or two or three subjects, extra knowledge and enthusiasm. And we felt this was very healthy. That's gone for most of our students, even for the diploma students. The diploma students now in their three years here I think can do six extension courses.... I am upset by this because it has really hit some departments quite considerably. (P 17)

In addition to the preceding aspects of culture mentioned, there were other rites and rituals which had symbolic value for the staff (for example, a common lunch hour and a 'four slot' teaching day). These aspects of culture are discussed in relation to the B.Ed. degree programme later in this thesis.

The data related to the first category demonstrated that the formal organisational structure (a product of the government's policy for administration in tertiary education) was hierarchical and a systems level approach, which was neither efficient nor effective, was the mode of operation. The informal organisational structure provided a support mechanism for staff members. Culturally, the metaphor of the family was an apt descriptor for the organisation. The relationship between staff and student teachers was informal and extended beyond the academic. However, some cultural values were threatened by the changes in the government's education policy, the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University. Generally, the changes introduced by the College were intended to ensure its survival as a provider of teacher education.

Category Two: Mission

The five properties and fourteen propositions in this category are presented holistically in Table 7.

Table 7

Category 2: Mission

Properties	Propositions
2.1 Vagueness	2.1.1 There is no well articulated overall philosophy of pre-service primary teacher education in the College's charter or statement of objectives. 2.1.2 With regard to pre-service primary teacher education, the goals, as stated in the charter and statement of objectives, are vague. 2.1.3 Education and training are stated as two different entities, but their differences are not articulated.
2.2 Clarity	2.2.1 The College's values are stated clearly in the charter. 2.2.2 There is a high level of agreement among participants on what they believe are the major goals of pre-service primary teacher education.
2.3 Product	2.3.1 Characteristics graduates should possess are expressed both with a narrow subject specific focus and a broad general focus. 2.3.2 There is a high level of agreement among participants on the major characteristics a graduate should possess. 2.3.3 There is a high level of agreement among participants that they can produce only beginning teachers.
2.4 Uncertainty	2.4.1 Colleges of education no longer hold a monopoly on teacher education. 2.4.2 Amalgamation with the university is a possibility. 2.4.3 There are several suggested models of teacher education for the future. 2.4.4 Changing the present model could be detrimental to teacher education.
2.5 Quality	2.5.1 Quality features predominantly in the College's mission statement, but it is not defined in concrete terms. 2.5.2 Internal mechanisms for assessing and monitoring quality are not well developed and operational.

2.1 Vagueness

In order to understand the nature of pre-service primary teacher education and the changes, it was necessary to examine the institution's mission. The three propositions related to this property (2.1.1, 2.1.2 and 2.1.3) were concerned with the lack of clarity associated with the philosophy, goals and purposes of the organisation. Under the heading 'Beliefs and Values' in the *HCE Charter of Goals and Purposes, 1993*, the following statement was documented:

- The College believes that education and training enable people to:
- secure their personal, professional, cultural, and national identity
- accept their responsibilities in society

- lead satisfying and effective lives
- develop a commitment to continuing education and training (p. 4).

The College's philosophy, one was left to assume, was based on these statements. The statements were both general and vague and 'triggered' a number of questions: What type of education and training? Which programme(s) did these statements relate to? With regard to pre-service primary teacher education, the main business of the College's operations, there was no overall well articulated philosophy in the *HCE Charter of Goals and Purposes* nor its *Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996.* Given the competitive climate in which Hilltop College of Education was trying to survive and the fact that the majority of the College's population was primary student teachers, one would expect the College to have a clearly articulated philosophy of pre-service primary teacher education (or even teacher education generally) in these two public documents. For prospective student teachers who wanted to make informed decisions, the *1994 HCE Calendar* carried more valuable information about the aims and objectives of the courses offered by the various teaching departments. However, prospective student teachers were still left to deduce the College's philosophy of pre-service primary teacher education.

The absence of a clearly delineated philosophy in the two aforementioned public documents had implications for the College with regard to one of its quality targets and the employment of its graduates. The fifth quality target, "over 80 percent employer satisfaction with the programmes" (HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996, p. 1), was "measured by surveys of employers of recent graduates, and where appropriate, by the percentage of available positions won by College graduates" (Ibid). A well articulated philosophy of pre-service primary teacher education would leave no 'confusion' in the minds of prospective employers. Additionally, where the philosophical orientation of a training programme was vague (as it was in the case of Hilltop College of Education), it was possible that its graduates could be bypassed by employers.

Under the heading 'Goals and Purposes' in the *HCE Charter of Goals and Purposes, 1993*, the goal directly related to pre-service primary teacher education was: "The College aims to produce: trained and educated early childhood, primary, and secondary teachers" (p. 3). Other kinds of training programmes and services offered by the College were then documented and these were followed by this statement:

> Within these programmes and services the College aims to:
> - increase the participation and success rates for Maori students

- increase the participation and success rates of people belonging to groups identified as facing unfair barriers. (p. 3)

The preceding statements showed that the goal related to pre-service primary teacher education, like its philosophy, was also vague.

While the philosophy and goals of pre-service primary teacher education in the two public documents were vague, there were other documents (for example Principles of Teacher Development, 1992; Outcomes of Primary Teacher Training, 1992) which suggested more specific information about the aims and outcomes of pre-service primary teacher education. However, little use seemed to have been made of this information in the *HCE Charter of Goals and Purposes 1993* and the *HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996,* as one participant (College staff) observed:

> For the pre-service primary programme there have been reviews at various times which have attempted to evaluate too what we are doing. ... did one a few years ago. They have feedback with some effect. Perhaps, not as much effect as there should be. (P 11)

With regard to the College's commitment to increasing the participation and success rates of Maori and other disadvantaged ethnic groups, the College, in 1994, appointed its first Dean of Maori Studies. However, little had been done by way of designing programmes or introducing different modes of delivery to cater for the needs of Maori and other disadvantaged ethnic groups. Data related to this issue are presented in the next chapter.

2.2 Clarity

The two propositions related to this property (2.2.1 and 2.2.2) focused on clarity in relation to the institution's values and the participants' perceptions of the goals of pre-service primary teacher education. The six factors valued by the College and listed in the *HCE Charter of Goals and Purposes, 1993* were: partnership, learning, justice, equity, consultation and collegiality. The interview data and documentary evidence revealed that the extent to which most of those values were observed seemed to be contingent on the situation. Secondly, the data did not provide explicit instances of the extent to which all of these values were observed.

Most College and University staff who participated in the study (approximately ninety-six percent) were clear about what they believed were the major goals of pre-service primary teacher education. While these participants focused predominantly on the knowledge and skills student teachers should possess, there was a high level of agreement among them that the major goals of pre-service primary teacher education were to provide student teachers with: (a) curriculum knowledge; (b) knowledge of theory and practice; (c) knowledge about child development; (d) classroom management skills; and (e) ability to run a programme at any level of the primary school. The following were representative statements by two participants (College and University staff):

> They need to know about classroom management and curriculum content they need for the different subject areas. And they need to know how to plan and evaluate. They need to know how to monitor children; how to establish good relationships with children. They need to be informed about theory in practice. It is important for them to get practical experience with children and put their theories into operation. It is also important, I think, for them to get some sort of time where they just concentrate on the theory itself as well. (P 20)

> Well, competency in being able to run a class in a school, a broad general education and introduction to the profession. (P 31)

Less than ten percent of the participants (College and University staff) mentioned values and attitudes in responding to the question about goals. Where values and attitudes were mentioned, participants focused mainly on the importance of developing an awareness that New Zealand was fast becoming a 'multicultural' society, the need for student teachers to develop an appreciation of the cultural and ethnic diversity in New Zealand classrooms and the need for student teachers to recognise the importance of lifelong learning. An important observation was the fact that, although the College listed 'equity' as one of its values, less than five percent of the participants mentioned 'equity' explicitly.

The extent to which the College valued partnership was observed in the community's involvement in its operations, particularly programme development, approval and evaluation (although community involvement was a policy requirement). The value placed on partnership was also evident in the 'in school' training component of pre-service primary teacher education programmes and the affiliation agreement with Belmont University (see Chapter Seven). The interview data and documentary evidence revealed that, with regard to learning, justice, equity, and consultation, there was some contradiction of these values in the way in which the College put its programmes into operation. Learning, equity and justice seemed to be interrelated where student teachers were concerned. For example, on the one hand, there were claims by the College that it was providing the best programmes it could for student teachers and that it was committed to improving the participation and success rates of Maori and other ethnic minority groups. On the other hand, the number of options had been reduced, courses had been rewritten to satisfy external requirements and little had been done by way of designing programmes or introducing other modes of delivery for Maori and other ethnic minority groups. These issues are revisited in the next chapter.

The researcher has already mentioned the controversial issue of consultation and it will not be repeated here. Where collegiality was concerned, the interview data revealed that the College's staff (participants) valued the close working relationships within their subject departments and between individuals. In addition, both staff (mentioned earlier) and student teachers at the College valued peer support. The following statement, by a student teacher, demonstrated the importance of collegiality:

> We have the support of our peer groups in our classes.... Yes, basically each other. We get through because of the support of our peers. (P 45)

2.3 Product

The three propositions related to this category (2.3.1, 2.3.2 and 2.3.3) were all concerned with the type of graduates the institution hoped to produce. The 'output' for the goal related to pre-service primary teacher education (documented earlier in this chapter) read as follows: "trained and education [sic] teachers: Pre-service - early childhood, primary and secondary" (HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996, p. unnumbered). Like the goal itself, this output was vague and open to numerous interpretations. In contrast, most participants at the College (staff) were able to describe the type of graduates which they felt the College could produce. Although some participants tended to use a subject specific focus, there was a high level of agreement that graduates should possess: (a) personal and professional qualities; (b) knowledge of theory and practice; (c) knowledge of child development; (d) knowledge of curriculum and how to teach it; and (e) good interpersonal and classroom management skills. In the excerpt that follows, one participant (College staff) enumerated some of those characteristics:

> It's not a personality thing.... It's somebody who is really professional. For me that means that they understand child development, especially what has gone on before they came in. And you also have those who excel at the other end. So you've got to know where you're going. I

> think that they've actually got to have a good understanding of child development and learning theory. But that's no good if you haven't got the skills and knowledge to implement a good programme. So I'd like to see somebody who could implement a well balanced programme for their class; who acts professionally and responsibly in relation to the children and her colleagues or his colleagues, and their principal, and their parents; who has a commitment to teaching; and, who realises that it's a very strenuous and stressful, at times, job. (P 27)

In addition to the foregoing observations, approximately fifty-two percent of the participants at the College (staff) emphasised that the institution could only produce beginning teachers. Most of these participants also expressed the view that training should create an awareness that professional development was an ongoing, lifelong process. Further, a comparison revealed that there was a high level of congruency between what participants perceived as the goals of pre-service primary teacher education and the type of beginning teacher they felt the programme should produce. However, an important observation was that only three participants mentioned producing reflective teachers. At the same time, documentary evidence (Proposed Structure of the B.Ed. Degree, 26 October, 1991) indicated that the intent was to produce reflective teachers (particularly in the case of the B.Ed. degree programme).

One of the quality measures used by the College was "surveys of employers of recent graduates" (HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996, p. 1). In this regard, an evaluation of graduates of the College was conducted by an external evaluator in 1992 to develop and pilot a system of appraisal for the external performance measures. The evaluation included twenty-one randomly selected secondary, primary and early childhood institutions that had employed graduates of the College. The number of beginning teachers employed in the twenty-one institutions was not mentioned but the sample of participants included head teachers, principals, heads of departments, tutor teachers and school personnel responsible for induction programmes.

On the criterion 'job readiness', the results of the survey showed that, overall, the strengths of primary trained graduates were: (a) their determination to succeed; (b) their enthusiasm; (c) innovation; (d) management skills; (e) communication skills; (f) involvement in extra-curricular activities; and (g) their relationship with children. On an individual basis, however, there were several primary trained graduates who were either exceptionally strong or weak in each of the aforementioned areas. Generally, primary trained graduates' curriculum strengths were largely in physical education and sports, and mathematics was the area in which graduates demonstrated the greatest weakness (Focusing on the End Product, 1992). The significance of these findings was that, while primary trained graduates demonstrated strengths in management and communication skills, physical education and sports, there was no mention of strengths in the disciplines (arts, humanities, sciences, etc.).

2.4 Uncertainty

The four propositions under this property (2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.3 and 2.4.4) focused on the uncertainty of the changing environment. At the time of this investigation, there was an aura of uncertainty with regard to the nature and provision of pre-service primary teacher education. This uncertainty was the result of an interplay of several factors which were impacting on the phenomenon under investigation. Those factors, associated mainly with the changes in education policy from the late 1980s onwards, ranged from reforms in educational management (Education Act 1989; Education Amendment Act 1990) to those culminating in the restructuring of operations at the College towards the end of 1994.

One of the most significant changes brought by the education reforms of the late 1980s was an end to the 'monopoly' on teacher education held by colleges of education (Learning for Life I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Learning for Life II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989). Closely related to this change was the fact that prospective student teachers could attend the institution of their choice. These two changes, among others, introduced 'intense' competition among colleges of education. The interview data and documentary evidence revealed that, for Hilltop College of Education, competition influenced programme changes, affiliation with Belmont University (see Chapters Seven and Eight) and the vigorous marketing of its programmes (discussed under the category 'Selection'). In order to attract student teachers, the College had to ensure that, comparatively, its programmes were 'on par' with those of other colleges of education. In a climate where financing was dependent on the institution's population, there was also the issue of survival for the College. In order to continue its operations as a provider of teacher education, the College had to be able to compete effectively in the marketplace. These statements, by one participant (College staff), explained the influence of the changing environment and the impact of competition on the College. In the first excerpt, the participant spoke about the impact of the funding policy.

> I guess I'm right in saying the bulk funding of teachers' colleges and the fact that teachers' colleges are accountable for administering their own money and producing a product. There is that business orientated idea of education being a product.... Pressure from outside has certainly done it: This bulk funding and the fact that we are now in competition. (P 17)

The participant then spoke about the need for the College to establish closer links with its local university and to introduce programme changes:

> But at least two other colleges before us established stronger links with their local university and they have had these for some years.... What was happening was that we had students from other colleges coming out not merely with a Diploma in Teaching but they had a degree in teaching. And in terms of the marketability of our product we had to follow because it could well be that we could end up being the poor cousin teachers' college if we didn't follow suit and give our students the opportunity to pursue a degree if they wanted to. (P 17)

Finally, the participant re-emphasised the impact of competition then touched on the prospective student teacher's choice.

> I think it has been driven really by competition. You no longer have to recruit students from the ... area. They can go to any teachers' college that can give them what they want in terms of their education. It's a matter of survival, I guess. If we don't get students enrolling in our courses then we're not going to survive.... We could close down. (P 17)

In addition to the aforementioned changes was the option afforded colleges of education to either continue as independent institutions or to work in affiliation with other tertiary institutions (Learning for Life I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Learning for Life II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989). It was primarily the government's education policy that led to the establishment of closer relations with Belmont University and the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme (see Chapters Seven and Eight.) These events were part of the ongoing changes introduced by the College. However, the last two changes mentioned (affiliation with Belmont University and the B.Ed. degree programme) constituted a desperate effort on the part of the College to ensure its survival as a provider of teacher education.

With regard to the future of pre-service primary teacher education, there was a high level of agreement among participants (College and University staff) that primary teaching would become a degreed profession. There were, however, diverse opinions among participants about the future of pre-service primary teacher education. While over seventy-five percent of the participants (College and

University staff) believed that the present form of concurrent institutionalised and 'in school' training could continue for some time, some participants also believed that either a variant of the present model or the apprenticeship model could be introduced, while others felt that the length of training could be extended. Those who believed that the apprenticeship model could be introduced (in the long term) based their prediction on the debate by some New Zealand politicians who support that model. In this excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> I think it is going in the same direction that I saw in the United States. It will become less practically oriented. It's very practically oriented at the moment because the students are going into the schools a lot. I think that finance will affect teacher training and they will save a lot of money. The degree programme will continue. And I think we could see in the future whereas we place them in schools now, they will contract into schools directly with the schools (that's what I saw happening in the States) maybe for three months at the end of their training. That will be the practical side. I think it will be a big step backwards. But I think that the approach we have is probably considered to be too expensive. I think we've had an amazing system training teachers, myself, but I think that whole New Right philosophy where money is all important is actually affecting what is happening in education and teacher training. (P 24)

The participants (College staff) who commented on the possible variations of the present model all felt that changes to the present model would be detrimental to pre-service primary teacher education. With regard to the apprenticeship model, two participants (P 8; P 21) felt that its underlying principles were sound but that its introduction without accompanying structural changes would be disastrous.

2.5 Quality

The two propositions related to this property (2.5.1 and 2.5.2) were concerned with the College's use and application of the term 'quality'. With the changes in administration in colleges of education, a number of terms associated with the business field became popular. One of these terms was 'quality'. Although the term 'quality' featured predominantly in the College's mission statement (HCE Charter of Goals and Purposes, 1993) the term was used loosely and, therefore, open to diverse interpretations. Several participants at the College (for example, P 8; P 15; P 18) also used the term extensively and ambiguously. This statement, by one participant (College staff), demonstrated the point:

> Well, it should provide, I think, quality training for the people who are intending to work in teaching in our primary schools. (P 16)

In order to get some clarification, one participant (College staff) who used the term was asked what 'quality' meant. That participant gave the following explanation:

> There is now new emphasis on the word quality and it is taking on a brand new meaning. It's taking on a meaning from industry.... So quality has now two meanings. It has the folk meaning good - a good education system. And now it also has another meaning which is, "provide what you say you will provide". So if you say it's cotton, it's cotton.... That's a measure of quality. And if you say a student is competent then they are competent. (P 3)

With regard to quality, the College had these five quality targets for its operations:

1. All programmes and courses will meet the criteria set by the appropriate validating authority.
2. All students and graduates will meet the standards set by the Academic Board of the College.
3. Over 80 percent student satisfaction with courses and programmes.
4. Graduates will meet the criteria set by the Teacher Registration Board for provisional registration as teachers.
5. Over 80 percent employer satisfaction with the programmes.

(HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996, p. 1)

Where the first and fourth quality targets were concerned, the validating authorities were external to the College, while quality targets two and three were measured internally. However, at the time of this investigation (1993 - 1994), the internal mechanisms for assessing and monitoring quality were not well developed and operational. Therefore, it was difficult to determine the extent to which the College's quality targets were being met. For criterion two, the level of student teachers' satisfaction was usually measured by written end of course evaluations. In this regard, quality was determined by what the 'standard' evaluation form was designed to measure. The extent to which the items on the evaluation form were measures of quality was, however, debatable (see category four 'Evaluation').

For criterion five, "the level of satisfaction is measured by surveys of employers of recent graduates and, where appropriate, by the percentage of available positions won by College graduates" (HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996, p. 1). This statement introduced a number of important questions, for example: What was the nature of the surveys? How often were the surveys conducted? Similarly, it was questionable whether programme quality could be measured on the basis of the number of graduates securing teaching positions. At the time of this investigation, only one survey (which was exploratory) had been conducted by the College (Focusing on the End Product, 1992).

To summarise, the data related to this category revealed that, while participants (College and University staff) were clear about what they believed were the goals of pre-service primary teacher education, the College's philosophy and goals were not clearly articulated in its two public documents (HCE Charter of Goals and Purposes, 1993 and Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996). There was a high level of agreement among participants (College and University staff) about the goals of pre-service primary teacher education but these were expressed mainly in terms of knowledge and skills. Similarly, there was a high level of agreement among College staff (participants) about the type of graduates the College hoped to produce. However, the characteristics these participants felt the graduates should possess were limited to specific knowledge, skills and personal and professional attributes. The data revealed evidence of contradiction between some of the College's expressed values and its operations. There was a high level of uncertainty regarding the future of teacher education. Consequently, the College had to be continually instituting change to compete effectively in the marketplace in order to ensure its survival.

Category Three: Involvement

Table 8 is a full data set of the three properties and eleven propositions in the category 'Involvement'. As mentioned in Chapter One, the researcher rationalised that teacher education was provided for people, by people in specific contexts. Therefore, it was necessary to examine the involvement of the people providing pre-service primary teacher education.

3.1 Levels

The five propositions related to this property (3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.1.3, 3.1.4 and 3.1.5) focused on the dynamics of the roles and responsibilities of the College's staff. The interview data revealed that the system of levels of operation allowed for staff involvement at different levels of the organisation. Involvement within the organisation ranged from purely managerial or administrative on one extreme to instructional (classroom teaching) on the other extreme. However, within those two extremes, staff members were involved in varying capacities. While the executive's (top managerial staff) function was purely managerial, Heads of Departments combined administrative and teaching roles. The different roles and levels of involvement among membership were intimately related to the positions they held. For example, Heads of Departments, by virtue of their positions, represented their departments on subject advisory committees. Similarly, lecturers (teaching staff) were expected to participate in course development and review in their respective departments.

Table 8
Category 3: Involvement

Properties	Propositions
3.1 Levels	3.1.1 Staff members are involved in different ways and at different levels in the organisation. 3.1.2 The different roles and levels of involvement are intimately related. 3.1.3 Existing workload is not always taken into account when additional responsibilities are delegated. 3.1.4 Roles and responsibilities vary among individuals holding similar positions. 3.1.5 Roles and responsibilities are not always formally documented.
3.2 Managerial	3.2.1 Under the Education Amendment Act 1990, management's function has been redefined. 3.2.2 Important decision making by the executive is not always a consultative process. 3.2.3 Survival is, to a large extent, dependent on managerial decision making. 3.2.4 There is a business approach to managing teacher education.
3.3 Departmental	3.3.1 There is a high level of co-operation within departments. 3.3.2 Departments are highly compartmentalised.

Roles and responsibilities varied among staff members holding similar positions within the organisation. The interview data showed that additional responsibilities were either delegated or taken up as a matter of choice. Where additional responsibilities were delegated, some staff members observed that existing workloads were not always taken into account (P 12; P 29; P 36). However, those staff members with increased responsibilities or wider involvement (delegated or voluntary) acknowledged both the positive and negative aspects of their experiences. The following statements, by one participant (College staff), substantiated the merits and demerits of increased responsibilities and wider involvement.

> I think its very exciting and I've found it very stimulating. The process is hectic but that's because of unfortunate time-lines. I find it really challenging intellectually. You're tapping into the University

> knowledge base which we haven't time to develop and nourish in the way our programme runs.... And the development for me has been a real learning curve of tapping into a knowledge base. It's really useful. (P 12)

> Secondary school teachers teach a maximum of twenty-five hours a week. I'm teaching close to that and it's just not supportable for a tertiary institution. And if you talk to me about research I'll probably burst into tears, because, who has time? One moment I'm in class or I'm processing stuff or I'm home asleep. My life is just totally taken over. (P 12)

3.2 Managerial

The four propositions under this property (3.2.1, 3.2.2, 3.2.3 and 3.2.4) were concerned mainly with management. With the changes introduced by the Education Amendment Act 1990, management assumed a corporate style approach to administration (mentioned earlier). Whereas the Principal and senior administrators were formerly more involved in the day to day operations of the institution, under the new structure, the role of the Principal and senior management was purely managerial. Responsibility for the day to day operations of the institution was delegated mainly to middle management (associate directors and heads of departments). The title of 'Executive Officer' was added to the Principal's position and other senior management staff were associate principals, deans or directors. These new titles, borrowed from the field of business management, were consistent with the 'new' roles.

The survival of the College as a 'stand alone' institution (see Chapters Seven and Eight) was, to a large extent, dependent on decision making at the executive (top management) level. There were, however, differing opinions among some participants at the College (staff) on the issue of decision making. Approximately thirty percent of the participants at the College (staff) commented on the decision making process. Five percent of these participants were of the opinion that decision making by management was in the best interest of the institution. The other twenty-five percent felt that, generally, decision making was not always in the best interest of the institution. The following contrasting statements, by two participants (College staff), reflected the differing opinions:

> Goodwill on the part of the executive staff and confidence that the executive staff are protecting your best interests. They have done most of the negotiations and I have that confidence. (P 21)

> It seems amazing to me that the last three or four years we have lost track. We haven't had this committee, which is a collegial one, which looks at the broad programmes. It's happening somewhere up there in our new structure and the decisions have been made by people who don't always understand the individual needs of separate subjects or curriculum areas. (P 17)

3.3 Departmental

The two propositions related to this property (3.3.1 and 3.3.2) were concerned with the nature of operations at the departmental level. While there was a high level of co-operation and team work within departments, they were generally highly compartmentalised. This characteristic appeared to be consistent with the hierarchical organisational structure. The high level of compartmentalisation was evidenced not only in the statements made by participants but also in their general approach to answering questions during the interviews. For most participants (for example, P 11; P 14; P 15; P 25; P 28; P 29; P 30), there was a tendency to respond to certain items with a subject specific focus (mentioned earlier).

Compartmentalisation had, to some extent, resulted in programme fragmentation and the duplication of course content across some departments. With regard to the duplication of course content, the internal review of the College's primary teacher education programmes had recommended that the College address this issue (Review of Primary Programmes Report, 1992). Several participants at the College (staff and student teachers) also voiced their concerns about content duplication. The researcher was aware that efforts had been made to address the issue (for example, rewriting some courses) but the interview data suggested that the problem had not been eradicated. The following statements, by two participants (College staff and student teacher), substantiated the point:

> This year the procedure has been that the whole area is re-examined in the light of what is required in new development terms. In many cases, it has meant rewriting courses.... And the other thing that we have tried to do is minimise overlap so that we are not dealing with the same material just in a slightly different guise in different courses. So, one of the tasks that I intend to undertake over the next year is to squeeze some of that overlap out. (P 4)

> I think it's because we seem to go over and over quite a few things. There are some issues that we seem to go over and over. (P 1)

At this point, mention must be made of the recently developed technology curriculum (one of the curriculum changes). This curriculum was developed by a

College committee with representation across several departments. The approach demonstrated the benefits that could be derived from transcending the boundaries of compartmentalisation. The curriculum itself was developed so that technology could be taught across diverse subject areas, thereby demonstrating the interrelatedness between technology and other subject areas. It must be noted, however, that the committee adopted this approach because no individual staff member had all the expertise necessary to develop the curriculum. The advantages of this approach to curriculum development, spelt out by one participant (College staff), were:

> What happened was when we first started meeting we had people from art, science, music, audio visual, computers. We had four or five people to begin with. But what we found in our discussions was that because we were trying to develop something new, bringing in all of our different experiences, we had very interesting discussions about what we all did. And people found that they learnt more in technology meetings about what was going on in other people's departments. And I think that the bringing together of the different people to develop something jointly has actually been one of the strengths of what we've done. The meetings have been pleasurable; they have been fun at times. They have been very interesting. People have gone away from them feeling energetic and that something is happening that we've all been part of. For all of us it was extra work, it was extra commitment, and so on. But I think that we managed to get a good collegial sort of atmosphere in our meetings. And it was so valuable to have a range of different sorts of perspectives to develop our courses.... And it has a link to probably everybody. (P 16)

Overall, the data related to category three revealed that the roles and responsibilities of participants were dictated, primarily, by their positions within the organisation and, to a lesser extent, by delegation or their own choice. However, where additional responsibilities were delegated, existing workloads were not always taken into consideration. With the changes in education policy, management had assumed a business orientation which was reflected in the terms used and the corporate style approach to administration. The data also revealed that departments were highly compartmentalised, that there was duplication of course content and that compartmentalisation had, to some extent, resulted in programme fragmentation.

Category Four: Programme

The five properties and fifteen propositions related to the category 'Programme' are presented as a full data set in Table 9.

Table 9

Category 4: Programme

Properties	Propositions
4.1 Types	4.1.1 The College offers two, three and four year programmes leading to the Diploma of Teaching. 4.1.2 The Diploma of Teaching is the requirement for provisional teacher registration and is seen as the most important qualification.
4.2 Development	4.2.1 Programme review and development is a consultative and monitoring process at the College-wide and system levels. 4.2.2 Course development is mainly at the individual and departmental levels. 4.2.3 The College has a systems level approach to programme and course approval based on formal policy. 4.2.4 Factors influencing course and programme development or change are both internal and external to the institution. 4.2.5 Procedures and requirements for course changes and new course development are different depending on the extent of the changes.
4.3 Congruence	4.3.1 Most participants claim that there is a high level of articulation between the College's core curriculum component and the primary schools' curriculum. 4.3.2 The College is in a delicate position because it has to satisfy both the Ministry of Education and the primary schools. 4.3.3 Some participants see the College as having a leadership role in education.
4.4 Methods	4.4.1 There is contradiction among participants as to whether the College advocates a particular teaching approach. 4.4.2 There is no consensus of opinion about claims to using a particular teaching approach. 4.4.3 Traditionally, the College's orientation to teacher education has been practical, humanistic and liberal.
4.5 Resources	4.5.1 The College is generally well equipped with teaching resources for the Diploma of Teaching programme. 4.5.2 The adequacy of physical facilities is related to subject area, class size and student population.

4.1 Types

The two propositions under this property (4.1.1 and 4.1.2) were concerned with the types of programmes offered by Hilltop College of Education. In the area of pre-service primary teacher education, the College offered two and three year programmes leading to the Diploma of Teaching and a four year Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree programme (in conjunction with Belmont University). The programmes offered by the College's 'School of Primary Education' at its main campus and outpost centres were all listed in the *HCE Calendar, 1994* and the document "Hilltop College of Education Programmes and Operations, 1993". This study was concerned with the three year Diploma of Teaching programme and the four year B.Ed. degree programme offered at the main campus.

The Diploma of Teaching, which was the requirement for provisional teacher registration (HCE Calendar, 1994), was seen by the participants at the College (staff and student teachers) as the most important qualification for entry into the teaching profession. With regard to the B.Ed. degree programme, participants were divided on the question of its necessity for primary teaching. On the one hand, there were those who saw the B.Ed. degree programme as a necessary professional qualification which would lift the status of primary teaching; on the other hand, there were those who felt that a degree was not necessary for primary teaching. These issues are revisited in the next chapter.

The findings of this study showed that the B.Ed. degree programme was built around the Diploma of Teaching. Student teachers enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme worked towards two qualifications: the degree and the diploma. The courses constituting the core curriculum component of both programmes (including the required number of credit units) could be seen in Appendix J. At the time of this investigation, the core curriculum units constituted the compulsory courses in the Diploma of Teaching programme. There were eighteen (18) core curriculum areas and student teachers enrolled in the Diploma of Teaching programme were required to take a total of thirty-two (32) credit units across these subject areas. Student teachers enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme were required to take twenty-six (26) credit units across the eighteen subject areas (eight half units less across eight subject areas). The curriculum extension courses were the electives. Student teachers enrolled in the Diploma of Teaching programme were required to take ten (10) electives, while those enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme could take only two electives.

In the area of teaching experience, student teachers enrolled in both programmes were required to take twelve credit units over their three or four years of training. In addition, the B.Ed. student teachers were required to take no fewer than thirty (30) credit units in compulsory conjoint education courses (six of these at the three hundred level) and between thirty (30) and forty-two (42) credit units in other University papers (see Appendix K).

4.2 Development

The five propositions related to this property (4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.2.3, 4.2.4 and 4.2.5) focused on the process of course and programme development and the procedures involved. Programme development was a consultative process at the College-wide and system levels. The factors influencing course and programme development were both internal and external to the institution and included: (a) the HCE Charter of Goals and Purposes; (b) the HCE Statement of Objectives; (c) the primary schools' curriculum; (d) education policy; (e) the new curriculum initiatives; (f) research; (g) internal reviews; (h) external evaluations; and (i) the needs of the clientele (student teachers, community and employers).

The College had a policy and set of procedures for programme review and development. Briefly, once the decision to review or develop a new programme had been taken, a team or committee was appointed to do the job. In the process of carrying out its task, the committee consulted stakeholders both internally and externally. When the task was completed, the team or committee presented a report (in the case of a review) or a document (where a new programme was developed) to the Director of the programme. Where a new programme was developed, the Director had to ascertain that the committee or team had followed the College's prescribed procedures, that the programme met the standards set by the NZQA or NZTCE and that the College had the resources to sustain the programme. The document was then forwarded to the appropriate programme advisory committee for its scrutiny and approval. If amendments were required, the document was returned to the Director with a written statement. Once the programme advisory committee had given its approval, the Director forwarded the document to the Academic Board. The Academic Board then checked the programme to ensure that it met all other requirements, including NZQA or NZCTE standards, before giving approval and making recommendation to the Council for the programme's adoption. The procedures involved in programme review and development were explained by several participants (for example, P 2; P 4; P 6; P 8; P 9; P 10; P 12; P 14; P 23).

Course development followed similar procedures. However, course development took place mainly at the departmental level and involved two or more staff members. In the case of a course review, when more than thirty percent of a course was changed the department concerned had to seek re-validation following the procedures outlined in the preceding paragraph. When less than thirty percent of a course was changed the department concerned did not have to seek re-validation. At the same time, the College's policy was that all courses and programmes had to be reviewed periodically (HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996, p. 20). However, the term 'periodically' was vague and suggested that the College did not have a particular time frame for programme evaluation. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained the procedures involved in securing course approval:

> So, yes, there are rewrites, and these have to be approved by the Academic Board. So there's scrutiny at the development level where we have to get a committee of people together that has representation from outside. And they have their input into the new development or into the rewrite. Then once that has been prepared in a particular way, then it is presented to the Academic Board who must approve it and can recommend changes or send it back and say, "Insufficient detail or do it again or whatever" (but that doesn't happen very often), and then it is approved as a new course or as a redeveloped course. (P 4)

With few exceptions, courses were generally of six weeks duration. Approximately twenty-five percent of the participants (College staff) felt that six weeks were insufficient for a course, while twenty percent expressed a contrary opinion. The latter group also felt that there was enough time (two weeks) between the six week blocks to evaluate and revise courses. Course content analysis was outside the scope of this investigation and so too was an examination of the 'in school' component of the programme. Nevertheless, the researcher examined forty-two course outlines across eleven subject areas using the course development and approval checklist (HCE Course/Programme Development and Approval Policy, 1993). The findings of this examination are set out in Table 10.

All course outlines had objectives or learning outcomes (generally, stated behaviourally), course levels (for example, PR 100; SO 100) and course requirements. Over ninety percent of the courses carried student teachers' assessment details and course content. However, assessment information ranged from very specific and detailed on one extreme to very general and limited statements on the other extreme. Only those course outlines with specific and detailed information on student teachers' assessment (eighteen) seemed to meet the following criterion:

> It is the right of students to know at the beginning of each course what standards they will be assessed against, and what progressive criteria will be applied within each standard. Such standards should be published in course outlines and be generally available to interested parties. (HCE Course/ Programme Development and Approval Policy, 1993)

Table 10

Percentage of Course Development and Approval Criteria in Forty-two Course Outlines

Criteria	No. of Courses	%
Course description	32	76
Brief statement of philosophy	10	24
Course objectives	42	100
Target group	13	31
Level of course	42	100
Proposed staffing	8	19
Hours involved	7	17
Course requirements	42	100
Assessment of students	40	95
Course evaluation	11	26
Resources required	30	71
Student references	30	71
Course content	39	93
Values	34	81

Course content presentation ranged from well structured in the area of scope and sequence to general listings of topics in no specific order or general statements about the nature of the content. Approximately three-quarters of the course outlines carried brief descriptions of the courses and just over seventy percent provided information on resources required and references for students. The criteria brief statement of philosophy, proposed staffing and hours involved were recorded in less than twenty-five percent of the course outlines (twenty-four, nineteen and seventeen percent, respectively). It was important to note that only ten course outlines (in two of the eleven subject areas) had brief statements of their philosophical underpinnings. Similarly, only seven course outlines in two subject areas carried information on the hours of involvement.

The statistics for the last three factors mentioned in the preceding paragraph suggested that these three factors were the least important with regard to what should be included in course outlines. However, hours of involvement had implications for course selection, time-tabling and the number of courses student teachers could take in any one block (six weeks). Therefore, failure to include this information could be detrimental to student teachers.

Another important observation was the fact that just over twenty-five percent of the course outlines examined had information about course evaluation. Similarly, just over thirty percent of the course outlines mentioned the target group. Further, the researcher also observed that only in one subject area did the course outlines meet all the criteria.

4.3 Congruence

The first proposition under this category (4.3.1) focused on the level of congruency between the primary schools' curriculum and the College's programmes. The other two propositions (4.3.2 and 4.3.3) focused on the College's role in pre-service primary teacher education in relation to the demands of the schools and the Ministry of Education. In the area of primary teacher education, the College was preparing primary teachers for New Zealand primary classrooms. Consequently, the College acknowledged the importance of preparing student teachers to deliver the primary schools' curriculum. The interview data revealed that most participants (College staff) felt that there was a high level of articulation between the curriculum component of the student teachers' programmes and the primary schools' curriculum. At the same time, more than seventy-five percent of the participants (College staff) also saw the College as having a leadership role in education.

The interview data revealed that there were some participants (College staff) who felt that the College was in a delicate position because of the differing demands and expectations of the Ministry of Education (the major financier) and the primary schools (the employers of the graduates). The Ministry of Education saw the College as having the responsibility to prepare primary teachers to implement the new curriculum in the schools. However, as some participants noted (College and University staff), many schools had not yet implemented the new curriculum (P 6; P 11; P 15; P 26) and wanted beginning teachers who could fit into their existing programmes. In this excerpt, one participant (College staff) captured the College's predicament:

> We are charged with providing a service in the sense of producing teachers that schools want. At the same time we're funded by the Ministry to deliver teacher education. And the Minister has put out these new curriculum documents ... and assumes that the colleges will be racing to implement them. Certainly, a number of us in the various colleges have been involved and we're in the process of doing that. But

> I don't think the Ministry quite appreciates that we've got a dilemma in the sense that schools don't necessarily want that. It's not that they don't want people who have got expertise in the curriculum but they want them to know other things as well which aren't necessarily valued by the Minister and the Ministry. And yet, who are we actually serving here? In the real world we're actually serving the clients, in a way. And I find this quite a difficult thing.... I think there is just a lot of differences about the organisation of schools and the emphasis on different curriculum areas that need to be engaged with. But the College has to keep a foot in both camps. (P 11)

4.4 Methods

The three propositions under this property (4.4.1, 4.4.2 and 4.4.3) focused mainly on pedagogical approaches. There was no consensus of opinion among participants (College staff) that the College advocated a particular teaching approach for primary classrooms. Similarly, there was no consensus of opinion among participants about claims to using a particular College-wide teaching approach. Whereas some participants claimed that the College advocated an interactive approach, there were others who reported that they were uncertain as to whether the College advocated a particular teaching approach. In response to the question of an individual teaching approach, approximately fifty percent of the participants at the College (lecturing staff) said that their teaching approach was interactive. Among the other fifty percent, there were some participants who said that they used a variety of approaches. There were also others who claimed that they advocated a child centred approach for teaching in primary classrooms but used primarily a teacher directed approach (in their own teaching) because of the time constraints in relation to the course content they had to cover. Among the latter group, there were also participants who refuted their colleagues' claims to using an interactive approach. Finally, an important observation was the fact that some participants did not differentiate between the teaching approach they used and what they advocated for primary classrooms (the child centred approach). These three statements (by College staff) reflected the differing opinions and contradictions. In the first excerpt, one participant claimed that the College's pedagogical approach was interactive.

> I think the distinctive thing would be the interactive group process. We have never had significant numbers of large lectures, only at particular times and for particular things like briefing for teachers, teaching experience, or visiting speakers. Basically we go for the twenty member small group discussion based and organised interactive process. That's our favourite one. I'm not saying we always do it well. You can run a very boring interactive session or a good one. That would be our chief orientation. (P 12)

The second statement highlighted the uncertainty and contradictions between stated claims and actual practice.

> I don't know what the College proposes generally because I see all sorts of contradictions and therefore I'm at a loss. I know officially what the College might say, but in terms of the various things I hear people say and the various pedagogical styles discussed, there are all manners of styles that people seem to support. And there seem to be contradictions. I'm left wondering just quite what does go on. Generally, obviously, the College would push a sort of a child centred approach to education. But that's common throughout the country in primary education.... I think it's probably implemented in most situations. But an example of a contradiction to that is some of the very same people who would favour child centred education would also favour assertive discipline as a form of classroom management, which to me is a contradiction. (P 25)

Finally, in the third excerpt, one participant refuted claims to the predominance of the interactive approach:

> I think the College believes - it has a myth - that we teach in very interactive ways. And the students are encouraged to be involved in inquiry learning and that sort of thing. From my own point of view, sitting all around in a circle with me as the tutor as part of the circle may appear to be interactive but can be as expository as if I were standing in front to lecture two hundred students. I think we like to believe that we do lots of interactive teaching, but we probably don't do as much as we would like to. (P 29)

With regard to the College's model of teacher education, more than fifty percent of the participants felt that the College's orientation to teacher education had changed substantially with the introduction of the education reforms and the subsequent programme changes. The College had maintained its model of concurrent institutionalised and 'in school' training but, where content was concerned, its orientation had shifted from the traditional practical, humanistic and liberal orientation towards a technological orientation (preparation for the job), where the Diploma of Teaching was concerned. In the case of the B.Ed. degree programme, the orientation was more academic, particularly in the conjoint and University components.

4.5 Resources

The two propositions related to this property (4.5.1 and 4.5.2) focused mainly on the adequacy and availability of material and physical resources. There was consensus of opinion among participants (College staff) that the College was generally well equipped with teaching resources (for the Diploma of Teaching programme). Although most participants (over eighty percent) pointed out areas where resources could be improved (for example, the library resources, lecturers' reference material and videos), all participants were generally satisfied with the teaching resources available to them for delivering the Diploma of Teaching programme.

With regard to the adequacy of physical resources, more than seventy-five percent of the participants (College staff) cited one or more of the following: subject area, class size and student population as factors influencing the adequacy of physical facilities. Some of these difficulties were associated with the B.Ed. degree programme and would be revisited in the two succeeding chapters. However, the difficulties associated with physical resources reflected the managerial inefficiencies with regard to planning, co-ordination and communication.

For some subject areas, class size was a problem depending on the physical facilities available (for example, the dark room for photography and the gymnasium). Some participants also mentioned difficulties associated with the physical location of work-rooms. Wherever working areas were separated, student teachers were affected in two ways. First, there was a certain amount of time loss as student teachers shifted from one area to another. Second, wherever one lecturer served both areas, supervision was limited. The classrooms, on the other hand, could only accommodate approximately twenty-five persons comfortably. Hence, where class sizes exceeded twenty-five, some lecturers faced accommodation problems. Some participants had tried to work around the problem of class size by limiting the number of student teachers, subdividing large groups and alternating activities and the use of work-spaces. In the first of these excerpts, one participant (College staff) explained the difficulties associated with the physical location of work-rooms. In the second excerpt, another participant (College staff) explained an approach to utilising limited work-spaces:

> I'll start with the one I know best, the teaching workshop. It's only passable, in a sense.... The problem is you've got the workshop but you don't have a design place and then enter the workshop. That will be the logical thing to design and plan and then enter the workshop.... Designing is in another room and you've got to carry an umbrella if it's raining and you've got to move backwards and forwards. And you've got people in that room and people in that room and you've got to carry them through. So there's that separation of designing and theory and concept and practice.... There are problems in terms of space, given the class sizes. (P 6)

> Well we have one small lecture room and one small gymnasium. And it is not uncommon to have two classes come in at once in some blocks. So immediately if it was raining today we have only one indoor space for being active. So it's either fifty to sixty people in there, which is inappropriate safety-wise and learning-wise, and for all the sorts of social and affective learning and movement skill learning as well. People juggle and swap at half time. You might be having the most amazing thing happening in that gym but then you've got to swap. So it's those sorts of constraints.... It means that people have to be really flexible and just use what's available and use it real well. (P 8)

The problems associated with class size were related to the changes in the government's funding policy and the fact that the College had to increase its student teachers' intake to ensure that it maintained a certain level of funding (P 4; P 10; P 24). This strategy, in turn, had implications for the quality of the graduates because the College had to lower its entry requirements in order to attract a greater number of student teachers (P 6; P 10; P 24).

During the fieldwork, the researcher observed that when the total student population was campus based, operations appeared somewhat disorganised. The overall impression was that the College was not adequately equipped to accommodate the entire student population. Several participants (P 4; P 10; P 12; P 17; P 22) later confirmed this observation. The aforementioned situation suggested a lack of proper planning and weaknesses in the College's approach to organisational management.

To summarise, this study was concerned with the three year Diploma of Teaching programme and the four year conjoint B.Ed. degree programme. Overall, the data related to this category revealed that most participants (College staff) felt that there was a high level of articulation between the primary schools' curriculum and the Diploma of Teaching programme. However, the College faced the dilemma of producing graduates who satisfied both the requirements of the schools and the Ministry of Education. Generally, material resources for delivering the Diploma of Teaching programme were adequate, although areas such as the library, lecturers' resource material and videos were singled out for improvement. Finally, the data revealed that the adequacy of physical resources was contingent on a number of factors including class size, subject area and overall management.

Category Five: Evaluation

The two properties and eight propositions in this category, 'Evaluation', are presented holistically in Table 11.

Table 11
Category 5: Evaluation

Properties	Propositions
5.1 Levels	5.1.1 Programme evaluation is conducted at several levels of the organisation. 5.1.2 Programme evaluation is processual and guided by internal and external guidelines and mechanisms. 5.1.3 Course evaluation is processual and conducted at various levels within the organisation and at the system level. 5.1.4 Programme or course evaluation and changes are influenced by a number of internal and external factors.
5.2 Types	5.2.1 Course evaluation is both informal and formal, and conducted internally and externally. 5.2.2 Programme evaluation is a formal process conducted both internally and externally. 5.2.3 Peer evaluation and 'light sampling' are the latest dimensions added to the College's monitoring mechanism. 5.2.4 External factors are more influential in effecting course or programme evaluation and changes.

5.1 Levels

The four propositions associated with this property (5.1.1, 5.1.2, 5.1.3 and 5.1.4) focused mainly on the levels at which evaluation was conducted. The interview data and documentary evidence revealed that the evaluation of courses and programmes offered by the College was conducted at several levels both within the organisation and external to the organisation. Within the organisation, an internal auditing system for monitoring the quality of the courses and programmes was established at the beginning of 1994 (another change). Essentially, the internal auditing system was the College's 'quality management system'. The 'quality management system' was instituted to ensure that the programmes within the College were delivered "consistently and in an effective and efficient way so that both students and the taxpayer received value for their money" (HCE Calendar, 1994, p. 63). The College introduced its internal auditing system in order to account for its operations as set out in its Statement of Objectives and Charter.

In keeping with the hierarchical organisational structure, there were 'check points' at various levels of the internal auditing system: for example, student teachers evaluated each course; Heads of Departments monitored course evaluations and ensured that new and revised courses met specified criteria; and, student teachers could register dissatisfaction with courses or assessment at different levels of the hierarchy. These different 'check points' were assurance measures for determining the quality outputs documented in the *HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996*. Through these measures, the College was fulfilling the accountability requirements stipulated by the government's education policy in order to ensure its survival as a provider of teacher education.

Internally, course evaluation was the primary source of data for programme evaluation. The three broad categories of approaches to course evaluation were: student teacher, individual and peer evaluation. However, the number and methods of course evaluation used varied across individual lecturers and departments. Evaluation by student teachers, the most common form of course evaluation, was a College-wide policy requirement. All courses were evaluated formally by student teachers using the College's standard course evaluation form (or some variant thereof). In addition to this stipulated policy requirement, some participants (College staff) reported using one or more of the following other methods of evaluation: (a) oral, informal evaluation by student teachers; (b) post boxes; (c) peer evaluation (mainly departmental); (d) personal evaluation; and (e) the use of departmental evaluation forms. In the following excerpts, two participants (College staff) explained both the process of course evaluation and the methods employed:

> We evaluate every course we teach.... At the end of a course ... there's a College requirement that we evaluate it. For the primary programme, the students fill out a standard evaluation form. We also have developed, as individuals, various ways of evaluating. Some of us have ... post boxes in our classrooms in which people can put anonymous suggestions. (P 12)
>
> They're evaluated in three ways at the moment. They're evaluated by staff looking at their own performance and discussing the effectiveness of the work they're doing with trainees from their own perspective. They are evaluated by the trainees themselves giving feedback at the end of each course on how effective they felt the courses were. And, they're also evaluated by outside forces ... coming and giving feedback on how applicable the courses are to primary classrooms. (P 23)

Several participants observed that the data from course evaluations were used primarily to revise courses and implement curriculum changes (for example, P 2; P 6; P 9; P 10).

At the departmental level, course evaluation involved the entire department. The interview data revealed that the results of each course evaluation were summarised by the lecturer concerned then forwarded to the Head of Department. Then, the data were examined and discussed by the department and changes were made accordingly. Beyond the departmental level, the summaries of the student teachers' evaluations were examined by the Associate Directors then forwarded to the Director of the programme (P 2; P 4; P 11; P 12). Wherever student teachers' evaluations were unsatisfactory, the Director met with the lecturer(s) concerned and action was taken to effect improvement. These course evaluations also informed programme evaluation.

At the external level, the subject advisory committees were also involved in course evaluation. The interview data revealed that course evaluation and subsequent revisions (particularly, where 'reapproval' had to be sought) were taken to the respective subject advisory committees for approval. At this level, the subject advisory committee discussed the courses and made some contribution. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> We don't get trainees to evaluate every class but we get them to evaluate several classes and we compare those. We also discuss with each other what we are doing and with our subject committee. We review our courses and they give us feedback in terms of how they think the courses are going, in terms of quality and relevance, etc. The subject committee's feedback is a very important one, but I guess overall it's a self evaluative process by the people who work in that area. (P 19)

At the time of this investigation, the College was in the process of developing, piloting and refining policies for its internal auditing system (mentioned earlier). Approximately seventy-five percent of the participants at the College (staff) reported that the College was still 'grappling' with its evaluation and assessment procedures. The most recent introductions were peer evaluation (a form of staff appraisal) and 'light sampling' (P 11; P 12).

In the case of peer evaluation, staff participation was voluntary. The procedure involved the volunteer staff member selecting the area(s) in which he or she wished to be evaluated and the peer evaluator(s). The peer evaluator(s) listened to a predetermined lesson then discussed the lesson with the lecturer immediately thereafter. In the excerpt that follows, one participant (College staff) explained the process:

> So far, it has involved individual lecturers getting together, going and sitting in on each other's lectures and writing up an evaluation or appraisal afterwards and sharing it. The lecturer on whom it is being done gets to say what particularly they want to be appraised on. And then the person coming in and doing it makes the notes and shares them afterwards with that particular person. We are still sorting out what we want to get out of these sessions and how to go about doing it.

> I started last year. I had two different people come. The Head of the Department came and watched me take a ... lesson and we talked about it afterwards. Another person came for the ... and did the same and then I went in to see them. So it was a sort of peer thing. (P 20)

'Light sampling' entailed the random selection of either a number of curriculum areas or classes within a course in a particular curriculum area for investigation by designated staff members. Evaluation using this approach was based on student teachers' questionnaires and interviews. During the course of the present study, 'light sampling' was also being piloted. However, one participant (College staff) observed that neither peer evaluation nor 'light sampling' was well received by the College's staff. In the following excerpt, the participant explained:

> At the moment I'm in the process of developing an evaluation policy which keeps being bumped back. It seems at the moment that we will continue with courses being evaluated by departments at the end of each course.... The other thing we would probably get into is light sampling. We'll have someone who will come in either at the end of a block and do a number of curriculum areas or do a number of classes within the same course, and do some light sampling exercise where they do a questionnaire and interview. But that's actually in the discussion stage at the moment. But it's an issue that has been raised by the executive that has been required and will feed into the appraisal developments. Staff appraisal is also very much in the discussion stage. (P 11)

Internally, programme evaluation was conducted at several levels: the departmental level, the senior management level and the College-wide level. Programme evaluation at the departmental level entailed the evaluation of the entire department (all components likely to impact on the programme). Departments were randomly selected and evaluated on their staffing, their courses, their outputs, their emphases, their mode(s) of delivery and their form(s) of student teacher assessment. Departmental evaluations were conducted by teams of middle or senior management staff. One participant (College staff) explained the process thus:

> Also in the College we now have a middle management team whose job it is to conduct departmental assessment. This is a new development. They have already done two departmental assessments. They are chosen at random. They assess the total department on it staffing, its courses, its output, its emphases, its presentation and its student assessments. That is really peer assessment. It's done by peers. But some of the peers will be in middle to senior management in the College. That team assesses the department as a unit. They will report both to the department concerned and senior management of the College. (P 10)

Beyond the departmental level, programme evaluation was also conducted at the senior management level by the Associate Principal with overall responsibility for primary programmes. Each year, the Associate Principal surveyed three student teachers from each of the primary programmes using a standard New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZCER) interview schedule. Beyond these two levels, programme evaluation was also a College-wide exercise involving all staff members. College-wide programme evaluation was informed by course and departmental evaluations and usually took one of two forms: staff forums where programmes were reviewed by the entire staff or internal reviews conducted by a staff member or a committee. Regardless of the form, all staff members had an opportunity to become involved. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained the programme evaluation process at the College-wide level:

> It usually starts off on a College-wide basis and meetings with the whole staff about the whole programme. Changes are mooted ... then committees or small groups take over the planning of the changes. They produce papers which go back to the meetings. And they are discussed. These papers contain the details of what kinds of course changes will be necessary and details to implement the changes. Then it goes on to the departmental level. Lecturers in the same department will meet to look at what the proposed changes mean for their area. (P 21)

Externally, there were also College funded evaluations (for example, Focusing on the End Product, 1992) and independent evaluation research (for example, Renwick and Vize, 1990, 1991, 1992, 1993a, 1993b). These research studies, which included graduates of the institution and teachers and administrators in the schools, provided information which influenced programme changes. Externally, the programme advisory committee (see category one in this chapter) was also involved in programme evaluation. The programme advisory committee recommended and approved programme changes, including the introduction of new programmes.

Although student assessment was not the focus of this investigation, the interviews provided some information on this aspect which the researcher felt should be mentioned. Student teachers were assessed in several ways: attendance, participation and assignments. The College was also in the process of introducing a grading system primarily to satisfy the government's proposed standards based assessment policy (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 1993). In this excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained how student teachers were assessed:

> We work in some ways on a terms basis because students have to attend at least eighty per cent of the course and they have to participate. They can be failed if they're not there, basically. So that sort of put them on base one. They've also got to hand in all their assignments. If they haven't done too well on two and they don't hand the third one in, they fail the course. From there on their assessment is done on whether the assignment meets the provided criteria.... We're in a little bit of a funny position because we've tried to match the University system which is A, B, C, D, etc., because they're doing the B.Ed. If we have too different a system they see the University courses as having higher status. At the same time, we're trying to make them unit standards, units of learning. So we've got to this system of having a five point scale and it works on sort of A, B, C, C-, which is a minimal pass, and D. (P 11)

In addition, the interview data and documentary evidence revealed that the College's data collection and distribution system was inefficient. Lecturers had a two week period at the end of each six week teaching block to submit their grades. The academic registry then processed the information and reports were issued to student teachers. Grades that did not meet the end of block submission deadline did not appear in student teachers' reports. There were always some lecturers who did not meet the deadlines. Consequently, some student teachers received incomplete academic progress reports. This finding was consistent with that documented in the second review of the B.Ed. degree programme (Second Report on the B.Ed., 16 August, 1994). In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained why the data collection and distribution system was inefficient:

> Academic registry are the people who put all the grades on computer and translate them into a course report and this then goes back to the students. If the grades aren't in on time, they don't get them on the computer and students come back with their course reports and grades are missing. And it's not their fault, it's the lecturers' fault. That's a major problem. The students then have to wait until the next block is finished. For some students it's never absolutely accurate until their last six weeks of College. But some of it is student problems. If they don't hand in their work on time then obviously it's not going to come out with that run. (P 37)

Documentary evidence also showed that student teachers' grades were not reaching the academic registry by the prescribed deadlines. The first "Internal Audit Report" (November 3, 1993) carried the following statement about the submission of student teachers' grades:

> 11% of 95 courses were submitted on time. 57% were received within 3 days of the deadline but 21% were too late for inclusion in the report. The final 2% were received 15 days after the deadline. (p. 2)

5.2 Types

The four propositions under this property (5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.2.3 and 5.2.4) focused primarily on the types of evaluation. There were two types of course evaluation: informal and formal. Programme evaluation was a formal process. Course evaluation and programme evaluation were conducted both internally and externally. Peer evaluation and 'light sampling' were the latest additions to the College's evaluation policy. They were being piloted at the time of this investigation (mentioned earlier).

The interview data revealed that, while course and programme evaluation and changes were influenced by internal and external factors, external factors seemed to be more influential. The government's policy and feedback from research conducted in schools were the two primary external forces influencing course and programme changes, while the most influential internal factor was student teachers' evaluation.

As the researcher mentioned earlier, student teachers evaluated the courses using a standard course evaluation form. However, this form was limited in the information it provided. The form carried two items. The first item dealt with the course's objectives; the second (which had three parts) focused on the course's content, organisation and implementation. For the first item, students were asked to evaluate the extent to which the course had assisted them in achieving its objectives on a five point scale of totally (1) to not at all (5). The second item, in its three parts, asked students what they liked about the course, what changes they would like to see and provided space for additional comments. These questions, it seemed, provided neither quantity nor quality information for course improvement and subsequent programme evaluation.

To summarise, in keeping with the hierarchical organisational structure, evaluation was conducted at several levels both internally and externally. Course evaluation was conducted either formally or informally and employed one or more of the following categories of approaches: student teacher, individual or peer evaluation. Externally, courses were evaluated by the subject advisory committees. Programme evaluation was a formal process conducted at the College-wide and system levels. Internally, programme evaluation was informed by course evaluation. External factors were more influential in effecting course and programme changes. At the time of this investigation, the College was in the process of developing, piloting and refining its internal auditing system. Efforts were being made to introduce peer evaluation, 'light sampling', and a new grading system for assessing student teachers' performance.

Category Six: Selection

The three properties and nine propositions related to this category are presented as a full data set in Table 12.

Table 12
Category 6: Selection

Properties	Propositions
6.1 Complexity	6.1.1 Selection is a complex process guided by a formal policy. 6.1.2 Inter-institutional co-operation required for admission, depending on the programme, is problematic.
6.2 Competitiveness	6.2.1 There is no zoning system and prospective student teachers have wide options. 6.2.2 The economic viability of the institution is dependent on the student teacher population. 6.2.3 Open days, personal contact campaigns, and the electronic and print media are the major marketing strategies employed. 6.2.4 There is tension created by commitment to co-operative institutional marketing policy and the need to be competitive.
6.3 Flexibility	6.3.1 Provision is made to accommodate prospective student teachers in the interview process. 6.3.2 There is flexibility to allow for inter-institutional provisional registration. 6.3.3 Prior learning and experience are credited by the College.

6.1 Complexity

The two propositions under this property (6.1.1 and 6.1.2) focused primarily on the nature of the selection process. Selection was another area in which changes had been introduced by the College. These changes were influenced, in part, by the government's policy, as stated in the National Party's Education Manifesto (Joint Working Party Report, 15 August, 1991), that "entry requirements for primary teacher training will be raised from one Sixth Form Certificate subject" (Ibid, p. 3).

Hilltop College of Education had a core policy for the recruitment and selection of student teachers. This policy was established through a number of advisory groups (HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996). These advisory groups were "made up of people with an end-user interest in the programme" (Core

Policy, Recruitment and Selection, 1993, p. 1). The College's core policy for recruitment and selection was a quality assurance measure to ensure the "quality and suitability of students selected and the fairness of the selection process" (HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996, p. 22). This overarching policy stipulated the requirements each of the College's programmes had to meet. The advisory groups also monitored the effect of the policy and made changes annually if necessary.

The entry requirements to pre-service primary teacher training varied by age, type of programme and prior learning experience. For prospective student teachers under twenty years of age, there were national academic criteria established by the six institutions providing teacher education. Prospective student teachers were required to have no more than an average of twenty points across four subject areas in their sixth form certificate and five points or less in English or Maori. For the sixth form certificate, candidates were assessed on a scale of one (1) to nine (9) where one (1) was excellent and nine the lowest rating. Prospective student teachers who were twenty years or older had to apply for special entry. In New Zealand, individuals twenty years or older qualified, automatically, for entry into tertiary institutions (P 10; P 27).

In addition to the academic requirements, there was the criterion of personal suitability. The College determined personal suitability on the basis of two confidential referees' reports, a personal interview and one or more group discussions. Prospective student teachers also had to satisfy the requirements of no criminal record and sound health, while those wishing to do concurrent university study had to satisfy the University's entry requirements (three C's in the bursary examination) or seek provisional registration. The College negotiated provisional registration for student teachers who did not have the necessary entry requirements but wanted to do concurrent university study (P 3; P 5; P 33). However, the process was difficult (P 3; P 27).

The recognition of prior learning was a recent development at Hilltop College of Education. The recognition of prior learning entailed the College's acknowledgement of prospective student teachers' prior learning experiences. A committee appointed by the College assessed and accredited prospective student teachers' prior learning experiences towards their teaching qualification. At the time of this investigation, the College was in the process of developing policy to guide its assessment in this area.

6.2 Competitiveness

Competition in the area of recruitment was the focus of the four propositions (6.2.1, 6.2.2, 6.2.3 and 6.2.4) related to this property. The education reforms introduced competition among tertiary institutions as a means of ensuring 'quality' education (Education Amendment Act 1990). Colleges of education had to compete among themselves and with other tertiary institutions and private providers to attract student teachers. The country was not zoned and prospective student teachers could choose to attend any college of education. Furthermore, the economic viability of colleges of education was linked directly to the number of student teachers they could attract (each student teacher brought funding) and the cost effectiveness of their operations. The underlying message seemed to be that those colleges of education that could produce the product (trained teachers) most cost effectively would be the ones to survive. These issues are revisited in the next chapter.

Prior to the introduction of the education reforms, the colleges of education had conducted recruitment campaigns as a group mainly through the electronic and print media. At the time of this investigation, the need to survive had forced Hilltop College of Education to change its marketing strategy from a co-operative approach to an individual institutional approach. The interview data revealed that the College was using these marketing strategies: open days, personal contact campaigns, and the electronic and print media. All these marketing strategies promoted Hilltop College of Education as the institution where prospective student teachers should begin their teaching careers. The interview data also revealed that the College was developing new policy for recruitment and marketing. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained the College's marketing strategies:

> Our recruitment is going to be a developing area this year and next year. For our major programmes we have quite strong recruitment. For the primary there are two recruitment staff and they, together with staff, go into schools and look at promoting the College to high school students - promoting teaching as a career. There used to be a national policy: things on television, etc. But we've tended not to go for the national advertising; we've tended to go for the individual college promotions. We maintain the overall policy but putting the individual flavour on it. It's a tricky one for us at the moment because we're torn between all the colleges working together and as a team, and competition with each other for students. You see the country isn't zoned. Students may go to which college they like. They have a choice. (P 27)

6.3 Flexibility

The three propositions related to this category (6.3.1, 6.3.2 and 6.3.3) addressed the flexibility in the selection policy. Although the selection process was complex, the procedures used were also flexible particularly where prospective Maori and Polynesian student teachers were concerned. The interview data revealed that prospective Maori student teachers were offered the option of a cultural interview using Maori protocol. For prospective Polynesian student teachers, at least one member of the interview panel had to be a Polynesian. In addition, the recognition of prior learning (discussed under the previous property) was another way in which the selection process demonstrated flexibility. However, the recognition of prior learning seemed to be more applicable to the older prospective student teachers who had some form of prior training or work experience.

Overall, the data related to this category provided valuable information on recruitment and selection at the College. The College's recruitment and selection policy was developed in collaboration with a number of external advisory boards. These advisory boards had a monitoring function and could recommend policy changes annually. Academic pre-requisites for entry into teacher education varied by age and experience. In order to secure entry into teacher training, applicants under twenty years of age had stipulated national academic pre-requisites, while applicants twenty years or over were required to apply for special entry. All applicants had to satisfy the required health and personal criteria stipulated by the College.

Category Seven: Support System

The two categories and nine propositions related to this category (support system) are presented in Table 13.

7.1 Hierarchical

The five propositions under this property (7.1.1, 7.1.2, 7.1.3, 7.1.4 and 7.1.5) focused primarily on the nature of the support system. The interview data and documentary evidence showed that the College had both a formal and informal support system for student teachers. The formal support system (Student Support Services) was guided by policy (HCE Calendar, 1994, pp. 55-60) and functioned on a systems level basis. The student support services provided a wide "range of facilities and advice to improve all student teachers' chances of successful study"

(HCE Calendar, 1994, p. 55). Professional advice and guidance was provided by two Intake Supervisors ('Kaiarahi') and counselling services were provided by two part-time counsellors.

Table 13

Category 7: Support System

Properties	Propositions
7.1 Hierarchical	7.1.1 The College has both a formal and informal student support system. 7.1.2 The formal support system is guided by policy and operates on a systems level basis. 7.1.3 Policy is enforced both formally and informally. 7.1.4 The College's grievance procedure policy functions on a systems level basis. 7.1.5 A variety of support services are provided for student teachers and special provision is made for student teachers of ethnic minority groups.
7.2 Developmental	7.2.1 The College has a policy of staff in-service training. 7.2.2 There are three major types of staff development. 7.2.3 Financial support for staff is limited to assistance for pursuing academic studies. 7.2.4 Peer support is the form of support staff members value most.

While in training, each group of student teachers had an Intake Supervisor. The Intake Supervisor's job was to work in close association with the staff to provide support for student teachers, particularly with regard to their academic programme. The Intake Supervisor also assisted student teachers with personal difficulties and negotiated with staff members on student teachers' behalf on academic and personal matters. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained the role of an Intake Supervisor:

> The position is called 'Kaiarahi'. It means a caregiver. The position involves administration tasks ... organise the classes for a generation each year, working out their time-tables, negotiating individual time-tables for those doing part-time university work, granting short-term leave for the trainees, providing support for them. Support involves helping them with their emotional problems - strife in their life, stress in their life, advising them about what to do about certain things, negotiating for them with staff members, sometimes assisting them with appealing grades that they have been awarded by staff, any conflict that they have with staff - trying to negotiate and resolve that, and monitoring their progress when they get fails or have a number of fails. (P 39)

In addition to the Intake Supervisors, all staff members served as academic advisors. Each student teacher was assigned an academic advisor who provided advice on academic matters. The academic advisors also served as support persons for student teachers. In addition, the Director of Degree Programmes provided support for student teachers doing concurrent university study. Wherever it was necessary, the Director of Degree Programmes negotiated provisional entrance to the University and assisted student teachers in obtaining release time to attend University lectures.

The Manager of the Student Support Services supervised all student welfare operations. Beyond that level, there was the Director of Primary Programmes, the Dean of Student Services and the Principal, in that order, to complete the formal hierarchical support structure. This hierarchical structure was especially important where student teachers' grievances were concerned.

The aforementioned forms of support services constituted the College's formal student teachers' support system. However, there was also the informal student teachers' support system. The informal support system included support provided by the Maori Studies Department through the marae, support provided by individual lecturers, support provided by the Hilltop College of Education Teacher Trainees' Association and peer support. For student teachers, the most valued form of support was peer support (mentioned earlier).

The interview data revealed that most student teachers were aware of the support services available to them. However, there were some student teachers who were unaware of the different types of support services available to them. The following statements (by student teachers) substantiated these observations:

> All the lecturers are supportive. You can go to any one of them and they'll help you. And we've also got our system of advisors. And they oversee your academic work. And if you're having problems they'll sort of help you and listen to you. That's really good. And tutors, to a certain extent, are helpful. (P 43)
>
> I don't know that there's actually any structure set up, but lecturers always stress that if you need help you can come and see them. You can go to the marae, and that's a sort of structure in itself. I suppose you can call it a structure, but there's no official structure. (P 44)
>
> We've got a couple of counsellors and you can go and talk to them at any time. Sometimes if it's something to do with the College and pressures of work, you might not want to talk to a tutor about that, you might want to talk to someone else. Apart from them I'm not actually sure what is in place for students if they feel they need someone to talk to. (P 48)

> Although it's changing, I still feel that there is a lot of support. There's a lot of caring. There are also counsellors and the health service. (P 50)

7.2 Developmental

Staff development is an important dimension particularly where educational organisations are implementing change. Under this property, the four propositions (7.2.1, 7.2.2, 7.2.3 and 7.2.4) focused on staff development. With regard to staff development, the College had a core policy for in-service training (Staff Development Core Policy, 1993). This policy included the principles, the procedures, the approval structure and the source of funding. While the document stated that staff development should be "driven by demonstrated needs, funded and undertaken according to priorities set from time to time by the executive" (Ibid, p. 1), the responsibility for executing the policy was the domain of the Associate Principal of Corporate Services. However, proposals for staff development had to be approved by the staff development committee. The staff development committee consisted of the following members: "Manager: Staff Development, ASTE representative, non teaching staff representative, Directors' representative, Executive representative" (Ibid, p. 2).

While the formal policy suggested that staff development was guided by the principles set out therein, in actuality, the interview data revealed that the staff development policy was not being implemented in accordance with these principles. For example, the interview data suggested that staff preparation (training) for tutoring and lecturing roles in the B.Ed. degree programme was not seen as a priority by the College. Hence, no pre-implementation training was provided for staff (see Chapter Eight for a more detailed discussion). An important question raised by this researcher was: Why was staff development for implementing the B.Ed. degree programme not seen as a priority?

The interview data revealed that there were three primary avenues for staff development: the formal staff development system provided by the College, the academic subjects' meetings and a personal development plan. The formal staff development policy has already been mentioned. The academic subjects' meetings, held periodically, provided opportunities for staff members within the same subject area to: (a) share information on recent developments in research; (b) report on conferences they had attended; and (c) discuss new developments within their respective subject areas.

Staff members could also organise their own personal development plans. Generally, the personal development plan took the form of university study. At the time of this investigation, several staff members (seven) had either recently completed their degrees or were working towards completing their degrees (bachelors, masters' and doctorates). There were also other staff members who had either started or were planning to start university study. While the College provided financial support for university study (sixty percent of the tuition cost), no release time support was offered. Several participants (College staff) expressed concern about the lack of release time support. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) gave his perspective on the matter:

> If they want to hold on to their jobs they must engage in master's and honours programmes and many of the younger teachers have seen this.... There is a dramatic increase in the amount of personal study being undertaken by College staff. I don't think this is being strongly enough supported by our College itself. I think we should have a strong agreement to provide far more support, both financial support and time support, to permit people who are on the staff to engage in postgraduate studies, so that they can get the qualifications in two or three years up to a level where the University is willing to credential them. (P 3)

In addition to university study, the personal development plan had two other dimensions: peer appraisal (evaluation) and conferences. Through peer appraisal, opportunities existed for staff members to develop personal development plans in the area of pedagogy. Some staff members had begun to use the peer appraisal system which was being piloted while this study was in progress. However, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, most staff members were not receptive to the idea of peer appraisal.

With regard to conferences, the *HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996* carried the following statement: "Academic staff are ... supported in approved professional development activities such as conferences of relevant professional bodies" (p. 20). However, the interview data showed that, in actuality, the College did not provide the level of support suggested in this statement. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) demonstrated the point:

> An area that I think the College's resources is not good enough is that we need to go to various conferences. Like the ... conferences, you need to be a contributor. The Colleges need to be there, but it's part of your job. At the same time you want to go to research things and perhaps the College thinks that is part of your development. And to actually be funded to these things is usually a personal outlay. I find that quite difficult to deal with because if you're not part of the network then you don't keep up-to-date. I'm not saying you fly around the

> world, but I think that the colleges are in a difficult position that they are now sort of affiliated with the universities but not with those same conditions. And it's very difficult. Say I want to go to the ... Education Conference in ..., I'll basically have to pay for half of it myself. So I have to choose really carefully what year I'm going. I see that as really difficult. Yet I know if I don't go I won't be doing my job quite well enough. That's really one area where I feel quite unhappy about. (P 11)

The data presented under this category focused on the support mechanisms, both formal and informal, provided by the College for staff and student teachers. The researcher noted that there were differences in the level of awareness among student teachers with regard to the number and type of support services provided by the College. In keeping with the hierarchical organisational structure, the policy governing the formal support mechanism modelled a systems level approach. In the area of staff development, this study demonstrated that the policy was not being implemented in accordance with its principles.

Category Eight: Relationship

The two properties and six propositions related to this category are presented as a full data set in Table 14.

Table 14
Category 8: Relationship

Properties	Propositions
8.1 Inter-institutional	8.1.1 There is a close working relationship between the College and the primary schools, particularly the normal and model schools. 8.1.2 There are several levels of relationship between the primary schools and the College. 8.1.3 The teacher secondment programme between the primary schools and the College has been jeopardised by the new education policy. 8.1.4 The College has a tradition of a working relationship with Belmont University.
8.2 Community	8.2.1 There is College-community involvement at several levels. 8.2.2 Community involvement is a requirement under the Education Amendment Act 1990.

8.1 Inter-institutional

The four propositions under this property (8.1.1, 8.1.2, 8.1.3 and 8.1.4) were concerned with the College's relationship with other educational organisations. The College's model of teacher education had two major components: institutionalised training and 'in school' training. These two components were offered concurrently over the course of the training programmes. The 'in school' training entailed school postings for specified periods each year. As a result, the College developed a good working relationship with the schools, particularly the normal and model schools as several participants (College staff) observed (for example, P 2; P 4; P 11; P 23; P 24; P 46).

Over the years, the College had established close working relationships with four normal and three model schools. The normal schools were used mainly to demonstrate teaching methods for student teachers and to provide opportunities for them to put theory into practice. The model schools were used in a similar way but two of them were model country schools, the other was a model city school. Generally, the model schools were used to expose student teachers to different teaching environments.

There were several levels of relationship between the College and the schools. First, there was the relationship at the management level between the Principals of the schools and the College's management. At this level, matters such as the College's programmes (in relation to what the schools required), 'in school' training and beginning teachers' performance were addressed. Secondly, there was the relationship with the teaching staff. The College had staff liaison personnel whose job was to liaise with the schools and the associate teachers to ensure that there was a certain level of co-operation, particularly in the area of 'in school' training. Thirdly, prior to the introduction of the education reforms, the College operated a two year secondment programme whereby one practising primary teacher was seconded biennially to work at the College. This scheme was discontinued because schools could not afford to release teachers under the new system of educational management. Finally, the College also had a relationship with the schools through its Advanced Studies for Teachers (ASTE) training programme. Through this programme, the College offered advanced training for certified practising teachers.

Hilltop College of Education and Belmont University had a tradition of a working relationship which spanned many years. Prior to the affiliation and the introduction of the joint B.Ed. degree programme, the College had an arrangement with the University whereby student teachers could do concurrent university study towards a Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) degree. This arrangement, made in 1987 (see Chapter Seven), was mainly structural and aspects of the College's programme (for example, the block system and 'in school' training) were not accommodated by the

University. However, graduates of the College's Diploma of Teaching programme were offered seven unspecified credits towards a degree. This relationship, among other factors, helped to facilitate the affiliation and the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme.

8.2 Community

The two propositions under this property (8.2.1 and 8.2.2) were concerned with community involvement. The College had a long tradition of some community involvement in its operations, particularly through its 'in school' training. However, with the introduction of the Education Amendment Act 1990, community involvement in the operations of the College (at specified levels) became a policy requirement. Consequently, there was increased community involvement. The required levels of community involvement, stipulated by the new education policy, were specified in the College's Charter and Statement of Objectives. At the time of this investigation, the wider community was involved in the operations of the College at several levels, including governance. There were community representatives on the College Council, the Subject Advisory Committees had community representatives, and membership of the Programme Advisory Committees was drawn mainly from industrial, employer and professional groups (HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996).

Generally, the community representatives were involved in policy formulation and in monitoring the quality of the College's operations (for example, the College's policy for the recruitment and selection of student teachers). Community representatives also served in advisory and approval capacities (for example, providing advice on course content, and approving courses and programmes). In short, community involvement was one means of ensuring that the institution was accountable according to the terms of its Charter and Statement of Objectives. The community's involvement was also a quality assurance measure.

Overall, the data related to this category revealed that Hilltop College of Education had several types of inter-institutional relationships. Over the years, the College had developed good working relationships with the primary schools and Belmont University. The relationship with the primary schools facilitated the practical component of the College's programmes. Through the College's relationship with Belmont University, student teachers were able to undertake concurrent university study. Traditionally, the College had always allowed for some community involvement in its operations. However, the Education Amendment Act

1990 brought increased community involvement in the operations of the College. Increased community involvement constituted a 'built in' quality assurance measure in the new education policy. Generally, community involvement included policy formulation and monitoring, and advisory and approval functions.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher presented data to give a general overview of the provision of pre-service primary teacher education. In presenting the data, the researcher focused mainly on the changes introduced by the College. The data were presented systematically, working through the eight categories and related properties and propositions in accordance with the grounded theory approach. The interview data and documentary evidence revealed that the first four years of the 1990s was a period of continuous change for Hilltop College of Education. During that time, the College had instituted administrative, structural and programme changes. There was a business approach to management, the College had become an autonomous organisation and there were greater demands for quality and accountability. All the changes instituted by the College constituted an attempt to conform to the government's education policy and to put its operations 'on par' with other colleges of education in order to survive as a provider of teacher education.

Before the mandated administrative changes could be consolidated, the College was faced with the daunting prospect of having to be more competitive on the open market in order to survive. Concerns such as the ability to attract prospective student teachers, the need to offer a degree programme, the need to improve the bargaining power of its graduates on the job market and the possibility of a forced merger loomed high. The College's bid to survive picked up momentum with informal talks between two key players (one at the College, the other at the University). Two changes were subsequently introduced inter-institutionally. The survival process is tracked through these two change events in the next two chapters.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DATA PRESENTATION PART TWO: THE SUBSTANTIVE THEORY OF SURVIVAL

INTRODUCTION

In Chapter Five, the researcher presented the four categories ('Initiation', 'Preparation', 'Negotiation' and 'Implementation') in the survival process and their related properties and propositions. Through these four categories and related properties and propositions (which focus primarily on the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University), the researcher traces the survival process and develops the substantive theory of survival in this chapter and the succeeding one. The data presentation on the survival process serves two purposes. First, the data presentation explicates the purpose, context and process of change as it focuses on the two most recent innovations in the provision of pre-service primary teacher education at Hilltop College of Education. Secondly, the data presentation explicates how Hilltop College of education was responding to the rapidly changing environment in order to ensure its survival as a provider of pre-service primary teacher education. In essence, the College's response to the rapidly changing environment in which it had to operate was to introduce changes in the provision of pre-service primary teacher education in order to ensure its survival. Hence, there was a direct relationship between the changes introduced in the provision of pre-service primary teacher education and the College's survival.

Data related to the survival process and the substantive theory of survival from the antecedents to the third category, 'Negotiation', are presented in this chapter. The researcher completes the theoretical presentation in the next chapter where data related to the last category, 'Implementation', are presented. The researcher presents the data in two chapters for these reasons. First, in keeping with change theory (see Chapter Three), data related to the survival process from the antecedents to the negotiations constitute the pre-implementation phase. Secondly, the division in the data presentation allows for easier assimilation by the reader.

The data presentation in this chapter begins with the antecedents because the provision of teacher education and the changes associated with it are all context specific. Several authors (for example, Pearson, 1989; Goodlad, 1990; Tisher & Wideen, 1990; Hargreaves, 1994) observe that teacher education cannot be understood in isolation from its context. Therefore, the researcher begins the data presentation by explicating the context through an examination of the antecedent events. Although the antecedent events have been mentioned in some of the preceding chapters, the researcher believes that, by explicating the context, the reader will get a better understanding of the origin and purpose of the survival process from which the substantive theory is derived. At the same time, in the process of explicating the context, the researcher lays the foundation for the presentation of the substantive theory of survival. As the data are presented, the researcher builds the theoretical survival process model along the way.

The substantive theory of survival is specific to the institution under investigation. The data are presented using a combination of codified properties and propositions and running theoretical discussion (approaches suggested by Glaser & Strauss, 1967). For ease of presentation, the researcher uses a linear approach but, in actuality, the survival process is complex and the categorical stages are all interrelated. The key learnings derived from each property and the developmental levels of conceptual processing associated with each category are also included in the data presentation.

The Context

In the preceding chapter, the researcher noted that change in pre-service primary teacher education in New Zealand was influenced mainly by external forces. Those forces included education policy (see, for example, Learning for Life I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Learning for Life II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Education Amendment Act 1990), the marketability of graduates, international trends in teacher education and research in teacher education. While all these forces exerted influence on teacher education, in varying degrees, the political factor appeared to be the most influential, through the system-wide education reforms (Education Act 1989; Education Amendment Act 1990) and the subsequent developments following those reforms. These major antecedent events, in part, created the context in which the College had to operate as a provider of teacher education. In this chapter, the researcher presents data which revealed that, in a climate of rapid social, economic, political and educational change, where only the most economically viable educational institutions could hope to secure continued existence, the College's move to effect inter-institutional affiliation and programme changes was essentially a bid to survive. The major antecedents are discussed briefly in the succeeding sub-sections.

Education Policy

The changes brought by the education reforms in New Zealand during the late 1980s were outlined in the first two chapters of this thesis. However, to give a holistic overview of the antecedent events (history is an important factor), the researcher recounts the major changes.

The education reforms from the late 1980s onwards necessitated some of the most unprecedented changes at the colleges of education. Essentially, the government's policy emphasised job specific training, a contract for operating (in the form of a charter) and accountability (by adhering to their charters and achieving their goals). In addition, colleges of education no longer held a monopoly on teacher education. Based on the New Right philosophy of the New Zealand Treasury (Government Management, Vol. 2, Education Issues, 1987), teacher education had become an open market: other tertiary institutions (and private providers) could also provide teacher education. The underlying message was that the institutions that could produce the commodity (trained teachers) most cost effectively would be the ones to survive. In essence, each college of education had to satisfy its major financier that it was a viable educational enterprise in order to continue its operations. At the same time, economic viability was dependent on the quality of the training provided and the marketability of graduates. At Hilltop College of Education, the changing context of the environment forced a critical look at the quality of its programmes, its ability to attract student teachers and the marketability of its graduates.

The Marketability of Graduates

The interview data revealed that graduates of Hilltop College of Education were disadvantaged in two ways. First, it was becoming increasingly difficult for graduates of the College to compete on the job market with graduates from other institutions who were graduating with two qualifications: a Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree and a Diploma of Teaching certificate. Secondly, the local University was only granting an unspecified credit of seven papers (one third of a degree) for the Diploma of Teaching qualification, while there were other colleges of education where student teachers were graduating with credits to at least two thirds of a degree. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> The students at this College were disadvantaged in the relationship with the University and the amount of credit they got compared with the B.Ed. in other colleges.... There was an equity issue in that students could do a national qualification for three years and some would leave their college with two-thirds of a degree and others would leave with thirty-six credits, a third, in recognition of what they had done. (P 2)

The marketability of graduates could also be examined at another level: its relationship to institutional funding and, by extension, institutional survival. With the introduction of the education reforms, teacher education had become a free market (mentioned earlier). The amount of funding an institution received was dependent on the size of its student population. However, student teachers were no longer entitled to an allowance from the government while in training. Additionally, they had to pay tuition fees and they no longer had guaranteed job placements on completion of their training. At the same time, prospective student teachers could attend any institution in the country. Hence, it was likely that student teachers would opt to attend the institution that could provide an advantage on the job market. Unless Hilltop College of Education could compete effectively to attract a sufficient number of student teachers and have a guaranteed level of funding, its survival as a provider of teacher training was precarious.

Prior to the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme, the College and Belmont University had entered into an arrangement in 1987 whereby student teachers could do concurrent university study towards a Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) degree (Proposal for Joint University - Teachers' College Degree, 27 July, 1987). In addition, some student teachers also had the opportunity to work towards a Bachelor of Science (B.Sc.) or a Bachelor of Music (B.Mus.) degree. However, this arrangement posed certain difficulties.

The College and the University were two separate entities with different types of operations and the different components of the College's programmes (for example, 'in school' training and the block system) were not taken into account by the University in this arrangement. Although the University began to offer lectures in two of its courses on the College's campus in 1992, student teachers doing concurrent university study still had to organise release time to attend lectures at the University. Several participants (College staff) mentioned this problem (P 2; P 3; P 4; P 12; P 27; P 46). In addition, it was difficult for student teachers to attend lectures when they were doing their practicum in the schools. Under those conditions, it was difficult for student teachers to complete both qualifications while in training; hence, the B.Ed. degree programme was seen as a necessary introduction. However, the interview data revealed that the B.Ed. degree programme did not eradicate this problem. For some student teachers, release time was still an issue (P 3; P 47).

International Trends in Teacher Education

Internationally, there were at least two predominant directions in which teacher education seemed to be moving. First, there seemed to be an increasing trend to make teaching (including primary) a graduate profession. The second predominant trend was the amalgamation (or in some cases closure) of tertiary institutions, particularly those involved in teacher education. This trend, which was evident in a number of countries (for example, Australia, Britain and the United States), was influenced mainly by the fact that small tertiary institutions were not considered to be economically viable.

In the present study, these two predominant international trends exerted some influence on Hilltop College of Education with regard to its affiliation with Belmont University. The results of this study suggested that Hilltop College of Education rationalised that it would be better to negotiate the terms of the affiliation with Belmont University than to face the possibility of a forced amalgamation by the government. Hilltop College of Education was the only college of education in 1991 with no provision for offering a B.Ed. degree programme. However, the B.Ed. degree programme, implemented in 1993, was introduced as the reason for the affiliation (P 5; P 46).

Research in Teacher Education

Research in teacher education (both internal and external to the institution) has influenced programme changes and the College's philosophy of teacher education. Internally, the most influential research in teacher education was the extensive review of primary teacher education programmes (Review of Primary Programmes Report, 1992). The most influential external research studies were Renwick and Vize's longitudinal study (1990, 1991, 1992, 1993a, 1993b) and John Goodlad's (1990) report on the investigation of teacher education programmes in the United States. While the internal review involved mainly the staff of the institution, the Renwick and Vize study focused on student teachers from three New Zealand colleges of education (including Hilltop College of Education).

One of the most significant findings of Renwick and Vize's (1990, 1991, 1992, 1993a, 1993b) study was that graduates felt the College's programme was not academically rigorous and challenging, while the primary programmes review (Review of Primary Programmes Report, 1992) recommended the restructuring of the primary programmes. Documentary evidence and interview data showed that those two studies influenced changes in the College's primary programmes (The Future Shape of the Primary Programme, 1993). The College also adopted the nineteen postulates for teacher education programmes proposed by John Goodlad (1990) as guidelines (see Appendix C). In the following excerpt (interview data), one participant (College staff) mentioned the influence of research studies:

> When we looked at modifying our programme we had a lot of research data from the Margery Renwick-June Vize NZCER research about what the students valued and how their attitudes had changed. And we participated very fully in that process and we had regular feedbacks from the researchers to the staff about how the students saw the programme.... We also have found quite helpful some of the reviews done in America. For example, the work of John Goodlad has influenced us in the way that we have approached changes to specify what the knowledge, skills, values, attitudes are. (P 2)

The Survival Process Model

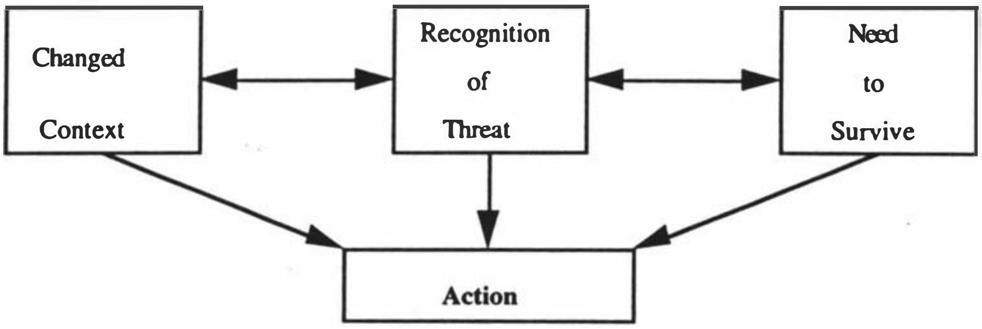


Figure 7. The context of the survival process.

The antecedents discussed by the researcher constituted the context in which the College had to operate. The discussion also indicated that the events or change forces were exerting their influence both independently and in varying combinations to force the institution to examine its position and the likelihood of its continued existence. From the data analysis (of interview and documentary evidence), the researcher developed the substantial theory of survival which posits that, essentially, the College had to institute changes if it wanted to survive as a provider of teacher education in the prevailing competitive, uncertain and changing environment.

Furthermore, the changes instituted in the provision of pre-service primary teacher education by the College were intended to ensure its survival. In Figure 7, the researcher captures the context in which the survival process began. The researcher presents data related to the first step in the survival process in the next section.

Category 1: Initiation

In keeping with the grounded theory approach, the two properties and six propositions under this category are presented as a full data set in Table 15.

Table 15
Category 1: Initiation

Properties	Propositions
1.1 Coercive	1.1.1 The political factor seemed to be the most influential in the change process. 1.1.2 The College seemed to have been covertly pressured to establish closer relations with the University.
1.2 Instrumental	1.2.1 Key people in both institutions were the primary initiators. 1.2.2 Key people in both institutions had assessed the changing educational environment, were aware of its implications and moved to take action. 1.2.3 A history of a good working relationship between both institutions and close relationships among senior staff at both institutions facilitated the process. 1.2.4 Initiation was characterised by informal and formal discussions between and among key players and efforts to sensitise management and staff at both institutions to the need for change.

1.1 Coercive

The two propositions (1.1.1 and 1.1.2) related to this property were concerned mainly with the major driving force behind initiation. In the previous section, the researcher mentioned the antecedents which influenced the introduction of the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University. Of the factors mentioned, the government's policy seemed to be the most influential. Approximately seventy-five percent of the participants at the College (staff) cited the political factor as the primary driving force behind the aforementioned changes. The following statement, by one participant (College staff), was representative:

> I think that one of the factors was the initiative the government took. The Minister of Education said that he wanted the colleges of

> education and the universities to amalgamate. I think that was one of the factors that influenced the development of the B.Ed. (P 9)

Management at the College was aware of the implications of the government's policy (National Party Manifesto, 1990, cited in The Question of Affiliation - A Starting Position, 18 April, 1991; Learning for Life I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Learning for Life II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Education Amendment Act 1990) given the prevailing competitive and changing environment in which the institution had to operate. Management was also aware of the government's power to impose amalgamation or some form of affiliation if the College were reluctant to move in the suggested direction. In the following excerpt, one participant at the College (staff) explained how he perceived the situation:

> The fact that we entered into the faculty relationship ... was prompted by the new National Government. The new government said that colleges of education would work in association with the universities. And I believe that the new government could do that, as they did in other countries, like Australia and in Britain, where they had forced amalgamations. I thought it would be useful if we established something with ... University that we wanted rather than something that was forced upon us. So we entered into the negotiations. (P 46)

Documentary evidence also suggested that the political factor was the major driving force:

> Nevertheless, while we understand that the government prefers that institutions make their own arrangements and recognises that these will and should differ because of variations in local circumstances and traditions, there could be a time limit to this patience. We would therefore be well advised to do as much as we can to clarify and strengthen our relationship while we are still to a large extent in control of the process. At present there is an opportunity for us to influence the outcome. Especially if economic considerations become predominant and there appears to be an urgent need to amalgamate educational institutions in order to achieve economies, the process may become government-driven. (Joint Working Party Report, 15 August, 1991, p. 4)

The government's policy seemed to be a form of subtle coercion. The two initiators (the Chairperson of the Department of Education at the University; the Principal/Chief Executive Officer at the College), having assessed the situation and its implications, acknowledged the government's power to effect change and moved to take action. Initially, action took the form of informal talks and discussions between the two initiators. These informal talks and discussions then progressed to the level of formality. The initial group of two later increased to include other

Although a number of other influential factors were identified, the interview data and documentary evidence suggested that it was unlikely that any one of those factors or even a combination of them could have exerted as much influence as the major financier's policy (the government) to push the College in the direction it took and with the urgency with which it was undertaken. The influence of the political factor was also demonstrated by the fact that the College was determined to continue with the Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) degree arrangement for as long as possible. One participant (College staff) mentioned that the wide choice offered by the B.A. degree was one of the reasons why the College had persisted with the B.A. Barring the political factor, perhaps the B.Ed. degree programme might not have been introduced in 1993. One participant (College staff) made this observation:

> If I can look at the question from the point of view of why we moved so slowly switching to the B.Ed. was that we believed strongly that people should have an opportunity to major in things other than education. They could choose to major in education but also they could choose to major in history or mathematics or other things. With the other B.Ed.'s in New Zealand, it was not possible for them to major in anything else but education.... We feel that we've been able to preserve, in our B.Ed., some of the things which made us stick with a B.A. in the past. (P 46)

Table 16

Property 1.1 Coercive - Key Learnings from the Survival Process

---

1. Awareness of the implications of prevailing climatic events is a critical factor in initiating the survival process.
2. Strong leadership, particularly the individual who is proactive, is a key factor in initiating (and sustaining) the survival process.
3. The need to survive is fundamental to setting the survival process (change process) in motion. This is especially evident where power is a factor.
4. Survival involves change and the nature of the survival process is influenced by the context.

In the final analysis, the findings of this study indicated that both changes (the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation) appeared to be means to an end for the College and the University's Department of Education. For the College, it was a question of trying to survive as an autonomous tertiary institution and a provider of teacher education in an uncertain and volatile environment. The primary initiators at both institutions recognised their needs and moved to take action. The issues here were essentially those of survival, power and control, and the freedom to choose the form of affiliation that both institutions would like to have. A summary of the key learnings about the survival process derived from the property 'Coercive' is presented in Table 16.

1.2 Instrumental

The four propositions under this category (1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.2.3 and 1.2.4) were concerned with the role of the key persons involved in initiation and the nature of the initiation process itself. The factors that influenced the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation were the passive change forces. They provided the bases for an assessment of the situation by the two initiators: the Principal/Chief Executive Officer of the College and the Chairperson of the Department of Education at the University. The two initiators then took action. At the College, the Principal/Chief Executive Officer (with the support of the executive and senior management), assumed the responsibility of promoting the proposed changes intra- and inter- institutionally and to the wider community. At the University, the Chairperson of the Department of Education was responsible for convincing the Department of Education and the University's hierarchy that the proposed changes were worthwhile initiatives. The fact that the changes were ultimately instituted suggested that the two initiators understood well the implications of the passive change forces for their respective institutions and functioned with a certain degree of success, perhaps by virtue of their offices.

The B.Ed. degree programme seemed to be an adjunct to what both initiators were trying to secure, as the following statement, by one participant (College staff), suggested:

> If we were going into some sort of relationship with the University, why were we doing it? We had to deliver something. And we felt it was time for us to look at the B.Ed. (P 46)

Both initiators, it seemed, rationalised that if they were going to establish closer relations they must have some common interest. As mentioned earlier, compared with other colleges of education, Hilltop College of Education was the only one, at the time the formal negotiations began (1991), with no plans for offering a B.Ed. degree programme and there was some concern that the graduates were disadvantaged. The feeling was that the College should move in that direction. Without a B.Ed. degree programme, the College's bargaining power was limited, compared with other colleges of education. Several participants mentioned the relationship between funding, student numbers and the College's survival (for example, P 2; P 3; P 17; P 24; P 41). In this excerpt, one participant (College staff) highlighted the relationship:

> Furthermore, the funding of teachers' colleges depends upon recruiting sufficient numbers of trainees. The higher the roll the more money you get because each student brings an EFTS.... The more people you have in your college the more funds you get. How you spend that money is over to the college. We are free standing. If we can't attract students we will not survive. (P 10)

The University's Department of Education was the one with which the College had been mostly involved over the years. However, the important question for the researcher was: Why did the University's Department of Education want to affiliate with the College at this time? The interview data and documentary evidence suggested that there were several factors influencing the Department of Education in that direction. First, there was the issue of autonomy. It seemed that the Chairperson of the Department of Education (a department in the Faculty of Arts) saw affiliation with the College as an opportunity for the Department to gain greater autonomy through the creation of a Faculty of Education. From this perspective, there were issues of power and control involved.

Secondly, the initiator in the University's Department of Education felt that the Department should become more involved in teacher education. There had been some concern that the Department did not have a strong teaching-practice link in its education courses, compared with other New Zealand universities. Although, over the years, student teachers at the College had taken education courses offered by the University's Department of Education, they were not an integral part of their training programme (not designed specifically for student teachers). Consequently, the Department of Education had been considering reviewing its programmes and the affiliation was seen as an opportunity for introducing change and to become more involved in teacher education. In these excerpts, two participants (College and University staff) explained:

> There was concern that this particular University didn't have a strong teaching basis and that their B.A. education papers were not as closely linked to the teaching-learning process as in other universities. So, they wanted to look at what was offering as well. And also they had had a very dynamic Professor of Education, Professor ..., who was exploring effecting change in the Education Department. (P 2)

> ... was a trained teacher and taught for six years and that was personally important because ... could never see why we would have education departments at universities which weren't also teacher

> education departments .... So ... began talking to ... around August 1990 and it must have been around May 1991 that ... finally got the University to fully support the initiative .... (P 5)

Finally, there was the issue of funding. The B.Ed. degree programme was seen as a guaranteed source of funding for the University's Department of Education, a means whereby it could make accurate predictions for projected student numbers and a means of ensuring its survival (securing enough funding to continue its operations). The importance of the B.Ed. degree programme to the Department of Education in the area of funding was reflected in this statement, by one participant (University staff):

> We live in very uncertain times and I think that for a Department of Education in a Faculty of Arts, ... the more universities are oriented towards vocational education the more that position would be threatened within the Faculty of Arts.... Over fifty per cent of our Faculty of Arts students do really what are known as "service courses". We have very few majors in education as such; they tend to be just courses that people take for interest. That was the B.A. It was a question of saying, "How can we extend so that if in fact our numbers declined in the B.A. we will have numbers elsewhere?" and the B.Ed. was clearly an example of how that can be done. (P 5)

The choice of a conjoint B.Ed. degree programme as opposed to a conjoint B.A. degree programme did not have unanimous support among participants at the College (staff). The Joint Working Party's recommendation of the B.Ed. degree programme was based on the following potential advantages: (a) an enhanced professional education for prospective teachers; (b) greater choice in course options for student teachers; (c) the creation of joint research and development initiatives; (d) the development of a more integrated professional understanding for staff of both institutions; and (e) enhanced co-operation in the planning of courses between staff of both institutions (Joint Working Party Report, 15 August, 1991). However, it seemed that the primary reason for the College's choice of the B.Ed. degree programme was "to facilitate a partnership with the two organisations through an education faculty" (B.Ed. Discussions, 1992, p. 1).

While some participants (College staff) supported the choice of a B.Ed. degree programme (P 2; P 3; P 5; P 12; P 19), there were others who felt that student teachers had been denied the academic scope and choice offered by a B.A. degree (P 4; P 6; P 14; P 17; P 18; P 21; P 24; P 25). The following statements (by College staff) reflected the differing opinions among participants:

> I think that potentially the B.Ed. could be an excellent degree with the purpose of preparing the trainee ... for the task in the classroom. (P 36)

> There is a narrowing of the focus of teacher education from the breadth that an Arts degree offers to a much more specific concentration on educational theory. (P 21)

Some participants (College staff) also questioned the philosophy of studying education as a discipline, as the following statement demonstrated:

> I guess the philosophical problem for me is about the notion of studying education, as such, anyway. It's an abstract notion. I have difficulty accepting that our students can study educational theory and ideas without connecting that to a body of knowledge like history or music or any other. (P 18)

Documentary evidence also showed that concerns were expressed by College staff and student teachers about the scope of the B.Ed. degree and the choice it offered (Memorandum Re Proposed B.Ed., 15 October, 1991; Hilltop College of Education Teacher Trainees' Association Issues Paper, 21 October, 1991; Memorandum Re B.Ed. Degree, 26 October, 1991; Memorandum Re B.Ed. Degree, 17 March, 1992).

The interview data and documentary evidence revealed that, as the number of key actors increased, the initiation of the changes (through which the researcher traced the survival process) was characterised mainly by informal and formal discussions between management at both institutions (the College and the Department of Education at the University). Position papers were written by management of the respective institutions (for example, Belmont University Department of Education Development Plan, 1990; Future Relations with Belmont University - A Background Paper, 8 November, 1990) and these were discussed both intra- and inter- institutionally at the management level.

At this initial stage, once the two initiators felt that they had gained enough support to 'push through' the changes and the initiator in the University's Department of Education had succeeded in convincing key people in the University's hierarchy that the proposed initiatives were worthwhile, the survival process (change process) moved into its second stage. At that stage, the College began to work vigorously in preparation for the negotiations. For the College, the survival process had begun in earnest. At the other end, the Chairperson of the University's Department of Education also had to prepare for formal negotiations with the University's hierarchy to canvass support at that level. The two events: establishing the Faculty (the structure representative of inter-institutional affiliation) and introducing the B.Ed.

degree programme, were interrelated. Hence, the preparation for both events proceeded concurrently. In Table 17, the researcher lists the key learnings about the survival process derived from the property, 'Instrumental'.

Table 17

Property 1.2 Instrumental - Key Learnings from the Survival Process

1. The need to survive is driven by the context and precedes and guides the selection of the means of survival.
2. The survival process is facilitated by the strategies utilised, what the institutions want and the ability of the initiators to influence people, particularly those in positions of power.
3. The survival process is evolutionary.

The data presented under this category revealed that the College saw the government's policy as a threat to its continued existence, particularly where its autonomy was concerned. Both institutions wanted to maintain control over the affiliation process and moved to take action to prevent the government's interference. At the same time, the proposed affiliation and the B.Ed. degree programme were means whereby the College could fulfil other needs such as providing its graduates with a more recognised qualification and improving its competitive ability in the marketplace. In the case of the University's Department of Education, it seemed to be a means of securing autonomy, ensuring a guaranteed source of funding, becoming more involved in teacher education and ensuring survival. Initiation was mainly politically driven and there were complex issues of identity, power and control involved. At the same time, the government's policy was driven by concerns about the financial viability of small tertiary institutions. An important observation was that initiation had come from the 'top' (management) and the process was driven by members of both institutions who had the power and influence to get change instituted. The University's Department of Education also had its own agenda. Hence, the stage was set for the key players in both institutions to set the survival process in motion. However, in this study the researcher focused on change in the provision of pre-service primary teacher education by Hilltop College of Education as it tried to ensure its survival. Therefore, the data presentation is related primarily to Hilltop College of Education. The survival process model with the additional first step, 'Initiation', is presented in Figure 8.

The Survival Process Model

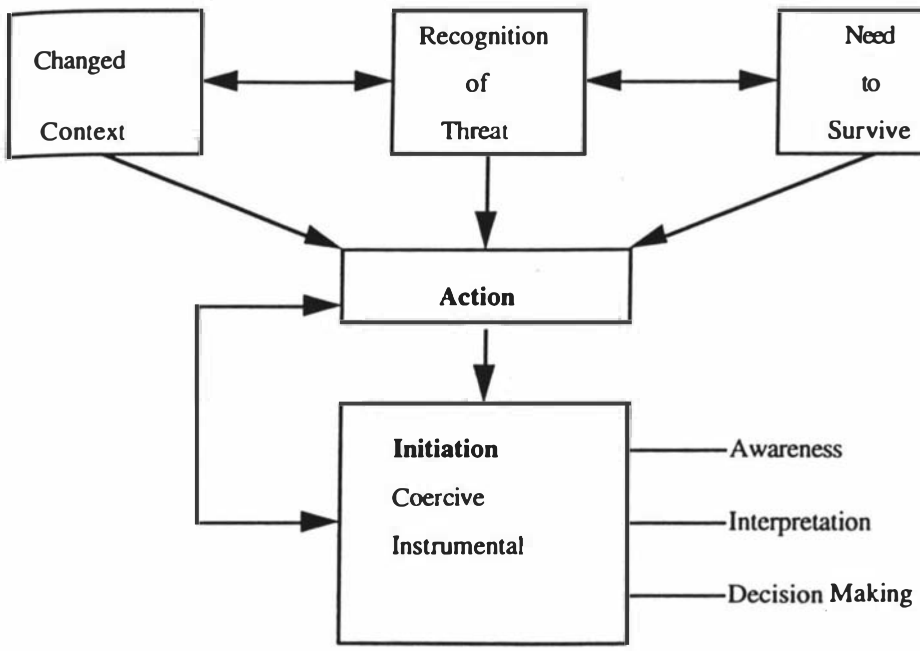

Changed
Context
Recognition
of
Threat
Need
to
Survive
Action
Initiation
Coercive
Instrumental
Awareness
Interpretation
Decision Making

Figure 8. Initiation: The first step in the survival process.

Conceptual Processing

There were three developmental levels of conceptual processing associated with 'Initiation' (awareness, interpretation and decision making) [see Figure 8].

Level 1: Awareness

Level one was 'awareness'. The key actors at the College, particularly the initiator, recognised the threat to the College which was occasioned by the changing context of the environment in which the College had to operate. The changing context of the social, economic, political and educational environment was evidenced in the antecedent events. Consequently, the key actors at the College saw the need to take action.

Where the University was concerned, the key actors in the Department of Education, particularly the initiator, also recognised the long term threat posed by the government's funding policy to the Department's survival in the Faculty of Arts. Like the College, the Department of Education needed to take action to ensure its continued existence. Furthermore, the affiliation and the B.Ed. degree programme also presented an opportunity for the Department of Education to gain its autonomy.

Therefore, both parties shared some common concerns and had similar objectives, if not for the same purposes.

Level 2: Interpretation

Level two was 'interpretation'. Building on their awareness, the key actors at the College then assessed the implications of the antecedent events (the passive change forces) with regard to the College's continued existence (survival). The key actors at the College observed that the antecedent events could have far reaching effects for the institution as a whole. This interpretation informed decision making.

Level 3: Decision Making

The key actors at the College, having assessed the context in which the institution must operate and the implications for its survival, embarked on decision making about the action that should be taken. However, the alternatives had to be examined prior to decision making. Formal decision making was preceded by informal intra- and inter- institutional discussions at the management level. Decision making, in the case of the College, entailed formulating a tentative action plan for working through the other steps in the survival process. This plan entailed both extensive and intensive preparation.

Category 2: Preparation

The three properties and six propositions related to this category are presented as a full data set in Table 18.

2.1 Antecedents

The two propositions related to this property (2.1.1 and 2.1.2) were concerned mainly with the influence of the antecedent events on the College's 'pre-negotiation' decision making. Prior to entering into formal discussions and negotiations with the University, the College had already instituted a number of intra-institutional changes (for example, changes in its management structure, a charter and a statement of objectives to guide operations). These changes were mandated by the government's new education policy. Most of these changes had been College-wide undertakings and all staff members had been involved, though the levels and extent of involvement had varied among staff. The next change events (the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme and affiliation with Belmont University) were different because they were inter-institutional.

Table 18

Category 2: Preparation

Properties	Propositions
2.1 Antecedents	2.1.1 There were several events preceding the informal and formal discussions on closer relations that assisted the College in articulating its position and philosophy with regard to teacher education. 2.1.2 The key actors at the College were clear on the position the College should take in establishing closer relations with the University and the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme.
2.2 Mobilisation	2.2.1 The key actors played pivotal roles in persuading and convincing their respective institutions to take the proposed changes on board. 2.2.2 Both informal and formal means of communication were used by the primary initiators to market the changes within their respective institutions.
2.3 Planning	2.3.1 Planning by the College was characterised by prior and ongoing extensive and intensive preparation and the utilisation of specific strategies. 2.3.2 Both institutions established intra-institutional networks of committees and sub-committees to prepare for the negotiations.

Management at the College had to justify the proposed inter-institutional changes to the Council and the staff. Furthermore, management had to convince the Council and the staff that the proposed changes were worthwhile. While a detailed investigation of this process was beyond the scope of this study, the interview data revealed that the Council had to approve the proposed changes before they could be instituted. In addition, the Council also set the criteria on which approval was granted. The following statement, by one participant (College staff), gave some indication of the College Council's involvement:

> The Council had said that they wanted the students to have clear choices so that not everyone had to do the B.Ed. and that the students could opt out at identified points of the degree and still complete the three year Diploma of Teaching. We had structural things that the Council had considered and told us that we must ensure occurred. (P 2)

Documentary evidence also showed that management had to seek the College Council's approval for its intended actions (Memorandum to College Council Re Focus on Paper on College/University Relations, 7 November, 1991).

Management at the College used several antecedent events to support their argument for instituting the changes. The primary reason cited was the government's education policy. In a paper entitled "The Question of Affiliation - A Starting Position" (18 April, 1991), written by a member of the College's staff at the management level, the National Party's policy that colleges of education, "will evolve towards autonomous, professional colleges of education, affiliated to the universities to facilitate integrated degree courses" (p. 1), was cited as one of the reasons for establishing closer relations with the University. The Minister of Education's reaffirmation of this position at a meeting with college of education principals was also cited as a reason (Ibid). Essentially, the intent of this paper was to create an awareness, among staff, of the implications of the government's policy and the course of action which management at the College hoped to pursue. Management was well aware of the vulnerability of the institution - given the open market competition. The College's best hope for survival was perhaps the 'safe haven' of the larger and more powerful institution - the University.

Another point highlighted by management was the College's 1987 arrangement with the University (Proposal for Joint University-Teachers' College Degree, 27 July, 1987) [mentioned earlier]. By the terms of the agreement reached in 1987, student teachers could do concurrent university study towards a B.A. degree. At the time of this investigation, some student teachers were also doing concurrent university study leading to Bachelor of Science (B.Sc.) or Bachelor of Music (B.Mus.) degrees. However, the 1987 arrangement was merely a 'co-operative approach' based on a structural arrangement that allowed for thirty-six unspecified credits in teaching studies towards a B.A. degree as follows: eighteen at the 100 level; twelve at the 200 level; and, six at the 300 level (Joint Working Party Report, 15 August, 1991). There were several difficulties (mentioned earlier) associated with the 1987 arrangement because university study was not an integral part of student teachers' programmes.

In order to justify and gain support for the proposed inter-institutional changes, management argued that student teachers were disadvantaged. Further, management tried to show that the 1987 negotiations had been open ended and were liable to 'renegotiation' at some later date. For example, a paper written by a staff member (executive) entitled "Future Relations with Belmont University - A Background Paper" (8 November, 1990), carried this statement:

> First, when the current conjoint arrangements were agreed to in 1987 they were not seen as end points, rather as a basis on which further developments could take place; secondly, the change of government may mean we are required to be administrating linked to the university. (p. 1)

Generally, management's position was that through affiliation the College could negotiate a better arrangement for its student teachers.

In the preceding statement, the writer linked the two events (the 1987 agreement and the political factor) to convince the College's staff of the timeliness and appropriateness of affiliation with the University. Through this medium, management also hoped to gain wide support for its proposed action. In the same paper (Future Relations with Belmont University, 8 November - A Background Paper, 1990), the writer also proposed the approach the College 'must' take in pursuing affiliation with the University:

> a. The College must approach these regulations strong in who we are, what we believe in and what we do well. As such, future developments will build on the 110 year history we have in teacher education.
>
> b. In all negotiations relating to "affiliation" the diverse functions of the College must be safeguarded.
>
> c. There must be full involvement of the College community in the decision making and other developments.
>
> d. Our focus must be on "what is best" for the students we train and the profession we serve.
>
> e. The situation of current staff must be recognised and supported.
>
> (Future Relations with Belmont University - A Background Paper, 8 November, 1990, p. 4)

The foregoing points formed the bases of the position which the College held throughout the formal negotiations, as the following statement, by one participant (College staff), demonstrated:

> It was very important for the College that we went into the partnership feeling strong, having clearly identified in our own minds what was important to us, what was non-negotiable, what right through the negotiations did we wish to retain at the end. We came up with ten basic principles that we measured all our negotiations against. They were things like the importance of the practicum and the degree. They were things like equal contribution of staff: that it was an equal partnership. They were things like our close association with our client groups, the schools, and the tradition that we deal with, etc. We worked that through very much ourselves before we started. So we knew what we were about. And we'd just gone through the whole process of establishing our College charter, etc., and so there had been a lot of reflection on the institution itself. I think that gave us the confidence in the relationship and in the build up. (P 46)

Overall, the interview data and documentary evidence showed that, for the College, the following factors were most important: (a) maintaining its identity as an educational institution with a specific function; (b) retaining its autonomy; (c) having full involvement in the decision making process; (d) negotiating the best possible arrangements for its student teachers; and (e) ensuring job security for its staff. Although the mandated changes imposed by the government's new education policy (see, for example, Learning for Life I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Learning for Life II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Education Amendment Act, 1990) had exposed the vulnerability of the College where economic viability was concerned, they had also given the College greater bargaining power by making it autonomous. In the College's favour, also, was the fact that the University's Department of Education wanted to establish closer relations with the College in order to secure its own objectives. For the first time in the history of negotiations between the two institutions the College was in a position to negotiate an agreement on an equal partnership basis. The College's stand, regarding its status in relation to the University, could be deduced from these statements (by College staff):

> In earlier years when we've negotiated with the University it has not been on an equal partnership basis. And I think we established right at the beginning that these were two strong institutions, which had different strengths to the relationship, but they could operate on the basis of partners. We established that very quickly. (P 46)

> At ... College of Education, unlike some of the other relationships with the universities where there is a master-servant relationship, we believe in having control over our own destiny. And we were not prepared to sell ourselves down the hill to the University and let them call the tune.... We were very concerned to maintain our professional integrity and avoid the master-servant relationship between the big established university that awards the degree and the smaller teachers' college that actually teaches the professional skills and does the applied stuff. (P 10)

Although the government's intention was for colleges of education and other tertiary institutions (particularly universities) to affiliate (Learning for Life I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Learning for Life II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; The Question of Affiliation - A Starting Position, 18 April, 1991), management at the College was quick to point out that the Minister of Education had not made a clear statement that, at the governance level, affiliation had to occur (The Question of Affiliation - A Starting Position, 18 April, 1991). Additionally, management also pointed out that the meaning of 'affiliation' was not explicit. The interview data and documentary evidence revealed that the College tried to ensure that the negotiations did not include governance: full amalgamation at all levels. However, the College did not rule out the possibility of strengthening the relationship in the future. The interview data and documentary evidence also revealed that the antecedents had forced the College to examine its role and position in relation to other tertiary institutions in the context of the changing and uncertain environment in which it had to function. Furthermore, given its history of negotiations with the University, the College, it seemed, had adopted a politely assertive attitude for the impending negotiations with the University. In Table 19, the researcher summarised the key learnings derived from the survival process associated with this property - 'Antecedents'.

Table 19

Property 2.1 Antecedents - Key Learnings from the Survival Process

---

1. Earlier events, both internal and external to the institution, influence the form and nature of the events in the survival process.
2. The history of similar events is an important factor in decision making and in guiding the survival process.
3. Clarity of institutional philosophy and principles and the determination to uphold them are critical in shaping the outcomes of the survival process.

2.2 Mobilisation

The two propositions related to this property (2.2.1 and 2.2.2) focused on the process of mobilising support for the proposed changes in both institutions. The interview data revealed that, at the individual level, there were mixed feelings among participants at the College (staff) about the B.Ed. degree programme and the proposed affiliation with the University. In the case of the B.Ed. degree programme, at one level, there were two opposing camps: one in favour of the B.Ed. degree as a professional qualification; the other against its introduction. The latter group felt that the B.Ed. was not a necessary qualification for teaching in a primary institution (mentioned earlier). At another level, there were also two opposing groups. While both groups acknowledged the need for a B.Ed. degree, one group felt that the College should have been offering the B.Ed. as its own degree qualification. The College had been empowered to confer degrees by the Education Amendment Act 1990. One participant in this group also expressed concern that, as a consequence of the affiliation, the College had to pay a substantial amount of money to the

University (P 24). The other group (in the minority) felt that the B.Ed. qualification would have more status if the degree was conferred by the University. These two statements reflected the differing views among participants (College staff):

> It's early days yet but I'm yet to be convinced that we couldn't have taken the aspects which the University has taken on our behalf with our own students. We could have conferred our own degree. It was quite possible under the new set-up but we decided to go that way. (P 17)
>
> One basic question being asked at this time was why we didn't go for our own degree because under the new tertiary administration in New Zealand now, the College could have gone for its own degree.... I think that the ability of an institution to provide the background to the delivery of a degree ... is governed by the size of an institution. And I believe that we could provide a number of those background things far better for our students in association with a bigger institution, rather than trying to provide it all ourselves. Also, I believe that on the market place degrees are sometimes judged by the institutions that they come from. Smaller institutions, as I've seen in other countries, and newer institutions, could be judged on a different basis. I felt the quality and status of our degree could be higher in association with the University than trying to do it on our own. (P 46)

Seemingly, for some participants, their opposition to the conjoint B.Ed. degree programme had its origin in fears about job security and the marginalisation of their own subject areas. With regard to job security, several participants expressed their anxiety about the continued tenure of employment (P 3; P 10; P 17; P 19; P 22; P 24; P 37; P 39), while others predicted the inevitability of staff reductions, in the long term, particularly in subject areas such as art, music and physical education. Some participants also feared that the College would lose its identity. These representative statements (by College staff) reflected the preceding observations:

> The College had to recognise that if we put a Faculty of Education in and we started to teach our students towards a degree then much of the teaching would be done by University staff and consequently there was a danger of staff losses. (P 3)
>
> They had very real fears. People feel passionate about their own areas of teaching, their own areas of interests. They see them on the surface going by the side because of the B.Ed. They think the students were going to miss out on areas that they as individuals think are very important. They worry about their own job. Will there be a job here for me if the students no longer have to take these ... courses? (P 23)
>
> I think, in time, the B.Ed. will bring a reduction in staff. Not right now, but eventually it must.... But people in the Art Department and maybe Music and some of the other departments in the next few years

> could be made redundant, I would imagine, or have problems even though there are more students. (P 24)

With regard to lecturing on the B.Ed. degree programme, the University regulation was that staff members should have higher academic qualifications than the level at which they were lecturing. This requirement was seen as a potential barrier to the College's staff participating fully in the delivery of the conjoint courses. In this excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained the impact of the University's policy at the individual level:

> It has affected me personally in terms of how I feel about my job security. Not having an M.A. myself, excludes me from actually lecturing in the Bachelor of Education programme. (P 22)

Documentary evidence highlighted another dimension of this potential barrier. At a meeting where staff involvement was discussed, a University representative observed that: "teaching within the University component would become more conjoint over time, but not necessarily conjoint at the level of lecturing" because "the University would raise questions about qualifications of College staff" (Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint Working Party, 24 July, 1991, p. 3). The findings of this study suggested that while management at the College anticipated acceptance and equal involvement of College staff, at all levels, over time, the University's intention was not to dispense with the aforementioned policy.

The implications of this potential barrier were interpreted in several ways by participants (College staff). One interpretation was that staff members with either no degree or a first degree would be excluded from lecturing. Secondly, some participants were anxious about the likelihood of being relegated to doing the tutoring or losing their jobs (because they were less academically qualified). In fact, the interview data revealed that some University staff expected the College's staff to do the tutoring (or most of it). Finally, there were some participants who saw the events (affiliation; the B.Ed. degree programme) as the first step in amalgamating with the University and an ultimate University 'take-over' of the College. These three representative statements (by College and University staff) reflected the varying interpretations:

> The other feeling was that our staff would be just used as tutors while ... University staff lectured - did the key teaching - and we just mopped up and did the tutoring. This created feelings of anxiety also.... It is certainly true that when ... 105 is taught here [at the College] next year our ... Department staff will tutor it while the University staff teach it.

> But I hope within a year or two the balance ... will be established whereby our staff both teach and tutor. (P 3)

> This College would become like a school of education within ... University rather than a sort of vibrant place. I liked the old emphasis of the development of the whole person plus the primary school orientation. But I think a lot of University courses will be taken that aren't that relevant to primary school and we'll just become part of the University. That's what I think will happen. (P 24)

> We have to admit that some of them are a bit suspicious of the involvement of the University in teacher training. I suppose one of the threats they see is that their role might be made redundant. And also it has meant that a lot of the staff at the College have had to think about their own academic qualifications. And the suspicion has arisen from the fact that they might be worried about whether they are going to be perceived as less competent themselves because of their academic background. (P 34)

The aforementioned views reflected the diverse interpretations by participants of their lived experiences and suggested some of the underlying reasons for the general low level of support at the College, particularly among teaching staff. The preceding observations also raised questions about a culture of change and suggested that there was a difference between instituting change intra-institutionally and inter-institutionally. Further, one could not work on the assumption that people who supported intra-institutional change would also support inter-institutional change.

The strategies used in mobilising support were also important. Both informal and formal means of communication (for example, staff bulletins, memoranda, informal conversations and staff meetings) were used by the initiator and supportive key actors. Although several mediums were used to disseminate information, it was difficult to determine the amount of information disseminated and the timing. Similarly, while claims of College-wide consultation (discussed later in this chapter) was a controversial issue, the interview data and documentary evidence suggested that College-wide consultation was not used extensively, particularly in the early stages and communication was not always effective. The interview data also showed that communication difficulties persisted throughout the period covered by this investigation. These statements (by College and University staff) substantiated the observation regarding communication difficulties:

> The most important thing was keeping the rest of the staff informed and the greatest source of tension was when the staff didn't feel that they were being kept informed. (P 2)

> More importantly, as the process went on it gathered momentum and speed and I think at times because of that it was difficult to communicate and to get enough feedback coming through. So, there were times when I think I lost people a bit. (P 5)

Generally, participants (College staff) felt anxious and nervous about the changes. Further, there were also feelings of uncertainty when information was not forthcoming (P 17; P 19; P 21). Staff members at the management level were the people mainly involved in the informal and formal inter-institutional discussions and negotiations. The interview data revealed that staff (participants) wanted to be both informed and involved 'every step of the way', but management, particularly in the early stages, was selective in the nature and timing of the information it divulged. The approach by the College's management was reflected in the following statement, by one participant (University staff):

> It has to be a very high trust process. It has to be as open as it can. It can't always be very open. (P 5)

Table 20

Property 2.2 Mobilisation - Key Learnings from the Survival Process

1. Wide involvement and good two way effective communication throughout the survival process are key strategies for mobilising support.
2. Trust is relative and may not always be a (key) factor in gaining support.
3. The level of support or resistance is related to people's personal knowledge and understanding of the changes involved in the survival process, their philosophies and their perceptions of their place in the scheme of events, and their level of involvement.
4. Decision making is ongoing throughout the survival process.

While the initiator and key actors (at the College) were well supported by other members of management (primarily top and senior) they did not have the same level of support from other staff members. The interview data revealed that some staff members were suspicious of the intentions of management. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) commented on the attitude of staff:

> I've had to experience quite a severe level of hostility from my colleagues who thought I was selling the College out to the University. They were anxious about my motives. They felt threatened in their own jobs and so you had to put up with a lot of that. (P 3)

Despite the difficulties encountered in mobilising staff support, management proceeded with its plans. At that point, the College was making plans for the formal negotiations with the University. In Table 20, the researcher presents the key learnings about the survival process associated with the property 'Mobilisation'.

2.3 Planning

The two propositions related to this property (2.3.1 and 2.3.2) focused on the nature of the planning process and the strategies utilised. While the informal and formal inter-institutional discussions were still in progress, the College was also preparing for the formal negotiations with the University. One of the areas in which the College conducted extensive preparations was its programmes. Programme preparation coincided with a review of the College's primary teacher education programmes which had started in 1989. The findings of this review informed the College's 'Committee on Conjoint Degree' (established in October 1990) responsible for developing the principles for negotiating the structure of the conjoint B.Ed. degree programme with the University. This committee's role and the nature of the College's preparation could be deduced from the agenda for its meeting of 27 November, 1990:

> 1. Establishing the "principles" on which a joint degree programme must adhere to - the College perspective.
> 2. Update on moves to amalgamation.
> 3. Hilltop College of Education - see attached.
> 4. Meeting with the University.
>
> (Notice for 27 November, 1990 Meeting of Committee on Conjoint Degree, 20 November, 1990, p. 1)

A document entitled "Key points in our Negotiations for the Future Development in the Conjoint Degree", dated 27 November 1990, written by a member of the committee (mentioned in the previous paragraph) gave some indication of the principles which the College was formulating:

> 1. Hilltop College of Education is committed to quality teacher education.
>
> 2. As such we give high priority to:
>   - concurrent training, maintaining the inter-relationship between theory and practice;
>   - access to degree study to all students accepted for early childhood and primary teacher education;

> - a continuing commitment to a B.A.;
> - the significance of teaching experience in teacher education;
> - partnership between the college and the university in the teaching of the degree;
> - use of the teaching strengths of both institutions;
> - avoiding duplication in studies;
> - structures which enhance degree study;
> - links to the university which recognise the special place of the Department of Education but which allow students to study across university departments. (p. 1)

As planning progressed, the College established a number of committees (for example, the B.Ed. Curriculum Group) but with membership mainly at the management level. While the College was organising and developing its network of intra-institutional committees (and later, sub-committees), the University's Department of Education was establishing comparative committees that worked concurrently to give a University perspective on the issues. Other members of the University's hierarchy were also involved as advisors and facilitators: for example, the Assistant Vice Chancellor and the Dean of the Faculty of Arts. In addition, these University staff members were involved in decision making at the University's governance level.

Within the College, then, the main approach was to work in small committees and sub-committees and to expand membership whenever management felt that this was necessary. Throughout the entire planning process, the College adopted a team approach and considerable preparation was done prior to meeting with the University. Prior and ongoing preparation and the team approach were the two predominant strategies employed by the College. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) commented on the planning process and the team approach:

> The other thing I suppose was, I think, we went through that process of identifying the strengths of the institution and what were key to our negotiations. We were very sure what we believed in as basic principles within the degree. And I think we did that very much as a team within the College and that brought us together. So we were facing it as a team. (P 46)

Prior and ongoing preparation and the team approach helped the College to define its position and the terms of the agreement that it was prepared to enter. The College wanted to ensure a partnership affiliation based on equity in all areas of joint involvement. The College also wanted to preserve what it perceived was sacred to teacher education programmes (concurrent 'in school' training) and to ensure that the policies, management structure, and the B.Ed. degree programme were developed jointly from the beginning. In essence, the College wanted to begin with a 'clean slate' and, at the same time, to ensure that the University respected its position. In this excerpt, one participant (College staff) outlined what was non-negotiable in teacher education programmes from the College's standpoint:

> We knew we wanted to keep our curriculum strengths and the practical application embedded within the theory and that we didn't want to have any kind of separation. So, we wanted a four year concurrent qualification.... We had a strong philosophy of why we wanted the relationship and we were very clear about what sort of relationship it was. And all of those helped enormously once we defined it. (P 2)

In addition to the major strategies mentioned, the College also organised a communication training workshop for its prospective negotiators in preparation for meeting with their University counterparts (P 2). The workshop strategy was also employed by the College at later stages of the negotiations.

In April 1991 a paper entitled "The Question of Affiliation - A Starting Position", written by a member of the College's staff at the management level, gave an update of the developments in the proposed affiliation with the University. Two important items were mentioned: an intra-institutional group had already been working on the conjoint degree and a joint working party was to be established to investigate, consult and make recommendations to the Councils of the two institutions on the proposed affiliation. The Joint Working Party, which had ten representatives (five from each institution), was subsequently established in May 1991.

Table 21

Property 2.3 Planning - Key Learnings from the Survival Process

1. Use tried, proven and appropriate approaches and strategies.
2. Identifying and being clear about the institution's philosophy, principles and its position in the survival process constituted a critical aspect of planning for the negotiations.
3. A culture of change is a key element in the survival process.

The appointment of the Joint Working Party marked the beginning of the formal inter-institutional negotiations. The Joint Working Party Report (15 August, 1991) was a key document and reference point in the ongoing interface between the two institutions throughout the period of the negotiations. The Joint Working Party's role is discussed under the next category. The key learnings derived from the survival process which are associated with this property are presented in Table 21. Figure 9 shows the survival process model with its second step, 'Preparation'. The researcher also discusses the developmental levels of conceptual processing associated with the second step in the survival process (awareness, planning and decision making) [see Figure 9].

Conceptual Processing

'Preparation', the second step in the survival process, had three developmental levels of conceptual processing. These three levels of conceptual processing captured the College's awareness of its position in relation to the University and the thinking behind the process for putting the plan into operation.

Level 1: Awareness

Awareness had two sub-levels. At the first sub-level, there was awareness among the key actors at the College that they needed to mobilise staff support for the action plan. Strategies for disseminating information, decisions about the amount of information to be disseminated and the timing of the process were critical at that stage. The extent of the support received from staff and the level of resistance encountered were dependent on a number of factors. Some of those factors were: the effectiveness of the strategies employed, the extent to which staff had internalised the implications of the changing environment and the extent to which the organisation had developed a culture of change.

The other sub-level of awareness was concerned with the College's recognition of its position as a smaller, less powerful tertiary institution and the implications of that situation for the College in the negotiations. Hence, the history of negotiations between the two institutions and the current context were especially important.

Level 2: Planning

Like awareness, planning had two sub-levels. The first sub-level was concerned with intra-institutional planning. At this sub-level, the key actors embarked on thinking through and deciding on the College's philosophy and principles undergirding teacher education, what was non-negotiable in teacher education and the terms of the affiliation agreement the College was prepared to accept. The strategies employed at this sub-level were critical. The key actors used a committee approach which eventually evolved into a network of committees and sub-committees with specific responsibilities. These committees and sub-committees were comprised mainly of staff at the executive and senior management levels, in various combinations. Contributions from non-managerial staff appeared to be mainly through feedback from staff and departmental meetings.

The second sub-level was concerned with planning at the management level for inter-institutional negotiations. Preparatory strategies included communication training for prospective negotiators, a team approach and extensive and intensive preparation, particularly prior to entering into inter-institutional negotiations. The team approach and extensive and intensive preparation were 'ongoing' features of the College's approach throughout the negotiations.

The Survival Process Model

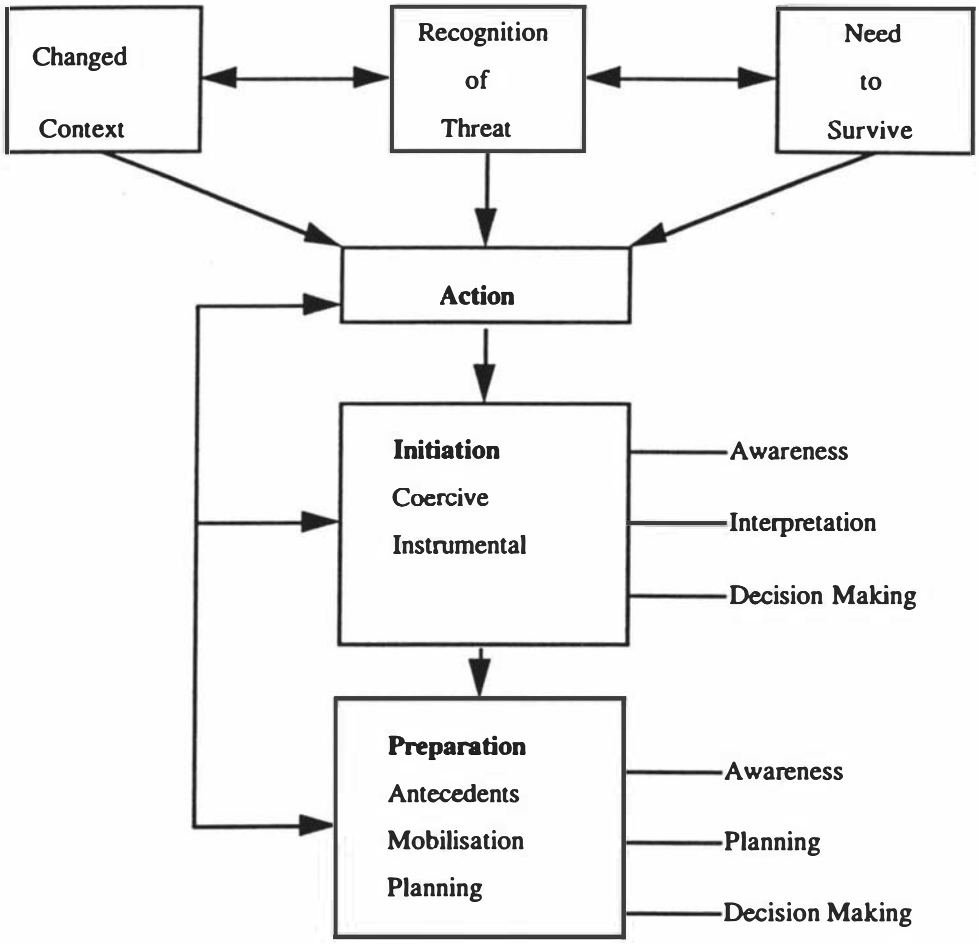

Changed Context
Recognition of Threat
Need to Survive
Action
Initiation
Coercive
Instrumental
Awareness
Interpretation
Decision Making
Preparation
Antecedents
Mobilisation
Planning
Awareness
Planning
Decision Making

Figure 9. Preparation: The second step in the survival process.

Level 3: Decision Making

Level three was 'decision making'. Decision making was ongoing and a characteristic that permeated the entire survival process. There were several sub-levels of decision making (by management) in the preparatory stage. At one sub-level, decisions had to be made about initial intra-institutional involvement: for example, who should be on the initial intra-institutional committee(s). At another level, decisions had to be made with regard to inter-institutional representation. Decisions also had to be made about the College's approach and its position for the inter-institutional negotiations. This preparatory step in the survival process led into its third step, 'Negotiation'.

Category 3: Negotiation

The three properties and eleven propositions related to this category are presented holistically in Table 22.

Table 22

Category 3: Negotiation

Properties	Propositions
3.1 Systemic	3.1.1 There were several interrelated levels of formal negotiations between the two institutions. 3.1.2 A network of inter-institutional committees and sub committees, operating at different levels, constituted the approach adopted for formal negotiations between the two institutions. 3.1.3 The structure of network of inter-institutional committees and sub-committees was both hierarchical and lateral.
3.2 Naturalistic	3.2.1 The negotiations were characterised by the use of diverse strategies and numerous meetings, discussions and decision making. 3.2.2 Proposals (in the form of papers) facilitated the discussions and decision making process. 3.2.3 Formal negotiations were intra- and inter- institutional and also external to both institutions.
3.3 Problematic	3.3.1 The period of formal discussions and negotiations was too short. 3.3.2 The negotiations were plagued by cultural conflict and attitudinal problems. 3.3.3 There were difficulties in the area of timing and dissemination of information. 3.3.4 Marketing the product was a difficult and time consuming exercise.

3.1 Systemic

The three propositions associated with this property (3.1.1, 3.1.2 and 3.1.3) focused mainly on the structural organisation for the negotiations and the way in which it was put into operation. In the previous chapter, the researcher described the College as a hierarchical bureaucratic organisation. These organisational characteristics were not dissimilar to the University's except that the College was a smaller institution with fewer steps on the hierarchical ladder. This commonality dictated the structural organisation for the negotiations. At the College, a network of interrelated committees and sub-committees, both intra- and inter- institutional, was established to deal with the different aspects of the negotiations at different levels of a predominantly hierarchical organisational structure. However, the involvement of staff below the executive and senior managerial levels was limited, particularly in the early stages. The major committees and sub-committees were constituted mainly of staff at the executive and senior management levels. In operational terms, the inter-institutional network of committees and sub-committees was both hierarchical and lateral.

The Joint Working Party which was established in May 1991 was disbanded after it had submitted its report (15 August, 1991). By that time, several other key committees had been established by the College: for example, the curriculum committee, the faculty structure committee, and the steering committee on future relations with the University. Those committees were also the College's teams on similar conjoint (inter-institutional) committees. Decisions made by all other committees were forwarded to management through the steering committee. The College's steering committee (constituted mainly of the executive) stood at the apex of the committee structure (hierarchically), was the most powerful and represented the College at the highest level. Decisions taken by management (the executive) of the College formed the bases of the inter-institutional negotiations (from the College's standpoint) on committees such as the conjoint curriculum committee, the conjoint faculty structure committee, and the conjoint steering committee. Documentary evidence revealed that, within those major committees, sub-committees (which occasionally 'co-opted' non-managerial staff) were established to work on specific tasks. The following were some examples of sub-committees within the conjoint steering committee:

> It was agreed that Mr ... and Mr ... jointly prepare a paper on EFTS for the next meeting. (Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint B.Ed. and Faculty of Education Steering Committee, 4 May, 1992, p. 3).
>
> It was agreed that Mr ..., Ms ..., Ms ... and Professor ... initiate process and prepare documentation for middle level Ministry discussions together with a planning timetable for the two institutions. (Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint B.Ed. and Faculty of Education Steering Committee, 12 June, 1992)

Representatives on conjoint committees were also asked to work on other committees and sub-committees within their respective institutions on specific tasks. These representatives were the first-hand links between the conjoint committees and other intra-institutional committees and sub-committees. They also provided the lateral linkage.

The Joint Steering Committee (Joint B.Ed. and Faculty of Education Steering Committee) stood at the apex of the network of conjoint committees and sub-committees. This was the level at which the inter-institutional negotiations (except where delegated) were conducted and where final decisions about inter-institutional agreements reached at lower levels in the network's organisational structure were made. The role of the Conjoint Steering Committee was captured in the following statement:

> In light of issues still to be resolved it was agreed that the Steering Committee continue to be the group to carry on negotiations. When negotiations reached the stage where other groups needed to be formed to discuss specific areas, e.g. library and/or registry sectors, a member of the Steering Committee would be a part of those discussions. Reports would be referred back to the Steering Committee from such groups. (Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint B.Ed. and Faculty of Education Steering Committee, 4 May, 1992, p. 1)

Where decision making was concerned, there was no consensus of opinion on the extent to which decisions made by the various committees established by the College were based on College-wide involvement. While there were claims to wide consultation throughout the negotiations (P 2; P 10; P 18; P 30), there were also counter claims that there was no consultation or that consultation was either 'token' involvement or 'pretend' consultation (P17; P 22; P 19). The following statements, by two participants (College staff), suggested that there was some staff consultation:

> My involvement was not formal. It was more informal. The B.Ed. idea was put up before a series of staff seminars and forums and all the staff participated in the discussion. (P 10)

> We obviously had staff forums about the degree. And we were given progress reports. (P 18)

Conversely, these statements (by College staff) suggested that consultation was 'token' involvement:

> So I think genuine consultation not just pretend consultation. And I think early discussions of the reasons, the advantages and

> disadvantages, all that sort of thing needs to be done early not after you're nearly there. That's important too because otherwise people think that they're in front of a bulldozer and they just can't do anything to stop the bulldozer. (P 19)

> I think what I don't like is the appearance of consultation when it doesn't really exist - where the decision has been made already. There's a lot of talk about consultation but as far as I'm concerned it's just talk. I think there are very powerful people in this institution and people who are ambitious and who intend to get to the top. And that's all there is to it. And who have a lot of say to make the decisions for the rest of us. (P 22)

Documentary evidence and interview data revealed that student teachers were dissatisfied with the lack of involvement and consultation. A student teachers' association position paper to the College's management carried the following statement:

> The HCETTA is concerned that there has been no student involvement by either HCETTA or BUSA members in any negotiations between HCE and BU. The conclusion must be that the relationship development between the two institutions is based on a more monocultural and administrative perspective than a bicultural and client-based one. (Hilltop College of Education Teacher Trainees' Association Issues Paper, 21 October, 1991, p. 2)

Similarly, one student teacher made the following statement about consultation:

> To me people in positions of power should have consultation. We are the clients. It is a user pays system. Everything is looked at from a market structure so we, therefore, are the current clients, not the future ones, not the people coming in, but the people now. And consultation should be initiated and carried out by those people. (P 50)

Where decision making was concerned, it was difficult to determine the extent to which the College's staff influenced outcomes. Documentary evidence also showed that the committees involved in the negotiations and in decision making were constituted mainly of the executive and senior managerial staff and, with few exceptions, involved the same people only in different combinations (mentioned earlier). Secondly, evidence of a somewhat 'closed door' approach was seen in the terms of reference of the Joint Working Party which was appointed in May 1991:

> Working Party discussions are to be treated as confidential until after final recommendations have been made to the Vice Chancellor and the Principal ... Staff at both institutions must be fully consulted once the recommendations of the Working Party have been made to the Vice Chancellor and the Principal. (Joint Working Party Terms of Reference, 17 May, 1991, p. 1)

This document, it must be noted, was dated 17 May, 1991. Documentary evidence suggested that the Joint Working Party had already been appointed and had already been functioning before this document was written (for example, Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint Working Party, 3 May, 1991).

Informal discussions began in August 1990 and the inter-institutional Joint Working Party (established in May 1991) was given a deadline of 15 August 1991 to submit its report to the Principal/Chief Executive Officer of the College and the Vice Chancellor of the University. This time-frame was approximately a year before 'full consultation' (Joint Working Party's Terms of Reference, 17 May, 1991) with staff of both institutions. Two important questions were raised by the researcher - based on the foregoing observation: Why were staff members at both institutions not consulted to inform the Joint Working Party's decision making? Why were discussions on issues that would ultimately affect staff treated as confidential? The functions of the Joint Working Party were:

> i. To explore possible models of affiliation between institutions.
>
> ii. To examine the impact of the different models of affiliation on specific functions of the two institutions, including timelines relating to these models.
>
> iii. To formulate recommendations and report to the Vice Chancellor of ... University and the Principal of ... College of Education by 15 August 1991 on the investigations into i. and ii. above and on the issues which would need to be addressed from any subsequent discussions.
>
> iv. To recommend future action beyond 15 August 1991.
>
> (Joint Working Party Terms of Reference, 17 May, 1991, p. 1)

These functions, coupled with the confidentiality (or secrecy) of the discussions, suggested a sense of urgency in the decision making process. The decision makers constituted the 'institutional elites' who were intent on exercising their authority to 'push through' the changes. The approach used by management also suggested that, perhaps, staff members were to be offered only 'token' involvement after the important decisions had been made.

Some participants (College staff) did not allow the aforementioned situation to continue indefinitely. They sought recourse through their union. The union was instrumental in getting representation on all committees which were involved in planning the B.Ed. degree programme. The union was also instrumental in slowing down the negotiation process. The union's intervention succeeded in opening the channels of communication wider, mainly through representation on the committees. The union was also instrumental in improving the flow of information about the negotiations. In this excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> The union represents staff here and managed to get union representation on all committees that were involved in the planning of the B.Ed., and they obviously fed back to staff, and staff were able to get some sort of representation. So that I think improved enormously the level [of communication].... So I think involvement of staff and staff organisations where they exist is vital. (P 19)

While the interview data suggested that the flow of information had improved after the union's involvement, the data also suggested that the communication difficulties had not been eradicated. The following statements, by two participants (College staff), suggested that communication had improved:

> It was good in that when people jumped up and down they were listened to and people discussed things more. That was mainly done through the union. (P 19)

> The communication has been generally good. (P 21)

At the same time, these statements (by College staff and student teacher) revealed that the communication problems persisted in some areas:

> This is a case in point. If you finally got the time-table done and then some outside influence comes in, like we decided to take an extra group of students, sometimes the message doesn't get passed on and things can get a bit mucky. It's a communication thing from time to time. You are left holding the bag but you didn't have access to a specific piece of information. It's that sort of thing which I suppose happens in any large institution. It's a bit stressful. (P 7)

> I feel that there is a major need for direct and honest communication from people in decision making positions because there are a lot of rumours going around.... I've been trying to collate as much information as I can; but there's only so much I can do when I'm not given information and decisions have not been made. (P 50)

There was also evidence to suggest that the communication problems continued beyond the inter-institutional negotiations. For example, in response to item eight on the student teachers' questionnaire, the eight student teachers (participants) enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme mentioned communication as one of their concerns about the B.Ed. degree programme.

A small number of participants at the College (staff) commented on the issue of the selection of the various committees. These participants felt that the committees did not reflect College-wide representation and, hence, did not benefit from the diversity of perspectives. Further, three participants (P 6; P 17; P 25) observed that the College's B.Ed. degree curriculum committee did not benefit from the richness of wide representation because it had been hand-picked by a member of the 'top' managerial staff. This observation seemed to be consistent with the view expressed by another participant (College staff) that decision making at the College was not usually informed by as wide a number of perspectives as possible:

> Also I'm a great believer in collective wisdom. I think this College, in the past, has suffered from charges of "if they had talked to more people then mistakes would not have been made". (P 19)

The selection of committees could be examined from another perspective: representation of all interest groups. Documentary evidence showed that, although the University's Department of Education development plan (Belmont University Department of Education Development Plan, 1990) and the College's charter carried statements about the recognition of a Maori perspective, there was no Maori representative (from the outset) on the Joint Working Party established in May 1991 (Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint Working Party, 3 May, 1991). A Maori representative was co-opted after the Joint Working Party was established. In this regard, the "Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint Working Party" (3 May, 1991) carried the following statement, "include a copy for the ... College Maori representative who is to be named as at 10. 5. 91." (P. 6). The College's student teachers' association also commented on the lack of Maori representation in a position paper to the College's management in October 1991 (Hilltop College of Education Teacher Trainees' Association Issues Paper, 21 October, 1991).

By December 1991 the Councils of both institutions had approved the recommendations of the Joint Working Party. There was agreement in principle that both institutions would offer a conjoint B.Ed. degree programme and that a faculty would be established to administer the programme and other existing programmes (for example, the Master of Education degree programme). The College, based on the key words of 'equity' and 'partnership', was resolute that both institutions should start with 'a clean slate' and develop both the programme and the structure (the faculty) for its administration jointly.

Although the University's Department of Education had started offering lectures in two courses (ED 0I and ED 0II) [coding was changed to protect the identity] at the College from 1991, the College wanted new education courses to be developed specifically for the B.Ed. degree programme. On this issue, one participant (University staff) observed that, ultimately, the two courses (ED 0I and ED 0II) were modified and called ED 1A and ED 1B (coding was changed to protect the identity), respectively, and became the two first year B.Ed. degree conjoint education courses. However, whereas the University was only involved in the conjoint component of the B.Ed. degree programme (five courses), the demands on the College's staff were enormous because the B.Ed. degree programme necessitated the restructuring of the College's Diploma of Teaching programme and the rewriting of courses (P 2; P 4; P 6; P 8; P 9; P 23; P 28).

Inter-institutional negotiations covered a wide range of issues: for example, management and resourcing of the B.Ed degree programme, the structure and function of the faculty, course design and development, among others. Interview data and documentary evidence revealed that decisions taken inter-institutionally also had to be negotiated through the Councils and approval structures of the respective institutions (P 2; P 3; P 5; P 46). These negotiations were difficult and stressful, as one participant (University staff) explained:

> I guess it looked relatively easy but it was very nerve wracking because almost every meeting was a decisive meeting in terms of either getting the next step in place or having to be knocked back and starting again. So I think from the outside it probably looked very easy, from the inside it has been very nerve wracking. (P 5)

In addition to the intra- and inter- institutional matters that had to be discussed and negotiated through the Councils of both institutions, negotiations also had to be made at the system-wide level. The B.Ed. degree programme had to be approved by the NZQA and the New Zealand Vice Chancellors' Committee (NZVCC) and funding had to be secured from the Ministry of Education. Those aspects (NZQA and NZVCC approval, and negotiations with the Ministry of Education) were outside the parameters of the present study and would be mentioned only briefly.

Several papers on EFTS (Equivalent Full Time Student) funding and its inter-institutional allocation were written by managerial staff of both institutions. Similarly, several intra- and inter- institutional sub-committees were established to work out the funding structure (Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint B.Ed. and Faculty of Education Steering Committee, 4 May, 1992; 26 May, 1992). These committees formulated proposals which were forwarded to the Joint Steering

Committee. These proposals and papers (aforementioned) were debated by the Joint Steering Committee and, when agreement was reached, representatives from both institutions (members of the Joint Steering Committee) were delegated the responsibility of meeting with the Ministry of Education to negotiate funding. In addition, at least one member of the Joint Steering Committee visited another college of education to investigate how that college's funding structure was functioning (Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint B.Ed. and Faculty of Education Steering Committee, 12 June, 1992).

In negotiating with the Ministry of Education, the institutions adopted an 'informal to formal' approach. The following statement, in this regard, was documented in the "Minutes of the Joint B.Ed. and Faculty of Education Steering Committee Meeting" (12 June, 1992):

> Agreed (1) that conjoint section course descriptions be finalised then informal talks take place with the Ministry at middle level ... Agreed that ... initiate the process and prepare documentation for middle level Ministry discussions together with a planning timetable for the two institutions. (pp. 3-4)

On at least two occasions, the representatives met informally with Ministry of Education personnel 'to test' their funding proposal prior to entering into formal negotiations (Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint B.Ed. and Faculty of Education Steering Committee, 6 August, 1992). Adjustments were made - based on those informal discussions - and representatives of both institutions on the Joint Steering Committee drafted supporting papers on the rationale for funding the programme at the 'cost category' level requested. During the negotiations, one of the issues raised by the Ministry of Education was the cost of funding teacher education programmes (Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint B.Ed. and Faculty of Education Steering Committee, 6 August, 1992). The final outcome was that the Ministry of Education agreed to fund the programme at the level requested: cost category B (see The EFTS Funding System for Tertiary Institutions, 1992). However, this achievement was short lived because the Ministry of Education subsequently revised the funding categories and changed the level to cost category I (P 5; B.Ed. Information Package, 25 May, 1993). That decision meant a reduction in funding for the conjoint component of the programme. This reduction was another source of tension between both institutions.

With regard to the NZQA's and the NZVCC's approval, not much information was available on the process involved. However, there was evidence that the programme had been approved by the NZQA in the following statement:

> 1. All our programmes have been approved by the Director General following procedures established by the Department of Education, or programmes developed since 1991 have been approved by NZQA.
>
> 2. "Roll over" approval has been given by NZQA until 1995 when it is anticipated that all qualifications will be registered and available as units of the NZQA framework. We also hold accreditation as a provider of Teacher Education programmes. (B.Ed. Information Package 3 May, 1993, p. 11).

The programme had also been approved by the NZVCC (Ibid).

After gaining approval from both institutions (the College and the University), the negotiations picked up momentum. The intention was to implement the programme in 1993. Most participants (College and University staff) felt that the process was rushed and that there had not been enough time to discuss all the issues thoroughly and to plan for implementation. The following statements (by College and University staff) reflected the feeling among most participants:

> There was too much rush. I think there was insufficient consideration of financial resource implications. I think they needed to sort out a lot more clearly the relationships and interrelationships with the University. I think that we've been lucky in terms of the people involved ... who I think have, with their goodwill, actually gone a long way to resolve difficulties that have arisen. It seems to me that we could quite easily have had different sort of people. We didn't have the processes well enough sorted out early enough. I think there was too much put on trust "that will be all right" sort of attitude. (P 19)
>
> My own feeling is that we rushed into the Faculty of Education. We rushed into it far too quickly. We have now a very complex structure of a Faculty of Education around what is really only a third of the B.Ed., which is the conjoint courses, because the other courses are B.A. courses. (P 33)

Interview data and documentary evidence revealed that, initially, the plan had been to aim for implementation in 1995 (Future Relations with Belmont University - A Background Paper, 8 November, 1990). This time-line seemed to have been shortened - based on the recommendations of the Joint Working Party (Joint Working Party Report, 15 August, 1991). These issues are discussed in greater detail under the category 'Implementation'. In Table 23 the researcher presents the key learnings derived from the survival process associated with this property - 'Systemic'.

Table 23

Property 3.1 Systemic - Key Learnings from the Survival Process

---

1. Establish a network and ensure that it functions effectively.
2. Delegate responsibilities within the established network and set realistic deadlines.
3. Mechanisms for including as wide an audience as possible in critical decision making should be built into the network.
4. It is difficult for people to understand and internalise the changes in the survival process if they are not both informed and involved.

3.2 Naturalistic

The three propositions associated with this property (3.2.1, 3.2.2 and 3.2.3) focused on the characteristics of the negotiation process. The approach to negotiation and the process itself were 'naturalistic' because the strategies employed were contingent upon several factors: (a) the current context; (b) the history of past negotiations; (c) the nature of the present negotiations; (d) the people involved; and (e) the approaches to negotiation which were unique to the respective institutions. The context was especially important because, at one level, both institutions were aware of the changing climate and the implications of the political overtures to move in a particular direction. At another level, context was also important because both institutions had to consider what was at stake and what each could negotiate for given the prevailing wider changing environment.

The history of negotiations between the two institutions was also important. For the College, past negotiations had been with a much larger sub-division of the University (the Department of Education was a department in the Faculty of Arts). In all prior negotiations (up to 1987) the College had been the party needing some form of concession from the University. Historically, then, it seemed that negotiations between the two institutions had a distinguishing feature, namely: the College was always seeking a favour. In this excerpt, one participant (College staff) attested to the College's position in past negotiations with the University:

> In earlier years when we've negotiated with the University it has not been on an equal partnership basis. (P 46)

When the informal discussions began in 1990, for the first time, the College was in a position where the need for favours was mutual - a two way process. Consequently, the College was in a position to negotiate on more favourable terms. To its advantage, the College was negotiating with a single department within the Faculty of Arts - the Department of Education. The Department of Education wanted to be more autonomous and saw the opportunity to branch from the Faculty of Arts and establish itself independently under a Faculty of Education. The approach adopted by the College indicated that management was determined to ensure that the institution got the best possible agreement - given the advantages. However, the task was not easy, as some participants noted (P 2; P 41; P 46) and the following statement (by a member of the College's staff) showed:

> They [the University] really regarded us as little brother. They really had an attitude of contempt for us and to shift that attitude has been a lot of work as well, a lot of work. (P 3)

Both institutions adopted tried and proven methods to facilitate the negotiations. First, the predominant structure employed was a network of intra- and inter- institutional committees and sub-committees. These committees were involved in numerous meetings and discussions of the critical issues related to introducing the B.Ed. degree programme and establishing the Faculty of Education. Second, the College, on its part, engaged in extensive and intensive preparation (including communication training for its negotiators) before meeting with the University. The College also used a team approach in inter-institutional negotiations. Third, the negotiating teams examined the approaches to amalgamation by other New Zealand tertiary institutions. Fourth, a representative (on the Joint Steering Committee) visited an institution in an affiliated relationship to observe the process and talk to the people involved. Finally, the expertise of at least one individual with experience in cross-sectoral amalgamations was utilised.

In order to facilitate discussions during the negotiations, intra- and inter-institutional papers were written by committee members (at the management level) who proposed models and possible directions for affiliation and for developing the B.Ed. degree programme. These papers formed the bases of the discussions and assisted in the development of structures and plans for dealing with critical issues. For example, when funding and cost sharing were being discussed, several draft papers suggesting cost categories and methods for allocating the funds proportionately between the two institutions formed the bases of those discussions (EFTS Structure and Shares for the Conjoint B.Ed./Diploma of Teaching, June, 1992; EFTS Sharing and Rationale for B.Ed. Degree Cost Category Level, 15 July, 1992; B.Ed. Structure, Resource and Ministry EFTS Requirements, May, 1992; Bachelor of Education - Process for Estimating EFTS/Fees 1993, May, 1992, among others). The final model was a product of those discussions.

The negotiation process reached its high point on 13 August 1992 with the signing of the formal agreement between the Principal of the College and the Acting Vice Chancellor of the University. The terms of the agreement were: (a) to establish a B.Ed. degree administered by a Faculty of Education; (b) that the Faculty of Education would facilitate the administration and resourcing of the B.Ed. degree; (c) that the conjoint component of the degree would be developed, taught and resourced at a level appropriate for professional teacher education programmes (cost category B); and (d) that the EFTS generated by the conjoint component of the B.Ed. degree programme would be shared on a 'fifty-fifty' basis and would be claimed separately by each institution together with its portion(s) for the other components of the programme (Memorandum of Agreement, 13 August, 1992).

The Faculty of Education was officially launched on 16 October 1992 with its inaugural meeting (Minutes of the Inaugural Meeting of the Faculty of Education, 16 October, 1992). The Faculty's inauguration was important for two reasons: it was the first by the University to be created in partnership with another institution; and, secondly, it was the first to be established by the University since 1974 (Ibid). Membership of the Faculty from the College was either through an individual's position or involvement in the B.Ed. degree programme and was based on the following criteria for nomination:

> membership should be across a spread of departments,
> members should be willing and able to be involved in all of the activities expected of University staff,
> members teaching in the programme should have qualifications in advance of the level of the students. (B.Ed. Information Package, 3 May, 1993, p. 3)

Initial membership of the Faculty of Education from the College included the following: the members of the executive, programme directors or their nominees, representatives of departments, including professional education, research, and early childhood (B.Ed. Information Package, 3 May, 1993, p. 2). The Faculty's management structure (see Appendix L) could be considered on two levels: personnel and committees.

Through its Faculty Board, the Faculty of Education exercises its responsibility for conducting business of an academic nature (Belmont University Calendar, 1994). Initially, membership from the College on the Faculty Board included: all College staff involved in the teaching and academic administration of the B.Ed. degree programme; and, two student teacher representatives. In October 1993 the Faculty's statute was amended to read: "College of Education staff involved in the teaching and academic administration of Education degrees and diplomas of the University" (Amendments to the Statute for the Faculty of Education, 1993). This amendment, among others, was accepted by the University's Council to take effect from 1 January 1994 (Requested Amendments to the Statute for the Faculty of Education, October, 1993).

The B.Ed. degree programme's structure approved by both institutions had four components: a University component (University courses) which carried thirty to forty-two credits, a conjoint component offered by the Faculty of Education with thirty credits and the two College components (Curriculum or Teaching Studies and Professional Education) which carried thirty to forty-two credits and twelve units respectively (B.Ed. Information Package, 3 May, 1993) [see Appendix K]. It must be noted that the University's Department of Education was involved only in the conjoint component of the B.Ed. degree programme. The elective University courses were taken in the Faculty of Arts.

All academic staff at the College were invited (by memorandum) to indicate their interest (or lack thereof) in research, lecturing, tutoring and development of the conjoint courses (Memorandum Re B.Ed Development and Teaching, 11 September, 1992). The memorandum carried information on the tasks, conditions and teaching of the conjoint courses and a short questionnaire to be completed by staff. It seemed that membership of the Faculty of Education was an incentive to get staff members involved: "The Education Faculty is likely to be established in the next two weeks and those teaching conjoint papers will be members of the faculty" (Ibid, p. 1).

In addition to negotiations of a structural and administrative nature, curriculum design and development also had to be negotiated inter-institutionally. Course development was ongoing and continued throughout implementation. Course development for the conjoint component of the degree was a team effort. It involved course developers and writers from both institutions working together. To ensure that there was equal partnership in the process, each institution had a co-ordinator who headed intra-institutional committees. Those committees then met jointly to develop the courses. Participants' perceptions of the inter-institutional curriculum development process are included in the data presentation under the next property, 'Problematic'. Table 24 carries the key learnings derived from the survival process associated with this property, 'Naturalistic'.

Table 24

Property 3.2 Naturalistic - Key Learnings from the Survival Process

1. A contingency approach seems best suited to the survival process.
2. The negotiations should focus on what is at stake for the people and the institution(s) involved and what can be negotiated.
3. Inter-institutional agreement that is based on beginning with a 'clean slate', mutual respect, equity and partnership facilitates the negotiation process. Documented institutional positions and perspectives of events also facilitate the process.

3.3 Problematic

The four propositions related to this property (3.3.1, 3.3.2, 3.3.3 and 3.3.4) focused mainly on the nature of the negotiation process. As mentioned earlier, the negotiations between the two institutions were fraught with difficulties. These difficulties ranged from dealing with the University's management to those that were purely cultural. Working through the University's management structure proved problematic and stressful for those individuals at the forefront of the negotiations (mentioned earlier). Programme approval, for example, involved not only getting the programme through the University's approval system but also getting it through the New Zealand universities' 'early warning' committee and the New Zealand Vice-Chancellors' Committee (NZVCC).

The interview data revealed that, despite the College's more favourable position, its management seemed to suffer from a 'big brother-little brother' syndrome (P 3; P 17; P 21; P 25). The College's perception of the University as a more powerful institution that could not be challenged seemed to be an inhibiting factor in the negotiations. For example, there were times when the College accommodated the University's unilateral decision making (for example, time-table changes) without challenging the University. The power relations were captured in these statements (by College staff):

> People were very much afraid of the University. They thought the University would be big, Draconian and overbearing, but in fact this has not worked out. But, in the early days, there were some very heated and very tense and unpleasant discussions when those attitudes were prevalent when very much a big brother little brother attitude was prevalent. (P 3)

> For the institution it has meant that we're having to live with a big brother, the University, imposing its will on us in certain areas. Of course, that's inevitable and predictable. And if they decide to change their time-table, they will do so without informing us and we shall have to adjust ours accordingly. (P 25)

Given the shortened time-line in which to complete the negotiations and to prepare for implementation, a number of important issues remained unresolved prior to implementation. However, the root cause of many negotiation problems was the difference in cultures. The interview data revealed that both institutions had not anticipated the impact of cultural differences and were, therefore, unprepared for the cultural 'fall-outs' and the ensuing difficulties. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> I think one of the difficulties for us, and we didn't really anticipate this, we didn't see it until when we were in the negotiations, is that we were dealing with two different cultures in the institutions. And I think most of the problems that we've had have been in relation to the fact that we're two different cultures. (P 46)

Cultural differences affected the level of achievement by inter-institutional working groups. One area in which the effects of cultural differences were especially detrimental was curriculum design and development. Differences in philosophical and pedagogical orientations, differing views about course content and focus, different approaches to course development, differences in course approval criteria, and differences in staff perceptions (College and University staff) were the major sources of conflict and tension. In the following excerpts, two participants (College and University staff) mentioned some of the difficulties associated with the differences in philosophical and pedagogical orientations:

> It was a huge undertaking both in mediating between the two institutions and in trying to meet the requirements of what our College wants and what the University wants in terms of outcomes for the students. That was a tremendous learning experience for me. I realised how much further down the track we are at College in terms of addressing equity issues, trying to make a University course appealing in terms of these [students] are going to be teachers, as opposed to a B.A. where you've got a whole mixture of people. And quite frankly some of the University people haven't had much to do with primary

> classrooms let alone early childhood education. It was quite hard at times matching the two. (P 29)
>
> There are people, however, within this department who find it very difficult working at the College because of the different way in which they perceive the College working. There are obvious difficulties about assessment, for example, teaching expectations, ways in which they are taught, and so on. I think that too much can be made of that. (P 33)

Generally, course development involved both institutions writing course outlines of desirable content (based mainly on the interests of prospective lecturers) then meeting for discussion and decision making with regard to the final product. However, the interview data revealed that producing the product was a difficult exercise for those involved (College and University staff) [for example, P 26; P 29; P 30; P 31; P 32; P 35; P 36]. There was a tendency among participants (College and University staff) to highlight the negatives and to describe the process as problematic, difficult, demanding, time consuming, stressful and frustrating. The problems associated with course development also appeared to be compounded by the fact that, although there were two course co-ordinators for each conjoint course (one from each institution), there was no staff member with responsibility for the overall co-ordination of the process.

The differing opinions about course content and what should be included affected what could be achieved for pre-service primary teacher education through inter-institutional efforts. The interview data revealed that the University had higher academic standards and wanted to develop courses with a greater academic focus. The College, on the other hand, had a preference for material with greater practical utility. While some inter-institutional groups were able to compromise, for others, many meetings ended in deadlock. These statements, by two participants (University and College staff), reflected the differing perceptions about course content:

> Well, there are two problems. One is that the readings I've set to accompany my lectures were seen as difficult to understand. Secondly, everything has to be perceived by the students or the students want to be able to see everything as directly relevant to teaching in classrooms. And after giving one lecture which was really about theories of knowledge and its relationship to building a curriculum, my impression was that it was not well received in that students found it very hard to comprehend. (P 31)
>
> I think that the course started extremely badly. The readings on the third wave were not good introductory material for the course. The

> way the subjects were related together didn't work successfully in that way. (P 38)

The differences in course approval criteria at the two institutions was another source of conflict and tension because the conjoint B.Ed. courses had to be approved by both institutions. At the University, there were minimum requirements - skeletal course outlines were acceptable. Once courses had the requirements for approval, the lecturer concerned would develop the content from his or her preferred perspective. Consequently, the content or focus of a University course could change drastically from year to year, depending on the particular lecturer and his or her preferred orientation. At the College, on the other hand, the content had to be presented in greater detail (compared with the University) in order to gain approval. This difference was highlighted when the second year conjoint education course (hereafter referred to as ED2) [coding was changed to protect the identity] was developed. In the following excerpt, one participant (University staff) explained the ensuing difficulties:

> The latest one that we've developed is ED2 which is our second year course.... There was some misunderstanding from the College side of this. The College felt that whatever was written in the description was written in stone. They didn't appreciate or realise, I think, that this was just a sort of general umbrella or injunction to say, "Yes, go ahead and do something in this area". They therefore felt that there had to be much more detail written in of things that they felt needed to be in the description. There are always political interests within the College that are arguing for different things to be included sometimes because of subject interest, or area interest, or sometimes because it fits in with other parts of the B.Ed. programme taught at the College. (P 5)

Differences in attitudinal dispositions also affected the working relationship and what could be achieved by some inter-institutional working groups or committees. In these excerpts, two participants (University staff) explained:

> There was always a view that whatever happened at the College was somehow inferior to what happened at the University. There were issues of status. (P 5)

> People have preconceived ideas about people in other institutions. For example, University staff are perceived as being far too theoretical in orientation and maybe not so much grounded in the reality of the classroom. From the other end ... staff of the College are perceived as not having enough rigorous academic approaches to knowledge. (P 34)

The issue of attitudinal dispositions is revisited in the next chapter.

The course development process also had positive attributes. For example, some participants (College and University staff) [in the minority] mentioned the personal and professional benefits derived such as opportunities for: developing appreciation for one another's work, developing professional and personal relationships, and sharing knowledge and expertise (P 12; P 26; P 29; P 34). However, these benefits were overshadowed by the negativity associated the programme and the affiliation, generally.

For the College, the negotiations also included marketing the B.Ed. degree programme. The College had to market the proposed degree to prospective student teachers, and in the primary schools and wider teaching community. Generally, marketing was a difficult process. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> Something I had to put a lot of time into, was moving outside the College in the teaching profession, and the principals' association and among schools saying to people, "This new thing we have, the structure of the faculty, delivering this new exciting degree is strengthening teacher education." Some of the primary school professionals are still very sceptical about whether degrees are actually necessary. I had to be able to show them that this degree maintained the strong theory practice relationship, maintained the primacy of the teaching practice, maintained the strong curriculum input, and yet was strengthening the academic, personal and professional development of the students coming through. (P 46)

The interview data revealed that the schools were asking the following fundamental questions: How would the new degree enhance primary teaching? What difference would graduates of the new programme make to primary teaching? Was it necessary for primary teachers to have a degree qualification? In the final analysis, it seemed that most primary school principals were still sceptical of the new programme and what it proposed to offer. The foregoing observation suggested that marketing the B.Ed. degree programme would entail more than just trying to 'gain acceptability'; it would also entail being sensitive to the needs of the prospective employers with regard to the programme itself and the proposed end product. In Table 25, the researcher presents the key learnings from the survival process associated with this property, 'Problematic'. The researcher also presents the survival process model with its additional third step, 'Negotiation', in Figure 10.

Table 25

Property 3.3 Problematic - Key Learnings from the Survival Process

1. The survival process is both complex and difficult.
2. Cultural and attitudinal differences are major sources of conflict and tension in the survival process, particularly where inter-institutional affiliation is an event.
3. When the process involves more than one event occurring concurrently and the process is rushed, the personal emotional costs, institutional problems and inter-institutional conflict are compounded.
4. Inter-institutional negotiations are ongoing throughout the survival process.

Conceptual Processing

Negotiation was the third category and also the third step in the survival process. There were two developmental levels of conceptual processing at this stage of the survival process (networking and securing).

Level 1: Networking

Level one was 'networking'. Networking itself had two sub-levels. At the first sub-level networking involved establishing and putting into operation the system of intra-institutional network of committees and sub-committees. The operation of this network of committees and sub-committees was guided by several different secondary time-lines of activities. These secondary time-lines were synchronised with an overall primary time-line for completing tasks within a specific time-frame. At the apex of the intra-institutional network of specified committees and sub-committees was the steering committee (the College's primary negotiating team). Final decisions taken by management informed the steering committee, whose major function was to negotiate inter-institutionally on the College's behalf.

At the second sub-level, networking involved establishing and putting into operation the College's primary team of representatives (and later, secondary teams) for inter-institutional negotiations. The College's primary and secondary teams were its representatives on the inter-institutional network of committees and sub-committees.

The strategies employed at both sub-levels of networking were critical. The major strategies used by the College were extensive and intensive prior and ongoing preparation and the team approach. Through thorough preparation and team effort, the College was able to secure a more equitable and favourable agreement, compared to previous negotiations with the University.

The Survival Process Model

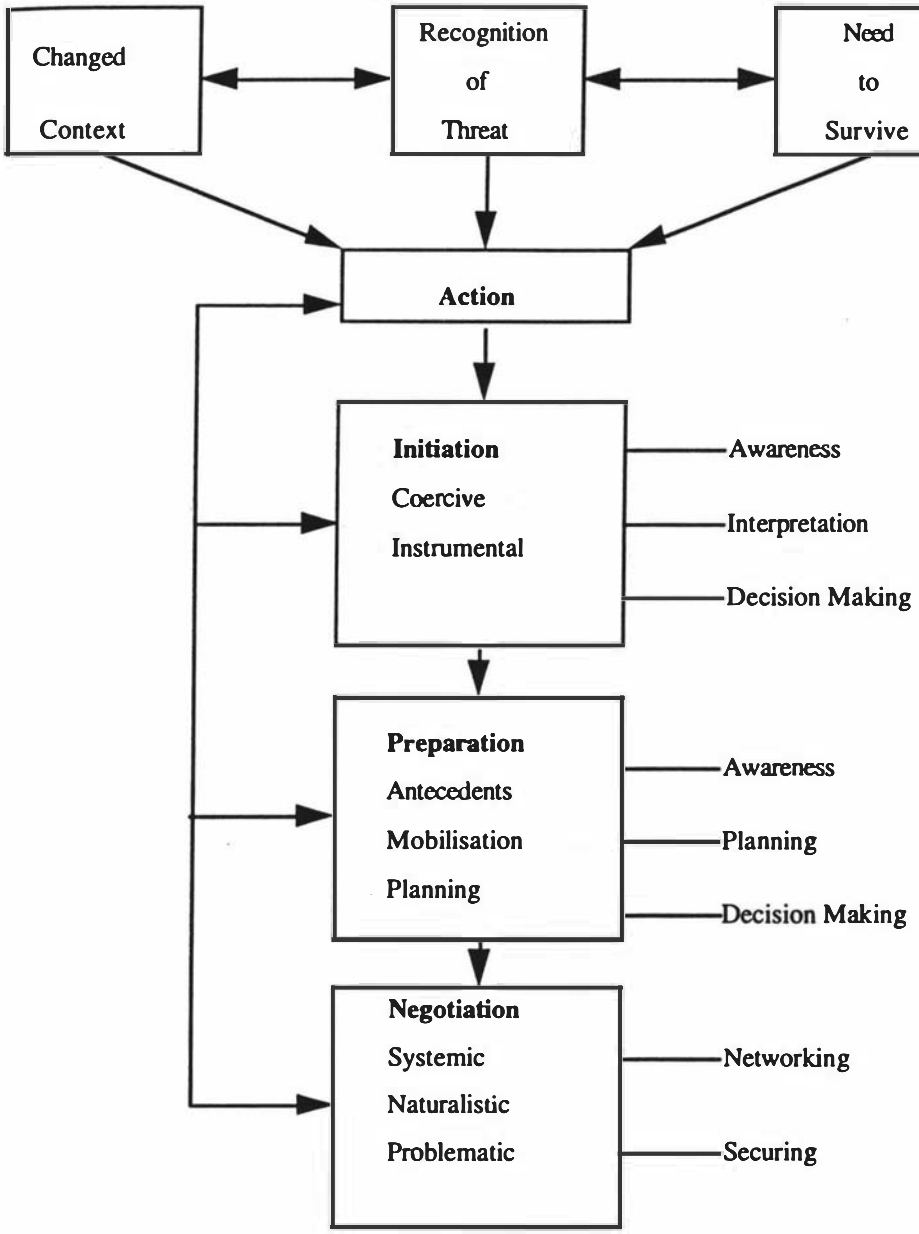

Changed Context
Recognition of Threat
Need to Survive
Action
Initiation
Coercive
Instrumental
Awareness
Interpretation
Decision Making
Preparation
Antecedents
Mobilisation
Planning
Awareness
Planning
Decision Making
Negotiation
Systemic
Naturalistic
Problematic
Networking
Securing

Figure 10. Negotiation: The third step in the survival process.

Level 2: Securing

Level two, 'securing', had three sub-levels. The first sub-level involved the College trying to use its more favourable position to its advantage in order to secure the best possible terms of agreement with the University. Through preparation, the team approach and the ability to use the context of the negotiations to its advantage, the College was able to secure agreement on a stronger footing. For the College, this was an achievement.

The second sub-level involved negotiating with several different organisations at the system-wide level: the Ministry of Education, the NZQA and the NZVCC. The negotiations with the Ministry of Education were to secure funding for the B.Ed. degree programme and those with the NZQA and the NZVCC were to obtain programme approval

The third sub-level was concerned with marketing the B.Ed. degree programme to prospective employers (the primary schools) and the wider professional (teaching) community. The College, in this regard, demonstrated awareness that its survival was dependent on the acceptability of its product: trained primary teachers. Essentially, marketing the product entailed setting up forums to try to convince prospective employers to accept the new programme and the product the College proposed to offer.

The third step in the survival process, 'Negotiation', covered the pre-implementation negotiations. Where negotiations were concerned, this study was delimited to the pre-implementation inter-institutional negotiations. Negotiations included matters ranging from the structure and management of the B.Ed. degree programme to course development. These negotiations took place at several levels. Inter-institutional negotiations were also ongoing throughout the period of implementation covered by this investigation. This feature suggested that survival (in this particular case), which was dependent on inter-institutional affiliation and co-operation, was a process characterised by ongoing inter-institutional negotiations. With the pre-implementation inter-institutional negotiations completed at what, for the negotiators, seemed to be a satisfactory level, implementation of the B.Ed. degree programme was the next step.

SUMMARY

The negotiation process was both interwoven and developmental. The network of intra- and inter- institutional committees and sub-committees and their combination of vertical and lateral connections suggested a highly interrelated and complex system. At the same time, the process was also developmental in that it moved progressively from the informal to the formal stage and led ultimately to the long term goals of affiliation and the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme. In this sense, the negotiation process was both purposeful and goal oriented.

The negotiations involved numerous meetings at various intra- and inter-institutional levels. The personal costs were considerable because the process was time consuming, difficult, stressful and rapid. In fact, one participant (P 5) described it as a 'roller-coaster ride', while others observed that there had not been enough time to discuss and 'think through' the critical issues. While the negotiation process was affected by cultural and attitudinal problems, there were also positive aspects of the process. For example, by working together, some College and University staff members developed a greater appreciation for each other's expertise and roles.

Compared with past negotiations, the College was in a better position to press for an agreement on more favourable terms. The College employed strategies such as extensive and intensive prior and ongoing preparation, a team approach, training, the use of research (particularly other New Zealand situations) and the use of at least one technical expert. In negotiating, the College sought to ensure that it secured a partnership agreement based on equity: equal involvement and equal sharing. The notion of 'fifty-fifty' (equal sharing) was a predominant characteristic. The College sought to ensure that its perspective, with regard to pre-service primary teacher education and its provision, was both respected and honoured. The College also managed to maintain its autonomy.

The data presentation in this chapter focused on the antecedent events and the first three stages or steps in the survival process. The interview data and documentary evidence revealed that the changes instituted by the College were primarily politically driven. The changes were initiated by key players in both institutions and sustained and driven mainly by a small group of 'institutional elites'. These key actors had the power to 'push through' the changes and were committed to their introduction. While there was a high level of support for the changes among staff at the top and senior management levels at the College, generally, there was a low level of support among staff below these levels (particularly teaching staff). The resistance to change among teaching staff was grounded primarily in fears of a University 'take-over' and the conviction that the College could have offered its own B.Ed. degree programme.

Despite the College's achievements, many participants at the College felt that the institution was still in a subordinate position to the University. These participants highlighted issues such as time-tabling problems, the College having to make changes to accommodate the University, changes in the College's Diploma of Teaching programme which were occasioned by the B.Ed. degree programme, cultural changes, and issues related to physical and material resources, among others, to support their position. Some of these issues were related specifically to the implementation of the B.Ed. degree programme and are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DATA PRESENTATION PART THREE: THE SUBSTANTIVE THEORY OF SURVIVAL

INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapter the researcher presented data that traced the survival process (and developed the substantive theory of survival) to the pre-implementation stage (Negotiation). The data presentation in this chapter focuses on the last stage in the survival process, 'Implementation', and completes the substantive theory of survival. The data presented are related mainly to the conjoint component of the B.Ed. degree programme - the component offered jointly by the College and the University. A full data set of the properties and propositions in the category 'Implementation' is presented in Table 26.

Category 4: Implementation

4.1 Disorganised

The four propositions related to this property (4.1.1, 4.1.2, 4.1.3 and 4.1.4) focused on the factors that contributed to the 'disorganised' implementation process. There were several factors associated with implementation that constituted its distinct characteristic, 'disorganised'. These factors were categorised as: resourcing issues, issues related to the model of implementation, issues of identity, philosophical differences, differing perceptions, communication difficulties, and administrative inefficiencies. These categories of factors were interrelated. Hence, there is some overlap in the data presentation.

It was difficult to separate some of the resourcing issues and those related to the model of implementation. However, in the area of human resources, although both institutions had pledged equal responsibility for resourcing the programme (Memorandum of Agreement, 13 August, 1992), there was no policy for the recruitment and selection of staff to implement the B.Ed. degree programme. In the interim, neither institution made any provision to appoint or second staff to work specifically on the degree programme. Apart from the new Dean of the Faculty of Education (appointed to replace the outgoing Dean), who was appointed for the academic year 1994 (the second year of implementation), the University had made no other appointments.

Table 26

Category 4: Implementation

Properties	Propositions
4.1 Disorganised	4.1.1 The implementation process was fraught with administrative, cultural, attitudinal and resourcing problems. 4.1.2 Most participants felt implementation was not well planned. 4.1.3 The communication systems were, generally, inefficient. 4.1.4 The visiting lecturer model was difficult to operationalise and the programme itself was fragmented.
4.2 Deficient	4.2.1 The B.Ed. degree programme was under resourced. 4.2.2 There was no policy for staff recruitment and development. 4.2.3 There was no mechanism to oversee and facilitate the day to day operations of the programme and no evaluation of the programme was conducted at the end of the first year of implementation. 4.2.4 Both institutions were not inclined to deal with unresolved issues until formative evaluation was initiated. 4.2.5 The programme did not seem to be meeting the needs of student teachers of minority groups.
4.3 Changing	4.3.1 Implementation was a changing process. 4.3.2 A process of ongoing review was initiated during the second year of implementation. 4.3.3 Attempts made during the second year of implementation to deal with implementation difficulties resulted in some improvement but increased tension in other areas.
4.4 Impacting	4.4.1 The B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University have had a profound effect on the College, particularly its culture. 4.4.2 There have been both positive and negative outcomes at the institutional and individual levels. 4.4.3 Implementation is ongoing and susceptible to continuous change and difficulties.

Interview data and documentary evidence showed that the College's approach to staffing was: whoever was interested, available and could offer his or her time would staff the programme (Memorandum Re: B.Ed. Development and Teaching, 11 September, 1992). This approach contributed to the disorganisation because there was always a vacuum whenever staff members could not honour pre-arranged lecture schedules. The College's approach to staffing reflected its conceptualisation of a degree programme and how it should be implemented. Further, while several participants at the College expressed their dissatisfaction with the model, the highest level of dissatisfaction was expressed by University staff, particularly the new Dean of the Faculty of Education. The following statement, by one participant (University staff), demonstrated the point:

> Coming from a university culture and an international research community my view is that you would always start looking at the staffing issues by appointing people who had a doctorate in teacher education and experience in primary or early childhood education to your staff. In any other degree programme that would be a baseline. In this degree programme the staffing policy has been: Who is it in the College who is not too busy? There was a memo that went round to that effect. So I think that's a huge difference. I have a vision of professional teacher education where there are baselines. It would be fine if ... had someone with a B.Ed. or a Master's and we said, "O.K. we need this person for a special reason. We don't have that level of qualification therefore we have this level". But I don't even see a kind of rational decision making process around that kind of issue. (P 26)

Involvement in the B.Ed. degree programme was voluntary and staff members were assured that their involvement would constitute part of their workload (Memorandum Re: B.Ed. Development and Teaching, 11 September, 1992). However, in the long term, most College staff discovered that their involvement was additional to their normal workload. For University staff, their situation was similar. The following statements, by two participants (College and University staff), captured the reality of the situation:

> At the moment I'm teaching thirteen one and a half hour slots a week for the first six weeks of the year. And the B.Ed. lectures are on top of those. I'm teaching a secondary school load for six weeks. Secondary school teachers teach a maximum of twenty-five hours a week. I'm teaching close to that and it's just not supportable for a tertiary institution. (P 12)

> There hasn't been a lot of change in our workloads in terms of adjusting it. There hasn't been much recognition from the University of the need to take some other responsibilities off so that you're able to fit in the extra responsibilities without over stressing yourself too much. So, we ... could do with some assistance to cover these responsibilities. (P 34)

Closely related to staffing was the issue of staff support. At the College, in particular, no support (for example, reduced workload and training) was provided for staff involved in implementing the programme in 1993 and most of the first half of the 1994 academic year. During the second half of 1994, staff support was minimal: administrative support and reduction in workload for one staff member (Memorandum: Review, Stage 2, 13 July, 1994). In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> And management didn't hear our screams of pain at the beginning of the year. I didn't have an admin. support person. I was having to do so much administration stuff on my own with willing hands from other staff. Screams about co-ordination between the two institutions that I couldn't do at my level, it had to be taken to a higher level.... But, quite frankly, the management of the College in many cases has used, I believe, and abused, in many instances, the goodwill of staff to get these courses off the ground and doesn't recognise the huge amount of input you've got to do. I think they've just got to be more supportive. (P 29)

Besides staffing, there were several other factors associated with the model of implementation (the visiting lecturer model) which contributed to the disorganisation. First, the model itself was the root cause of course fragmentation because there was considerable difficulty establishing linkage between and among lectures. In the following excerpt, one participant (University staff) explained:

> One of the problems that I can be quite frank about is that people seem to have a model of creating a B.Ed. on a visiting lecturer model that, whoever we could find who wasn't too busy and could be available for the B.Ed. got put into a kind of course outline. And they made the bare lecture topics and then strung them all together. I have real problems with that. It also brought about discussions and conflicts that exacerbated the cultural difference between the two institutions. This did not really construct any kind of a course for students. (P 26)

Second (and closely related to the preceding observation), there were several other course related factors that contributed to overall programme fragmentation and the disorganisation that characterised the implementation process. These factors were: (a) the fact that the topics and the structure of course outlines were dictated by the availability of lecturers and their preferred perspectives; (b) structural changes were made to approved course outlines with little consideration for scope and sequence; (c) the large number of people involved in delivering each course; and (d) the fact that lecture planning and the selection of tutorial readings was an isolated undertaking for individual lecturers. These issues were highlighted by several participants (for example, P 26; P 29; P 31; P 36).

Third, there was the issue of role ambiguity. The interview data revealed that most lecturers were uncertain of their roles because there had been no pre-implementation staff development or preparatory briefing. In this excerpt, one participant (University staff) explained:

> The lecturers were asked to prepare tutorial material to go with the lectures. And each of them thought that meant they prepare one tutorial for every lecture, but for most of them it's two lectures to one tutorial. So, I've got this mass of material which they have given me,

> which I then have to go back and edit through, just compile. But that takes a lot of time. Also it's a waste of the lecturers' time initially, also. There's no feedback loop to the lecturers. I've had to edit some of the material quite extensively because the lecturers are not sure. Some of them have never had to do this before and I don't feel they were given sufficient guidance in doing it. They almost needed to be workshopped through it. And there needs to be a feedback process to them to say this worked, this didn't. (P 32)

Fourth, there were difficulties associated with co-ordinating the courses. The interview data revealed that there was no staff member with responsibility for the overall co-ordination of the programme. Instead, each course had two co-ordinators: a College co-ordinator and a University co-ordinator. Collectively, this approach, the role ambiguity for lecturers and the visiting lecturer model made co-ordinating difficult. Generally, the co-ordinators had difficulty getting staff of both institutions together for meetings and preparatory work (P 26; P 29; P 31; P 32; P 36). In addition, the co-ordinators had to assist lecturers in carrying out their roles, particularly with the preparation of material resources. The following statements, by two participants (University and College staff), attested to the difficulties associated with co-ordination:

> I've had to go back to lecturers and say, "You can't ask this question. You can't ask three questions like that. It doesn't work. It's not a good teaching strategy." And I got their permission to re-do them. But in the first place some of them have just expressed confusion to me that they didn't know what they had to do and they did their best. Some of the material has been far too hard.... You have a whole tutorial for a piece of work that really is just a reflection on the whole theoretical content to date, but the students they panic. (P 32)

> Co-ordination of it has been somewhat difficult because you're dealing with large numbers of people each perhaps making a small contribution to the paper. In some ways it perhaps has strengths, but on the whole it is rather difficult to co-ordinate because there isn't much ownership of the paper. And like just the logistics of getting everyone together creates problems. We have never yet had a meeting where everyone could attend. (P 36)

Fifth, there were numerous problems associated with the preparation and dissemination of material resources, particularly during the first half of 1994. The researcher used the second year conjoint education course (ED2) [in progress during the fieldwork] as an example. With regard to this course, the interview data revealed that the procedures used for disseminating information were inefficient. Readings were being handed out on a weekly basis and there was the ongoing anxiety of ensuring that lecturers submitted the readings on time. There was also the added concern of the time constraints and the problems that could arise if alternative resource material had to be selected. There was no margin for error.

During the first half year (1994), student teachers had to go through the inefficient process of purchasing the readings on a weekly basis. There was at least one occasion when the wrong readings were handed out. Tutors also found it stressful to 'keep up' with the readings and to prepare for tutorials on a weekly basis. In the following excerpts, two participants (University staff and student teacher) explained:

> So administratively things are being done at the last minute. It's just a week by week that ... prepare the tutorials in advance. And you make mistakes like that. The wrong readings get printed, there might be spelling errors, there might be reference errors, etc., and to me that's really not good enough. We need to be modelling excellence in the preparation of our materials, and our own preparedness, and in our administrative structures. And we should be modelling that, and we're not. And I think we're pulling it off because all of us are incredibly dedicated and committed, and have a passion for what we do, and are putting in the time. But to me it's not good enough because it threatens our own ability to do the things we want students to do: to be able to reflect critically, to be able to take the time to think, to plan in advance, to respond. And when you're working under crisis mode, and it feels like that at times, no, you can't do that. I can't do that as well as I would like to. Or it means being up late at nights, getting up early in the morning, trying to find time to do the reading because I also want to do the big theoretical reading that informs my practice. But if all I've got time to do is just get the damn stuff prepared and get it out to the students, then I'm missing out on that process. (P 32)

> At the beginning of the year we didn't have a book of readings for education and I found that really difficult. We had to go down to the resource centre and get it out with our own money and our own time. And I found that quite challenging to do. I just expected a book of readings for us to be able to purchase as a book at the beginning of the year. And it reflected ... the disorganisation of the course itself. (P 47)

Sixth, there were difficulties associated with the inadequacy of material resources. Most participants (College and University staff, and student teachers) mentioned the inadequacy and unavailability of library resources and the difficulties which student teachers encountered in trying to access resource material. In addition, library staff were not fully prepared to meet the flow of 'human traffic' and the demands placed upon them by anxious student teachers all vying for the use of limited resources. In the following excerpt, one participant (student teacher) explained:

> Last year it was continual frustration asking for readings on your sheet and the librarian would say, "I'm sorry it doesn't appear to be here. I'll

> just check if it's out. No, it's not out. Maybe it's on the shelf." So you traipse along to the shelf, search high and low, and you go back and say, "No, it's not on the shelf." And the librarian would say, "Well, I don't know where it is. It might be being processed." As far as I'm concerned that's not good enough if you've got an assignment due in two weeks and you need those readings that the library staff can't tell you where they are, that they can't get them for you, and they are very vague about it.... I don't think they have enough on closed reserve - two or three copies with two hundred people wanting them. I think they need more on closed reserve and more on overnight loan.... That's the biggest frustration as far as the library goes. (P 43)

The interview data revealed that, for the student teachers, the personal and financial costs were huge, for example: student teachers resorted to photocopying huge amounts of material in order to complete assignments on time. There was only one photocopying machine available for student teachers' use. Student teachers also reported the inconvenience and time factor involved in purchasing lecture and tutorial readings on a weekly basis from the resource centre (mentioned earlier). This procedure extended well into the second year. Even after management became aware of the problems in the first year of implementation, there seemed to be little urgency, by both institutions, to address them. The following statements, by two student teachers, demonstrated the preceding observations:

> Last year we had to use two books and there were only so many copies in the library. And when you go to the library they were always out. And when you do get one you have to go and photocopy everything and that can get real expensive. (P 1)

> The readings last year were very difficult to get hold of because they only had a limited number in the library. Only a very small number could be taken out overnight. Many of them were on desk loan which you could only have for two days. They weren't enough to go around. And there was only one photocopier, so if you wanted to photocopy the work you had to line up for about a quarter of an hour. (P 42)

Finally, the approach to course and programme development also contributed to the disorganisation. When the B.Ed. degree programme was introduced at the beginning of 1993, only the first half year conjoint education course was written. The agreed procedure was to write the other conjoint courses while implementation was in progress (P 2; P 5; P 50). The interview data revealed that, generally, this procedure was fraught with difficulties. The reality of the situation was that involvement in course development or writing was additional to the staff's workload. There were issues of time constraints, difficulties associated with getting the groups of course developers from both institutions together and differences in philosophical orientation that plagued the process. Consequently, there were concerns about the quality of the product. Student teachers (participants) were anxious about the approach and the fact that the courses had not been written prior to implementation. In the following excerpt, one participant (student teacher) explained:

> So when the course is being made up as it goes and students are aware of that, they get more nervous. They don't know what's going on and they start to ask more questions. And when things go bad they start to ask more questions. (P 50)

The utilisation of physical resources was a major factor contributing to the disorganisation. The interview data revealed that the demands on physical resources at the College were not well thought through prior to implementation. For example, there were instances of double booked classrooms and other accommodation difficulties when the entire student population was campus based at the beginning of the 1994 academic year. Several participants (for example, P 5; P 6; P 9; P 12; P 17) expressed the view that the College had not anticipated having all the students on campus at once and that their presence 'placed a strain' on the physical and human resources (mentioned earlier). These observations reflected the lack of planning on the part of management. The following excerpts, from two participants' interviews (College staff), substantiated some of the aforementioned observations:

> We've got all of our students in College at the moment. And it's the only time this will happen. It's because we're changing to the sequence of a four year course. For most of the students it has been a three year course. One of the unforeseen consequences is that we'll have all the students in at once. So we're delivering a lot of classes because we have all the students here. So it has had that consequence on the staff that we're incredibly busy. But it will get better. (P 12)

> There are very few systems in place in terms of the recording of the data and the management of the different requirements of the Bachelor of Education. And that suffers from a lack of planning. It has not been thought through in terms of what it all needs. Even simple things like tutorials being held under trees because there's no room, etc. (P 41)

However, documentary evidence showed that the College and the University's Department of Education were both aware of the difficulties associated with physical resources prior to the implementation of the B.Ed. degree programme. The following excerpt demonstrated the point:

> Rooming wise the tighest [sic] pinch will be fitting 200 plus students of ED OI [fictitious code] into our lecture theatres. The largest takes 185 and it has soft seating without writing surface. Lecture Theatre Two, the one we now use, takes only 110. Some students you may noticed [sic] this year were in the aisles. (Confidential Correspondence to the Chairperson of the Department of Education, 30 April, 1992)

At one level, the foregoing observation suggested a hidden agenda: ensuring survival by implementing the B.Ed. degree programme 'at all cost'. The problems associated with human, material and physical resources also indicated that administration of the B.Ed. degree programme was inefficient and that the Faculty of Education was not functioning effectively. The Faculty's role was also ambiguous. Further, the administrative structure seemed to be far removed from the day to day operations of the programme and the intra- and inter- institutional communication systems appeared to be 'dysfunctional'.

With regard to the Faculty, one participant (University staff) observed that it seemed that the Faculty of Education had been established without careful planning and examination of other alternatives. Further, the Faculty of Education had been established merely to manage the conjoint component of the B.Ed. degree programme. These statements demonstrated the preceding points:

> The B.Ed. could have been within the Faculty of Arts and we could have been run by a small joint board of studies within the Faculty of Arts. And I don't know that that was considered. It didn't seem to me that it was necessary to have a Faculty of Education immediately to run the B.Ed., but that's a personal view. (P 33)
>
> We have now a very complex structure of a Faculty of Education around what is really only a third of the B.Ed., which is the conjoint courses, because the other courses are B.A. courses. The other third is taught at the College and we have no input into that. (P 33)

The preceding observations were supported by documentary evidence from the College's end: "A B.Ed. model was selected to facilitate a partnership with the two organisations through an education faculty" (B.Ed. Discussions, 1992). The University had no involvement in the components of the degree delivered solely by the College (the curriculum component and teaching experience). The Faculty of Education was merely the structural manifestation of the affiliation.

Throughout the implementation process, there was ongoing inter-institutional conflict and tension which exacerbated the level of disorganisation. Tension was rooted mainly in cultural differences, attitudinal dispositions and the differing perceptions of staff of the two institutions. There was ongoing conflict among staff over issues such as how teacher education should be approached, the theoretical content of courses, pedagogical approaches, staffing policy, the relationship with student teachers and cultural values. However, the most significant source of conflict was philosophical: the College had a more practical, humanistic and professional orientation, compared to the University's academic and research orientation. These statements (by College and University staff) reflected the differences in philosophical orientation:

> The philosophy I was talking about, I suppose, is looking at education as a theoretical subject, as a body of knowledge, which the University's Education Department does. The College tends to look at education as a practice. We're more practically orientated; they're more theoretically orientated. That has created a certain amount of tension. (P 21)

> People have preconceived ideas about people in other institutions. For example, University staff are perceived as being far too theoretical in orientation and maybe not so much grounded in the reality of the classroom. From the other end, maybe staff of the College are perceived as not having enough rigorous academic approaches to knowledge and things like that. (P 34)

The discontentment, tension and conflict were carried over into the programme itself. Consequently, there was a direct bearing on what could be achieved by conjoint teams and the College as a whole. As mentioned earlier, the impact of ongoing tension and conflict varied from conjoint team to conjoint team and from team member to team member. However, some teams and individuals were able to transcend their differences and function effectively as several participants noted (P 2; P 3; P 5; P 12; P 26; P 46). The following statement, by one participant (University staff), demonstrated the point:

> By and large I think it has actually gone very well. We started off with two courses which were the two first year courses and in particular in the first course, which is a sort of Education and Society course, there was a very strong momentum and rapport established by the teams from the two sides that came to put that course together. So, I think that was the beginning. It set the tone for developments after that. It was a process by which a degree of trust and collegiality was established, I think. Most of the problems have been practical problems; they haven't been ones of some sort of issue of professional status and so on. (P 5)

Conversely, there were instances where conflict and tension affected relationships and productivity in some conjoint teams. These detrimental effects were best exemplified with the conjoint team which was appointed to develop the second year conjoint education course (ED2) [coding was changed to protect the course's identity]. There were two co-ordinators (one from the College, the other from the University) but the two teams could not get the job done because there was conflict in too many areas. First, there was disagreement over the content and its scope and sequence. Secondly, there were irreconcilable differences in value systems (for example, the extent to which both parties valued Maori culture). Thirdly, there was disagreement because of different personal philosophical orientations. At one point, the University co-ordinator withdrew his services. By June 1994, ED2 had seen its third University co-ordinator. The following statements, by two participants (College and University staff), reflected the differing perceptions about course content and their impact on the final product:

> In ED2 [fictitious code], this paper is called the ..., it focuses strongly on equity issues, gender issues, race issues and access to education. It focuses on attitudes and values rather than on a knowledge base. Now, some will regard, and I could include myself, ... its knowledge base as too light. It is too much focused on values and attitudes and not sufficiently focused on providing a substantial knowledge base. (P 3)

> The ED2 [fictitious code] started with the notion of Chinese boxes, that we'd start from the macro going through to the micro. And I've worked with that. When we started we had again the marginalisation of Pacific Island perspectives and Maori perspectives. I actually came back and reworked it so that we had Pacific Island perspectives, and then Pakeha perspectives, which I thought was a fairly astute move of mine to try on the rebound. But then it went back to the College and it came back and we had Pacific Island people having to talk about Pakeha perspectives from the Pacific Island perspective. So that was lost because keeping that vision and getting people understanding it under the current conditions of planning were a bit difficult. When I say that, people at the College who were involved in that loss were concerned about it when they saw what they'd done. It's just that there hasn't been enough time for important consultation and debate. (P 26)

Although the second year conjoint education course (ED2) was eventually written, the process was rushed and, even in the early months of 1994 (the course was to be offered from March 1994), the course was still in draft form. There were also concerns about delivery because some lecturers were unable to participate as originally planned. In the final analysis, the difficulties at the course development level were reflected in the quality of the product and they were also carried over into its implementation. In the following excerpt, one participant (University staff) explained:

> It got written eventually, but it really wasn't a workable document in the sense that there were several people who were written into the document who were then not able to take lectures that they were written in to take. One left and went to a university, one left the department temporarily and consequently it has been really hard from the personnel side to put the programme together. (P 31)

With regard to differences in personal philosophical orientation, one of the causes of tension associated with ED2 was related to the issue of gender inequities.

Tension, in this regard, was not inter-institutional; it was gender based. There were some female staff members (across both institutions) of a seemingly feminist persuasion who were intent on creating an awareness among student teachers of the gender based inequities in society and their influence in the classroom. The interview data revealed that the extent of the coverage given to gender based inequities was a source of conflict, particularly with some male staff members.

While all student teachers enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme (participants) commented positively on the importance of creating an awareness of gender equity (interview and student teachers' questionnaire), five student teachers also commented negatively on the extent of its coverage in their second year conjoint education course (ED2). Those five student teachers felt that they were getting an 'overdose' of gender equity. The extent of this coverage could be one of the factors that contributed to the lack of motivation reported by three student teachers. These statements, by three student teachers, reflected the benefits of the focus on gender equity, the effects of its extensive coverage and the lack of motivation, in that order.

> I'm European and I have travelled a lot and I've got a lot of friends from different cultures, but I've just accepted that they are different from me and I am different from them. I haven't really looked at it that they are different because of the culture. And my feeling was that in my teaching pedagogy I would come across this thinking that the European values of knowledge would be the high and mighty one and that I would perhaps lead the development of other cultures. And it was actually devastating for me because I really believed that I was a fair, non-racist, and non-sexist person. And I actually realised that a lot of the things that I've been subjected to with other students in school possibly channelled my vision into thinking that if a child couldn't speak English that they couldn't speak at all. I could see the relevance of that. The B.Ed. has really helped me ... I could have a new perspective of teaching because I am now aware of a lot of the things that are going on rather than close-minded. (P 47)

> This year it seems that we go over the same things, gender equity, etc. I know it's important but we get it drilled into us so often. I didn't expect it to be like that. I expected more human development, and the growth of children, and what they think, and how they think, and how they operate, rather than getting assignment after assignment about gender equity, and cultural equity, and equity issues. I didn't expect the amount of it that we get. You get so much of it that you almost get sick of it. It almost has the opposite effect. You get so much of it that you're not as interested in it as you should be. (P 44)

> I find it very very hard to be motivated to do assignment work and to go to lectures. I don't know why. I find the work sometimes almost boring, not motivating at all. (P 1)

One student teacher (participant) also observed that, while they (student teachers) were being sensitised to recognise resources that were gender biased, the lectures did not move beyond that level. In this excerpt, the student teacher explained:

> The B.Ed. programme ... has told me about issues, it has told me that this is inequitable, and this is bad, and this you can't do. But I feel that it is lacking in saying this is the way that you counteract it. We get told that this resource is said to be equitable information to gender but we have researched it and found that no it's not. It has got pictures of females in the science lab where things are going wrong and there's a female there. But the thing is we haven't actually been told that this is where you get resources that are equitable. And I feel it's lacking there. It provides the thought, the processes, that make you alert but not the actual places to go to get correct information. (P 50)

The attitudinal problems contributing to the disorganisation of the implementation process could be discussed at two levels: institutional and inter-institutional. The interview data showed that, at the time of this investigation, the majority of staff members at the College (participants) had not internalised the changes. Generally, these staff members were not positively disposed to university study (which the B.Ed. degree programme represented), for various reasons, and they tended to project the negative aspects of the programme. The B.Ed. degree programme had occasioned a number of programme, cultural, structural and administrative changes. Most participants (for example, P 6; P 7; P 8; P 9; P 11; P 14; P 15; P 17; P 18; P 22; P 24; P 39) were bitter about the transformative impact of the B.Ed. degree programme. At the same time, one participant reported that some staff members had accused management of 'selling them out' (cited in the previous chapter). These changes and their impact are discussed in greater detail under the properties 'Changing' and 'Impacting' to avoid duplication.

The interview data suggested that the extent of involvement (or lack of involvement) by College staff (participants) in the B.Ed. degree programme was influenced, in part, by their perceptions of the programme and its impact on the institution. Although university study had become an integral part of most student teachers' training, many staff members still regarded university study as a nuisance. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> Now, what was once a nuisance (university studies) is now an integral part of the College programme. Many staff still regard it as a deep nuisance but it has to be accommodated. So, it's an attitude now of changing the staff attitude rather than simply saying to the student, "I'll negotiate for you" now I have to work on changing the staff attitude to say, "Yes, this is the way we want to go". (P 3)

The extent of staff involvement also contributed to the disorganisation in other ways. For example, there were difficulties associated with getting co-ordinators, lecturers and tutors for some of the conjoint courses. In this excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> For the ED2 [fictitious code] it was the lack of staff, especially when one University lecturer was on leave, one College lecturer was moving away. I actually felt really sorry for .... She went around 'pigeon-holing' and asking the staff to become involved to deliver because she didn't have enough deliverers for the course. The actual mechanics of putting it into practice is very difficult at the moment. (P 30)

Participants' perceptions of the B.Ed. degree programme were examined at another level. The interview data revealed that some participants at the College (staff and student teachers) saw the programme as the conjoint education courses; they did not see the programme as one which had several components constituting a whole. This perception, in part, also contributed to the general view that, holistically, the programme was fragmented. Unless some staff members were actually involved in lecturing or tutoring in the conjoint education courses, they did not see themselves as being involved in the B.Ed. degree programme. Some tutors also saw themselves as 'not being really involved' in the programme because 'they were only tutoring'. For most participants, teaching in the College components of the B.Ed. degree programme did not constitute involvement. Generally, the B.Ed. degree programme was considered to be on the periphery of the College's operations. One participant (College staff), explained:

> We haven't really wrestled with it enough as a College. It's just seen a little bit as being on the side of things that we do even though people in the College are teaching and doing tutorials. It needs to be seen much more as an integrated whole. I think a lot of us have got quite a lot of movement to do there. Definitely I think we should be more aware of some of the things they are doing so that we can draw that out in our curriculum studies. And I think that will happen eventually, but because each year there's so much development it's very hard to do that. (P 11)

Staff perceptions of the B.Ed. degree programme, in conjunction with other factors, had ramifications for student teachers where workload was concerned. Given the fact that the different programme components were seen as separate entities and the fact that there was no overall co-ordination of the entire programme, there was a lack of knowledge among staff about student teachers' workloads across the programme. Consequently, the work distribution patterns were unstructured and student teachers found themselves quite often having several assignments with the same submission dates. In the following excerpt, one student teacher explained:

> Sometimes we have weeks where there's just so much work that I think that I can't cope and I don't know. Sometimes I just go home and cry, "Oh I can't handle this anymore. Why do I want to be here." I guess we could have a more structured network of help. (P 45)

Most participants at the College (staff and student teachers) saw the Diploma of Teaching component of the programme as the most important aspect of student teachers' training. Some student teachers also felt that they were missing out on important curriculum areas. The following statements, by two participants (staff and student teacher), demonstrated the preceding observation:

> There's a huge compromise that has to be made within this institution about the core Diploma programme and the B.Ed. degree. I firmly believe that the key thing within any teacher education programme or within the one here, certainly, the core professional training for the students, is the work that happens within the Diploma. That is the content that will enable the students to go into schools and to teach the New Zealand curriculum. So that has to be preserved. I see the B.Ed. as the coating around the outside of that. (P 18)

> It's quite hard for us to focus only on the education papers and have very little diploma courses. And it's quite hard for us to keep in touch with what we're really here for, which is to become a teacher. And in all these curriculum areas we lose out on selected courses which we can benefit from. It's quite hard because we miss out on quite a bit though in the end we get a degree. (P 45)

Within the institution itself several participants (College staff) expressed concern about the attitude of some student teachers enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme. Those participants felt that the student teachers had an offensive attitude - an air of superiority - and did not hold in high esteem College lecturers who were not participating in the conjoint component of the programme. Further, those participants also felt that the student teachers did not regard the curriculum component of their programme as highly as the conjoint education courses. They cited the amount of effort that the student teachers put into their curriculum assignments to support their claims. With regard to this observation, some student teachers (participants) admitted to spending more time on their conjoint education papers because they felt the work was of a higher standard. The following representative statements, by three participants (College staff and student teacher), demonstrated the point:

> The trainees are certainly working very hard. I think they're having to work very hard. I think that there has also been an interesting thing which will continue to develop in terms of trainees' attitude to College courses vis-a-vis University courses. And it's quite interesting to notice that sort of thing. We've had some trainees who feel that College courses are inferior to University courses and so on, because they haven't perceived them as being heavily graded. (P 19)

> It affects me in terms of how my trainees complete their assignments for me. They tend to give their all to their Bachelor of Education assignments and dash off their College ones. They make a decision which they're going to give their energy to. (P 22)

> My education paper has, this year, taken priority over my primary curriculum areas because the work level is of a higher standard. And my diploma work isn't getting as much priority as it should. But my education work has taken priority. (P 45)

There was, however, at least one participant (College staff) [P 37] who expressed a contradictory view. This participant claimed that the student teachers enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme had out-performed those enrolled in the Diploma of Teaching programme on one assignment (in the curriculum component) that he had assessed. Although this observation was based on one assignment, it suggested that other factors could well have contributed to student teachers' perceived attitude. Perhaps, for the staff members concerned, there were underlying issues of self identity.

In the area of self perception, there were issues of self identity associated with the way in which staff at both institutions perceived one another. The interview data revealed that most participants at the College (staff) felt that University staff perceived them as less academically qualified and less rigorous in their pedagogical orientation. They felt that their practical expertise and knowledge were not highly valued by their University counterparts. This perception was a source of ongoing conflict and tension between staff of both institutions which, in part, contributed to the disorganisation (particularly in the case of the second year conjoint education course, ED2, discussed earlier). The following statements, by two participants (College and University staff), demonstrated the point:

> There is a certain amount of tension in the fact that College staff are differently qualified than University staff who usually have higher degrees, postgraduate degrees, whereas College staff tend to have undergraduate degrees backed up with a lot of practical experience. University staff don't always credit that practical experience with much value in terms of sheer knowledge. I think there's a certain amount of offensiveness about a feeling of inadequacy if you don't have Ph.D's.

> We have other kinds of knowledge which aren't necessarily valued by holders of Ph.D's. (P 21)

> We have to admit that some of them are a bit suspicious of the involvement of the University in teacher training.... And the suspicion has arisen from the fact that they might be worried about whether they are going to be perceived as less competent themselves because of their academic background. (P 34)

However, the interview data showed that there were some University staff (participants) [in the minority] who recognised and valued the expertise of the College's staff and were determined to make that expertise count in the development and delivery of the B.Ed. degree programme (for example, P 26; P 40). The following statement was representative:

> I've been drawing on the work of people in both institutions because college-university amalgamations are fraught with status issues. One of the things I would really like to do is keep valuing the traditions of scholarship and research and of the College diploma kind of programme. So throughout the course there are stories of members of staff at the College who have been involved in the arts, and research of staff there too. (P 26)

In the previous chapter, the researcher mentioned the University's regulation with regard to lecturing on University courses. Although academic qualifications remained an issue where lecturing was concerned, there was evidence to suggest that the regulation was waived wherever insufficiently academically qualified College staff (according to the University's regulation) had expertise that was required. One participant (College staff) explained:

> The University has not been insistent that all lectures be delivered by University accredited staff. So, that has been an advantage. (P 3)

For one College lecturer involved on this basis, participation was personally rewarding. This excerpt demonstrated the point:

> First of all, for my part, it's a personal thing. And I actually feel proud that I'm actually going to be delivering information about ... education within the Social Context of Learning. I feel proud that I'm actually working side by side with a lot of people that you actually read about. And here I am working side by side with them. (P 30)

The implementation process was plagued by communication problems which contributed to its disorganisation. Where student teachers were concerned, the lack of information or inaccurate information on critical issues (for example, the availability and number of University optional courses and the combination of courses that could be taken) was a product of both the seemingly 'dysfunctional' information system and a number of unresolved critical issues. The College itself did not have any reliable and precise answers for student teachers' queries, particularly to questions regarding University options and the versatility of the B.Ed. degree, as one student teacher explained:

> When I came in here as a student ... I decided that I was going to do a B.Ed. because it was supposed to be easier, it was supposed to cater for everything. I ... wanted to be a teacher, and I wanted to have the opportunity to teach at secondary level. I was told that the B.Ed. would enable me to teach at secondary level. And I now know that this information is incorrect, apparently. Some people say yes; some people say no. The reason why a lot of students don't know what's going on is because it has not been organised well enough. The information was never concise. The information has been changed. We were given a table when we came in saying what we would be doing in each year, very flexible looking. Now we're in a table that is more inflexible, from my perspective.... And when there hasn't been a clear structure from the beginning for you to have an understanding, like for them to come in and say, "Right, this is what's going to happen", that information I've never received. I'm trying to get that information ... but there's difficulty there with decisions that are still being made ... that influence that. The information was never there in an accurate way. (P 50)

The College could only try to negotiate with the University on student teachers' behalf. The College could offer no guarantees because there were other intervening factors such as time-tabling, prerequisites, what other University faculties and departments were prepared to do, and University course quotas, over which the College had no control. While the College had been successful in getting the English and Maori Studies departments to offer two courses on its campus, negotiation, it seemed, was destined to be an ongoing feature of the B.Ed. degree programme. At the same time, there was no guarantee that other departments and faculties at the University would be prepared to offer courses at the College. Consequently, it was not surprising that one student teacher described the situation thus:

> As far as the degree goes I feel ... is useless. I have to say he is useless. He doesn't know himself what's going on. How can he help students make informed decisions if he doesn't know what's going on with the course, etc.? It may not be his fault, but he comes across as being very vague, very laid back. "I don't know." "I'll get back to you." "I can't answer that." Well you might never hear from him again. (P 43)

The communication difficulties associated with the practicalities of implementation included: staff members not being informed about meetings,

meetings being scheduled at times when lecturers were teaching, time-table planners at the College not being informed about time-table changes at the University, papers to be discussed at Faculty meetings failing to reach staff members in due time, lecturers and tutors giving contradictory information to students, and classrooms being double booked. These communication problems contributed to the disorganised nature of the implementation process and demonstrated the inefficiency of the information systems and the management style.

The delays in utilising modern technology contributed to the inefficiency of the communication system and, by extension, the disorganisation associated with implementation. While all staff members at the College were provided with telephones, the majority did not have computers and access to electronic mail. The telephone was limited because staff members were 'mobile' and not always easily accessible by that means. Consequently, staff members encountered difficulties in trying to communicate inter-institutionally, especially on matters of urgency. Most participants made reference to the communication difficulties generally, while two mentioned specifically the need to have computers and access to electronic mail. One of the recommendations in the "Interim Report on the B.Ed." (10 March, 1994) was that all staff involved in the B.Ed. degree programme should be put on electronic mail. By July 1994, all the College co-ordinators of the conjoint B.Ed. education courses had been put on electronic mail. However, most staff members were still without computers and access to electronic mail.

Table 27

Property 4.1 Disorganised - Key Learnings from the Survival Process

1. The model of implementation influences the nature of programme implementation.
2. Inadequate planning, preparation and resourcing results in a chaotic implementation process.
3. Inter-institutional cultural differences become more obvious and problematic during implementation.
4. Internalisation of the innovation and implementation of the innovation are interactive processes which impact on the nature of the overall implementation process.
5. Implementation is facilitated by a built in mechanism to oversee the day to day operations of the process.

The data related to this property revealed a general lack of thorough preparation, planning and resolution of critical pre-implementation issues which contributed to the disorganised nature of the implementation process. Implementation was rushed because the initial time-line had been shortened. The process was plagued by numerous problems at the intra-institutional, inter-institutional and individual levels which were rooted in cultural, philosophical, perceptual and attitudinal differences. Collectively, they all contributed to giving implementation its distinct quality: 'Disorganised'. Table 27 carries a summary of the key learnings about the survival process derived from the property, 'Disorganised'.

4.2 Deficient

The five propositions related to this property (4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.2.3, 4.2.4 and 4.2.5) were concerned mainly with the deficiencies of the implementation process. The deficiencies of the implementation process were evident in the areas of resourcing, staff recruitment and development, administration, choice, programme evaluation and goal achievement.

While the absence of a staffing policy constituted one of the deficiencies of the programme, this aspect was discussed under the previous category and will not be dealt with extensively. However, the absence of a staffing policy by two well established tertiary institutions was open to several interpretations. First, the absence of a staffing policy suggested that the B.Ed. degree programme was a means to an end and its delivery was not a priority. Second, the approach to staffing the programme suggested a lack of administrative expertise, particularly at the College. Third, the non-interventionist policy adopted by the University until well into the second year of implementation, suggested a lack of concern by the University's hierarchy about the staffing policy and teacher education generally. This non-interventionist policy was changed mainly through the initiative of the new Dean of the joint Faculty of Education. In the long term, the difficulties associated with the approach threatened to bring the College's professional standards and credibility into disrepute.

However, the College's approach must be viewed contextually. The College had recently introduced a new management structure (mandated by the Education Amendment Act 1990) and was in the process of trying to make it functional. The administration of the B.Ed. degree programme was, in itself, also a novel experience for the College. Nevertheless, the approach to staffing had implications for programme quality and teacher education, as these statements (by University staff) suggested:

> There are a whole lot of things about how staff are appointed. For instance, is there a procedure and a process? Apparently not. And if you want to have excellence and if you want to have the best teacher educators you can on that course they might have to actually rethink how the ones who are there got to be there. (P 32)
>
> What we have is memos that are sent around when the course is operating begging anybody in a full programme who have an hour here or there to come in and work in the B.Ed. programme. I regard that as such a disregard for professional standards that I have deep fury about it.... If there is no provision for selection of those people who do have the qualifications, and then beyond that absolutely no allocation for staff development for people who don't, then the institution is making a mockery of teacher education. (P 26)

With few exceptions, co-ordinating a course, lecturing approximately one hundred and fifty to two hundred student teachers at once and facilitating a tutorial, were novel experiences for most College staff involved in the B.Ed. degree programme. Although the College had a staff development policy, no provision was made for staff development prior to and during implementation. Consequently, lecturing and tutoring were difficult for most College staff, as one participant noted:

> I think it has asked a lot of people. For instance, we didn't have really much in a way of training as tutors before the paper started. (P 38)

The interview data revealed that, during the first half of the year (1994), staff development and support (for College staff lecturing or tutoring in ED2) were limited to what was provided by the College's course co-ordinator and colleagues delivering the course. Responsibility for staff development (delegated by management) was part of the co-ordinator's role. Some training for tutors of the same course (ED2) was also provided on the initiative and goodwill of one of the University's co-ordinators. The following statements, by two participants (College and University staff), demonstrated the extent and nature of staff support and training, particularly during the first six months of 1994:

> The other thing is, I have been put in the role of supporting other staff to see that they are quite capable of lecturing and tutoring the course too. And that's quite rewarding, particularly, when they feel really good about what they've done. (P 29)
>
> We have a Friday morning tutors' meeting once a week for an hour. Actually, it's going for two hours now and that is really valuable. That's kind of for us to debrief after our tutorials. We look at what's

> ahead, sort our admin., but we also coach each other, train each other. We suggest strategies, and we share ideas, and also try to keep hold of the big picture in terms of the pedagogy we're working with and we test it. So that's great. And also just collegial support with ..., and ..., and ... who are the other tutors. Our meetings are very supportive and people just say what help they need. To me it feels very safe to say what your needs are and people offer suggestions. (P 32)

On this basis of the fact that no provision had been made for staff development, one could conclude that staff development for the programme's implementation was not seen as a priority. However, the staff development policy carried the following statement: "Staff development is a means of ensuring high quality outputs from the College" (Staff Development Core Policy, 1993, p. 1). If the intent of the College was to improve the quality of its programmes and graduates and if the quality of its programmes and graduates was dependent on the quality of its staff, then why was there no provision for staff development? Was the quality of the B.Ed. degree programme not important? One possible explanation was that, in trying to achieve the goal (survival), management at the College had lost sight of the importance of the means to that end.

Deficiency was also evident in the area of catering for student teachers from ethnic minority groups. The College, by the terms of its Charter, expressed a commitment to improving the educational participation and success rates of Maori and other minority groups. However, several participants mentioned the high dropout rate of student teachers from minority groups (including Maori) during the first year of implementation (1993). Efforts by the researcher (in the latter months of 1993 and throughout 1994) to obtain data on the precise numbers and the factors contributing to this occurrence were unsuccessful. Late in 1993, one participant (at the management level) reported that management was aware of the problem but that the matter had not been investigated. This participant also reported that the matter was causing some concern and that it would be investigated. Further, the participant promised to make the findings of this investigation available to the researcher. At the conclusion of the fieldwork for this study, to the researcher's knowledge, no investigation (in this regard) had been conducted. In the second review of the B.Ed. degree programme (Second Report on the B.Ed., 16 August, 1994), the evaluator also mentioned the unavailability of the same information sought by the researcher. At the same time, the researcher was aware that one University co-ordinator had organised a special tutorial for student teachers of minority groups who were enrolled in the second year conjoint education course (ED2).

Where choice was concerned, the B.Ed. degree programme did not seem to offer what was promised initially. Although, on paper, the programme seemed to allow for wide choice, several participants (College and University staff, and student teachers) noted that choice was limited (for example, P 6; P 8; P 9; P 17; P 18; P 42). In the following excerpts, two participants (College staff and student teacher) explained:

> In our relationship with the University we can only allow students to pursue arts degree papers and not science degree papers. That's discriminatory, in my view, that if you are going to be a teacher you can study for an arts degree but you cannot study for a science degree, because the time-table clash and the lack of co-operation between the University and the College just prohibit that. (P 10)

> Well, I can't take French or Maori to a three hundred level even though I'm doing Maori 101 and 102. I can't take it to a three hundred level because the prerequisite is 121, for the two hundred level, which means I have to do that next year. This means in my final year I'll only be able to do two hundred level courses. And I'll have sole charge. And I'd rather not be doing varsity study during sole charge. I'm upset about that, that I couldn't have taken one Maori paper in my first year. I tried to take French in my first year and lost money on that. I couldn't fit it in with time-table and commitments. (P 50)

One participant (University staff) also observed that all student teachers enrolled in the B.Ed degree programme appeared to be doing identical programmes: the same courses for the same number of credits (maximum). In this excerpt, the participant explained:

> The way the degree statute is set out in that College part of it there can be between thirty to forty-two credits, but at the moment it seems that they're all doing forty-two credits. There's no choice, they're all doing the same sort of programme. That's how I understand it.... It seems to me that that is one of the big problems for the students, which is fitting all that College work most of the day each day of the week into the structure of the B.Ed. (P 33)

Similarly, four student teachers (participants) expressed regret at having enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme for the following reasons: choice was limited; the programme was disorganised and, as a whole, fragmented; and, the programme's structure did not allow for majoring in other University options at the required level to gain certification for secondary school teaching. One student teacher also expressed the view that, for those reasons, some student teachers wanted to switch from the programme:

> There are a lot of uncertain nervous students who want to change (because it sounds like the best option), who don't know how to change from the course, who don't know what they can do next year. (P 50)

Given the fact that student teachers seemed to be doing identical programmes, the possibility existed that the College could produce graduates with little or no difference in expertise.

Choice was also limited in the curriculum component of the programme, as the following statements (by College staff and student teacher) showed:

> The other thing that has happened is that, in fact, the B.Ed. has meant a lessening of subject content as we teach in the College for the B.Ed. students. They are in fact now unable to take what we call a major in a subject area. That means that they're not going to go into schools with a specialisation because there's simply not time in the programme. I have real concerns about that because I think some of our most able students are the B.Ed. students. They are able to do both the Diploma and the B.Ed. They are potentially our curriculum leaders, and yet we are not giving them the opportunity within our programme here at the College to develop in-depth skills in some of those areas. (P 18)

> I tried to take a course this block, another P.E. course, because last year I started a P.E. major which was an optional course. It's worth one and a half credits or units. They have changed the system so that during your time at College you're only allowed to have two and a half units of optional subjects. And I had already taken two and a half units, so when I went and enrolled for this course they said, "Sorry you can't sit this course because you have already had your compulsory two and a half units. The rest of your units are made up from the B.Ed. programme." I couldn't understand that and I said to them, "Well, what's the point? I started a P.E. major, I want to continue in it, and I want to become a P.E. resource teacher when I leave." And they said, "Well perhaps if the teacher will give you a written piece of paper to say that you have completed the course we will let you." (P 42)

However, the issue of limited choice in the curriculum component of the programme was influenced by external forces, as this excerpt showed:

> "If the Ministry of Education finds out that we've got extra students taking on extra subjects, they will say that there are too many teachers because they can take on extra students and, therefore, they could be fired." Because of the B.Ed. we're not allowed to take extra subjects especially when you're struggling in an area. Like me, I want to take some extra Maori, more Maori classes, and I can't; some P.E. classes, and I can't. I would feel more confident having had more curriculum classes. I would personally prefer this over B.Ed. work. (P 42)

Choice could also be examined at another level: entry into the B.Ed. degree programme. The interview data revealed that there was no consensus of opinion regarding student teachers' decision to enrol in the B.Ed. degree programme. The first of the following statements, by one participant (College staff), suggested that prospective student teachers were entering the programme voluntarily:

> But it has been really rewarding because this year coming, in 1994, nearly eighty per cent of our students will choose the B.Ed. voluntarily even though it's a four year programme. It's going to be very very expensive, so very much the students welcome what is taking place, otherwise they just wouldn't choose it. (P 3)

Conversely, the following statements, by two participants (College staff and student teacher), suggested the opposite:

> Personally, I am not convinced that all our trainees we have enrolled in that programme should be enrolled. I've got a feeling that too much pressure is being placed on the new intake to join that programme. And I'm not convinced that all of them should really be there. For many of them it would be much preferable for them to stick to their three year diploma course and then perhaps look at university study after that. I think some of them are struggling with the academic level involved. It's not a question of intelligence; it's a question of experience, training, approach to learning and so on. (P 19)

> The only reason I did the B.Ed. was because I was told that I would get more money at the end when I came out and become a teacher, and because ... that organised the programme said that, "It's recommended that everybody do it. Just about ninety per cent of the people that are going to College are doing the course." (P 42)

The terms of agreement between the institutions gave clear indication that the agreement was a partnership affiliation based on 'fifty-fifty' (equal) sharing in all aspects of the conjoint courses in the B.Ed. degree programme. However, as implementation progressed, neither the University nor the College seemed to be honouring the terms of the agreement. The staffing appointments (with one exception) to which the University had agreed did not materialise and neither did the University provide tutorial and structural support. Although the programme was under resourced, comparatively, the College was contributing more in human, material and financial terms. In many respects, implementation proceeded through the goodwill and commitment of some College and University staff. For example, the College's co-ordinator for one of the conjoint courses had to personally solicit help from colleagues to deliver the course (mentioned earlier). One participant at the College also observed that the College's co-ordinators were contributing more to the programme, compared with the University co-ordinators, because they were site based and more readily accessible to student teachers and staff. It must be noted, however, that efforts were being made to deal with the resourcing problems (particularly human resources) during the course of the fieldwork.

Some participants (College staff) expressed concern that, financially, the College was on the losing end because it had to pay substantial amounts of money to the University as its share of the EFTS funding. In addition, the College also had to meet the transportation costs to get the University lecturers to the College. In the following excerpts, two participants (College and University staff) explained:

> I was very worried about the financial side. We're having to pay a lot of money to the University. (P 24)
>
> I think the College has tried to make the meetings more possible by arranging transport to allow people to come and go more easily because that would have been a diabolical problem having to always go in your car from campus to campus. It's all very practical, really, when you can't find a parking spot and you rush about. (P 34)

The interview data suggested that the under resourcing of the B.Ed. degree programme could be attributed, in part, to the diversion of funds received for the programme into other areas. In the following excerpt, one participant (University staff) explained:

> Issues of funding: Apparently money that came to the College here to fund the B.Ed. is being soaked into, sort of sidelined into other things and vice versa. Money that I think went to the Education Faculty at the University for the B.Ed. is being siphoned off. It's very hard apparently to keep track of all these bits and pieces. The course overall is being recognised as being under resourced in terms of staff. (P 32)

Unresolved matters such as the proportionate allocation of the EFTS funding and whether student teachers or University staff should travel for lectures, were issues that threatened the partnership. The difficulties associated with the proportionate allocation of funds were preceded by similar events associated with the funding of other University courses taught at the College (prior to the B.Ed. degree programme). When the University began to offer lectures in two education courses (ED 0I and ED 0II) at the College in 1991, the College viewed the University as teaching part of a course 'on contract' (Some Issues Involved in the Degree Programme proposal, 7 May, 1992, p. 3). The University received the full tuition fees and EFTS for the student teachers enrolled in the papers. The College also met the accommodation and transportation costs. Even then, there were difficulties associated with the remuneration of College staff tutoring on the courses, as this excerpt showed:

> The tutoring by our staff has never been acknowledged by the College as part of their workload. This is up for reconsideration as we negotiate arrangements with the B.Ed. but for this year timetables and staffing levels are set. Tutoring and marking therefore is [sic] all done outside College scheduled times - lunch times after 4:00 pm and weekends. For this the tutors need to be paid. One of our part time staff ... started the tutoring but pulled out because of the ambiguity over payment and her work has had to be shared by the others. (Confidential Correspondence to the Chairperson of the Department of Education, 7 April, 1992)

One participant (University staff) explained why the matter had not been resolved after one year of implementation, as follows:

> The issue of funding is one of the major issues that we haven't been able to resolve in terms of the internal apportionment of funds. And the reason for that is quite simply that it is extremely hard to actually put a figure very often on what is appropriately apportioned to one group or the other, and there's even a debate about what could probably be apportioned. So what is it that we're taking into account? Is it lecturers' time? Is it tutorial time? Is it preparation of courses? Is it the expansion of the lecture theatre at the College? All those sorts of things have been thrown in as part of the debate about what should be appropriately divided between the College and ourselves in terms of funding. (P 5)

The foregoing observations suggested that the College had not benefited from past experiences. The College had based the agreement with the University on trust: that the University would honour the inter-institutional agreement. At the conclusion of this investigation, the issue of funding and its allocation remained unresolved.

Cross crediting of student teachers' College work towards the B.Ed. degree was another unresolved issue and an area in which the programme itself was deficient. The College's and the University's grading systems were different and no attempt was made to rationalise the systems prior to implementation. The interview data revealed that, although the College had introduced a grading system, it was mainly to satisfy the Ministry of Education's standards based assessment policy, not specifically to address the issue of cross crediting its courses. The issue of how the College's grades would be transferred into the University's credit system had the potential to be problematic for both the College and student teachers in the long term. The following statement was one participant's perspective on the issue (University staff):

> So far, the College hasn't seemed to be able to translate what it does into the University system of credits, so there's a real problem of articulation to that part in the structure of the one hundred and eight credits of the B.Ed. And I think that's a problem for the students because [pause] the way the degree statute is set out in that College part of it there can be between thirty to forty-two credits, but at the moment it seems that they're all doing forty-two credits. (P 33)

While all the deficiencies mentioned so far could be attributed, in part, to the inefficient administrative structure, to these could be added the deficiencies in the communication and the data collection and distribution systems. Implementation was also deficient in the area of evaluation. Both institutions had agreed to an annual formative evaluation of the B.Ed. degree programme to assess its progress and quality in preparation for the University's academic review of the Faculty of Education in 1996. However, no evaluation of the programme was conducted at the end of its first year of implementation (1993) and neither institution had sought to minimise the implementation difficulties then.

However, during the second year of implementation (1994) a continuous review process was actioned by the new Dean of the Faculty of Education. The process was initiated to get first-hand data on the state of the programme on the basis of which changes for improvement and requests for increased funding could be made. At another level, this continuous review process was to prepare for the University's academic review of the Faculty of Education in 1996. The report of the first review was released in March 1994. The report stated:

> If that review [academic review of the Faculty of Education] took place this year its conclusions would do little for the credibility of the B.Ed. That should give point and urgency to the issues raised in this report especially the use of the best international practice and to all matters of staff selection, training and continuing education. (Interim Report on the B.Ed., 10 March, 1994, p. 4)

This review and the follow-up review in July - August 1994 influenced many of the changes instituted by the two institutions to address the deficiencies associated with the programme and its implementation.

The foregoing observation suggested that, as implementation progressed, the process was changing and efforts were being made to eradicate the programme and implementation deficiencies after the reviews were conducted. The key learnings from the survival process associated with this property can be seen in Table 28.

Table 28

Property 4.2 Deficient - Key Learnings from the Survival Process

1. The means of achieving the goal (survival) are as important (or even more important) as the goal itself.
2. Where shared governance is not part of the inter-institutional agreement, administrative difficulties are inevitable.
3. Unresolved, critical pre-implementation issues have the potential to affect the survival process negatively.
4. Where pre-implementation inter-institutional agreements are not honoured, the process is bound to be more problematic.
5. Support for the people involved is vital throughout the survival process.

4.3 Changing

The three propositions related to this property (4.3.1, 4.3.2 and 4.3.3) were concerned with the changing nature of the implementation process. The problems associated with implementation fluctuated both in type and intensity throughout the fieldwork and a number of changes were introduced. Some problems were addressed partially, if not totally (for example, the human resources problem), some were minimised (for example, course co-ordinators at the College were put on electronic mail), a number remained stagnant (for example, programme options for student teachers) and some intensified (for example, the allocation of the EFTS funding).

Some of the changes associated with the programme and its implementation were introduced after the initial review report on the B.Ed. (10 March, 1994) and the others followed the second review report (16 August, 1994). By July 1994, when the second review commenced, both institutions had attempted to effect improvement in some areas. In the area of financial resources, by July 1994 the University had: (a) increased funding to support part-time staff for the B.Ed. degree programme (for tutoring and co-ordinating); (b) allocated funding for staff development and supervision (mainly tutors); and (c) appointed administrative and secretarial staff support for the Faculty of Education. As the year progressed, additional funding was approved for the appointment of four senior academic staff for the B.Ed. degree programme, a technician for the Faculty of Education and a part-time librarian. The changes from the University's end were achieved through the lobbying and advocacy of the new Dean of the Faculty of Education at the University's governance level.

Where course co-ordinators were concerned, the University still had difficulties finding co-ordinators on a permanent basis, particularly for the second year conjoint education course (ED2). Until the beginning of June 1994, the Dean still had the responsibility of either co-ordinating or supervising the co-ordination of at least two conjoint education courses, including the second year course. By the middle of June 1994, the second year conjoint education course had seen its third University co-ordinator (mentioned earlier). Similarly, one of the first year conjoint education papers (ED 1B) [coding was changed to protect the identity] had a new University co-ordinator for 1994. The following statement, by one participant (College staff), reflected the impact of the rapid 'turnover' of University course co-ordinators:

> This is the second year, but last year I had a different co-ordinator to the one I've got this year and a slightly different course. And because there has been a new University co-ordinator appointed, we've had to change things. And some of the procedures have had to be changed. So last year for me was a trial. And I had to do most of it by myself last year. Last year the University co-ordinator was a very helpful person, but she was new herself. And being a course that's run here a lot of the responsibility was left with me. And that's the way it is this year too. (P 36)

Changes were also introduced in the area of administration. For the purposes of tackling and addressing unresolved inter-institutional issues such as putting the terms of agreement into practice, formulating policy for the B.Ed. degree programme and the Faculty of Education, among others, several intra- and inter-institutional committees, teams and groups were established (for example, the advisory policy working group; the College's B.Ed. steering committee of course co-ordinators). These groups were briefed to work on specific issues and to make recommendations for changes to be effected in 1995. At the same time, the findings of the two B.Ed. programme reviews (Interim Report on the B.Ed., 10 March, 1994; Second Report on the B.Ed., 16 August, 1994) led, in part, to the College reviewing and restructuring its operations during the latter months of the 1994 academic year. In the following excerpt, one participant (University staff) mentioned two of the proposed changes with regard to the delivery of the B.Ed. degree programme:

> The Faculty at the moment has a number of faculty committees and structures and so on and statutes that have been set up to support the teaching of the B.Ed., but those direct committees that would support the teaching of the B.Ed. haven't yet been formed. So I've been

> speaking with ... and we are getting a group of the B.Ed. teachers together which is a group that will put forward policy proposals that will then go through faculty committees. We're also getting a group of the B.Ed. course co-ordinators together, a steering group. (P 26)

By July 1994, the College had: (a) appointed an administrative assistant for the B.Ed. degree programme; (b) put all course co-ordinators on electronic mail; (c) tried to make its information system more efficient; and (d) relieved one course co-ordinator of other duties to work only on the programme (Memorandum: Review Stage 2, 13 July, 1994). A number of proposed changes for 1995 were also listed in the memorandum. Those proposed developmental actions ranged from establishing the B.Ed. degree programme independently to changes in the College's organisational structure to accommodate the programme.

The difficulties associated with the availability and dissemination of material resources, particularly for the second year conjoint education course (ED2), were also tackled by both institutions. By the second semester, student teachers had a book of readings and the College had increased funding to purchase multiple copies of required texts and more journals. With the increased level of funding, the College hoped that, over a five year period, the library would have accumulated a reasonable collection of resources to support the academic and pedagogical needs of student teachers registered in the B.Ed. degree programme. The following statement (by a student teacher) reflected the improvements:

> The library is getting much better.... They are getting much better now ... as far as ED2 [fictitious code] goes. We've got our book of readings for this half of the year. It's excellent. We've used every reading in it. We've got our readings for our tutorials. We know what readings they are; our tutor clarifies that. So those resources are getting better. (P 43)

The process of continuous review initiated by the Dean was extended to all lectures and tutorials for the conjoint B.Ed. courses. All lectures and tutorials for all conjoint education courses were evaluated by student teachers. Student teachers' evaluations were examined by the lecturer or tutor concerned and the course co-ordinators. Then, changes for improvement were effected as implementation progressed. This procedure was not supported by all participants. Generally, both the College and the University were accustomed to conducting summative evaluation. Those participants who did not support the approach claimed that it was time consuming and, to some extent, useless because some student teachers did not give meaningful feedback. In the following excerpt, one participant (University staff) explained:

> It's new to me. I'm used to course evaluation at the end of a course by students but not every lecture. So after every lecture you come back with a suitcase full of papers with what they've learnt and what they think of the lecture. Some of it is absolutely trivial. They'll comment on your shoes or your clothes, etc., which is not terribly informative. But they generally don't seem to be as prepared to struggle with ideas. That's my impression. (P 31)

The process of continuous review resulted in heightened tension and conflict both at the institutional and individual levels. The tension and conflict seemed to be rooted in the mis-interpretation of the purpose of the reviews (Interim Report on the B.Ed., 10 March, 1994; Second Report on the B.Ed., 16 August, 1994) and the continuous formative evaluation process. One participant (P 26) reported that some staff members interpreted the reviews as a personal investigation (targeted towards specific individuals) rather than an investigation of the B.Ed. degree programme. The situation was acrimonious.

As mentioned earlier, student teachers had demanding workloads. However, the pressure seemed to be greater when student teachers were doing their 'in school' training. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> They're quite stressed, the students. They've got a heavy load when they're out on their teaching practice and also doing their university work. And the assignment load, because it's just early days hasn't been very well thought through. No one has had an overview of what they're actually doing. An evaluation I did of the last T.E., if you look at the evaluation they've been very stressed if they're on the University programme. Their assignment load has been very huge. (P 24)

An examination of the evaluation forms (mentioned in the preceding excerpt) by the researcher corroborated the participant's statement.

Some student teachers reported that their school-based assignments were very demanding, particularly when they were unrelated to classroom activities. Generally, they had difficulty allocating their time among their practicum and assignments for teaching experience, the education course and professional studies. In the following excerpt, one participant (student teacher) explained:

> Teaching experience: There has been a real pull of priorities. Do you do the teaching experience work and teach, teach and learn as much as you can, which is what I enjoy doing? Or do you sit back and observe and do your varsity work? That has happened every teaching experience for me. On my first teaching experience we had to do a literature review and observation for the B.Ed., an observation assignment for professional studies, teaching experience assignment,

> and teaching. And it's where do you put your time? And it comes down to me, from what I've heard and what's being said, to a hierarchy system of, which is better? Which is more important, the Varsity or Teachers' College? And Varsity has more power in this country or more mana. And I don't know if it deserves it. But I've found that for most students there has been a pull of priorities. (P 50)

As implementation progressed, efforts were made to alleviate the difficulties student teachers faced with regard to school-based assignments. The interview data revealed that efforts were made to link teaching experience and the assignments for at least two education courses. This development was to ensure both the appropriateness and relevance of future assignments. A consultative group (constituted of associate teachers and a University staff member) was subsequently established to plan the school based assignments. The following statement, by one participant (University staff), explained why the consultative group was established and the benefits derived:

> I was deeply concerned about the use of an assignment. The first assignment was a literature review for the first years on teacher expectations, and I have concerns for two reasons. I think that's probably one of the most difficult academic tasks for postgraduate students and to start school leavers on a literature review worries me.... The second reason is that they went on their first teaching practice having to design a study to study teacher expectations. To me that's almost unethical.... Now, do you set your young and inexperienced student teachers up to judge such an airy fairy thing as expectations and with the whole literature that is so problematic, anyway?.... I am very unhappy about the University imposing an assignment in a school context without negotiation. So, I required that we have a consultative group of associate teachers and they and I planned the school based assignments for the B.Ed. courses year one, first half, and year two. That was just an amazing experience and very exciting. And I hope that will build a collaborative kind of triangle between the school, the College, and the University in developing the B.Ed. as well as diploma. (P 26)

The benefits of this consultative process had filtered down to the student teachers, as one student teacher explained:

> The last assignment I had I was really pleased with the way they integrated the teaching experience. We actually had to research children for our assignments. But it was really practical for me and I found that very worthwhile. Before I found that they were sort of trying to make you do things when we were in the classroom but it didn't really relate. It was sort of a half-try attempt at relating it to the theories that we had learnt. And I didn't really feel confident with what I was doing. And we were presented with research people who were quite knowledgeable, who had done a lot of research in that area. And I didn't feel that what I was researching myself, and what I was

> discovering myself, was really of comment. I didn't often make a lot of suggestions about what I felt was happening in the classroom. (P 47)

The major changes discussed under this property highlighted the changing nature of the implementation process and the B.Ed. degree programme itself. For this very reason, the B.Ed. degree programme and the Faculty of Education were both evolving. As the two entities evolved, the implementation process impacted both at the institutional and individual levels. The key learnings derived from the survival process associated with the property 'Changing', can be seen in Table 29.

Table 29

Property 4.3 Changing - Key Learnings from the Survival Process

1. Formative (ongoing) evaluation of the implementation process is one approach to addressing implementation difficulties.
2. Implementation is a changing process and changes introduced during the process can both eradicate existing problems and introduce new ones.
3. Evaluation of the implementation process is a potential source of conflict and tension.
4. Strong leadership is a key element in initiating change during implementation.
5. Time and the timing of events are important factors in the survival process.

4.4 Impacting

The three propositions related to this property (4.4.1, 4.4.2 and 4.4.3) were associated with the impact of the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation on the College. These changes had both positive and negative impacts at the institutional and individual levels. However, the demerits outweighed the merits and there was a tendency among participants to focus on the negative effects of the innovations. The effects of the changes are discussed in relation to administration, culture, curriculum, workloads, attitude, self perception and benefits.

In the area of administration, both institutions remained autonomous with their own governance and management structures. However, the College lost some of its autonomy in the area of decision making. The College had to consult with the

University before introducing changes as long as the B.Ed. degree programme would be affected. However, the University did not always reciprocate. Some participants mentioned several instances where decisions taken at the University, without consultation, required changes (at short notice) by the College. This approach was a source of anger and frustration for many participants who felt that the University did not recognise the College as a tertiary institution of 'equal standing' (for example, P 9; P 14; P 15; P 17; P 25). In this regard, there were issues of institutional status and power involved. It was a case of the more powerful institution dictating the terms and dominating the less powerful institution, despite the affiliation agreement. The following statements, by two participants (College staff), demonstrated the point:

> For the institution it has meant that we're having to live with a big brother, the University, imposing its will on us in certain areas. Of course, that's inevitable and predictable. And so if they decide to change their time-table, they will do so without informing us and we shall have to adjust ours accordingly. (P 25)

> Because the University owns the degree, when the degrees are given the University gives it to them, although it's a conjoint programme to arrive at the B.Ed., we had to adapt to certain University processes and procedures because it was part of their culture. That has been quite a difficult thing in some areas. (P 46)

Closely related to the University's approach was the issue of a culture of change where the University was concerned. Several participants at the College expressed the view that the University was not prepared to make changes and that the expression, "That is the way we do things at the University", was used repeatedly at meetings whenever the College proposed changes from the University's end (for example, P3; P 18; P 24; P 29). These participants also claimed that the College was always expected to make changes to accommodate the University's culture.

The effects of the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation on the College were also reflected in several structural changes. These changes included: (a) a longer, five slot teaching day (Hilltop College of Education Calendar, 1994, p. 81); (b) time-table changes; (c) a reduction in the time allocated to some subject areas (for example, art, music and physical education); (d) a further reduction in the number of selected studies courses; (e) a new joint Faculty structure; (f) changes in the use of physical facilities (for example, lecture theatres and classrooms); and (g) the establishment of new and different committee structures (for example, the B.Ed. Steering Committee of Course Co-ordinators). In the first of the following excerpts, one participant (College staff) commented on several of the changes mentioned, while in the second, another participant (College staff) commented on the time-tabling difficulties at the institutional level:

> It has resulted in certain time-table changes to 'free up' slots in which the lectures can happen. For example, we've changed to a five slot teaching day whereas before we only had four. Quite a lot of staff have become involved in tutoring courses in support of those lectures. Time-tabling and arranging the students' programme has become more complex because you've got two institutions involved instead of just one. (P 21)
>
> We had to take account of a whole lot of new things like where did the education papers sit in the timetable, in a day, in a programme. So, we dealt with that. But as it grows, the problem also grows because as second and third years come on stream it takes more and more space and there is then the problem of how you joggle those things together to still allow this to happen and all the other things to happen as well. It's the difficulty of being on two different campuses and having to deliver some here and some happen down there at the University, because there are B.A. papers that they'll start in the second year as well as those that will contribute towards the B.Ed. So, there were quite significant changes. (P 4)

The inter-institutional administrative arrangements resulted in a lack of integration in shared operations: the development and delivery of the B.Ed. degree programme. In fact, these arrangements coupled with the fact that the University's involvement was only in the conjoint education courses, in part, contributed to the lack of linkage across all components of the programme. In the following excerpts, two participants (University staff and student teacher) commented on the impact of the structural arrangements:

> And what it made me aware of as a person who had only marginal influence on the decisions and the processes that were made at that time ... is that this whole process of integration wasn't clearly thought out ... I think when you actually have a degree which is a joint degree rather than a degree which is actually offered by the University, then you can't actually have the University and the College of Education participating only in the five conjoint courses. You really need to actually have a programme that looks at the way everything is related to everything else. And this hadn't been done because the University's participation was, from the Education Faculty point of view, only in the conjoint courses.... And the two other parts of the B.Ed. degree, the curriculum and professional training areas, were completely controlled by the College of Education. (P 40)
>
> I find it really difficult to see the four strands interrelated. (P 47)

The interview data revealed that the responsibility for establishing linkage among the components of the B.Ed. programme was left to the individual student.

The following excerpts (from College staff and student teacher interviews) demonstrated the point:

> As I remember it, it was bits - a bit here and a bit there. And they just hoped that it all came together and made some sense to the students. And there was no connection between them. How did what was done there connect with what was done here? If you leave it to the students to make the connections some bright students may, indeed, make the right connections; others won't have a clue, or worse, they will get it wrong. There was no feeling that this is a degree which has to make sense and be internally consistent. And if it wants to produce reflective teachers it needs to decide how it's going to produce reflective teachers. (P 41)

> I think to make it come together and to work it depends on the individual. It depends on what you draw out of it. (P 50)

While all student teachers expressed the view that, holistically, the programme was fragmented, most student teachers were, however, able to identify some linkage between two or more components or aspects thereof. For example:

> Sometimes it's hard to put the two together because there's so much theory. But because you have done so much theory after a while it just sinks in and you can take what you've learnt and put it into the classroom. The implications for gender, and class, and ethnicity, you can take that with you into the classroom. It can influence the kinds of things that you do. (P 1)

> I see links between the diploma and the teaching, definitely. And there has to be links between the diploma and the teaching otherwise you totally lose it. Definitely, the education paper links to both of them, the diploma and the teaching. And there's not a real link between my English paper and my education, teaching experience, or the diploma. (P 45)

The B.Ed. degree programme also necessitated a number of curriculum changes (most of which have been mentioned earlier). Briefly, however, these changes included: the restructuring of the Diploma of Teaching programme, the writing or rewriting of some core curriculum courses, a further reduction in the number of selected studies courses, the limiting of student teachers' choices and the marginalisation of some subject areas (for example, art and physical education). In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> The impact on the institution and the staff of the institution has been very great in some areas because what it made us do was go back. And we realise we had to review our diploma programme. As the degree started to emerge we had to revamp the diploma programme so the two fitted in together. So the four year people had a total B.Ed.-Diploma programme. It wasn't a B.Ed. plus a diploma tagged on. It's a total

> four year programme. And that was a lot of work for the primary and early childhood people. It also meant that some of the things that were traditionally offered in the College for just the straight three year diploma have a lesser value in the degree programme. I'm thinking of a series of sort of personal studies that people did to widen their own vision, etc. But we believe that the degree is doing that in a different way now. That was quite hard. Some medium and longer term staff had some of their key areas altered quite drastically. The whole reallocation of resourcing and so on has had an impact on the institution. And that's been difficult for some. (P 46)

The B.Ed. degree programme, in part, influenced changes in other areas of operation such as selection, academic entry criteria and assessment. The College introduced a more rigorous selection process, raised the academic entry criteria, and introduced more rigorous forms of assessment. However, as mentioned earlier, the 'translatability' of the College's units into credits for the B.Ed. degree programme under the University's system was not addressed.

Financially, the B.Ed. degree programme impacted on the College in two ways. First, the College had to share the funding for the students enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme proportionately with the University. In addition, the College had to meet the cost of transporting the University lecturers to its main campus (mentioned earlier). Secondly, student teachers enrolled in degree programmes were funded at a lower cost category (compared with the Diploma of Teaching programme) by the Ministry of Education (The EFTS Funding System for Tertiary Institutions, 1992; P 4; P 5; P 24). Hence, the College received less funding for the student teachers enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme. Consequently, the College had to increase its student intake to offset funding shortfalls. This strategy, in turn, resulted in increased pressure on human, material and physical resources. In the following excerpts, two participants (College staff) explained:

> A huge change that has occurred is that the College has had to get very big because we are funded on the EFTS. I think it's five thousand eight hundred, something like that, per trainee, if they're at university; but ten thousand two hundred if they're full-time here. So we're losing something like a third of the funding which means that we've got to take in thirty per cent more students. So we've got more students coming in. We've got more students but less choice. (P 24)

> We've had some major funding cuts in the College since we've been bulk funded by the government. Now that impacts on staffing and provides a tension that I feel affects the way that you plan your courses and the way you plan your programmes. In some cases we're teaching too many students in a class and on the other hand we're desperate to see those students meet the requirements of our department. So you're pulled in a tension there. (P 29)

The interview data revealed that the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation also impacted on the ethos of the College. Some participants claimed that the B.Ed. degree programme caused the devaluation of the Diploma of Teaching programme, that the College's operations revolved around the B.Ed. degree programme, that university study had taken precedence over the College's programmes and that the atmosphere at the College had become more 'university-like'. The following statement reflected one student teacher's perceptions of the changing ethos:

> Before when you used to come here College came first and varsity came second. Now that priority has changed. They have made varsity first and then College second, not realising that the whole purpose for you being here is becoming a teacher. That sort of structural change happened. And it's felt by a lot of students that this year the whole College environment, the student environment, has changed because it just feels like a different atmosphere. Students are more stressed out. (P 49)

Cultural changes were the most profound and the most difficult to accept both at the institutional and individual levels. All the changes, taken in totality, contributed to the overall cultural transformation of the College. Although most of these changes were mentioned before, the researcher will focus on the ritualistic changes and their impact. Prior to the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme and the emergence of the longer, five slot teaching day, the College's staff had a common lunch hour and common morning and afternoon tea breaks. During those breaks, staff members had the opportunity to meet and discuss issues of importance, collegially. The staff also utilised lunch hours for holding meetings, seminars or, together with student teachers, for having cultural presentations. The B.Ed. degree programme and the changes it necessitated, particularly in time-tabling, brought the demise of all those events and the loss of what was sacred to many staff members. In addition, the traditional emphasis on the arts (performing, visual, creative, etc.) was lost with the marginalisation of these subject areas. These representative statements, by two participants (College staff), reflected the impact of the ritualistic changes:

> When you cram the programme so tightly they don't have that common break in the middle of the day where they can share personal things, they can share their ideas with one another. We don't have that common lunch hour or that common afternoon tea time or morning break. I think from a personal point of view that's something we've lost. It's a very long day. We start at half past eight and we finish at half past four. (P 9)

> We had to change our time-table because of the B.Ed. so we no longer have a lunch hour. To me that's rather sad because we used to, in the lunch hour, have speakers and concerts. And groups of kids would come up and be entertained by some of our students. We could have political meetings, we could have union meetings, we could have women's groups meetings, and share our lunch together. The whole ethos of the College, I believe, has changed because of the demands of the B.Ed., to a certain degree. (P 29)

Negotiations were ongoing throughout implementation. Overall, participants from the College who were involved in the negotiations reported that the process was stressful and difficult. One participant described the process as having to live in two cultures but, at the same time, ensuring that what the College represented was not lost in the process of the negotiations. Two participants (P 24; P 29) also mentioned that participating as members of the Faculty of Education gave them a negative impression of the University and its culture. In this excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained how difficult it was to work in the two cultures:

> I think that for me as a person and my position here, it has had an impact in so far as I have to operate in terms of the faculty and at times in another organisation's culture.... I'm aware of times when I'm almost bicultural, when I have to move into the University culture and yet retain my strength, etc., in the culture of the College. And I had to ensure that the cultural environment of the College wasn't devalued, that we kept strong in the things we believed in. (P 46)

With the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme, university study became an integral part of pre-service primary teacher education. Where academic standards were concerned, the impact of the B.Ed. degree programme was both positive and negative. On the one hand, it gave the College greater academic respectability because of the status attached to a degree programme and the fact that the programme, in part, influenced improved academic standards. In this regard, one participant (College staff) observed:

> On the other hand, we've got to know members of the University better. There has been a positive effect on this College in that the academic standards have become a little more rigorous because of the comparison with the University and the way the University does things. (P 21)

On the other hand, the negative publicity associated with the implementation process threatened the credibility of the programme particularly where student teachers were concerned. Similarly, some participants expressed the view that the Diploma of Teaching programme had been devalued because of the professional, social and economic status associated with the degree.

The B.Ed. degree programme brought an increase in the number of University courses offered at the College and, to some extent, less travelling for the student teachers. However, the issue of whether the University lecturers or the student teachers should travel remained unresolved at the conclusion of the fieldwork for this study. Documentary evidence showed that the University wanted the student teachers to do the travelling while the College's position was that, wherever possible, the lecturers should do the travelling (Some Issues Involved in the Degree Programme Proposal, 7 May, 1992, p. 3).

The B.Ed. degree programme has also resulted in the University's recognition of the teaching experience component as an integral part of teacher education. As one participant observed (College staff), the practicum component was one aspect of primary teacher education that was non-negotiable:

> The one thing we hung onto with the introduction of the B.Ed. was that the practicum or teaching practice not be affected. We've not lessened the number of hours at all that trainees do in the classroom as part of their training whether they're doing the B.Ed. or not. And we would fight to maintain that approach to the practicum. (P 23)

University lectures for the conjoint education courses and at least two other optional University courses were organised to accommodate the teaching practicum. At the same time, College staff lecturing in the conjoint education courses have had to get used to dealing with larger groups of students (for example, groups of eighty, one hundred and fifty or two hundred). College lecturers were accustomed to teaching small groups of twenty to thirty students. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) reflected on this change:

> They sit in classes of two hundred whereas prior every class was twenty, we never went above say twenty-five except the choir. Now we have classes of two hundred, classes of eighty, this is university style. The style of teaching in some classes, those university classes, is university style: a lecturer walks in, declaims and walks out. This has never happened here. We have always ... criticised it as being dreadful. Now it's an integral part of our programme. (P 3)

Some participants (College staff) also mentioned the impact of the B.Ed. degree programme on teaching style at the individual level. The following statement was representative:

> It put a lot more pressure on us as staff. Those of us who are developing courses, and people lecturing and tutoring in the courses, have had to come to grips with the University culture very fast. We're

> used to teaching a maximum of thirty students in a classroom very much in workshop mode, that is, crawling on the floor, doing all sorts of things. We're not used to lecturing. We're used to working in primary school classrooms and suddenly a lot of us have found ourselves as lecturers. (P 29)

On a similar note, several student teachers (participants) expressed the view that the pedagogical styles of some lecturers were inappropriate models (for prospective primary teachers). The following statement demonstrated the point:

> It surprises me that a lot of the people who lecture to us are very renowned researchers in their area and can't seem to get their points across. What they are trying to tell us is often presented in what I perceive to be a boring and very unprofessional manner. I look to the lecturers as model teachers because we are learners as well, and I don't get a lot of motivation from their teaching pedagogy towards us. I did expect that there would be some lecturing, of course, where there is a lecturer at the front and we the passive form of learners, but on the other hand because they realise that this is going to be part of our teaching preparation they should be modelling other ways of conveying information. (P 47)

Staff at the College (participants) also had to deal with numerous other changes which had both positive and negative effects at the individual level. The cultural changes (mentioned earlier) caused anger, frustration and hostility among and between staff of both institutions. Some intra- and inter- institutional interactions were heated and acrimonious. Consequently, for the people involved, the situation was stressful and for most staff members at the College morale was low. The following statements, by two participants (College staff), reflected the prevailing mood:

> It brought a stress level change. (P 22)

> The changes have affected us not only in terms of our subject area but in terms of our spirit too. It's inhibited them (I can speak for other lecturers, too) to the point where they feel that they are teaching pedagogy and the place has become factory-like. We are starting to lose the caring, pastoral attitude that this place has been very strong on over the last few years and it has become a sort of academic factory where students are running from this to that to try and fit things in. And it's all fragmented. That has effect on students' spirit and that certainly has effect on staff's spirit. What it's also doing to staff is they don't get the rich reward they've had in the past from being able to identify with young people interested in the Arts from their first year here at college, and be able to teach them, and see them come back for course after course ... and the satisfaction of work being produced at this level up here rather than this sort of mediocre level that we are able to do now with this factory mentality.... That's what we are sadly missing. (P 17)

As the preceding statement indicated, most participants at the College (staff) felt that they had lost many of the customs that were valued by the institution. Some participants also expressed the view that, for staff members involved in subject areas that had been marginalised and those less academically qualified, there was disillusionment and anxiety over job security (mentioned earlier). Job security seemed to be one of the factors that influenced some staff members to either become involved in the B.Ed. programme (mainly tutoring) or to upgrade their academic qualifications through university studies. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> One of the changes for me is as a consequence of the B.Ed. there is a feeling that in order to be able to participate in the B.Ed., to lecture in a degree programme, there are certain aspects that are different from working in our College programme. So, I have started doing my master's degree in education. The B.Ed. has motivated me to do that. The desire to participate in the B.Ed. teaching is there for me, so I want to make sure that I prepare myself for that. (P 16)

On the other hand, there were other staff members who had become so disillusioned with the course of events that they either took early retirement (four) or changed jobs (seven) at the end of 1994. There were also some staff members who had been made redundant. At the same time, some participants observed that those staff members who had already improved their academic qualifications had not been duly acknowledged for their efforts by the College. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> Many of us were told to go off and get masters and doctorates, etc., but there's no promotion anywhere. There's no more money, there's no more seniority.... If the College keeps asking people they must address what happens next. They keep telling us that they've got no money, that there's no salary increase in the pipeline. We haven't had an increase for five years, which means that in actual fact our salaries have decreased because of all the other increases out there that have impinged on them. So we haven't kept pace with other developments. I think it's a really big issue for the College in terms of recruiting new staff, retaining staff. If we really want to see the B.Ed. as an exciting and interesting teacher education degree, then what do you do to reward staff who are committed to that? That's an issue that I don't think the College has taken on board strongly enough. At the moment I would say the reason why a lot of us are working on it is that we actually feel that it's worthwhile in its own sense. But two years down the track where are we going? (P 29)

As mentioned earlier, the interview data revealed that, for most College and University staff involved in implementing the B.Ed. degree programme or the negotiation process, there were increased responsibilities, workloads and role changes. The following statements, by two participants (College and University staff), demonstrated the point:

> It brought more work. (P 22)
>
> We had to do a lot more planning, and planning of a different nature. We had to plan what we were doing to a specific context, which wasn't necessarily what we did before. So there was lots more planning and lots more teaching time involved, which sometimes encroaches on research time, which isn't terribly acceptable.... The flexibility of how you lecture has had to widen. That's been a change. People have had to develop different ways of conducting their teaching. And the fact that we've had closer interaction with College staff is another change. So those are important changes, I think. (P 34)

For some participants (College staff), involvement in lecturing and tutoring was seen as an opportunity to broaden their pedagogical repertoires and interact with their University counterparts. For those participants involved in course writing (University and College staff), however, some commented on both the positive and negative impacts of the process, while others emphasised only the negative. On the positive side, some participants mentioned the personal and professional benefits of interacting inter-institutionally and the fact that they had established good working relationships (mentioned earlier). On the negative side, mention was made by most participants at the College (staff) of feelings of inferiority where academic qualifications were concerned (mentioned earlier). Several of these participants also mentioned the difficulties and frustration they experienced in working with University staff. Similarly, several University participants (staff) also mentioned the increased workload, changes in their pedagogical approach and the frustration they experienced working with some College staff. While some of these findings were mentioned earlier, the following statements (by College and University staff) substantiated some of the aforementioned findings:

> I really don't know how to describe it. I've just been in right from the beginning - the meetings where we planned, the meetings where we decided what the topics were, and the meetings where we decided what the readings would be. I've been in small groups designing the assignments and delivering the course.... I think it's very exciting and I've found it very stimulating. The process is hectic and that's because of unfortunate time-lines. I find it really challenging intellectually. You're tapping into the University knowledge base which we haven't time to develop and nourish in the way our programme runs. I'm all for the relationship with the University. And the development for me has been a real learning curve of tapping into a knowledge base. It's really useful. (P 12)

> It was just in the case of ED2 [fictitious code]. There were agreements to the general sort of structure between the College and ourselves. Then I went away and wrote the description because we were short of time. It all had to happen this time last year and it's typically a very busy time.... I wrote a description, took it back to the Academic Development Committee, they had a look at it, changed it and then agreed with it. I took it to the Faculty and at that stage there was a major debate because the College felt that an element that hadn't been raised before should have been included. The issue there, I think, was twofold: not appreciating the nature and the status of this description and the other one was one of time. (P 5)

For the student teachers, the B.Ed. degree programme had both negative and positive impacts, most of which have already been mentioned at various points throughout this chapter. Generally, on the positive side, student teachers benefited from the following: (a) the opportunity to obtain a professional degree qualification; (b) more University lectures at the College; (c) less travelling to the University; (d) the time-tabling of some University lectures to accommodate the teaching practicum; (e) exposure to different pedagogical styles; and (f) exposure to more international research. In addition, the interview data revealed that some student teachers' time management and essay presentation skills had improved. The following statements, by two participants (College staff and student teacher), reflected some of the benefits for student teachers:

> A key factor for the two programmes is the timing of lectures both for the University and the programme here. We're working on a smaller scale with the Education Department rather than with the whole of the Arts Faculty. It has meant that we've been able to get lectures given here at the College. (P 21)

> Since I've been here last year and this year, I've learnt stacks. Before I came here I thought I would just go to teachers' college and just learn how to teach and then go and teach. I realise that there's a lot more to it. I see myself as becoming more aware, more aware of what's going on, taking everything into consideration, and looking closer at the way I teach and who I'm teaching to. There are different teaching methods you use for different cultures. I would never have thought about that before I came here. I just thought everyone was the same. Now I realise different people learn in different ways. (P 44)

On the negative side, the interview data revealed that there was anxiety about the lack of accurate information with regard to the programme's options, student teachers' choices were limited, and their workloads were heavy and variable. In the following excerpt, one student teacher commented on the workload:

> Well, I've heard people say that the B.Ed. students are moaning about nothing. I've found the workload very heavy this year.... I think tutors from College hand out assignments thinking that we would be able to

> handle it because it's not a big assignment. But when you think that every tutor might be doing that, combined, what a workload! They think they are just giving you a little bit but when you have got to put it all together and fit it in, and let's face it we've all got lives outside of College. So you've got to put them all together and sort of get them to fit in. So the time management is the real thing.... This year we've had varsity lectures as well.... I have to admit that I fell asleep in some of the lectures. I just found it really hard going. (P 43)

In addition, student teachers had to get used to the different pedagogical styles of College and University staff, there were concerns about programme fragmentation, and the inefficiency in administration and delivery of the programme was a source of frustration. In the following excerpts, two participants (College and University staff) made these observations:

> My fear about the degree is in fact that there are two separate strands happening. The students are studying educational theory and we're working along here in specific bodies of knowledge and the two are not intercepting. I think there is a real danger of students coming out with what I would call a very fractionated programme. (P 18)

> I think the students had to get used to a different approach when they were being lectured to by University staff in the sense that they were primarily used to working in small groups and being in more interactive type classroom situations.... And the fact that there were more stringent deadlines, (e.g. for submission of assignments) was also something that students had to get used to. (P 34)

While some participants (College staff) claimed that there had been a 'negative' change in student teachers' attitude towards the Diploma of Teaching programme (mentioned earlier), there were others who observed that student teachers had adopted a more responsible attitude towards their studies because of the greater demands of the degree programme. In the following excerpt, one participant (College staff) explained:

> For those students enrolled in it, a change of attitude about work because they have to become accustomed very quickly to the University style of working. And they have to integrate it with their College work which is often much more practically based. The work they are doing in many curriculum areas is very oriented towards work for the classroom. At the same time as doing that, they have to think about why they're doing it that way. In a University course they may be considering the big issue of why we do things this way. And they are considering that area and they are working practically in this area and they can't quite see the connection. They are finding it quite stressful. And just the hours. They have got a lot of work on their plate. They've got a lot of assignments. So there are the big issues of stress and time management for students, negatively. (P 12)

Generally, the disadvantages seemed to outweigh the advantages and, for most student teachers, the programme had lost credibility.

Overall, for the College, the changes had both positive and negative outcomes at the institutional and individual levels. At the institutional level, the College had managed to get the University to agree to a partnership affiliation based on equity: 'fifty-fifty' sharing of funding and costs for the conjoint component of the B.Ed. degree programme and equal representation and voting rights in the Faculty of Education. At the same time, while the official inter-institutional agreement represented a commitment, it was only in writing. In actuality, there were instances where the 'fifty-fifty' partnership arrangement was not put into operation according to the terms of the written contract (for example, the B.Ed. degree programme was under resourced). The failure of both institutions to honour the terms of the agreement created difficulties in other areas (for example, the proportionate allocation of funds between the two institutions) and threatened to bring the credibility of the B.Ed. degree programme into disrepute.

By introducing the changes, the College had satisfied the Ministry of Education's policy (and its 'intention'), established parity with its contemporaries and increased, to some extent, its bargaining power on an open, competitive market. Student teachers were afforded the opportunity to graduate with qualifications equivalent to their counterparts, thereby increasing their bargaining power on the job market. Collectively, all those achievements had contributed to the College's survival as a 'stand alone' educational institution and provider of teacher education at the conclusion of this investigation.

The researcher presents a summary of the key learnings derived from the survival process associated with the category 'Impacting', in Table 30. The researcher also discusses the developmental levels of conceptual processing associated with this category ('Implementation'). The completed survival process model, with the fourth step, Implementation', is presented in Figure 11.

Conceptual Processing

Implementation was the fourth category and also the fourth and final step in the survival process. Implementation had four developmental conceptual levels.

Table 30

Property 4.4 Impacting - Key Learnings from the Survival Process

1. The most profound effect of the survival process at the institutional level was cultural change.
2. Cultural change is the most difficult to accept both at the individual and institutional levels.
3. Change at the individual level is both profound and traumatic, affects individuals in varying ways and to varying degrees and results in diverse reactions.
4. The survival process is changing, ongoing, ragged and developmental and the stages are interrelated.
5. The level of success achieved is dependent on the attitude and commitment of the people involved.

Level 1: Awareness

Level one was 'awareness'. At this level, it seemed that the key actors at the College were aware that, given the changing environment, they had to implement the B.Ed. degree programme urgently to ensure the College's survival. Among other factors, the College was also aware of the impact of the government's funding policy on teacher education. Similarly, the key actors in the University's Department of Education were aware of the implications of the changing environment for the Department's survival and the need to establish the Faculty of Education.

Level 2: Miscalculation

Level two was 'miscalculation'. The College had underestimated the enormity of the tasks and responsibilities involved in implementing a conjoint degree programme. For the College, it seemed that the need to survive had taken precedence over the process of instituting the means by which the College hoped to secure survival. Implementation was rushed and there was not enough time for planning or 'working through' a number of unresolved issues. Consequently, implementation was difficult and the quality and credibility of the programme (and, by extension, the College's credibility) has suffered.

Level 3: Interpretation

The third conceptual level was 'interpretation'. Interpretation had two sub-levels and was spearheaded by the new Dean of the joint Faculty of Education. At the first sub-level, interpretation involved examining the impact of the implementation process and its negative publicity. At the second sub-level, interpretation involved acknowledging the implications of the negative publicity of the implementation process and what those implications meant for the College's survival.

Level 4: Decision Making

Level four was 'decision making'. Having worked through the preceding developmental conceptual levels, the key actors (committed staff members at both institutions who had assumed the role of the initial key actors) decided to take action. Action was directed at improving the quality of the programme and its administration in the hope of reversing the negative publicity and improving quality. Action was also directed at ensuring the survival of the College. In the next section the researcher discusses the survival process holistically (see Figure 11).

The Survival Process

The completed survival process model can be seen in Figure 11. In keeping with the grounded theory approach, the researcher developed theoretical propositions at each categorical step in the survival process. These theoretical propositions (and the key learnings derived from the survival process) constituted a substantive theory of survival, related specifically to the institution where this investigation was conducted. The theoretical propositions, grounded in the data related to the phenomenon under investigation, served as the organising framework for data presentation. Although linearity of presentation was adopted, the stages in the survival process were both interrelated and developmental.

The survival process was set in motion by the two initiators: the Principal/Chief Executive Officer at the College and the Chairperson of the University's Department of Education. The initiator at the College (supported by other key actors) recognised the threat to the College's survival of the changing, uncertain environment in which the College had to operate. In the College's favour was the desire of the University's Department of Education to: have greater autonomy, effect programme changes, become directly involved in teacher education, and ensure its survival.

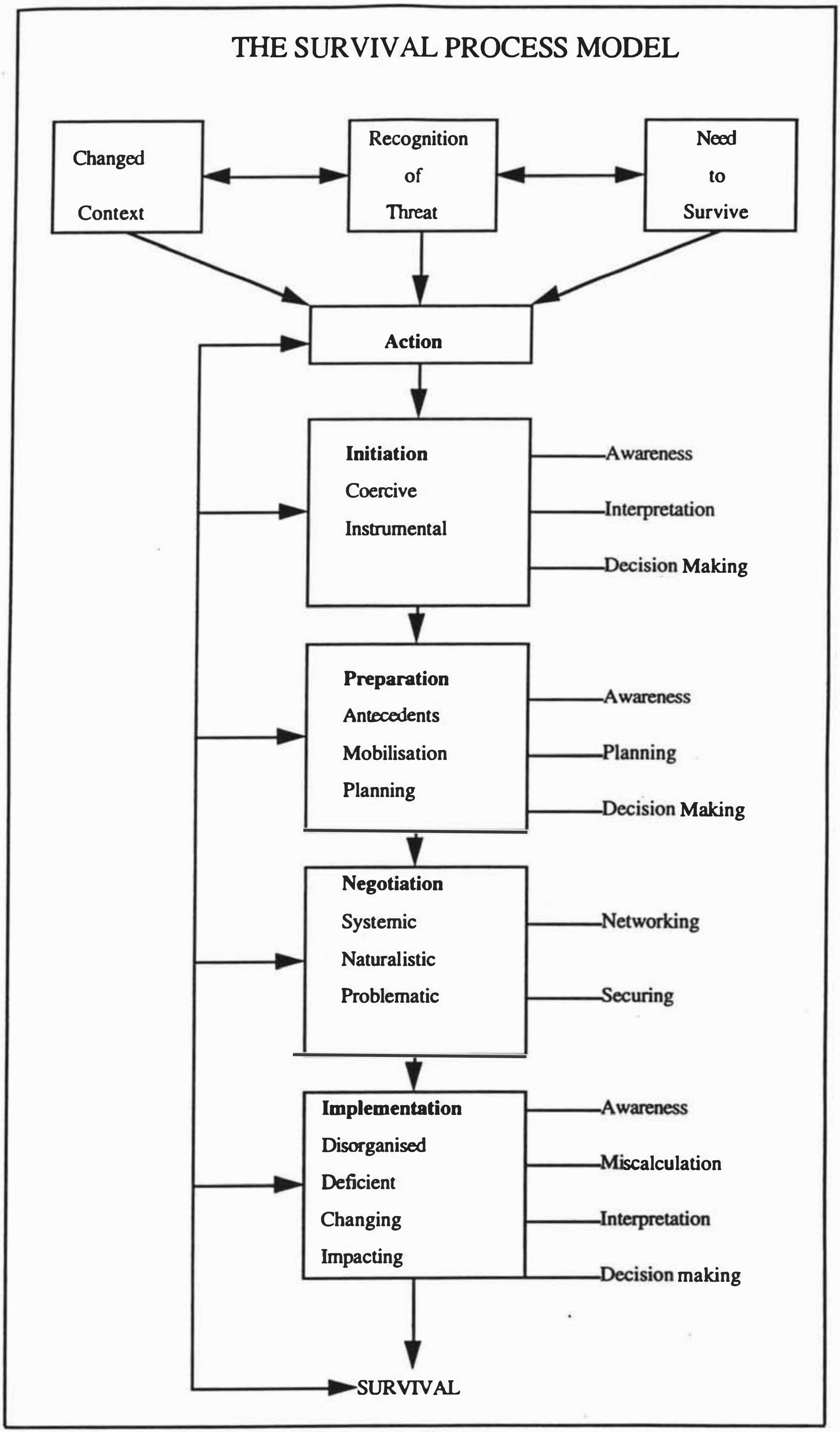

THE SURVIVAL PROCESS MODEL
Changed Context
Recognition of Threat
Need to Survive
Action
Initiation
Coercive
Instrumental
Awareness
Interpretation
Decision Making
Preparation
Antecedents
Mobilisation
Planning
Awareness
Planning
Decision Making
Negotiation
Systemic
Naturalistic
Problematic
Networking
Securing
Implementation
Disorganised
Deficient
Changing
Impacting
Awareness
Miscalculation
Interpretation
Decision making
SURVIVAL

Figure 11. Implementation: The fourth step in the survival process.

A number of events had given shape to the prevailing environment in which the College had to operate but the most influential was the government's education policy. The education reforms had set a number of changes in motion and those had, in turn, necessitated ongoing changes. The government's education policy was most influential in getting the two initiators to take action. For the College, the move was to set the survival process in motion.

In Figure 11, the first step in the survival process, 'Initiation', had two properties: coercive and instrumental. These properties depicted the quality of the driving force and the nature of the roles of the key actors in the process. The government's education policy - the major driving force - was a form of subtle coercion. The implications were that if the two institutions did not move in the suggested direction the government could impose its will.

The major role of the key actors in the initial stage was to canvass support for their proposed action in their respective institutions. Initially, initiation took the form of informal discussions between the two initiators from both institutions. Then, the number of key actors from both institutions increased as the survival process moved beyond the level of initial informal discussions. However, in the early stages, involvement did not move beyond the top and senior management levels.

Figure 11 shows three different levels of conceptual processing associated with the first step in the survival process: awareness, interpretation and decision making. The primary initiators moved through these conceptual levels deciding on their course of action at the decision making level. The course of action taken by the College was influenced by a number of factors: the antecedent events, the history of negotiations between the two institutions, the context of the negotiations, what the College wanted, the College's bargaining power, the extent and level of staff support, and what the University wanted. Essentially, the College decided to affiliate with the University through its Department of Education. In order to affiliate, there had to be a reason for wanting to move in that direction. The B.Ed. degree programme, offered jointly, was chosen as the event to bring the College and the University's Department of Education closer together.

Following initiation was preparation. The survival process, at that stage, had three properties: antecedents, mobilisation and planning. Armed with the experience of past negotiations and a more favourable position (the University's Department of Education also wanted to secure benefits), the College conducted extensive and intensive preparation. The College was cognisant of the fact that the University was a more powerful institution. The extent of the College's preparations was driven by the fact that the College wanted to gain as much as it possibly could from the negotiations for the institution as a whole. The key actors at the College were also engaged in securing support from the rest of the College's staff for the proposed changes. The antecedent events influenced the College's position, bargaining power, the nature and type of preparation and the action plan. In preparing for the negotiations, the College made use of research (local and international), worked through and decided on its philosophy of teacher education and the position it would hold in the negotiations, provided communication training for its negotiators and ensured that all team members were aware of their roles.

There were three levels of conceptual processing at this stage of the survival process: awareness, planning and decision making. There was awareness of the College's position in relation to the University's Department of Education. There was also awareness of the need to mobilise support among the staff at the College and to be well prepared for the negotiations with the University. Planning entailed extensive and intensive preparation intra-institutionally and for inter-institutional negotiations. Decision making permeated the entire preparatory process and took place at several levels. Decisions had to be made about intra- and inter- institutional involvement, the College's approach to inter-institutional negotiations and the College's philosophy of teacher education and position in the negotiation process.

Preparation led into formal inter-institutional negotiations. Negotiation was the most critical stage in the survival process. The College was intent on maintaining its autonomy and securing a partnership affiliation based on equity. The notion of fifty-fifty involvement, cost sharing and equal voting rights in the Faculty of Education attested to the College's determination to ensure that the University recognised and respected its position. In the inter-institutional negotiations, the College used the predominant strategies of prior and ongoing extensive and intensive preparation and a team approach. The approach used by the College was goal oriented.

As shown in Figure 11, the properties at this stage of the survival process were: systemic, naturalistic and problematic. The structure established for inter-institutional negotiations was a network of committees and sub-committees. The network of committees and sub-committees was both hierarchical and lateral. The approach was naturalistic because the College was accustomed to working in committees or as a team rather than individually. The negotiation process was difficult, hence the property problematic. Cultural differences and attitudinal problems were the major sources of the difficulties during the negotiations.

There were two developmental levels of conceptual processing at this stage of the survival process: networking and securing. Networking entailed establishing a network of committees and sub-committees both intra- and inter- institutionally. Networking also entailed preparing the College's primary negotiating team for inter-institutional negotiations. Securing, in the first instance, was concerned with the College's efforts to negotiate the best possible terms of agreement with the University. Secondly, securing entailed trying to obtain funding and approval for the B.Ed. degree programme from the appropriate external organisations. Thirdly, securing entailed marketing the B.Ed. degree programme to prospective employers and the wider education community.

The negotiation process was rushed and there were several unresolved pre-implementation issues. While there was inter-institutional agreement with regard to resourcing the programme, both institutions did not honour the terms of the agreement in this regard. Similarly, while the structures for the administration of the B.Ed. degree programme were put in place prior to implementation, the structures for overseeing the day to day operations of the programme were not established.

The negotiations led into implementation, the fourth and final step in the survival process. First, there was the inauguration of the joint Faculty of Education, followed by the implementation of the B.Ed. degree programme. Implementation was rushed and a number of unresolved pre-implementation issues affected the process. Therefore, time and the timing of operations emerged as important factors in the survival process. Numerous changes were effected during the course of implementation to address some of the difficulties. Implementation itself was, therefore, a changing process.

This stage of the survival process had four properties which reflected the nature and impact of the implementation process: disorganised, deficient, changing and impacting. Implementation was disorganised and deficient mainly because the process was rushed. Enough time had not been allocated for planning and thinking through the resource implications, the administrative structure was inefficient and there were a number of cultural differences and critical unresolved issues. So far, the implementation process has had a significant impact on the College and would continue to impact profoundly on the institution. At the institutional and individual levels, the impact of the changes has been both positive and negative. However, the demerits seemed to outweigh the merits of the programme.

At the implementation stage of the survival process, there were four developmental levels of conceptual processing: awareness, miscalculation, interpretation and decision making. At the awareness level, the primary initiators felt that they needed to implement the B.Ed. degree programme quickly, given the changing competitive climate in which the College had to operate. However, in their haste to implement the programme, their assessment of the enormity of the tasks, the resource implications and responsibilities involved was inaccurate. This inaccurate assessment and lack of proper planning resulted in an unduly disorganised, deficient and problematic implementation process. Interpretation involved examining the impact of the implementation process and the negative publicity associated with the B.Ed. degree programme as a result of the implementation problems. Following interpretation was decision making about the action to be taken to improve the implementation process and the programme itself.

Figure 11 also shows that there was action taking place at all stages of the survival process. The linear presentation of the model was limited to the extent that it was difficult to capture the interrelatedness of the stages in the survival process. The categorisation (the stages in the process) was used to represent the predominant action taking place at each step of the survival process. As implementation progressed, changes were initiated and negotiated inter-institutionally, then introduced. Those concurrent activities demonstrated the interrelatedness of the steps (stages) in the survival process. The concurrent activities also demonstrated that the survival process was changing and, therefore, evolutionary. At the same time, each stage in the survival process built on the preceding stage and, in that sense, the process was also developmental.

The interview data and documentary evidence revealed that the need to survive was fundamental to setting the survival process in motion, particularly where there was coercion. Although coercion was subtle, for the key players involved, it was a powerful driving force. The survival process traced in this chapter and the preceding one, together with the key learnings, constitute the substantive theory of survival specific to Hilltop College of Education. The survival process showed how Hilltop College of Education was responding to the changing environment in which it had to operate as a provider of pre-service primary teacher education. The essence of the substantive theory of survival was that in order to survive as a provider of pre-service primary teacher education in a rapidly changing environment change had to be instituted.

SUMMARY

The fieldwork for this investigation terminated at the end of the second year of implementation. Implementation was an ongoing process. The interview data and documentary evidence suggested that, given the number of unresolved issues and the nature of the process, implementation would continue to be a difficult, changing process. The College was able to press forward with the affiliation and the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme, in the first instance, because of the belief and determination of the key actors from both institutions.

Overall, the affiliation with the University and the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme had, for the present, provided the means for the College's survival as an autonomous educational institution and a provider of teacher education. While the implementation process was fraught with difficulties, the programme managed to survive mainly because of the goodwill, commitment, determination and initiative of some staff members of both institutions. Some of those staff members assumed the roles of the initial key actors as implementation progressed and were able to effect changes.

In the final analysis, at the termination of the fieldwork for this investigation, the College had managed to survive (although there was restructuring at the end of 1994) in a changing, uncertain environment. In the long term, the College's survival would depend on the outcomes of the programme's implementation and the affiliation. Whatever happens in the long term, this investigation has shown how one small institution has managed to survive as a provider of pre-service primary teacher education in a rapidly changing environment. In the next chapter, the researcher discusses the findings of this study.

CHAPTER NINE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

INTRODUCTION

This study examined the provision of pre-service primary teacher education by Hilltop College of Education in a rapidly changing environment. The investigation was guided by the following research question:
How is pre-service primary teacher education provided by Hilltop College of Education in a climate of change?

In the three preceding chapters, the researcher presented the data on the provision of pre-service primary teacher education using an approach that moved from the general to the specific. First, the researcher presented general background information on the provision of pre-service primary teacher education intra-institutionally, focusing mainly on the Diploma of Teaching programme. Then, the researcher presented data on the provision of pre-service primary teacher education inter-institutionally, focusing specifically on the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University (the two most recent changes). In presenting the data, the researcher focused on the changes and, in the process, developed a substantive theory of survival. Essentially, the College was instituting changes in the provision of pre-service primary teacher education in order to ensure its survival. Hence, there was a direct relationship between the changes introduced in pre-service primary teacher education and the College's survival. These changes were the means to an end: survival. In this chapter, the researcher discusses the findings of the study in order to address, directly, the guiding research question. The researcher also presents the conclusions drawn from the findings, including those related to the methodology.

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The discussion is organised under three sections. In section one, 'Programme Factors', the researcher focuses on the programme factors in the conceptual framework (see Figure 2, p. 92). The researcher discusses the findings associated with these factors in relation to the two programmes: the Diploma of Teaching and the B.Ed. The findings associated with the other parameters of factors - people and context - are closely related to the programme factors. Hence, there is some overlap of the three groups of factors in the discussion. The people and context factors are incorporated into the discussion under the second and third sections in this chapter.

In the second section, 'Factors Related to the Inter-institutional Provision of Teacher Education', the researcher focuses on the issues associated with the inter-institutional provision of pre-service primary teacher education under these headings: organisational management, power and control, identity and culture. In the third section, 'Factors Related to the Substantive Theory of Survival', the researcher discusses the survival process, including the study's contribution to theory, and the key learnings derived from the process. In keeping with the grounded theory approach, the findings of this investigation are discussed in relation to the literature wherever it is appropriate.

Programme Factors

In this section, the discussion focuses on the findings associated with the programme factors in the conceptual framework. These factors provide an organising framework for the discussion: orientation; goals or objectives; courses; methods; technical assistance, practice and feedback mechanism; time or timing; resources; and, evaluation.

Orientation

Every institution providing teacher education has its preferred orientation. The findings of this study showed that, where the Diploma of Teaching was concerned, the College's orientation was 'shifting' from a practical, humanistic and liberal approach towards a 'technological' approach. This shift in orientation was driven by the government's education policy, particularly funding. As several participants (College staff) observed, the College had to modify its core curriculum courses to demonstrate their specificity to classroom needs (a vocational emphasis), reduce the number of its selected studies courses (courses ordinarily designed for the personal development of student teachers) because of the reduction in funding and rewrite those selected studies courses retained to ensure classroom specificity. However, the political influence on the curriculum of teacher education was not an isolated case. Several authors have mentioned the political influence on the curriculum of teacher education in Britain (Tickle, 1987; Marsh, 1990; McNamara, 1991, 1993; Whitty, 1993), Australia (Knight et al., 1993) and the United States (McNamara, 1991; Freiberg & Waxman, 1990).

The political influence was also seen in the College's efforts to introduce standards based assessment criteria for evaluating student teachers' performance towards the end of 1993. This change in the area of student teachers' assessment was influenced by the government's intention to establish the 'seamless' education system (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 1993). The New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) was mandated to develop unit standards (competencies) for assessing achievement at each level of the education system based on the National Qualifications Framework (Ibid). Specific unit standards (competencies) would have to be satisfied in order to obtain certain national qualifications. While the unit standards for primary and secondary teacher education were produced in 1993 (Gibbs & Munro, 1993; C. Gibbs, personal communication, 16 February, 1996), these were not specific to any particular level of training or qualification within the teaching profession. The unit standards for the initial national teaching qualification (and entry into the profession) are currently being developed (C. Gibbs, personal communication, 16 February, 1996). Hilltop College of Education took the initiative to introduce standards based assessment in preparation for the introduction of the proposed unit standards. As McGrath (1994) observed, all institutions offering teacher education would be expected to incorporate the unit standards into their curriculum. However, the government's policy to establish unit standards (through the NZQA) for national teaching qualifications is not an isolated case. Several authors have discussed either efforts to introduce criteria (competencies) or the actual criteria introduced for teacher certification (or registration) by other countries, states or jurisdictions (for example, Tickle, 1987; McWilliam & Knight, 1993; Porter, 1993; Darling-Hammond et al., 1995).

The government's 'technological' orientation (Marshall, 1992; New Zealand Ministry of Education, 1993; Peters et al., 1994) and the soon to be introduced unit standards for the initial national teaching qualification (C. Gibbs, personal communication, 16 February, 1996) threaten to push pre-service primary teacher education back to the competency based models of the 1960s and 1970s (see Peck & Tucker, 1973) with an emphasis on 'skills' training (Fitzsimons & Peters, 1994; Fitzsimons, 1995). Gibbs (1995) argues that the unit standards are different from competency based education models because although they "specify performance requirements they do not prescribe how these will be achieved or assessed" (p. 4). However, Carr (cited in Peters et al,. 1994) questions the relevance and utility of the government's 'competency based' model (Peters et al., 1994) for the preparation of teachers. While the unit standards for the teaching profession are yet to be put into operation, it seems that the government's requirement for job specific training and its intention to introduce unit standards (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 1993) have the potential to narrow the scope of teacher education programmes and eliminate opportunities for innovativeness and creativity.

At another level, the government's policy represented increased State interference and control over the curriculum of teacher education. This observation was consistent with the situation in Australia (Linke, 1983; Porter, 1988; Knight et al., 1993), Britain (Tickle, 1987; Marsh, 1990; McNamara, 1993; Whitty, 1993; Hargreaves, 1994) and the United States (Popkewitz, 1987; Darling-Hammond et al., 1995). In addition, the government's policy also limited the extent to which Hilltop College of Education could fulfil its leadership role in education.

In the case of the B.Ed. degree programme, the orientation was more academic. This orientation also represented a shift from the practical, humanistic and liberal approach associated with Hilltop College of Education. At the micro level, the shift to a more academic orientation accompanied the College's efforts to establish parity with its contemporaries and improve its ability to compete in the marketplace. At the macro level, the College's move to introduce the B.Ed. degree programme was driven, primarily, by the changes in the government's education policy (particularly the marketisation of teacher education), its intention for colleges of education to operate in affiliation with the universities (Joint Working Party Report, 15 August, 1991) and its intention to make primary teaching a graduate profession (P 2; P 3; P 46). The shift in orientation also signalled the increased involvement of Belmont University in teacher education. Furthermore, this shift in orientation was evidence of the trend towards rationalisation in tertiary education. Perhaps, in the long term, teacher education could be transferred to universities' faculties of education. In this regard, there was evidence in the literature to suggest that, increasingly, teacher education was being offered by universities (Leavitt, 1992). In Australia, for example, the colleges of advanced education (whose business was traditionally teacher education) were upgraded to universities in 1988 (Knight et al., 1993).

Goals or Objectives

Goals provide a sense of direction (Steers, 1977) and reflect the vision of educational organisations (Renihan & Renihan, 1984; Berkeley, 1986). The establishment of clearly articulated goals is a fundamental characteristic of effective educational organisations (Ramsay, Sneddon, Grenfell & Ford, 1983; Purkey, 1986; Watkins, 1986) and a function of management (Steers, 1977). Consequently, the presence or absence of organisational goals is a reflection of the nature and quality of organisational management. In this investigation, the researcher found that Hilltop College of Education had no well articulated goals for pre-service primary teacher education in its two public documents: its Charter and Statement of Objectives. Similarly, the College's philosophy of teacher education was not well articulated. These findings raised concerns about the College's operations and the quality of its management. Further, the absence of a clearly articulated philosophy and clearly articulated goals indicated that the College did not have a clearly defined vision of pre-service primary teacher education.

The College's Charter was a contract for the provision of teacher education which was approved by the Ministry of Education. Consequently, the absence of clearly articulated goals for the provision of pre-service primary teacher education, or teacher education generally, raised a number of important questions. First, if neither the College's Charter nor its Statement of Objectives carried well articulated goals for its operations, then how did the Charter gain approval? Second, given the absence of clearly defined goals, how did the College propose to work towards specific outcomes? Third, with the emphasis on the provision of 'quality' services, how did the College propose to determine the quality of its operations without clearly defined goals? Fourth, in the absence of clearly defined goals, how credible were the College's claims to 'quality' standards? Finally, in the absence of clearly defined goals, how could the College embark on short term and long term strategic planning? All these questions suggested that, at Hilltop College of Education, pre-service primary teacher education lacked a sense of direction and claims of quality standards lacked credibility.

Despite the ambiguity associated with the College's philosophy and goals in its two official public documents, generally, participants (College and University staff) were clear about their perceived goals of pre-service primary teacher education. There was a high level of agreement about the perceived goals of pre-service primary teacher education among participants. However, they tended to focus on the knowledge (particularly, curriculum knowledge) and skills student teachers should possess. Less than ten percent of the participants mentioned values and attitudes. Participants' emphasis on knowledge and skills suggested that, at Hilltop College of Education, the content of pre-service primary teacher education programmes was seen in terms of knowledge and skills. Further, this finding suggested that pre-service primary teacher education programmes emphasised the acquisition of knowledge and skills.

Although documentary evidence suggested that the intent of pre-service primary teacher education (particularly the B.Ed. degree programme) was to produce reflective teachers, only three participants mentioned reflectivity as a goal of pre-service primary teacher education. The findings of this study suggested that the structure of the programmes, the duration of courses, student teachers' workloads, the model of teacher education and the major pedagogical approaches used across the two programmes, all inhibited the achievement of this goal. In order to achieve desired goals, there must be a high level of congruency between the goals and the means of achieving them. While Schon's (1983, 1987) approach to reflectivity focused on the teaching act, Liston and Zeichner (1987), moving beyond that level, observed that approaches to reflective teaching should emphasise a desire to rectify social and educational inequality and injustice. Apart from a few courses in both programmes that attempted to address gender equity, the data did not reveal a model of teacher education that emphasised reflectivity, regardless of its conceptualisation. Further, the findings of this investigation suggested that the courses that focused on gender equity did not appear to move beyond the level of creating awareness. Reflectivity, as it was conceptualised by the aforementioned authors, goes beyond the level of awareness.

Although one of the College's aims was to improve the participation and success rates of student teachers of ethnic minority groups (including Maori), the findings of this study showed that the College was not fulfilling this commitment. There was a high dropout rate among this group of student teachers from the B.Ed. degree programme during the first two years of its implementation. At the conclusion of the fieldwork for this study, the College had not investigated the reasons for this occurrence and little had been done by way of designing programmes or introducing different modes of delivery to meet the needs of this group of student teachers.

Courses

In the area of curriculum, the findings of this study indicated that the College was torn between satisfying the demands of its major financier (the government) and the employers of its graduates (the schools). At the time of this investigation, pre-service primary teacher education, the College's orientation to teacher education and the curriculum of teacher education, were all changing. The curriculum changes were driven mainly by external forces. In this regard, the political factor was the most influential (see orientation). The data analysis revealed that the Ministry of Education expected the College to spearhead the implementation of the new curriculum initiatives. At the same time, most schools had not introduced the new curriculum initiatives (P 9; P 26) and they required graduates who were prepared to implement their existing curriculum (P 11). This dilemma was analogous to Leavitt's (1992) observation regarding the pull of priorities in decision making about the content of teacher education programmes. However, in this particular situation, the College was expected to satisfy two different constituencies with differing demands. The results of this study showed that the College was trying to satisfy both parties: there were claims by most participants (College staff) of a high level of articulation between the primary schools' curriculum and the College's core curriculum component. Similarly, there were claims by some participants (College staff) that the College had incorporated some of the new curriculum initiatives into its programmes. However, in the process, part of the College's curriculum culture (in the area of selected studies) was lost.

With the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme, the number of selected studies courses was further reduced. This reduction brought the demise of another dimension of the College's curriculum culture: the concept of a major and a minor in the core curriculum component of the Diploma of Teaching programme. In addition, this reduction also brought a corresponding reduction in choice for student teachers. The College, in the process of trying to ensure its survival (as a provider of teacher education) and adapt to the demands of the educational marketplace, had compromised what was 'sacred' in its mainstream programme: the Diploma of Teaching. The impact on the College's curriculum was consistent with the observation in the literature that one possible effect of amalgamation was that it could result in programme reduction (Millet, 1976; Harman, 1983).

Limitations to choice could also be examined at the macro level. This study has shown that the government's funding policy influenced the restrictions imposed by the institution where choice was concerned. The College was bulk funded based on the number of 'Equivalent Full Time Students' enrolled. On this basis, if student teachers were allowed to enrol in courses in excess of the stipulated requirements for their programmes, the institution could be charged with impropriety. Some student teachers (participants) reported that this policy was detrimental because it restricted the scope of their preparation for teaching. The government's EFTS funding system was influenced, in part, by the Treasury's 'user pays' philosophy (New Zealand Treasury, 1987). However, the restrictions to choice resulting from the government's funding policy was another example of the State's interference in teacher education.

In the case of the B.Ed. degree programme, choice was limited in a number of ways. First, student teachers were restricted to taking courses in the arts; they could not choose courses in the sciences. This limitation was the product of wider organisational and structural characteristics. Second, there was little or no variation in the combination of options. All the B.Ed. student teachers appeared to be taking identical programmes (the same courses). Third, choice was limited by time-tabling constraints and the structure of the programme. Fourth, there was uncertainty about whether opportunities for majoring in specific subject areas were realistic. Student teachers enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme could not register for optional University courses (a component of the programme) until their second year. Fifth, there was ambiguity about the versatility of the B.Ed. degree qualification for teaching in secondary schools. The B.Ed. degree programme's structure did not appear to facilitate the study of specific disciplines at the required level (over the four year period) to qualify for secondary school teaching. Finally, student teachers enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme could take only two selected studies courses.

The findings of this study indicated that the B.Ed. degree programme was implemented before the details of its structure and what it could realistically offer were determined. There was ambiguity surrounding the structure of the programme. The College did not have definitive answers about the available options for student teachers because these were contingent on what the College could negotiate with other University departments or faculties on an annual basis. This situation reflected the limitations of the affiliation agreement. At the same time, the ambiguity surrounding the opportunities to major in specific subject areas and the versatility of the B.Ed. degree (with regard to secondary school teaching) suggested that the College had promised more than the degree could realistically offer. These findings also indicated that there were weaknesses in the administration of the programme. In addition, they also reflected: (a) the College's level of understanding of a degree programme; (b) the difficulties associated with evolutionary programme development; (c) the weaknesses in the College's approach to the provision of teacher education; (d) the nature of the College's relationship with the University; and (e) the ambiguity associated with the role of the joint Faculty of Education.

With few exceptions, all the core curriculum courses were of six weeks duration. While some participants felt that six weeks were insufficient, others felt that this time-frame was sufficient and that there was enough time (two weeks) to evaluate and modify the courses between the six week blocks. Another argument advanced in support of the six week courses was that quality was not measured by the amount of time but by what was achieved or produced within a specified time-frame. Regardless of the positions taken, this study has shown that time was an important consideration where coverage, delivery and assimilation of information were concerned. Further, time influenced choice and the quality of work that could be produced.

This study revealed that the compartmentalisation of subject departments resulted in a lack of cross-departmental knowledge of the different components of the Diploma of Teaching and the B.Ed. degree programmes. Generally, at Hilltop College of Education, programme coherence was not fostered through inter-departmental relationships and an integrative curriculum approach. In the case of the Diploma of Teaching programme, the data analysis revealed that there was duplication among courses and a general lack of cohesion across subject areas. Where the B.Ed. degree programme was concerned, duplication was also reported but programme fragmentation was more obvious, compared with the Diploma of Teaching programme. Therefore, it was difficult for student teachers to establish coherence and understand how the programme fitted together holistically. Shulman's (1986) observation that each discipline or subject area was separate and disconnected and studying them as unrelated entities would produce a fragmented knowledge base, was affirmed by this finding.

Primary teachers are expected to be general practitioners because they have to teach all the subject areas in the primary schools' curriculum. In short, they are expected to deliver a holistic programme. The approach used by the College (mentioned in the preceding paragraph) was inconsistent with what was required by prospective primary teachers in the classroom. While most student teachers (participants) identified links between two or more components of the B.Ed. degree programme, all student teachers who participated in the study felt that, as a whole, the programme was fragmented. Most of the other participants (College and University staff) supported the latter observation. On the issue of programme fragmentation, similar observations were made by the Department of Education and Science (cited in Tickle, 1987) and Lanier and Little (1986) about the initial teacher preparation programmes in Britain and the United States, respectively. At the same time, as a means of addressing programme fragmentation, Howey and Zimpher (1989) advocated an interdisciplinary approach and the Holmes Group (1986) recommended programme integration and cohesion.

The results of this study showed that most student teachers (participants) enrolled in the B.Ed. degree programme did not see the relevance of some elective

University courses to their preparation for primary teaching. Similarly, some College staff (participants) questioned the study of education. These findings reflected, first, the lack of articulation among the components of the B.Ed. degree programme and a lack of understanding by most student teachers of the educational value of some disciplines to their preparation for primary teaching. Secondly, most student teachers had a narrow perception of what preparation for teaching entailed. For these student teachers, the relevance of their programme was seen in terms of its usability in the classroom. Thirdly, reservations about the study of education suggested that some staff members did not understand the importance of the study of education for prospective teachers or the value of education as a discipline in its own right. Further, these staff members did not see the relationship between education theory and classroom practice. They had not established, for themselves, the lateral connections among the different components of the programme. In short, they had a narrow view of what preparation for primary teaching entailed. With regard to these observations, Clarke (1985) and the National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education (1985) emphasise the inseparability of theory and practice and Borman (1990) argues for the foundations of education (theory) in teacher education programmes. It follows, then, that both the theory and practice of education are important components.

At another level, the preceding findings had implications for teacher education and student teachers' perceptions of their preparation and attitude towards their programme. First, there was the implicit wider issue of what should constitute the content of teacher education programmes. Secondly, if some staff members had reservations about the study of education, then how could they assist student teachers in establishing programme articulation, in seeing the relevance of education theory, and in developing appreciation for their programme? The findings of this study suggested that the environment existed for the perpetuation of the perceived theory-practice dichotomy, programme fragmentation and the devaluation of teacher preparation programmes.

Methods

In the area of pedagogy, there was no consensus of opinion that the institution advocated and used a particular approach in programme delivery. Some participants reported that the pedagogical method advocated by the College was the interactive approach and that they used the interactive approach in their teaching. Others reported that, while they preferred an interactive approach, they used a teacher directed approach because of the time constraints in relation to the course content which they had to cover. There were also some participants who refuted claims (by their counterparts) to using an interactive approach. The latter group felt that claims to the use of an interactive approach were a matter of 'philosophical orientation' rather than actual practice. Finally, some student teachers reported that the pedagogical approaches used by some lecturers were inappropriate models for prospective primary student teachers.

The preceding findings suggested that advocating a pedagogical approach or claims to using a particular teaching approach did not guarantee its use. Secondly, while there were claims by some participants that they used an interactive approach, the findings of this study suggested that self reports needed to be confirmed by observation. Thirdly, the findings of this study suggested that, where pedagogy was concerned, there was need to investigate student teachers' claims. Finally, the findings of this study raised the issue of congruency between pedagogical approaches and intended outcomes (for example, producing reflective teachers).

Technical Assistance, Practice and Feedback Mechanism

This study did not pursue, extensively, the provision of technical assistance. However, the findings of this study revealed that, for the Diploma of Teaching programme, staff members were well served in the areas of material resources and assistance with the use of electronic equipment for programme delivery. Although the College introduced its technology curriculum in 1994, most staff members (at the time of this investigation) did not have computers. In addition, not all staff members with computers had access to basic technology such as electronic mail. Similarly, technical assistance for staff using computers was lacking. During the course of this investigation, all the College's B.Ed. course co-ordinators were put on electronic mail but technical assistance staffing was not provided. This finding, which was consistent with Howey and Zimpher's (1989) observation regarding the extent to which technology was being utilised in the programmes they investigated, indicated that the College was lagging behind in the area of technology (particularly, its use).

At another level, 'practice and feedback mechanism' could be considered in terms of student teachers' teaching experience. Each programme provided concurrent institutionalised and 'in school' training over three or four years, depending on its duration. While this investigation focused mainly on the institutionalised component ('in school' training was not investigated), some participants (College and University staff and student teachers) raised concerns about the nature of student teachers' school-based assignments and their workload during their practicum. Most student teachers reported that their workloads were demanding and that some of their school-based assignments were unrelated to classroom practice. For these student teachers, there was a pull of priorities between focusing on their pedagogy or doing the assignments. This finding - student teachers' demanding workload during their practicum - was not an isolated case. A similar finding was reported by McGee (1995) in another New Zealand study.

During the course of the fieldwork for this study, efforts were made to improve the nature of the school-based assignments. Some student teachers reported that efforts had been made to relate some assignments to classroom practice. An important development, in this regard, was the involvement of a representative group of practising teachers in the planning of some assignments. This change was an important step in building College, University and school relationship.

The preceding findings were open to several interpretations. First, there seemed to be a lack of articulation between the two broad components of teacher education: institutionalised and 'in school' teacher training. Secondly, the involvement of practising teachers seemed to be one way of linking institutionalised and 'in school' training and sensitising practising teachers to the nature of institutionalised teacher education. Thirdly, there seemed to be a lack of overall programme planning and a lack of awareness of the demands on student teachers, particularly demands on time. Finally, these findings suggested that there was need for better articulation among the different components of the programme and an examination of the demands on student teachers where workload was concerned.

'Practice and feedback mechanism' could also be considered in relation to staff development. This study showed that staff development through a formal, structured practice and feedback mechanism was a neglected area at the College. Apart from peer evaluation which the College was piloting as part of its new evaluation policy, the College had no formal, structured practice and feedback mechanism for staff development. While this study revealed that staff members were not favourably disposed to peer evaluation, it must be noted that peer evaluation was being piloted as an approach to fulfilling the staff appraisal requirements which were stipulated by the Ministry of Education. Staff development is revisited later in this chapter.

Time or Timing

The literature on change theory indicated that time was an important factor in implementation (Fullan, 1985; Neville, 1992; Trice & Beyer, 1993). Similarly, the literature on amalgamations also emphasised the importance of time (Millet, 1976; Meek, 1988a). The findings of this study revealed that the implementation of the B.Ed. degree programme was a 'victim' of poor timing. The initial time-line of four to five years was reduced to three years and a number of critical pre-implementation issues remained unresolved at the time of implementation. There was not enough time for planning and staff were not prepared for their roles in the implementation process. The lack of planning was especially evident in the level of disorganisation associated with implementation. The importance of planning was emphasised in the literature on change theory (Fullan, 1991) and mergers (Harman, 1983). In fact, Harman observed that, "the quality and realism of planning is a major determinant in merger outcomes" (p. 125).

After the negotiations, it seemed that both institutions had lost their sense of purpose. For the College, in particular, its vision of teacher education was blurred. The speed with which the B.Ed. degree programme was introduced and the fact that the programme itself was being developed as implementation progressed, resulted in 'mass' confusion. The University did not provide the structural support that was needed and the College lacked the administrative expertise to manage the programme and to address the problems. While implementation is by nature difficult and ragged (Fullan, 1982, 1985), this study has shown that time to prepare for implementation and the timing of events are critical factors. Further, where enough time is not allocated for planning and where the timing of events is not well planned, implementation difficulties will intensify.

At another level, the results of this study showed that time and the timing of events influenced structural and programme changes at the College. First, the need to accommodate the University lectures (for the B.Ed. conjoint education courses) resulted in the reduction of time allocated to some subject areas (for example, art, music and physical education). This change, in turn, contributed to the marginalisation of those subject areas within the programmes (Diploma of Teaching and the B.Ed.). Secondly, the teaching day was extended and the number of daily teaching slots (HCE Calendar, 1994) were increased from four to five. These changes had cultural ramifications (discussed later). Thirdly, the timing of events affected the nature of the operations at the College. The impact of the timing of events was especially evident when the entire student population was campus based.

There were accommodation difficulties, for example: several classrooms were double booked and some classes had to be taken outdoors. Finally, time and the 'poor' timing of events could also be considered at the personal level with regard to staff development and the provision of staff support services (discussed under section two). The findings of this study pertaining to time and the timing of events underscored the importance of these factors in the change process (Neville, 1992; Trice & Beyer, 1993).

Resources

Although participants identified areas where material resources for the Diploma of Teaching programme could be improved (for example, library resources, videos, etc.), generally, participants were satisfied with the material resources available to them for delivering the programme. In the case of the B.Ed. degree programme (particularly the conjoint component), material resources were inadequate and the distribution system was inefficient. Consequently, there were numerous difficulties associated with the provision and dissemination of material resources, for example: student teachers had difficulty accessing material and had to photocopy material on restricted loan. For student teachers, the personal costs in time, money and emotional well being were high.

The provision and dissemination of material resources was a function of management. Therefore, the findings in the preceding paragraph underscored the following: (a) the inefficiency of the administrative system; (b) the distance between management and the day to day operations of the programme; (c) the fact that some implementation difficulties were a direct result of administrative inefficiencies; (d) management's lack of knowledge and understanding of the change process; and (e) the role ambiguity of the joint Faculty of Education. Staff and student teachers were disadvantaged by the inadequacy of material resources and the inefficient distribution system. Further, these factors influenced the level of programme implementation. The findings of this study confirmed the observation in the literature on change theory that the availability and adequacy of material resources were important factors in facilitating implementation (Crowther, 1972; Downey, 1975; Massey, 1980; Marks, 1988). However, Fullan (1991) observed that, although resources "are obviously critical during implementation, it is at the initiation stage that this issue must first be considered and provided for" (p. 64).

The difficulties associated with physical resources were end products of larger issues such as the ineffective communication system, planning deficiencies and difficulties associated with the affiliation. Whereas the adequacy of physical resources was influenced by factors such as subject area, class size and student population, these factors were related to the overall planning deficiencies and the communication system. Management of the institution was aware of the size of the student population, the accommodation capacity of classrooms and lecture theatres, the proximity and availability of workspaces for some subject areas, and the timing of events. Hence, the difficulties associated with physical resources was a reflection of the level of administrative expertise at the College and the ineffective communication system. The results of this study showed that there was no systematic, ongoing, evolutionary planning, as implementation progressed, to address the difficulties associated with physical resources and poor communication. The literature on implementation advocated both a flexible implementation plan and ongoing planning throughout the implementation process (Louis & Miles, cited in Fullan, 1991). Furthermore, as Fullan (1991) suggested, the process should be monitored and efforts should be made to address the difficulties. Similarly, Finn, Jr. (1984), in writing about school effectiveness, observed that planning should entail:

> the continuing evaluation of the plan, leading in turn to ... corrections, the development of revised objectives, the diagnosis of additional problems, the preparation of further plans, and so on" (p. 524).

In the area of human resources, the B.Ed. degree programme was under resourced. Neither the College nor the University had appointed staff to work specifically on the programme. Through the visiting lecturer model, the College staffed the B.Ed. programme by drawing on existing staff who were willing to participate as lecturers or tutors. Consequently, the conjoint education courses were subsequently developed around the interests of prospective participating lecturers. This approach, in part, resulted in course and programme fragmentation and created numerous course co-ordination and implementation difficulties. The College's approach to course development was inconsistent with the approaches to curriculum development documented by authors such as Saylor et al. (1981) and Doll (1986). Generally, these approaches emphasise the articulation of a philosophy, goals and objectives; the selection of appropriate content (knowledge, skills, values and attitudes); the establishment of scope and sequence; the identification and development of material resources, the selection of suitable pedagogical approaches; and procedures for development and piloting, among other factors.

The College's approach to staffing the B.Ed. degree programme was open to several interpretations. First, the approach indicated a lack of professional standards by the College in its operations. Secondly, it seemed that the College adopted this approach to staffing because the funding obtained for the programme was being diverted into other areas (as the results of this study indicated). Similarly, in the case of the University, the findings of this study also indicated that funding for the B.Ed. degree programme was being diverted into other areas. Thirdly, there were questions about the nature of the affiliation agreement and whether the College had enough influence to bring pressure to bear on the University to honour the contract. At the same time, the University's attitude suggested that teacher education (the B.Ed. degree programme) was not an area of priority and the College was not a tertiary institution of equal status. Finally, the approach to staffing also raised questions about what Sergiovanni (1992) referred to as 'moral' leadership. Central to this issue was the question of whether it was 'morally right' to deliver a teacher education programme using the approach adopted by the College.

Evaluation

In keeping with its hierarchical organisational structure, the College evaluated its courses and programmes at several levels both internally and externally. While course evaluation was both formal and informal, programme evaluation was a formal process. The most common form of course evaluation was student teachers' evaluation using a standard student evaluation form. However, an examination of this form revealed that it could provide neither the quantity nor the quality information that was necessary to effect 'substantial' change for improvement. The evaluation forms were designed to collect information based on the technocratic 'input-output' administrative model mandated by the government's education policy (HCE Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996). This observation raised questions about the 'real' purpose of course evaluation and its subsequent use. While most participants (College staff) reported that the College used course evaluation data to revise courses, for programme evaluation and, to a lesser extent, for informal staff appraisal, the superficiality of the questions suggested a hidden agenda for course evaluation: merely to satisfy external accountability requirements.

Internally, programme evaluation was conducted at the executive and College-wide levels. Programme evaluation at the executive level involved personal interviews of three student teachers from each primary teacher education programme using a standard interview schedule. College-wide evaluation included all staff members involved in delivering a particular programme. The evaluation of a programme based on three student teachers' interviews raised questions about the validity of the data, given the procedure used and the small sample size. Similarly, the College had no plan or specific time-frame for conducting systematic programme evaluation (for example, once in three years). While subject advisory and programme advisory committees had an input in the evaluation process, it was difficult to determine their involvement because these groups were not included in the study. However, approximately seventy-five percent of the College staff interviewed claimed that the College was still 'grappling' with its evaluation and assessment procedures.

With regard to student teacher assessment, the data collection and distribution systems were not functioning effectively. Furthermore, the College's and the University's grading systems were not synchronised. The B.Ed. degree was a University qualification and the College grades for student teachers enrolled in the programme had to be transferred into the University's system. The findings of this study indicated that, unless the two grading systems were synchronised in the 'immediate' future, there would be difficulties for the College and the student teachers concerned in the long term.

At the time this investigation commenced, the B.Ed degree programme was in its second year of implementation. However, there was no structure in place for the ongoing evaluation of the implementation process (mentioned earlier), neither was any evaluation conducted at the end of the first year of implementation. These observations were open to a number of interpretations. First, formative evaluation was not seen as an important aspect of programme implementation. Second, the College was not prepared to acknowledge and address the implementation difficulties. Third, there was no well developed plan for implementation and the joint Faculty of Education was not functioning effectively. Fourth, there were difficulties associated with the affiliation. Fifth, neither of the two institutions was committed to observing the terms of the affiliation agreement in the area of evaluation. During the course of this investigation (1994), two evaluations (for internal purposes) were conducted by an external evaluator (on the initiative of the new Dean of the joint Faculty of Education). However, the interview data revealed that these evaluations were a source of inter-institutional conflict.

During the course of the fieldwork for this study, the new Dean of the Faculty of Education initiated and introduced the formative evaluation of lectures and tutorials in all the conjoint education courses. While this novel approach to evaluation served as a monitoring system for staff involved and provided information for ongoing decision making, it had several negative results. First, it was a source of tension among participants (College and University staff). Secondly, some staff members (College and University staff) were opposed to the approach because they saw it as a threat to their integrity. Thirdly, several staff members questioned the benefits of the procedure in light of the trivial feedback from some student teachers.

Apart from the established 'course evaluation by student teachers, the results of this study showed that the College did not have a well structured, fully functional system of evaluation and assessment. In this regard, the findings of this study affirmed the observation in the literature that evaluation was an important yet neglected aspect of teacher education programmes (Holmes Group, 1986; Howey & Zimpher, 1989). While the College acknowledged the deficiencies in the area of evaluation and was in the process of improving its internal auditing mechanism, the results of this study suggested that the whole area of evaluation and assessment needed a reappraisal of its form, function and conduct.

Factors Related to the Inter-institutional Provision of Teacher Education

In this section the researcher discusses the major issues associated with the inter-institutional provision of pre-service primary teacher education in relation to the College's survival. The researcher discusses these issues under the following headings: organisational management, power and control, culture and identity.

Organisational Management

The data presented in Chapter Six revealed that the College's formal organisational structure was complex and hierarchical with several different levels of operation. Within this predominantly hierarchical organisational structure, lateral relationships were limited, departments tended to be compartmentalised and management seemed far removed from the day to day operations of the institution (mentioned earlier). The interview data revealed that these structural organisational characteristics impacted on pre-service primary teacher education in several ways.

The formal organisational structure was a product of the reforms in the administration of education in the late 1980s (see, for example, Education Act 1989; Learning for Life I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Learning for Life II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Education Amendment Act, 1990). With this new structure (adopted from the business management field) had come a matching corporate management style. In this bureaucratic orientation, decisions regarding pre-service primary teacher education were made by the executive with little or no involvement of other staff (particularly, middle management and non-managerial staff). Wherever there was input from other staff, decision making did not usually reflect their perspective. The data analysis revealed that there were several important decisions made by the executive, with little or no involvement of other staff (in decision making), which impacted on the nature and form of pre-service primary teacher education and the institution as a whole. These decisions included: reductions in the number of selected studies courses (curriculum extension courses) and the subsequent marginalisation of some subject areas, the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme in affiliation with Belmont University, and the restructuring of the institution (outside the scope of this study). In the case of the affiliation with Belmont University, the College's approach was consistent with Millet's (1976) finding (in eighty percent of the cases of merger he studied) that, "the faculty [staff] and students were not important actors in the process of merger" (p. 49).

The affiliation with Belmont University and the B.Ed. degree programme were two interrelated events. The B.Ed. degree programme was the explicit purpose for establishing the affiliation. While these two events ensured the College's survival as a provider of teacher education, implementation was fraught with difficulties and so was the survival process itself. Several authors support the view that implementation is a difficult process (for example, Massey, 1980; Fullan, 1982, 1985; Marks, 1988; West-Burnham, 1990; Neville, 1992). However, the findings of this study have shown that some of the difficulties were associated with the management style rather than implementation itself.

One of the important aspects of the negotiations with Belmont University was the College's approach. In negotiating with the University, the College used, primarily, these strategies: prior and ongoing extensive and intensive preparation and a team approach. Prior to entering the negotiations, the College embarked on communication training for all team members, identified its philosophy of teacher education and what was non-negotiable in teacher education, and ensured that all team members were clear on its position prior to each meeting. As negotiations progressed, the College also used the tried and proven committee approach to work through the different aspects of the negotiations. The College's team of negotiators also used the contextual factors to the institution's advantage in negotiating the terms of the affiliation agreement.

The College's approach paid dividends where the formal written affiliation agreement was concerned. First, the College maintained its institutional autonomy. Secondly, the College managed to get the University to recognise and accommodate what was non-negotiable in teacher education: concurrent 'in school' training. Thirdly, the College secured a partnership affiliation based on equity, including equal representation and voting rights in the joint Faculty of Education. The College's approach and its achievements in the negotiation process had implications for institutional survival and cross-sectoral affiliations (discussed under section three). However, despite the College's achievements, the formal affiliation agreement was only the first step in the process. Ensuring that the agreement was put into operation in the best interest of teacher education was a task at which the College was not as successful.

The joint Faculty of Education was established primarily to administer the B.Ed. degree programme. While the macro level structures for the programme's administration were put in place prior to its implementation, there were no comparative micro level structures to oversee the day to day operations of the programme. For the College, the initiation, planning, preparation and achievements in the inter-institutional negotiations demonstrated strong, proactive and authoritative leadership which wilted once the formal affiliation agreement was reached. The findings of this study showed that, among other factors, implementation was rushed, there was no carefully developed plan for implementation, the process was disorganised, the programme was under resourced, the implementation process was not managed effectively, there was no built in mechanism for ongoing evaluation and there were a number of unresolved pre-implementation issues that plagued the process. Similar observations were made by Ramsay (1992) and Smithells (1992) about the amalgamation between Hamilton Teachers' College and the Waikato University with regard to the lack of preparation and the unresolved pre-implementation issues.

The introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University were two major change events for the College. However, the results of this study suggested that the College had introduced these innovations oblivious of the advice proffered in the literature on change theory. The literature on change theory advocated that there should be a plan for implementation and the plan should be flexible (Louis & Miles, cited in Fullan, 1991). Similarly, the literature on amalgamation emphasised the importance of planning for implementation (for example, Harman & Meek, 1988; Martin & Samels, 1994). In the case of Hilltop College of Education, what was lacking was an evolutionary, flexible plan for implementation.

In an earlier section, the researcher discussed material and physical resources in detail. Here, the researcher revisits human resources. Where human resources were concerned, the B.Ed. degree programme was under resourced, there was no policy for staff recruitment and selection and there was no staff development in preparation for implementation. Further, the model of teacher education (the visiting lecturer model) resulted in numerous difficulties. There were instances where the order of lectures had to be changed to accommodate individual lecturers, instances where lecturers could not deliver lectures at scheduled times and instances where course content had to be reorganised. These changes contributed to the lack of sequence in course content material, course fragmentation and difficulties for the course co-ordinators.

In the literature on change theory, staff development was identified as a key factor in implementing innovations (Crowther, 1972; Downey, 1975; Kaabwe, 1980; Coles, 1981; Aidoo-Taylor, 1983; Huberman & Miles, 1984; Fullan, 1986; Marks, 1988). The results of this study showed that the College had no plan for pre-implementation and ongoing staff development. During the course of this investigation, management at the College shifted the responsibility for staff development in one of the conjoint education courses onto its co-ordinator. This responsibility was additional to the co-ordinator's workload. In addition, limited staff development for some College and University staff (involved primarily in tutoring on one conjoint education course) was provided through the initiative of the new Dean of the Faculty of Education during the first half of the 1994 academic year. By July 1994, a small amount of funding was allocated by the University for staff development through the advocacy and lobbying of the new Dean of the Faculty of Education.

In the area of staff development, the findings of this study were open to a number of interpretations. First, the findings of this study showed that the College's staff development policy was not being implemented according to its principles. Second, management's failure to organise and fund a systematic staff development programme suggested a lack of understanding of the change process and the needs of individuals involved in implementing innovations. Third, management at the College lacked the experience and expertise necessary to implement a degree programme. Fourth, management did not have a clear understanding of the implementation process and its role in managing the process. Finally, the difficulties experienced by staff implementing the programme were mainly a result of managerial inefficiencies and an inappropriate administrative style. A rating, using West-Burnham's (1990) list of inappropriate management strategies (see

Chapter Three), would have found the College's administrative style wanting in many areas.

Affiliation was initiated at the management level and the negotiations, with few exceptions, involved mainly top managerial staff (the executive). This approach was consistent with Meek's (1988a) observation about leadership in establishing mergers. The involvement of other staff members in the decision making process was minimal. Consequently, there was a high level of resistance to the changes among other staff members (below the top and senior managerial levels). The key actors at the College found it difficult to canvass support, particularly among middle management and non-managerial staff. While some middle management and non-managerial staff supported the introduction of a B.Ed degree programme, they were not supportive of the University's involvement. These staff members felt that the College could have introduced the B.Ed. degree programme without the University's involvement. They saw the University's involvement as a threat to the College's survival (as an autonomous institution) and their own job security. This finding was consistent with Gibson's (cited in Harman, 1983), regarding status and job security, in her study of cross-sectoral merger proposals. In keeping with the literature on change theory, this study has shown that, within organisations, people's level of support for innovations vary according to their positions and perceptions of personal benefits (Fullan, 1991).

Power and Control

The literature indicates that power is an inherent quality of organisations (Bacharach & Lawler, 1980; Pfeffer, 1981; Cherrington, 1989). This study has shown that educational organisations are no exception. Power and control can be considered at the intra-institutional, inter-institutional and system-wide levels. At the intra-institutional level, there were issues of power and control associated with the College's corporate management style. At the individual level, the findings of this study indicated that there were differences of opinion regarding the level of involvement in the decision making process, particularly where consultation was concerned. While some participants reported that there were staff forums where issues related to the innovations (particularly the B.Ed. degree programme) were discussed, others felt that consultation was 'token involvement' because management (the executive) had decided beforehand on the course of events. The results of this study also revealed that decision making was the domain of management and staff and student teachers, who were on the lower echelons of the organisational ladder, were expected to be 'submissive' to the authority of those, who, by virtue of their positions, had the power to make the decisions.

Submission to management's decision making authority could also be interpreted at another level. Several participants reported that, with the introduction of the Education Amendment Act 1990, colleges of education had been empowered to confer degrees and the College could have offered its own B.Ed. degree programme. The results of this study revealed that management did not consider the College offering its own B.Ed. degree as a possible option. Hence, this issue was not debated at the College-wide level before embarking on inter-institutional affiliation. It appeared that a debate on this issue had the potential to create 'overt' intra-institutional conflict which management wanted to avoid. In this regard, management's approach seemed to fit Lukes' (1974) third dimension of power where issues of potential conflict were deliberately kept out of the decision making process.

There were also issues of power and control associated with both the action and inaction of management with regard to the implementation of the B.Ed. degree programme. Several participants (College staff) reported that, although management had indicated that staff involvement in the B.Ed. degree programme would be credited as part of their workload, in actuality, their involvement was additional to their normal workload. At the same time, the difficulties associated with inadequate staffing for some inter-institutional courses and staff development were shifted to programme co-ordinators who did not have the decision making power to address these issues. This approach reflected a discrepancy between the management style and the way in which it was put into operation. In this regard, Whitaker (1993) suggested that, "those in management positions need to provide the sort of leadership that enables colleagues both to accept responsibility and to exercise it" (p. 140).

Management's actions were open to several interpretations. First, decision making was management's domain by virtue of its position. However, management's bureaucratic orientation had its weaknesses. The role of management in ensuring that the structures were in place to facilitate change was a critical factor (West-Burnham, 1990). However, in this particular instance, management's approach to facilitating the change process was neither efficient nor effective. In this regard, management demonstrated a lack of understanding of the change process and what change management entailed. Secondly, through its action or inaction on important issues, management seemed determined to shift its responsibility to members of the organisation who were not empowered to address the issues. Thirdly, management's approach suggested that its responsibility was to put the overall administrative structures in place not to ensure that they were functional or to oversee their day to day operations. Finally, the strategy used by management to implement change, particularly the B.Ed. degree programme, was primarily power coercive (Chin & Benne, 1976). Through the use of power coercive strategies, it seemed that management had virtually bypassed the people who had to implement innovations (particularly the B.Ed. degree programme). However, Meek (1988b) observed that the success or failure of a merger was largely dependent on the ability and commitment of the people below the executive level, while Hargreaves (1994) made a similar observation about the implementation of educational innovations in the classroom.

At the inter-institutional level, power manifested itself in these aspects: (a) the University's attitude to the affiliation agreement; (b) instances of unilateral decision making by the University on matters affecting the College's operations; (c) the University's shifting of additional financial responsibility to the College; and (d) the difficulties associated with the proportionate allocation of funds between the two institutions. Despite the affiliation agreement (based on equity), the University (based on the findings in this study) did not recognise the College as an institution of equal status, neither did the University regard the affiliation agreement as legally binding. The agreement had been reached through the University's Department of Education and the University's attitude seemed to be associated with the status of the Faculty within the University itself. The amount of funding allocated by the University to the joint Faculty of Education, compared with other faculties, was evidence of its status within the University (Belmont University Annual Report and Financial Statement, 1993). The extent to which the new Dean of the Faculty of Education had to lobby to get the University's hierarchy to honour the terms of the affiliation agreement where staffing was concerned, was also a reflection of the Faculty's status. However, the low status held by the joint Faculty of Education was not an isolated case; Goodlad (1990) and Hargreaves (1995) made similar observations about the status of faculties of education in universities, generally. Similarly, Freiberg and Waxman (1990) observed that, in the United States, teacher education was receiving "two-and-one-half times less support than other professional schools at most colleges and universities" (p. 624).

The 'sharing' of the EFTS funding for the B.Ed. programme was an unresolved issue that threatened the affiliation. In the absence of a policy and specific unambiguous criteria for allocating the funds, this issue was a source of 'ongoing' conflict between the two institutions. The matter remained unresolved at the conclusion of the fieldwork for this study. The findings of this study revealed that both parties were reluctant to resolve the issue because of the threat it posed to the affiliation and the B.Ed. degree programme. In the interim, the College had to bear the additional financial burden to get the programme implemented. At the same time, the University itself seemed to be making unreasonable demands on the College for additional expenditure (for example, funding the transportation costs of University lecturers on the conjoint education courses). The College was in a precarious position because its survival was dependent on the success of the B.Ed. degree programme and the University's continued involvement. The findings of this study supported Harman's (1983) observation that cross-sectoral mergers posed 'special' problems in the area of funding. The findings of this study also revealed that the B.Ed. degree programme was a guaranteed source of funding for the University's Department of Education. In this regard, Millet (1976) observed that inherent in any consideration of a merger was "some particular financial concern, and some particular calculation of financial benefit" (p. 23).

The results of this study indicated the importance of the following: resolving critical pre-implementation issues prior to implementation, having policy and criteria spelt out in the minutest detail where issues of funding were concerned, and recognising that an affiliation was a legal agreement (Millet, 1976) which should not be based merely on trust. In addition, the University's attitude showed that, in a cross-sectoral affiliation, the possibility existed for the more powerful institution to exert control over the smaller and less powerful institution. This observation was supported by Smithells (1992) who, in her study of the amalgamation of the Hamilton Teachers' College and the University of Waikato, concluded that, given the disparity in size, the amalgamation was tantamount to a university 'take-over'.

At the system-wide level, the government's education policy demonstrated the State's interference and control over teacher education. First, in trying to establish quality standards, the government had pushed competition to the forefront and made teacher education an open market. Furthermore, the government's intention was to make primary teaching a degreed profession (P 2; P 3; P 46) and for colleges of education to work in closer affiliation with other tertiary institutions (see, for example, Learning for Life I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989; Learning for Life II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen, 1989). Generally, the main implication of the government's education policy was that those institutions that could produce the product (trained teachers) most cost effectively would be the ones to survive. This study has shown that the College's move to establish closer relations with Belmont University and to introduce the B.Ed. degree programme was a response to the government's education policy in order to ensure its survival. This observation supported the claim by several authors (for example, Tickle, 1987; Morrison, 1989; Beeson, 1991; Hargreaves, 1994) that change in teacher education is, in the majority of instances, politically driven.

Secondly, the State's control over teacher education was evidenced in the government's influence on the curriculum. The findings of this study revealed that Hilltop College of Education was required to revise its curriculum to ensure that student teachers' preparation was classroom specific. This requirement also necessitated a shift in the College's orientation from one that was predominantly practical, humanistic and liberal towards a 'technological' orientation. In addition, the Ministry of Education expected the College to incorporate the new curriculum initiatives into its programmes and to spearhead their implementation. The government's mandate suggested that teacher education was perceived as a vehicle for disseminating and perpetuating its ideology. This finding was supported by Wilkin's (1992) argument that the government's control over teacher education had an implicit agenda: the dissemination and perpetuation of its ideology. Similarly, Althusser (1971) observed that education was the State's dominant ideological apparatus.

Culture

The literature suggested that the culture of any organisation was the most difficult to change (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Deal, 1990; Trice & Beyer, 1993). There were two major aspects of culture in this investigation: cultural change and cultural conflict. Although the culture of the College had started to change with the introduction of the education reforms, these were minimal compared to the profound changes brought by the two major innovations investigated in this study: the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University. Where affiliation was concerned, the College had to work with another, more powerful institution. The findings of this study showed that the University did not recognise the College as a tertiary institution of equal status and there was a feeling among the College's staff (participants) that its culture was being superseded by the University's. Evidence of the University's attitude of superiority was reflected in its unilateral decision making in matters that affected the College (for example, time-table changes); the University's indifference where honouring the terms of the affiliation agreement was concerned; the University's use of funding received for the B.Ed.

degree programme to fund other operations; and the additional financial expenditure incurred by the College for transporting University lecturers.

Cultural changes at the College affected every dimension of its cultural fabric: philosophy, vision, goals, values, rites and rituals, and expectations (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Owens & Steinhoff, 1989). The findings of this study revealed that there were changes in the College's orientation to teacher education. These changes demonstrated a philosophical shift (discussed earlier). Although the vision was blurred, there was evidence that the vision of pre-service primary teacher education, as it was perceived by participants (College staff), had changed, in part, with the affiliation and the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme. For the majority of participants (College staff and student teachers), the Diploma of Teaching programme was seen as the most important (sacred) aspect of teacher education. With the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme some participants (College staff) felt that the Diploma of Teaching programme had been devalued. Some curriculum areas (for example, art, music and physical education) which participants valued highly were marginalised, the number of selected studies courses (curriculum extension courses) was reduced and their purpose had changed. Furthermore, the cherished concept of 'a major and a minor' in core curriculum areas was lost.

Where rites and rituals were concerned, the working day was extended. There was no longer a common lunch hour and common morning and afternoon breaks were lost. There were greater demands on time; there were heavier workloads for most participants; and there was also an air of uncertainty surrounding the future of the College, the B.Ed. degree programme and job security. There was a feeling among some College staff (participants) that the affiliation was the first stage in a University 'take-over'. This feeling was reflected in concerns about the University's involvement in teacher education and whether the University's staff would assume the roles of the College's staff. Generally, staff morale was low. Some participants also mentioned the difficulties encountered in working with another institution and coping with the changing working relationships. At the same time, there were others (in the minority) who were able to transcend the cultural barriers and to work together collegially with their University counterparts. These changes, concerns and outcomes reported here support the observations made by several authors (for example, Millet, 1976; Harman, 1983; Harman & Meek, 1988; Meek, 1988a, 1988b; Kroder & McLintock, 1988) who have written about the effects of cross-sectoral amalgamations at the institutional and individual levels.

The foregoing findings with regard to cultural change raised a number of important observations. First, in accordance with the literature, cultural change was difficult for the institution and the people involved (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). In this particular study, where two institutions were involved, the problem was even greater because the College had to make changes while the University imposed its culture. The findings of this study suggested that, in cases of cross-sectoral affiliations (as in the present study), the institution that would be most profoundly affected would be the smaller and weaker one. In this regard, Millet (1976) observed that, "there is a price to be paid for a merger, and that price is change" (p. 96). The College's inability to retain certain aspects of its cultural dimensions, in the face of the University's impositions, reflected the imbalance of power in the relationship.

Secondly, this study underscores the need to create a culture of change (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Deal, 1990; Neville, 1992; Trice & Beyer, 1993). Although Schein (1985) argues that the creation of culture is a function of leadership, the literature indicates that cultural change is one of the most difficult tasks for organisational leaders (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). At the same time, the literature on change theory suggests that the extent to which people are predisposed to implement change is dependent, in part, on their level of involvement and the extent to which they understand the innovation (Gross et al., 1971; Charters & Pellegrin, 1973). However, Fullan (1982) argues that internalisation is closely associated with the actual implementation of the innovation. Despite Fullan's argument, the findings of this study have shown that a number of other factors influence internalisation and the development of a culture of change (for example, a willingness to let go of tradition).

The results of this study suggested that the development of a clear, shared vision and goals was the first step in internalising change and developing a culture of change. This observation was supported by the College's approach to the inter-institutional negotiations and its subsequent achievements. The team had a shared vision and clearly articulated goals (developed by the team) of what the College wanted from the negotiations. Where the vision was blurred (for staff with minimal involvement), there was resistance to change and the process faltered (particularly during implementation).

Thirdly, the findings of this study suggested that it was naive to assume that the history of intra-institutional change would facilitate the implementation of inter-institutional innovations. Instituting change was a difficult process, even for one institution, and the difficulty was even greater where two institutions were involved.

There were cultural differences, different ways of taking change events on board, larger groups of people involved, and different kinds of relationships within the two organisations that would affect the change process. The findings of this study suggested that the history of innovations, institutional preferences and approaches to instituting change could be inhibiting factors, inter-institutionally. In short, this study suggested that there was a difference between instituting change intra-institutionally and instituting change inter-institutionally.

The cultural differences between the two institutions involved in this study was a source of conflict at the inter-institutional and individual levels. At the inter-institutional level, there were differences in the functions and management of both institutions. Even the timing of events and the manner in which business was conducted threatened the relationship between the two institutions. For the College, teacher education, particularly pre-service primary teacher education, was its priority; for the University, teacher education was on the periphery of its operations. This differing perception of teacher education appeared to be one of the major reasons for the University's attitude towards funding the B.Ed. degree programme. However, the attitude of Belmont University towards teacher education was not an isolated case; a similar observation about the attitude of universities to teacher education was reported by Goodlad (1990).

The unresolved issue of the proportionate allocation of funding obtained for the B.Ed. degree programme (mentioned earlier) was fraught with cultural overtones. Cultural differences were reflected in the differing perceptions of both institutions with regard to what should constitute the criteria for allocating the funds. Another source of cultural conflict was the College's approach to resourcing and implementing the B.Ed. degree programme. The University's academic, educational and professional standards for programme operations were both higher and different from the College's. From the University's perspective (particularly the new Dean of the joint Faculty of Education), the College's approach to resourcing and implementing the B.Ed. degree programme lacked professionalism. As mentioned earlier, the College had no policy for the recruitment and selection of staff for the programme and programme development and implementation revolved around a visiting lecturer model. While the University (through the advocacy of the new Dean of the Faculty of Education) insisted on having a guiding policy and observing standards, the College's approach reflected its lower level of expectations and standards and the deficiencies in its approach to programme development, resourcing and implementation. At the same time, it must be noted that the

University's concerns about standards and policy were not raised until the appointment of the new Dean of the joint Faculty of Education.

Where course development was concerned, there was inter-institutional cultural conflict with regard to the nature and level of the content that should be included and the extent to which course outlines had to be developed. There was a lack of understanding about the operations of both institutions by the individuals involved. Essentially, the conflict resulted from the meeting of the two different orientations: the academic (the University's) and the more practical (the College's). The resulting conflict highlighted the dichotomy between theory and practice and the differing philosophies of what should constitute the content of teacher education programmes. This finding was consistent with the observation in the literature that there were diverse opinions about what should constitute the content of teacher education programmes. For example, Clarke (1985) argues that theory informs practice and that both are important in teacher education programmes. Borman (1990) advocates the retention of the foundations of education in teacher education programmes, Shulman (1986, 1987) proposes a comprehensive list of the diverse kinds of knowledge that should be included and Schon (1983, 1987) emphasises the importance of reflectivity. However, two important questions remain unanswered. First, how much time should be allocated to the various components of teacher education programmes? Second, what aspects of each component should be included?

The findings of this study also revealed that there was inter-institutional conflict in the area of course development. There were instances where differences resulted in the College's rejection of some course outlines. The College wanted detailed outlines; the University required skeletal outlines. There were also instances where a lack of understanding resulted in the rejection of otherwise worthwhile course content and where differences in values affected the working relationships. In addition, the influence of institutional orientations and personal philosophies and values also created difficulties in the area of course development. The College's staff were used to working in small groups and to developing their courses collegially, whereas the University's staff were used to working individually.

The foregoing observations with regard to cultural conflict at the individual level suggested that, in the rush to implement the B.Ed. degree programme, there had not been enough time for staff orientation to the different organisational cultures. The findings of this study suggested that there was need to develop 'cross-cultural' understanding. Secondly, management of both institutions failed to recognise the difficulties associated with inevitable cultural conflicts. For example, one participant (College staff) reported that culture was one of the areas that they had not considered in the affiliation. Furthermore, it was difficult to operate in two cultures. Thirdly, there were issues of a deeper nature: the problems associated with people having to give up what was sacred to their organisation. The critical question was: Which culture should dominate?

Conflict resulting from cultural preferences and measures to ensure cultural preservation assumed different forms. This study has shown that cultural conflict was a potential barrier to cultural integration. A similar finding was reported by Ndambuki (1994) in her study of amalgamation. At the same time, cultural integration was inhibited by the nature of the affiliation agreement (affiliation did not involve governance). In the present study, the researcher found that: (a) involvement; (b) a clear, shared, defensible vision; and (c) a culture of change were all complementary and interrelated factors. Unless people could internalise change and accept the need to let go of tradition, it was difficult to achieve cultural transformation and cultural integration. In this regard, Deal (1990) observed that schools (or educational organisations) would become fundamentally different only when we "recognise that transformation involves a collective renegotiation of historically anchored myths, metaphors, and meaning" (p. 9).

Identity

The findings related to the concept of identity are discussed in relation to the institution and the people involved. At the system-wide level, the College wanted to ensure its survival as a provider of teacher education and to preserve its identity. In this regard, the College's survival was dependent on its ability to compete with other institutions in the marketplace. Therefore, at one level, the College's move to effect programme and operational changes was intended to improve its competitive ability and to satisfy education policy and the government's intention. At another level, the College's action was intended to secure its identity in social geographical terms (Hargreaves, 1995).

Inter-institutionally, the College was intent on maintaining its identity as an autonomous institution. The planning, preparation and the College's overall approach to the inter-institutional negotiations, demonstrated its intention. However, while the College managed to maintain its autonomy, the lack of shared governance had ramifications for the administration of the B.Ed. degree programme and the function of the joint Faculty of Education (discussed later). At the inter-institutional level, the College was successful in maintaining its autonomy as an independent organisation. However, at the institutional level, the College lost some of its autonomy in decision making. In some areas where the College once made unilateral decisions (for example, its programmes), the affiliation necessitated the University's involvement in decision making (by the College) that would affect its operations. With regard to the foregoing observations, Kroder and McLintock (1988), in writing about the amalgamation of the five colleges that formed the Sydney College of Advanced Education, observed that the 'identity crisis' and loss of autonomy were concerns for both the institutions and the people involved in amalgamations.

At the individual level, there were several concerns related to identity. First, there were concerns about the University's involvement in teacher education and whether the College would be taken over by the University. Secondly, there were concerns among the College's staff about their personal identity in terms of status. At the institutional level, most staff members estimated their worth in terms of their involvement and input in the decision making process. Most lecturing and middle management staff perceived themselves as being powerless, while the executive was perceived as being powerful with the authority to make decisions for the institution. Inter-institutionally, most staff members at the College (participants) felt that, generally, they were perceived by most University staff as having lower status because they were less academically qualified. Consequently, there were concerns among the College's staff about their involvement in the B.Ed. degree programme because of their lower academic qualifications. There were also fears that the College's staff would be relegated to tutoring on the programme. However, the results of this study revealed that there were some University staff (participants) [in the minority] who valued the expertise of College staff. The preceding findings were consistent with Gibson's (cited in Harman, 1983) who, in her study of cross-sectoral merger proposals, reported that teachers' college staff were usually anxious about job security and status.

Thirdly, concerns about identity were also related to curriculum changes: the reduction in the number of selected studies courses (curriculum extension courses) and the subsequent marginalisation of some subject areas. Concerns about the value of subject areas affected were perceived by some participants (College staff) in terms of their personal worth. In short, these participants felt that they were less valued members of the organisation and could be dispensed with at any time. Consequently, among this group, the fears about job security were greater and morale was lower. The findings of this study supported Neville's (1992) claims that change affected people's self identity. Further, the findings of this study revealed that change also affected the self worth (how individuals valued themselves) of the people involved. The findings of this study also supported the view in the literature that change at the individual level could be traumatic (Ibid) and that there was need to understand how change affected people and to provide support (Fullan, 1985).

Staff at the College addressed concerns about identity and job security in diverse ways. Some staff members either took early retirement or changed jobs; others had started or were planning to start university study. Those staff members who had started or were planning to start university study seemed to have three intentions: ensuring job security, lecturing on the B.Ed. degree programme and improving their status through enhanced academic qualifications. The approach of the latter group of staff members could be interpreted in several ways. First, their approach was an attempt to establish their identity in time and space (Hargreaves, 1995). Secondly, their approach could also be interpreted as an attempt to gain acceptance in the world of the University's academics. However, while staff at the College were encouraged to improve their academic qualifications, those who had done so already found that their efforts were not recognised in terms of promotion and remuneration.

The improvement of academic qualifications also had other possible long term implications. First, the possibility existed that status could become a divisive factor within the College as some staff members improved their academic qualifications. Secondly, and closely related to the first point, there was a possibility that the staff attrition rate could increase as qualified staff sought better paid jobs. Thirdly, improved academic qualifications could not guarantee acceptance into the world of the University's academics or eradicate academic snobbery. As Meek (1988b) observed, academic snobbery "knows no national or institutional boundaries" (p. 169). Finally, there was a possibility that the College could find itself in a situation where it was supporting training not for the benefit of teacher education but as preparation for jobs in other institutions or professions.

Factors Related to the Substantive Theory of Survival

In this section the researcher discusses the findings derived from the substantive theory of survival under two broad headings: the survival process, including the study's contribution to theory, and the major key learnings from the survival process.

The Survival Process

The survival process began with its initiation by the two key actors (initiators), one from each institution: Hilltop College of Education and Belmont University. In order to set the survival process in motion, the two initiators took action based on their assessment of the antecedent events.

In keeping with the prevailing changing climate, survival (for the College) entailed effecting change in order to ensure continued existence as a provider of teacher education. Initiation was influenced mainly by external factors, the most influential being the political factor. The two initiators assessed the government's education policy and its implications for both institutions in relation to the international trends, then moved to initiate change. The College's power as an autonomous institution to direct its own affairs was set within precise parameters by the government. However, even within those parameters, the government had the power to dictate the form and direction of the College's operations (for example, the government's influence over the curriculum of teacher education). The implicit message was that, if the College did not comply, then the government had the power to bring pressure to bear on the institution. The government's policy was a form of subtle coercion. In this regard, the findings of this study suggested that where people (or organisations) were in a situation of dependency and where there was a genuine threat to their existence, people were likely to take action for self preservation.

At the second stage, preparation, the College's approach demonstrated a fear of institutional demise. There were efforts to examine the implications of the antecedent events, the history of past negotiations, the prevailing context and the College's position in relation to all these factors. Preparation, then, entailed examining the situation (past and present) and devising a plan of action. This action plan entailed extensive and intensive prior and ongoing preparation and the selection and effective use of appropriate negotiation strategies.

The third stage, negotiation, was the most critical and difficult for the College. There were difficulties associated with resistance from staff on the lower echelons of the organisational ladder and conflict arising from attitudinal and cultural differences. However, the College's team of negotiators had a strong conviction about its proposed actions and what it hoped to achieve. The team had a clear, shared, defensible vision (Leithwood et al., 1992) and an evolutionary plan

(Louis & Miles, cited in Fullan, 1991) which it put into operation vigorously to achieve its goals.

For the first time in the history of the College's negotiations with Belmont University, the College managed to negotiate an agreement that was more favourable to the institution. By the terms of the affiliation agreement, the College maintained its autonomy and entered into a partnership arrangement based on equity (equal representation and sharing) for the administration and delivery of the B.Ed. degree programme. An important achievement for the College was the University's recognition of concurrent 'in school' training as an integral part of teacher education.

The College's inability to sustain its vigorous approach beyond the third stage of the survival process was evidenced in the implementation process. First, the time-line for implementation was reduced and the B.Ed. degree programme was implemented at least one year earlier than originally intended. Consequently, implementation was rushed, a number of important issues remained unresolved, and there was not enough time to plan for implementation. Similar observations were made by Ramsay (1992) and Smithells (1992) about the amalgamation between the Hamilton Teachers' College and the University of Waikato, while Millet (1976) observed that, "when the process is one of haste, many issues remain to be resolved after the formal merger itself" (p. 52). Secondly, neither the administrative structure (the joint Faculty of Education) nor the communication system functioned effectively: There was no built in mechanism to monitor the day to day operations of the programme; there were difficulties associated with the model of implementation; the Faculty's role was ambiguous; the programme was under resourced; and, the College itself did not have the managerial expertise to provide the required structural support.

At one level, there seemed to be an attitude of indifference and complacency on the part of the College once the affiliation agreement was reached. The B.Ed. degree programme seemed to be a means to an end: the College's survival. However, the College's approach to implementation suggested that it had failed to assess the demands of sustaining the means of its own survival. Further, the responsibility for some of the problems associated with implementation was shifted to the implementers (who had no power to address them). The College's management made no effort to address the problems until well into the second year of implementation and, only after the new Dean of the Faculty of Education intervened.

At another level, management seemed powerless to challenge the University to honour the terms of the affiliation agreement. The College, it seemed, had made the 'mistake' of relying on trust - that the University would honour the terms of the agreement. This situation was one of the most difficult aspects of the implementation process and, in part, contributed to its disorganisation and deficiencies. Collectively, the College's approach to implementation, the inefficiency of the administrative system and the implementation difficulties threatened the credibility of the programme and, by extension, the College's credibility. The College and the University seemed to be playing a 'cat and mouse' game with regard to accepting their responsibilities. However, the College was the one with the most to lose, particularly in terms of its credibility and survival.

The literature on change theory emphasised the importance of trust in facilitating change and the role of management in creating a climate of trust (for example, Deal & Kennedy, 1982; West-Burnham, 1990; Neville, 1992; Trice & Beyer, 1993; Whitaker, 1993). Meek (1988b) and Samels (1994), in writing about mergers, also noted the importance of a climate of trust. However, this study revealed that there was need to rethink the concept of trust and its role in the change process. Further, this study raised questions about whether a trusting disposition was in the best interest of the people and the institution(s) involved in the change process, particularly in this case where change entailed cross-sectoral affiliation. Fullan (1993), in his latest work, *Change Forces: Probing the Depths of Educational Reform*, made the following observation about trust:

> It is a world where one should never trust a change agent, or never assume that others, especially leaders, know what they are doing - not because change agents and leaders are duplicitous or incompetent - but because the change process is so complex and so fraught with unknowns that all of us must be on guard and apply ourselves to investigating and solving problems. (p. viii)

Fullan's (1993) observation suggested active involvement and knowledge of the change process rather than reliance on trust. Perhaps, reliance on trust was more appropriate for an earlier era and not for the rapidly changing 'postmodern' society. In this regard, Hargreaves' (1994) discourse on restructuring and trust is worth some consideration. Furthermore, affiliation is a legal contract and should be recognised as legally binding (Millet, 1976). Trust suggests 'thinking with the heart'; the legal emphasis indicates 'thinking with the head'. The concept of trust is revisited in the next sub-section.

The B.Ed. degree programme managed to survive mainly through the goodwill and commitment of some staff members at the College and the University. This finding supported Fullan's (1991) observation about the importance of commitment in the change process. Those staff members assumed the roles of the initial group of key actors and worked (within limitations) towards improving the programme and the implementation process. Hence, during the course of this investigation, the implementation process was changing. In addition, through the initiative of the new Dean of the joint Faculty of Education, the University assumed a more responsible attitude towards the affiliation and the B.Ed. degree programme. The new Dean also initiated two evaluations of the B.Ed. degree programme and introduced a process of formative evaluation for all conjoint education courses. During the course of this investigation the University approved funding for staffing the programme (effective 1995) and for some staff development. At the same time, the College had provided release time for one of its course co-ordinators and had put all its course co-ordinators on electronic mail.

Despite the difficulties associated with implementation through the action or inaction of both institutions, the programme and the College (at the conclusion of this investigation) had managed to survive. Through the affiliation agreement and the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme, the College had satisfied the government's policy for closer working relationships between tertiary institutions. The B.Ed. degree programme had also improved the College's ability to compete with other tertiary institutions in the marketplace. During the course of this investigation, efforts were made by the new Dean of the joint Faculty of Education to establish committees to implement structural and policy changes for the administration of the B.Ed. degree programme. In addition, efforts were made to address some of the unresolved issues (for example, the allocation of funding) that threatened the affiliation. While the College had managed to survive, its continued existence would depend on the success of the B.Ed. degree programme and the development of the relationship with Belmont University.

This Study's Contribution to Theory

Hargreaves (1994) observed that there was a paucity of research on the purpose and context of change. In this study, the researcher used a modified grounded theory approach to data collection and analysis and, in the process, developed a substantive theory of survival. In the data presentation, the researcher drew attention to the purpose of the change process (survival) in a particular context (a climate of ongoing change). Therefore, the substantive theory of survival was essentially a discourse through which the purpose, the innovations, the context and the process of change were explicated. In this regard, the present study makes a potentially useful contribution to change theory because it incorporates more dimensions.

This study also makes a contribution to change process theory in the area of the utilisation of research findings. The models described Marsh (1988), Lewin's model (cited in Cherrington, 1989), Neville's (1992) model and Deal's (1990) model all focus on the steps in the change process. In this regard, these models are limited. The substantive theory of survival developed in this study incorporates the antecedents (the important historical events) and the context, identifies the purpose and factors influencing change, traces the change process and examines the impact. Therefore, the substantive theory of survival has shown how the parameters of change process theory can be extended. Further, although each organisation is different (Steers, 1977; Finn, Jr., 1984), if the antecedents, purpose and context of research in the change process are explicated, then the transferability of research findings from one research site to another will be enhanced. Hence, this study opens another avenue through which the 'generalisability' of research findings from single site investigations can be explored.

This study makes a contribution to the field of theory in another way. A literature search (computer assisted and manual) did not produce any similar research studies that had focused on institutional survival with specific reference to change and the inter-institutional provision of teacher education. Furthermore, none of the authors identified in the literature search who mentioned the term survival pursued theory development. Steers (1977), for example, suggested these requirements for organisational survival: (a) the acquisition of resources; (b) efficiency in the use of inputs; (c) production of goods and services; (d) integrated and co-ordinated operations; (e) renewal and adaptation; (f) conformity to policy and society's expectations; and (g) satisfying the needs of all constituencies. These factors are prescriptive and constitute dimensions for determining the effectiveness of organisations rather than a theory of survival. Therefore, to the researcher's knowledge, there has been no similar investigation in the field that has developed a substantive theory of institutional survival.

Denzin (1970) contends that all data, whether quantitative or qualitative, serve four basic functions for theory: they initiate new theory or reformulate, refocus, and clarify existing theory. Strauss and Corbin (1990) observe that a substantive theory evolves from the examination of a phenomenon situated in a particular context. Furthermore, unlike formal theories, the generalisability of substantive theories is difficult. Given these observations, the researcher makes no claim to the generalisability of the theory developed in this study. However, in keeping with Denzin's claims, the substantive theory developed in this study initiates new theory in the area of institutional survival. In this regard, several important theoretical principles relating to organisational survival, specific to the institution studied, emerged from this study.

First, awareness of the context of the institution's operations and the implications of these in relation to self preservation were critical factors. In this regard, the ability of management to: (a) read the environmental 'pulse' accurately; (b) make appropriate 'diagnosis'; (c) identify and capitalise on favourable contextual factors; and (d) select and use appropriate strategies advantageously are vital to the survival process. Second, survival entails taking action for self preservation. In short, survival entails change. Hence, the identification and selection of appropriate innovation(s) constitute another set of important factors. Closely associated with these factors are planning, implementation and subsets of implementation such as the relevance of the innovations, the readiness of the institution and the people involved, resourcing, and the approach to implementation. Third, time and the timing of events are another set of critical factors. In this regard, issues such as when people are informed, how much information is provided, the lead up to implementation, and the timing between innovations, must be carefully considered particularly in relation to the contextual factors. Fourth, involvement is another critical factor. Two issues are important here: the people involved and the extent of their involvement.

Fifth, where institutional survival involves inter-institutional agreement, clarity of institutional philosophy, mission and goals, and the ability to defend them in inter-institutional negotiations are critical. In this regard, the preparation for inter-institutional negotiations, the strategies employed, the ability to capitalise on advantageous contextual factors, and the ability to ensure that the agreement is legally binding, are important factors in instituting the innovation(s) that will ensure institutional survival. Sixth, the survival process must be managed. In this regard, the factors important in facilitating the survival process include: (a) identifying the sources of the difficulties associated with the innovation(s), the implementation process and the people involved; (b) taking action to address the difficulties; and (c) monitoring the process. Finally, the ability to sustain the change process is vital to ensuring survival and maintaining institutional integrity.

While strong, proactive leadership supported by a 'cadre' of key actors is necessary to initiate and 'push through' the changes that will ensure survival, this study has shown that, when leadership loses its vigour, the process falters. This study has also shown that, where committed people are prepared to assume a leadership role, the survival process can be sustained, provided that these people are empowered to function. The findings of this study affirmed Fullan's (1991) observation that, by the time implementation begins, the people involved in the pre-implementation stage can be 'burnt out'. In this regard, the theoretical principle suggested by this investigation is that committed members of the organisation (supported by management) should be empowered to assume the leadership role in order to sustain the vigorous approach that is necessary in the survival process. In short, the survival process needs a dedicated group of people to sustain it for every step of the way. This principle supports Purkey's (1986) observation that leadership "may come from the principal or from others on the school's staff" (p. 15).

To summarise, the substantive theory of survival developed in this investigation evolved from the study of one phenomenon in a particular situational context. Since the theory is substantive, the researcher makes no claim to generalisability. However, the theoretical principles outlined by the researcher initiate theory development in the area of institutional survival and therein lies the major contribution of this study to the field of theory. Furthermore, this research is the first New Zealand study of its kind to propose a substantive theory of institutional survival. Hence, this study may assume greater importance if the trend towards cross-sectoral amalgamations at the tertiary level picks up momentum in the near future.

The Major Key Learnings from the Survival Process

There were several key learnings derived from the substantive theory of survival which the researcher developed. These key learnings were tabulated under their respective properties throughout the two preceding chapters. In this sub-section, the researcher discusses the major key learnings (which were categorised by type) under four headings: nature, leadership, strategies and guidelines. These key learnings are specific to the institution where the investigation was conducted and are not intended as a formula or set of 'prescriptions' for cross-sectoral affiliations designed to ensure survival. However, in keeping with Firestone's (1993) case to case generalisation, institutions involved in affiliations or mergers may find that the key learnings discussed here have some applicability to their particular situation.

Nature

There were several key learnings about the nature of the survival process. First, survival involved change and the nature of the survival process was influenced by the context. In this regard, the literature on the nature of the change process (for example, Fullan, 1982, 1985, 1986, 1991, 1993; Deal, 1990; West-Burnham, 1990; Neville, 1992; Ramsay et al., 1993) and the contextual factors both within the organisation and external to the organisation were critical reference points. Second, this investigation revealed that survival was a complex, difficult and evolutionary process. Further, all the stages in the survival process were interrelated. Therefore, the findings of this study suggested that the process should be managed (Fullan, 1986; West-Burnham, 1990); there should be ongoing evaluation of the process (Louis & Miles, cited in Fullan, 1991); a problem solving approach to leadership (Leithwood et al., 1992) based on wide involvement, collaboration and effective two way communication should be adopted; and, there should be an effective support system for the people involved (Fullan, 1991; Neville, 1992).

Third, this investigation showed that decision making and inter-institutional negotiations were ongoing throughout the survival process - they were not 'one shot' exercises. Hence, decision makers and negotiators should have the capacity to drive and sustain the process in order to obtain positive results. The findings of this study showed that, when the vigorous approach of the College's negotiators had lost its 'fervour' (after the affiliation agreement), the effects of the survival process were largely negative. Fourth, although the process was developmental, the stages were not smooth, linear transitions. Fifth, the survival process was stressful and acrimonious.

Finally, the survival process was marked by intra- and inter- institutional conflict which was grounded in attitudinal dispositions and cultural differences, and issues of identity and status. Further, inter-institutional conflict became more obvious and was more intense when members of the two institutions began to work together. Inter-institutional conflict was an ongoing threat to achievement in the survival process. While there were claims that both institutions had started with a 'clean slate' where planning for the two innovations was concerned, the personal and organisational idiosyncrasies, politics and conflict could not be set aside. Meek's (1988a) observation that "the merger process does not easily transcend normal organisational politics and conflicts" (p. 346) was supported by the results of this study. In this regard, there was a strong suggestion that management of the survival process should include built in mechanisms for dealing with staff orientation and conflict resolution and management.

Leadership

In keeping with the literature on change theory, this investigation has shown that leadership was a key factor in the survival process (Crowther, 1972; Berman & McLaughlin, 1977; Kaabwe, 1980; Massey, 1980; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Kilmann, 1984; Fullan, 1985, 1986, 1991). Although the College was subtly coerced to take action, initiation was voluntary. The results of this study indicated that strong, proactive leadership, supported by a group of key players at the top and senior managerial levels pushed and sustained the survival process as far as the negotiation stage. This finding was consistent with the observation in the literature on amalgamation that a core of committed 'key actors' was necessary to 'push through' and sustain the changes (Meek, 1988a). The College's negotiating team had a clear, shared, defensible vision and a sense of purpose (mentioned earlier). As mentioned in the preceding section, when the vigorous approach wilted, the survival process lost its momentum and sense of purpose. The College's negotiating team moved vigorously to secure the affiliation agreement and the type of B.Ed. degree it wanted but did not maintain the same approach where implementation was concerned. Therefore, the disorganisation and deficiencies associated with implementation reflected the weaknesses in the leadership style at that point in the survival process.

A similar situation existed in the case of the initiator in the University's Department of Education. While the initiator exhibited strong and proactive leadership in convincing the University's hierarchy to establish affiliation and become involved in the B.Ed. degree programme, this vigorous approach also wilted after the negotiations. The initiator in the University's Department of Education was unable to demonstrate the same level of leadership skills to get the University to honour the terms of the agreement. However, this study showed that the implementation process began to improve when the new Dean assumed office and took the initiative to introduce changes.

As mentioned in the preceding paragraph, the changes introduced during implementation were due largely to the initiative, lobbying and advocacy of the new Dean of the joint Faculty of Education. The new Dean's initiatives were supported by some dedicated and committed staff members at the College and the University who shared a similar vision for teacher education. The new Dean and other committed staff (in the interest of teacher education) were determined to improve and 'save' the B.Ed. degree programme. While there were both positive and negative reactions to the initiatives (for example, programme evaluation), the sense of purpose and the conviction that the actions taken were in the best interest of teacher education and the affiliation helped to sustain the momentum (in some areas) even against strong opposition and resistance.

Strategies

The strategies employed in instituting change either facilitate or inhibit achievement (Fullan, 1982; Huberman & Miles, 1984; Marks, 1988). Further, among other aspects, the literature advocates effective communication and the involvement of all members of the organisation in the change process (West-Burnham, 1990; Fullan, 1991; Neville, 1992). The results of this study showed that the strategies used by management influenced the level of support among staff. First, the findings of this study showed that, while staff valued consultation, there was no consensus of opinion on the use of wide consultation in mobilising staff support. Second, the results of this study suggested that decision making was not based on wide involvement. Third, the lack of wide involvement coupled with an inefficient communication system, in part, contributed to the general lack of support, particularly among middle management and non-managerial staff at the College.

Where mobilising support was concerned, this study suggested that some of the critical elements which were necessary for mobilising support among staff (for example, involvement in decision making and effective two way communication) were not present. Further, support could not be mobilised simply by the executive informing staff on the lower echelons of the organisational ladder about its decision making (after the decisions had been made). Secondly, the results of this study showed that staff members (participants) whose support was based merely on trust were in the minority. The majority was suspicious of management's actions and resisted the changes. Some staff members even accused management of 'selling them out' to the University. The lack of support among middle management and non-managerial staff was primarily because they were not fully involved and informed and did not feel a sense of ownership of the changes. Being informed and involved suggested ownership and knowledge of the process rather than trust in management. If support is based on involvement and the feeling of a sense of ownership (participation in decision making and influencing the course of events), then it is questionable whether trust is a factor in mobilising support. Trust is an abstraction which pre-supposes 'blind' reliance on the honesty of decision makers. In this regard, the findings of this study suggested that there was need to rethink the role of trust and the importance of the notion of building a climate of trust advocated in the literature (mentioned earlier).

The primary strategies used by the College in the negotiations with the University (prior and ongoing extensive and intensive preparation and the team approach) were appropriate and effectively utilised. These strategies were complemented by communication training and the establishment of a network of committees and sub-committees. As mentioned earlier, in contrast to the negotiations, the College's approach to implementation was not as successful. There was no proper plan for implementation, the model of implementation was problematic, the implementation process was not managed, and there was error of judgement where the timing of implementation was concerned. The implementation strategies, in conjunction with other factors (for example, the unresolved pre-implementation issues, the fact that the programme was under resourced and the ineffective administrative structures and communication system), exacerbated and compounded the difficulties associated with implementation. The findings of this study showed that the implementation strategies adopted determined, to a large extent, the level of success achieved. This observation was consistent with the literature on implementation (Fullan, 1991).

Guidelines

From the findings of this study, the researcher developed a number of guidelines that may be useful in affiliation or merger situations, particularly where organisations are trying to ensure their survival. Most of these guidelines support the observations in the literature about amalgamations (see, for example, Millet, 1976; Harman, 1983; Harman & Meek, 1988; Meek, 1988a, 1988b; Porter, 1988; Martin & Samels, 1994; Samels, 1994) and the change process (see, for example, Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Fullan, 1982, 1985, 1986, 1991; Podrebarac, 1982; Huberman & Miles, 1984; Marks, 1988; Deal, 1990; West-Burnham, 1990; Neville, 1992). The guidelines focus on three dimensions: people, culture and type of affiliation. The people involved in the survival process are the most important assets. Without people, the changes that will ensure survival cannot be implemented. In this regard, there are several important observations. First, the level of success achieved is dependent on the attitude and commitment of the people involved. Second, the level of support or resistance is related to the following: people's personal knowledge and understanding of the change events in the survival process; their philosophies; their perceptions of their place in the scheme of events; and, their level of involvement. Third, support for the people involved is vital throughout the survival process. Fourth, it is difficult for people to understand and internalise the change events unless they are both informed and involved. Finally, change at the individual level is profound and traumatic. It affects people in varying ways and to varying degrees, and results in diverse reactions.

In the area of culture, this study has shown that the influence of culture in a cross-sectoral affiliation cannot be ignored, particularly where institutional survival is at stake. In this regard, there are several observations. First, a culture of change is a key element in the survival process. Further, a culture of change is facilitated by these factors: wide involvement in genuine consultation; wide involvement in decision making; and a clear, shared, defensible organisational vision. Second, without a culture of change, it is difficult to implement innovations or achieve significant improvement. Third, inter-institutional cultural conflict is a major source of tension in the survival process. Fourth, cultural change is the most difficult to accept both at the individual and institutional levels. However, people must accept the fact that the organisational culture will change. Finally, cultural change is more profound in the smaller and less powerful institution.

Where the type of affiliation is concerned, there are several factors that need consideration. First, the type of governance structure in a cross-sectoral affiliation or merger situation affects the inter-institutional relationship and what can be achieved. This study has shown that, where shared governance is not part of the inter-institutional agreement, 'ongoing' administrative difficulties are inevitable. Second, inter-institutional affiliation is a legal contract and should not be based merely on trust. Third, the extent of inter-institutional involvement in management influences individual institutional attitude towards responsibility. Fourth, important issues regarding the terms of the agreement should be resolved prior to implementation. In this regard, policy and specific unambiguous criteria for executing the terms of the agreement should be put in place prior to implementation. Finally, in a cross-sectoral affiliation involving institutions of unequal status (as in this case), a lack of mutual respect and abuse of power by the more powerful institution will threaten the relationship.

CONCLUSIONS

From the findings of this study, the researcher drew several conclusions specific to the institution where this study was conducted. The researcher presents these conclusions under the headings: pre-service primary teacher education, the survival process and methodology.

Pre-service Primary Teacher Education

In this study, the researcher investigated the provision of pre-service primary teacher education by Hilltop College of Education in a rapidly changing environment. The researcher focused on two related programmes: the Diploma of Teaching and the Bachelor of Education. At the time of this investigation, pre-service primary teacher education was provided intra-institutionally and inter-institutionally through an affiliated relationship with Belmont University. Based on the findings of this study, the researcher concluded that pre-service primary teacher education was a changing entity: in nature and the means through which it was provided. The possibility existed that the Diploma of Teaching programme could be superseded by the B.Ed. degree programme. Pre-service primary education was changing rapidly from training for a diploma to training for a degree qualification. This change was the first step in the move to make primary teaching a degreed profession. In this regard, there was a strong suggestion that the University would become more involved in teacher education.

Second, the researcher concluded that the changes in teacher education - from its orientation to its curriculum content - were influenced primarily by external forces. Further, the political factor was the most influential driving force. The College had to implement changes to guarantee its financial support from the government. Similarly, with the 'marketisation' of teacher education through the government's education policy, the College also had to introduce changes to compete effectively in the marketplace. At the same time, the College had to ensure that it satisfied the demands of the employers of its graduates. In this regard, the College was faced with a dilemma. The College had to satisfy two competing stakeholders.

Third, the researcher concluded that the College's philosophy of teacher education was influenced and shaped by the government's 'technological' orientation. The lack of a clearly defined philosophy and clearly defined goals of pre-service primary teacher education was, in part, a reflection of the resulting confusion as the College attempted to adopt and incorporate an imposed orientation. Further, this imposition reflected the government's influence on teacher education, stifled creativity and inhibited the College from fulfilling its leadership role in education.

Fourth, at the time of this investigation, pre-service primary teacher education lacked a sense of purpose and direction, particularly in the case of the B.Ed. degree programme. The College lacked the experience, expertise and knowledge necessary to implement a degree programme and the University did not provide the structural support that was needed. The researcher concluded that there was need for the College to develop and articulate clearly its vision and goals of pre-service primary teacher education and review its approach to programme development, administration and delivery.

Fifth, the researcher concluded that the difficulties associated with the B.Ed. degree programme were end products of the type of affiliation, the timing of events, the model of implementation, the role ambiguity of the joint Faculty of Education and the management style. The findings of this study revealed that the affiliation agreement did not include governance and the University was involved only in the conjoint component of the programme. Implementation was rushed, there was not enough time to plan and a number of important pre-implementation issues were not resolved. It was difficult to put the model of implementation into operation and the administrative structures were neither efficient nor effective.

Sixth, in the area of curriculum, the researcher concluded that there was a lack of articulation among the different components of the programmes. The lack of articulation was especially evident in the case of the B.Ed. degree programme. This particular curriculum characteristic was an end product of a combination of factors such as: the compartmentalisation of subject departments; the fact that the University's involvement was only in one component of the B.Ed. degree programme; the structural weaknesses associated with the B.Ed. degree programme; and, the difficulties associated with the model of implementation. Student teachers were left with the responsibility of establishing the lateral curriculum connections.

Seventh, the researcher concluded that the place of the disciplines in teacher education, particularly education, needed to be clarified for both staff and student teachers. Some lecturers did not see the relevance of the study of education. Similarly, most student teachers did not see the relationship between some optional University courses and their preparation for primary teaching. This conclusion was similar to Howey and Zimpher's (1989) finding with regard to the foundations of education in their study of teacher education programmes.

Eighth, in the area of course and programme evaluation, the researcher concluded that there was need for a reappraisal of the form, function and conduct of course and programme evaluation by Hilltop College of Education. Further, the standard student teachers' course evaluation form provided neither the quantity nor quality information necessary to effect substantial course or programme improvement. Further, there was need for the College to improve the efficiency of its data collection and distribution system and to synchronise its grading system with the University's, particularly in the case of the B.Ed. degree programme.

Ninth, in the area of the theory-practice dichotomy, the researcher concluded that there was a low level of articulation between the institutionalised and school-based components of the B.Ed. degree programme in the area of school-based assignments. However, the findings of this study suggested that the consultative group approach involving practising teachers in the planning of student teachers' school-based assignments was one means of linking theory and practice. Further, this approach was also a means of developing and strengthening the relationship among the schools, the College and the University in the provision of primary teacher education.

Tenth, the researcher concluded that there was need for the College to examine its staff development policy and its implementation. In particular, there was need to prepare staff for their roles.

Eleventh, based on the findings of this study, the researcher concluded that the B.Ed. degree programme was not meeting the needs of ethnic minority groups (including Maori). Therefore, the College was not fulfilling its commitment to improving the participation and success rates of these student teachers. Furthermore, there was need to investigate the incidence of the high dropout rate of this group of student teachers from the B.Ed. degree programme.

Finally, the researcher concluded that the difficulties associated with the implementation of the B.Ed. degree programme threatened the credibility of the programme and, by extension, the College's credibility and survival. Further, the College's survival in the future was dependent on how implementation progressed and how the relationship with the University developed.

The Survival Process

The researcher traced the College's survival through two change events: the B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University. In the process, the researcher developed a substantive theory of survival. In this sub-section, the researcher presents the conclusions drawn from the survival process.

First, the researcher concluded that survival entailed change but it was change that was instituted voluntarily (the driving force aside) to ensure self preservation. Hilltop College of Education was in a 'no win' situation. The College had to institute change to ensure its survival as a provider of teacher education. At the same time, the College was also aware that the government had the power to enforce change as several amalgamations in Australia, Britain and the United States had shown (Harman, 1983; Linke, 1983; Collis, et al., 1988; Meek, 1988b; Temple & Whitchurch, 1994).

Second, the researcher concluded that the survival process required strong proactive leadership to initiate and sustain the process. When the key actors approached their task vigorously, they were able to achieve desirable results. However, when they became complacent, the results were largely negative. Further, in order for the process to be successful, there must be a cadre of committed, supporting 'key actors' (in this case in both institutions) who were committed to 'push through' the changes.

Third, based on the results of this study, the researcher concluded that the strategies used in negotiating and the College's ability to use the contextual factors to its advantage influenced its achievements in the affiliation agreement. The College employed strategies such as extensive and intensive prior and ongoing preparation and the team approach. In addition, the College, compared with past negotiations, used its more advantageous position to negotiate a more favourable affiliation agreement.

Fourth, the literature on change theory emphasised the importance of building a climate of trust (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Neville, 1992; Trice & Beyer, 1993; Whitaker, 1993). Based on the findings of this study, the researcher concluded that affiliation was a legal arrangement; hence, change instituted inter-institutionally cannot be based merely on trust. Furthermore, there was need for a reconceptualisation of the trust factor in the change process.

Sixth, based on the findings of this investigation, the researcher concluded that cultural conflict was inevitable in inter-institutional affiliation. The College and the University were two separate entities with different standards, procedures and approaches for conducting their operations. In this particular instance, the College's culture was the one that had changed profoundly. The College was the smaller and less powerful institution; hence, the University's culture dominated.

Seventh, based on the findings of this study, the researcher concluded that change (particularly change instituted inter-institutionally) affected the self perceptions of the people involved. Generally, staff at the College were concerned about how they were perceived by their University counterparts. In addition, some staff members assessed their self-worth in terms of the perceived importance of their subject areas.

Eighth, the researcher concluded that where change was instituted inter-institutionally critical issues that could affect implementation should be resolved prior to implementation. In this particular study, unresolved pre-implementation issues threatened the affiliation, the credibility of the B.Ed. degree programme and, by extension, the College's credibility.

Ninth, the researcher concluded that the affiliation was affected by power relations and issues of status at the institutional and individual levels. The University did not recognise the College as a tertiary institution of equal status. For example, there were instances where the University made unilateral decisions and the College was expected to accept those decisions. At the individual level, the College's staff felt that they were perceived (by the University staff) as having lower status because they were not as academically qualified as the University's staff. Generally, the College's staff felt that their practical expertise was not recognised as worthwhile by most University staff.

Tenth, the researcher concluded that the negative impacts of the two innovations overshadowed their benefits. In the process, the major focus of the affiliation - teacher education - got lost along the way. Furthermore, benefits such as opportunities for staff of both institutions to work together, the relationships that developed and the opportunities for sharing academic and professional expertise, were lost in the process.

Finally, the literature on change theory focused primarily on the change process and provided ways of articulating the change process (Fullan, 1982, 1985, 1986, 1991; Lewin, cited in Cherrington, 1989; Deal, 1990; Neville, 1992; Trice & Beyer, 1993). Comparatively, there was a paucity of ways for expressing the purpose and context of change in the literature (Hargreaves, 1994). In this regard, the researcher concluded that the substantive theory of survival was a discourse for expressing the purpose, the context, the process and the impact of change in this particular study.

Methodology

In the present study, the researcher used a modified grounded theory approach for data collection and analysis. The researcher also explored the possibility of extending the usability of grounded theory by trying to move beyond its predominant emphasis on micro level factors. The researcher drew three conclusions with regard to the methodology.

First, the researcher concluded that criterion-based sampling complemented theoretical sampling. Furthermore, criterion-based sampling provided a basis for the utilisation of theoretical sampling. This conclusion supported Maxwell's (1992) observation that the goal of these two types of sampling was twofold: to ensure that the researcher understood the variation in the phenomenon under investigation and to test emerging ideas about the context in which the phenomenon was investigated. From the outset, it was difficult to determine which group of individuals to approach first. Criterion-based sampling assisted the researcher in this regard. However, the benefits of theoretical sampling were appreciated when the data analysis began. This finding affirmed Goetz and LeCompte's (1984) observation that theoretical sampling was more useful in the later stages of a study rather than at the beginning.

Second, the researcher concluded that grounded theory could be extended to conduct more useful in-depth investigations in social research if efforts were made to establish linkage between micro and macro level factors. In this study, the researcher was able to establish connections between the specific contextual events and those occurring in the wider environment to gain a better understanding of the change forces impacting on pre-service primary teacher education. The researcher was also able to set the survival process in the context of the wider changing environment and identify the forces driving the College's bid for survival.

Third, the researcher concluded that there was need to reassess the issue of the generalisability of findings from qualitative case studies. The findings of this study suggested that where rigorous measures of validity were built into the research design and where the research procedure was well documented, the diverse claims for generalisability by Schofield (1993), Firestone (1993) and Stake (1978) could be justified. Schofield suggested that qualitative researchers should design studies to generalise to three domains: to what is, to what may be and to what could be. Studying 'what is', according to Schofield, is to study the typical situation. In studying 'what may be', Schofield argues that researchers should design studies with futuristic usefulness. Finally, studying 'what could be' refers to locating ideal or exceptional situations and studying them to determine what is actually happening there. Firestone, on the other hand, suggests case-to-case generalisation in case study research, while Stake argues for naturalistic generalisation. Naturalistic generalisation (which is similar to case-to-case generalisation) entails taking the findings from one investigation and applying them to understand a similar situation.

The research design, the rigorous measures of validity used by the researcher in this study (for example, the verification of interview transcripts by all participants) and the documentation of the research process all contributed to the credibility or 'trustworthiness' of this study. With the increasing trend towards amalgamations in tertiary education in New Zealand, the researcher believes that this study provides information which could be useful to people involved in similar situations and researchers investigating teacher education offered in situations of affiliation or amalgamation. Further, although the context, the people involved, and the temporal and spatial factors do not remain constant (and cannot be replicated), the researcher believes that the methodological approach itself can be adopted.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings of this study revealed that there was need for further research in a number of areas. In this regard, the researcher makes these recommendations. First, this study investigated the provision of pre-service primary teacher education at Hilltop College of Education in a rapidly changing environment. The fieldwork spanned the second year of implementation of the B.Ed. degree programme. The researcher concluded that teacher education was a changing entity, particularly in the context of its provision inter-institutionally. Therefore, the researcher recommends that follow up studies be conducted to trace the changes in pre-service primary teacher education and its provision as the B.Ed.'s implementation continues.

Second, the researcher concluded that, at the termination of the fieldwork for this study, the College had managed to survive as a provider of teacher education. Further, the researcher observed that the College's continued existence as a provider of teacher education was dependent largely on two factors: the nature of the B.Ed.'s implementation and the development of the relationship with Belmont University. In this regard, the researcher recommends that further research be conducted to monitor the College's survival process, particularly in relation to the affiliation with Belmont University. Two critical questions emerge here: Does the College survive as a provider of teacher education in the long term? What strategies are employed by the College to ensure its survival?

Third, the researcher concluded that the importance of the trust factor in the change process needed to be reconceptualised. In this study, the researcher found that support for the innovations was related primarily to two key factors: involvement in the change process (including decision making) and effective two way communication. Trust, particularly trust in management, was not a key factor in mobilising support in this study. In this regard, the researcher recommends that future studies in the change process investigate the role of trust in relation to its importance in mobilising support for innovations.

Fourth, the findings of this study showed that macro level factors were impacting on and influencing the form and nature of teacher education at the micro level. At the same time, there was evidence to suggest that education policy, in its present form, was affecting the provision of pre-service primary teacher education negatively in some areas. In this regard, the findings of this study had implications for future policy making in teacher education. Therefore, the researcher recommends that research be conducted into the effects of education policy on teacher education with emphasis on highlighting the implications of research findings for better policy formulation at the macro level.

Finally, the literature indicated that there was a paucity of means or frameworks for expressing the purpose and context of change. The researcher concluded that, in the case of this study, the substantive theory of survival was a discourse for articulating the purpose, context and process of change because survival was central to the change process. Therefore, the researcher recommends that future research on change (particularly change in teacher education) focus on its purpose and context with the intent of providing ways of articulating these two aspects.

In the final analysis, the researcher believes that this study has made a useful contribution to pre-service primary teacher education (and teacher education, generally), particularly by way of explicating its changing form and nature in the context of its provision in an affiliated relationship. In the process, the researcher did not strip the investigation of its contextual factors. Instead, in investigating the provision of pre-service primary teacher education, the researcher made a conscious effort to relate the micro level events to the macro environmental factors impacting on the phenomenon. In keeping with the qualitative mode of inquiry, pre-service primary teacher education was investigated in its natural setting and the people involved were allowed to speak for themselves.

AFTERWORD

The fieldwork for this study spanned a period of fourteen months. In the process, I collected a substantial amount of data which had to be stored for safe keeping - a constant concern. The data analysis was an ongoing, demanding, time consuming and sometimes frustrating process and there were many futile starts and stops along the way. However, my interest in the phenomenon kept me highly motivated and sustained the tenacity to persevere to the end.

I learnt to appreciate the benefits of doing my own transcription and, in the process, raised questions about confidentiality: Does the researcher compromise confidentiality when he or she contracts someone to do the transcription? Does the researcher need the participants' consent? Throughout the analysis, I was anxious about my interpretation of the data and there were times when I questioned whether I had portrayed the data accurately. However, my fears were allayed by the comments of one staff member at Hilltop College of Education who read the draft thesis and gave an independent assessment.

From the data analysis I developed a substantive theory of survival. This theory traced the College's survival through the two change events. At the conclusion of the field work for this study, the College had managed to survive. The College's survival, in the future, will depend on how the B.Ed. programme is implemented and the affiliation with Belmont University develops. However, regardless of the future developments, one participant's summation of the B.Ed.'s importance to the College's survival provides an appropriate conclusion to this thesis:

> If we had not moved to the B.Ed. I think the College could have faced closure within five years. I think the B.Ed. has saved the College and has made it a lot more rigorous institution - much more academically respectable - and provided the qualification our students want. Whereas, if we had stayed with just the Diploma of Teaching at the undergraduate level, I think the influence of the College would have become irrelevant in the changing world. (P 3)

APPENDICES

Appendix A
List of Guiding Questions

People Parameter

1. What are the characteristics (qualifications, gender, ethnicity, etc.) of the people involved (administration, staff and students) in pre-service primary teacher education at Hilltop College of Education?
2. What are the roles of the people involved in pre-service primary teacher education at Hilltop College of Education?
3. How is pre-service primary teacher education conceptualised by the people involved (administration, staff and students) in pre-service primary teacher education at Hilltop College of Education?

Programme Parameter

1. What is the stated philosophy of pre-service primary teacher education of Hilltop College of Education?
2. What are the goals of the pre-service primary teacher education programmes (diploma; degree) at Hilltop College of Education?
3. What are the components of the selected pre-service primary teacher education programmes (diploma; degree) of Hilltop College of Education?
4. How are the selected pre-service primary teacher education programmes (diploma; degree) at Hilltop College of Education developed?
5. What factors influence the development of the pre-service primary teacher education programmes (diploma; degree) at Hilltop College of Education?
6. How are pre-service primary teacher education programmes (diploma; degree) operationalised by Hilltop College of Education?
7. How are the human, material and physical resources used in the pre-service primary teacher education programmes (diploma; degree) by Hilltop College of Education?
8. What are the current and future directions in the pre-service primary teacher education programmes (diploma; degree) of Hilltop College of Education?
9. How does Hilltop College of Education evaluate its pre-service primary teacher education programmes (diploma; degree)?
10. How do the pre-service primary teacher education programmes (diploma; degree) fit with or relate to the national primary schools' curriculum?

Context Parameter

1. Under what organisational structure(s) are the primary pre-service teacher education programmes (diploma; degree) of Hilltop College of Education offered?
2. How do the selected context variables of: organisational structure, support services, change, relationship with university and education policy impact on pre-service primary teacher education at Hilltop College of Education?

Appendix B

Sample Interview Schedules

B-1 Initial Semi-structured Interview Schedule

B-2 Semi-structured Interview Schedule - College Staff

B-3 Semi-structured Interview Schedule - University Staff

B-4 Semi-structured Interview Schedule - Student Teachers

B-1 Initial Semi-Structured Interview Schedule

(sample - used in the preliminary data collection phase)

1. What is your role in pre-service primary teacher education?
2. What do you believe pre-service primary teacher education should provide?
3. What does the College believe pre-service primary teacher education should provide?
4. What are the goals of pre-service primary teacher education at the College?
5. What do you see as the goals of pre-service primary teacher education?
6. What pre-service primary teacher training programmes are now offered by the College?
7. What knowledge bases, skills, values and attitudes undergird these programmes?
8. What do you perceive to be the most important roles student teachers should be prepared to perform in the primary classroom?
9. In what ways are the present programmes preparing student teachers for those roles?
10. What are the characteristics and qualities prospective student teachers should have to be admitted into pre-service primary teacher education programmes?
11. How would you describe an excellent primary teacher graduate of the College?
12. What approach to teacher education is used by the College?
13. What is the thinking behind using this approach?
13. What approach to instruction (in primary classrooms) is advocated by the College?
14. How does the College ensure that it meets its objective of providing primary teacher education programmes of the highest quality?
15. What factors influence the development of pre-service primary teacher education programmes?
16. How are pre-service primary teacher education programmes developed?
17. What is your role in pre-service primary teacher education programme development?
18. How are pre-service primary teacher education programmes evaluated?
19. What function do the normal and model schools serve in pre-service primary teacher education?
20. The most recent pre-service primary teacher education programme was the B.Ed. What factors influenced its development?
21. What was your involvement in its development?

22. In what way has/will this programme enhance pre-service primary teacher education?
23. What are your impressions of the B.Ed. degree programme after the first year of implementation?
24. What changes did the programme necessitate?
25. What has helped you to manage these changes?
26. Has your role changed, in any way, since the introduction of the B.Ed. programme?
27. In your view, to what extent are the goals and objectives of pre-service primary teacher education being achieved by the College?
28. How does the College propose to deal with the inhibiting factors?
29. What is your vision of pre-service primary teacher education for the future?
30. How do you perceive your role in pre-service primary teacher education in the future?

B-2 Semi-Structured Interview Schedule - College Staff

(developed after the Preliminary Investigation)

1. What is your involvement in the pre-service primary teacher education programmes (diploma; degree)?
2. What are the College's goals for pre-service primary teacher education?
3. What do you see as the goals of pre-service primary teacher education?
4. How are these goals reflected in the pre-service teacher education programmes? How are the goals reflected in your area(s) of the programme(s)?
5. What is your involvement, if any in pre-service primary teacher education programme development?
6. What factors influence pre-service primary teacher education programme development/changes?
7. In your opinion, how do the pre-service primary teacher education programmes fit with/relate to the national primary schools' curriculum?
8. The B. Ed. is the most recent pre-service primary programme developed. What factors influenced its development? What was your involvement in its development?
9. (a) What changes did the B. Ed. programme bring?
   (b) How have these changes affected you?
   (c) What has helped you to manage the changes?
10. (a) What is the major teaching approach used in the pre-service primary teacher education programmes at the College?
    (b) What teaching approach do you use in your area(s) of the programme(s)?
    (c) What approach to teaching in primary classrooms is advocated by the College?
11. (a) What resources are available to you in teaching your area(s) of the programme(s)?
    (b) How do you utilise these resources?
12. How are pre-service primary programmes evaluated? How do you evaluate your area(s) of the programme(s)?
13. How would you describe an excellent primary teacher graduate of the College?
14. What do you see as the future direction of pre-service primary teacher education?

B-3 Semi-Structured Interview Schedule - University Staff

1. Through the B.Ed. programme you are involved in pre-service primary teacher education. What do you believe pre-service primary teacher education should provide?
2. When did you become involved in the B.Ed. programme?
3. What is your involvement in the B.Ed. programme?
4. (a) Were you, in any way, involved in its development?
   (b) If so, in what way(s)?
5. What are your observations of the B.Ed. course(s) in which you are involved?
6. What is the Faculty of Education's involvement in pre-service primary teacher education?
7. What are the Faculty's goals for pre-service primary teacher education?
8. What competencies do you think primary trainees should have on completing their training?
9. How is the B.Ed. preparing trainees to fulfil their roles in the classroom?
10. The B.Ed. programme would have brought a number of changes in roles and responsibilities. What changes did the B.Ed. bring?
11. How have these changes affected you?
12. What has helped you to manage these changes?

B-4 Semi-Structured Interview Schedule - Student Teachers

1. What were your expectations of teacher training before you started your training in the B.Ed. programme?
2. Why did you choose the B.Ed. programme?
3. In what ways is the programme meeting your expectations?
4. In what ways is the programme not meeting your expectations?
5. The programme has four strands. How are these strands related?
6. How are your education papers related to your classroom practice?
7. You would probably been exposed to different teaching approaches in the different components of the programme. How do you compare these different teaching approaches?
8. How would you describe the tutorials for your education papers?
9. What is your workload like?
10. What are your impressions of the B.Ed. programme?
11. (a) Are you well provided with material resources for the programme?
    (b) Are physical resources adequate?
12. (a) What kind of support is provided for you as you go through the programme?
    (b) Does the College have a formal support system?
13. (a) What kind of beginning teacher do you think this programme is aiming to produce?
    (b) What kind of beginning teacher do you hope to be at the end of your training?

Appendix C

Goodlad's Nineteen Postulates for Teacher Education Programmes

1. Programs for the education of the nation's educators must be viewed by institutions offering them as a major responsibility to society and be adequately supported and promoted and vigorously advanced by the institution's top leadership.

2. Programs for the education of educators must enjoy parity with other campus programs as a legitimate college or university commitment and field of study and service, worthy of rewards for faculty geared to the nature of the field.

3. Programs for the education of educators must be autonomous and secure in their borders, with clear organizational identity, constancy of budget and personnel, and decision-making authority similar to that enjoyed by the major professional schools.

4. There must exist a clearly identifiable group of academic and clinical faculty members for whom teacher education is the top priority; the group must be responsible and accountable for selecting students and monitoring their progress, planning and maintaining the full scope and sequence of the curriculum, continuously evaluating and improving programs, and facilitating the entry of graduates into teaching careers.

5. The responsible group of academic and clinical faculty members described above [in Postulate Four] must have a comprehensive understanding of the aims of education and the role of schools in our society and be fully committed to selecting and preparing teachers to assume the full range of educational responsibilities required.

6. The responsible group of academic and clinical faculty members must seek out and select for a predetermined number of student places in the program those candidates who reveal an initial commitment to the moral, ethical, and enculturating responsibilities to be assumed.

7. Programs for the education of educators, whether elementary or secondary, must carry the responsibility to ensure that all candidates progressing through them possess or acquire the literacy and critical-thinking abilities associated with the concept of an educated person.

8. Programs for the education of educators must provide extensive opportunities for future teachers to move beyond being students of organized knowledge to become teachers who inquire into both knowledge and its teaching.

9. Programs for the education of educators must be characterized by a socialization process through which candidates transcend their self-oriented student preoccupations to become more other-oriented in identifying with a culture of teaching.

10. Programs for the education of educators must be characterized in all respects by the conditions of learning that future teachers are to establish in their own schools and classrooms.

11. Programs for the education of educators must be conducted in such a way that future teachers inquire into the nature of teaching and schooling and assume that they will do so as a natural aspect of their careers.

12. Programs for the education of educators must involve future teachers in the issues and dilemmas that emerge out of the never-ending tension between the rights and interests of individual parents and special-interest groups, on one hand, and the role of schools in transcending parochialism, on the other.

13. Programs for the education of educators must be infused with understanding of and commitment to the moral obligation of teachers to ensure equitable access to and engagement in the best possible K-12 education for *all* children and youths.

14. Programs for the education of educators must involve future teachers not only in understanding schools as they are but in alternatives, the assumptions underlying alternatives, and how to effect needed changes in school organizations, pupil grouping, curriculum, and more.

15. Programs for the education of educators must assure for each candidate the availability of a wide array of laboratory settings for observation, hands-on experiences, and exemplary schools for internships and residencies; they must admit no more students to their programs than can be assured these quality experiences.

16. Programs for the education of educators must engage future teachers in the problems and dilemmas arising out of the inevitable conflicts and incongruities between what works or is accepted in practice and the research and theory supporting other options.

17. Programs for educating educators must establish linkages with graduates for purposes of both evaluating and revising these programs and easing the critical early years of transition into teaching.

18. Programs for the education of educators, in order to be vital and renewing, must be free from curricular specifications by licensing agencies and restrained only by enlightened, professionally driven requirements for accreditation.

19. Programs for the education of educators must be protected from the vagaries of supply and demand by state policies that allow neither backdoor "emergency" programs nor temporary teaching licenses.

Source: *Teachers for Our Nation's Schools* (Goodlad, 1990).

Appendix D

Letters to Participants

D-1 Sample Letter to College Staff

D-2 Form Attached to D-1: Sample Letter to College Staff

D-3 Sample Letter to University Staff

D-4 Sample Letter to Student Teachers

D-5 Letter to College Staff Acknowledging Response

D-1 Sample Letter to College Staff

MASSEY
UNIVERSITY

Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North
New Zealand
Telephone 0-6-350 453
Facsimile 0-6-350 563

FACULTY OF
EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF
POLICY STUDIES
IN EDUCATION

Department of Policy Studies in Education
Massey University
Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North.

Hilltop College of Education
(Address)

20 January 1994

Dear ____________________

I am a Ph.D. candidate in the Department of Education, Massey University, Palmerston North, under the New Zealand Commonwealth Scholarships Plan. I am currently conducting research in the area of teacher education and the ___________ College of Education is the selected research site.

My thesis topic is:"A Qualitative Study of Pre-service Primary Teacher Education in a New Zealand Teacher Education Institution". The objectives of the research are, firstly, to examine how pre-service primary teacher education is provided in a New Zealand teacher education institution, and, secondly (in the long term), to propose a model of teacher education for my country, St. Vincent. In order to achieve these objective, I need the help of experienced and knowledgeable Teacher Educators like you.

I invite you to participate in the study by offering an hour of your time for a personal interview during the week of 14 - 18 February, 1994, at your convenience, between 9:00 a.m. and 4:00 p.m. If you would like to participate, kindly complete the attached sheet and return it by February 4, 1994. A stamped, self-addressed envelope is provided.

I have already visited the institution and presented my research proposal to the Principal and senior administrative staff. Permission to conduct the study has been granted and I have already conducted several staff interviews. Please rest assured that anonymity and confidentiality are guaranteed.

You have a wealth of valuable information on pre-service primary teacher education and I trust that you would share this information with me. Teacher education in a developing country can be improved tremendously, through your participation in this study.

I shall be at the College on 27 January, 1994 and will be happy to provide more information on the research.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

____
Veronica Marks

D-2 Form Attached to D-1: Sample Letter to College Staff

Name:____

Choose one of the following by placing a tick (/) in the space provided.
____ Yes, I would like to participate in the study.
____ No, I would not like to participate in the study.

In the spaces provided, list four possible times in order of preference (1 being the most preferred, 4 being the least preferred) when you would like to be interviewed. (See sample provided)

	A.M.	P.M.
Monday 14 February 1994		
Tuesday 15 February 1994		
Wednesday 16 February 1994		
Thursday 17 February 1994		
Friday 18 February 1994		

If you would like to participate in the study but 14 - 18 February, 1994 is inconvenient, kindly suggest at least two alternative dates and times:

____

Thank you.

Kindly detach and return in the stamped, self-addressed envelope to:

Veronica Marks
Department of Policy Studies in Education
Massey University
Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North.

MASSEY
UNIVERSITY

Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North
New Zealand
Telephone 0-6-350 453
Facsimile 0-6-350 563

FACULTY OF
EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF
POLICY STUDIES
IN EDUCATION

D-3 Sample Letter to University Staff

Department of Policy Studies in Education
Faculty of Education
Massey University
Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North

5 March 1994

Faculty of Education/Arts/Department of Maori Studies
Belmont University
(Address)

Dear ____________________

I am a Ph.D. candidate in the Department of Education, Massey University, under the New Zealand Commonwealth Scholarships Plan. I am currently conducting research in the area of Teacher Education and the ____________College of Education has been selected as the research site.

My thesis is entitled: "A Qualitative Study of Pre-service Primary Teacher Education in a New Zealand Teacher Education Institution". The objectives of my research are, firstly, to examine how pre-service primary teacher education is provided in a New Zealand teacher education institution, and, secondly (in the long term), to propose a model of teacher education for my country, St. Vincent.

In relation to my research, I presented my proposal to Professor _______ and I have interviewed both Professors _________ and ________. I have also met with the Principal and senior Administrative Staff of _________ College of Education and I am now in the process of conducting interviews with the staff there.

Since you are involved in the B.Ed. programme, I think you can make a valuable contribution to this study and, by extension, primary teacher education in a developing country. I invite you to participate in the study by offering me an hour of your time for an interview.

Please rest assured that confidentiality and anonymity are guaranteed. I shall be in ________ from 16 to 17 March, 1994, and would be happy to provide more information about my research.

I look forward to meeting and talking with you.

Sincerely

____
Veronica Marks

D-4 Sample Letter to Student Teachers

MASSEY
UNIVERSITY

Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North
New Zealand
Telephone 0-6-350 453
Facsimile 0-6-350 563

FACULTY OF
EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF
POLICY STUDIES
IN EDUCATION

Department of Policy Studies in Education
Faculty of Education
Massey University
Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North
1 August 1994

Hilltop College of Education Teacher Trainees' Association

(Address)

Dear ________________

I am a Ph.D. candidate in the Department of Education, Massey University, under the Commonwealth Scholarships Plan. For my research project I am studying the provision of pre-service primary teacher education and the ____________ College of Education is the selected research site.

My thesis is entitled: "A Study of the Provision of Pre-service Primary Teacher Education in a New Zealand Teacher Education Institution". The objectives of my research are, firstly, to examine how pre-service primary teacher education is provided in a New Zealand teacher education institution, and, secondly, to propose a model of teacher education for my country, St. Vincent.

I am now in the process of doing the fieldwork. In this regard, I have already conducted interviews with several members of the administrative and teaching staff both at the College and Belmont University. I am also particularly interested in the B.Ed. programme, this being its second year.

My research would, however, have obvious limitations if the vital component, student teachers' perspectives, were not included. I think that you can make a valuable contribution to this study and, by extension, primary teacher education in a developing country. In this regard, I invite you to participate in the study by giving thirty minutes of your time for an interview.

The information you provide would be used solely for the purpose of this research project. Please rest assured that confidentiality and anonymity are guaranteed.

I look forward to meeting and talking with you.

Sincerely

____
Veronica Marks

MASSEY
UNIVERSITY

Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North
New Zealand
Telephone 0-6-350 453
Facsimile 0-6-350 563

FACULTY OF
EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF
POLICY STUDIES
IN EDUCATION

D-5 Letter to College Staff Acknowledging Response

Department of Policy Studies in Education
Faculty of Education
Massey University
Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North
8 February 1994

Hilltop College of Education

(Address)

Dear ________________

I wish to thank you for responding and for your willingness to participate in the research project.

The interview is scheduled for __________________ from ___________. Grateful if we could meet in your office. If there have been any changes and you are unable to keep this appointment, please let me know through Ms _____________.

In order to give an accurate description of the sample of Teacher Educators participating in the study (by interview) I would like you to respond to a few personal questions. These questions are set out on the attached sheet and will only take about ten minutes of your time. Would you kindly respond to these items?

Please rest assured that the information you provide both in the interview and on the attached sheet will be used only for the purpose of this study and will be treated in strictest confidence. Anonymity is also guaranteed. You are not required to write your name on the sheet. I shall collect the sheets personally when we meet for the interview.

Many thanks for your support and co-operation. I look forward to meeting and talking with you.

Yours sincerely

____

Veronica Marks

Appendix E

Sample of Field Notes

27 July 1994.

I arrived at the College at 9:02 a.m. There was a bus parked outside the entrance and a number of students were standing in the foyer. It was open day at the College and the students had come for an introduction to the institution. Prospective student teachers? This event was part of the College's marketing strategy to attract student teachers.

I met with participant X as planned. We discussed programme and administrative changes at the College. I explained my theory of survival that was beginning to emerge from the data and asked participant X what he thought of my interpretation. Participant X said that he felt my interpretation of the data was accurate. At this point, participant X asked a very interesting question: "Have you seen many visitors around?" The question was unexpected and I noticed that he looked worried. I told participant X that on my way in I had noticed some student standing in the foyer. I then asked participant X whether they were expecting a large number of visitors. Participant X's response was: " Today is open day and the number of visitors we get gives some indication of our student numbers for the next year". I then asked participant X about the anxiety. Participant X's response was: "Well, I'm anxious because if we don't get enough students we could close down". Participant X was worried about job security and the institution's future. This discussion with participant X helped to clarify my own thinking and interpretation of the data. What I needed to do was to re-examine the data in light of this discussion.

I also spoke with participant Y. Participant Y updated the position on the proposed restructuring and the plans to reduce contact time in 1995. Participant Y observed that this issue was problematic because there was no clear indication on how increased independent study time was to be utilised. The proposed developments were interesting for the future of pre-service primary teacher education. Would the institution be adopting a more 'self directed' orientation to teacher education?

I interviewed two participants (College staff), for the first time, during the afternoon session. Both participants felt that the Diploma of Teaching was the most important teacher education programme offered by the College. However, one of these participants mentioned the need to keep abreast with the material covered in the B.Ed. programme and to relate the content to his subject area. This participant saw the need for programme articulation.

Appendix F

College and University Staff Questionnaire, Demographic and Other Data

F-1 College and University Staff Questionnaire

F-2 Table F 1 College and University Staff Demographic Data

F-3 Table F 2 College and University Staff Academic Qualifications

F-4 Table F 3 College and University Staff Experience in Teacher Education

F-1 College and University Staff Questionnaire

The following items are designed to collect information to give an accurate description of the sample of Teacher Educators participating (by interview) in this research project. Some items require only a tick (✓) in the appropriate box. Space is provided for completing the other items.

Directions: Kindly complete the following items by putting a tick (✓) in the appropriate box or writing in the space provided.

1. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. How long have you been a Teacher Educator (including this year)?

☐ under 5 yrs ☐ 5 - 9 yrs ☐ 10 -15 yrs ☐ 16 -20 yrs ☐ over 20 yrs

3. How long have you worked at the Wellington College of Education (including this year)?

☐ under 5 yrs ☐ 5 - 9 yrs ☐ 10 - 15 yrs ☐ 16 - 20 yrs ☐ over 20 yrs

4. In what area(s) of the pre-service primary teacher education programmes (diploma; degree) are you involved?

Diploma ____________________
Degree (B. Ed.) ____________________

5. Are you actively involved in teaching?

☐ yes ☐ no

6. If your answer to question five (5) was yes, what area(s) do you teach?

____
____

7. In the space provided please state your qualifications.

____

8. Kindly indicate your age group.

☐ under 25 ☐ 25 - 30 years ☐ 31 - 35 years
☐ 36 - 40 years ☐ 41 - 45 years ☐ 46 - 50 years
☐ 51 - 55 years ☐ 56 - 60 years ☐ 61 - 65 years
☐ over 65 years

F-2 Table F 1 College and University Staff Demographic Data

Table F 1
Frequency Distribution of College and University Staff
Participants by Age and Gender

	College Staff		University Staff	
Age Group	M	F	M	F
31 - 35		1		2
36 - 40	4	1		
41 - 45	4	4	2	2
46 - 50	2	5	1	
51 - 55	3	3	1	
56 - 60	2	2		
61 - 65	1	1		
Total	16	17	4	4

F-3 Table F 2 College and University Staff Academic Qualifications

Table F 2
Frequency Distribution of Academic Qualifications of College and University Staff Participants

Qualification	College Staff	University Staff
Diploma of Teaching	26	5
Advanced Diploma of Teaching	4	
Other Diplomas	16	3
Undergraduate Degree(s)	17	8
Master's	13	7
Doctorate	0	4

F-4 Table F 3 College and University Staff Experience in Teacher Education

Table F 3

College and University Staff Participants' Experience in Teacher Education

Years of Experience	College Staff	University Staff
None		1
Under 5 years	6	4
5 - 9 years	8	2
10 - 15 years	5	1
16 - 20 years	5	
Over 20 years	9	
Total	33	8

Appendix G

Student Teachers' Questionnaire and Demographic Data

G-1 Student Teachers' Questionnaire

G-2 Table G 1 Student Teachers' Demographic Data

G-1 Student Teachers' Questionnaire

The following selected items are designed to collect information to describe and give an accurate representation of **Student Teachers'** perceptions of the conjoint component of the B.Ed. programme. Some items require only a tick (√) in the appropriate box. Space is provided for completing the other items.

Directions: Kindly complete the following items by putting a tick (√) in the appropriate box or writing your answer in the space provided.

1. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Kindly state your ethnicity ______________________________

3. Kindly indicate your age group.

☐ under 20 yrs ☐ 20 - 24 yrs ☐ 25 - 29 yrs ☐ over 45 yrs

☐ 30 - 34 yrs ☐ 35 - 39 yrs ☐ 40 - 44 yrs

4. Why did you choose the B.Ed. programme?

____

____

5. What aspects of the compulsory Education strand of the B.Ed. programme are you most satisfied with?

1.______________________________
2.______________________________
3.______________________________

6. In what ways are the B.Ed. Education papers meeting your needs for primary classroom teaching?

1.______________________________
2.______________________________
3.______________________________

7. In what ways are the B.Ed. Education papers not meeting your needs for primary classroom teaching?

1.______________________________
2.______________________________
3.______________________________

8. What concerns, if any, do you have about the B.Ed. programme?

1.______________________________
2.______________________________
3.______________________________

Thank you.

Department of Education
Massey University
Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North.

N.B. Data from the programme items were used minimally because of the amount of information generated from the interviews.

G-2 Table G 1 Student Teachers' Demographic Data

Table G 1

Frequency Distribution of Student Teacher Participants by Age, Gender and Ethnicity

Age		Gender		Ethnicity		
Age Group	No.	M	F	European	Maori	Mixed
Under 20	2		2	1		1
20 - 24	5	2	3	4	1	
25 -29						
30 -34	1		1	1		
35 - 39	1		1			1
Total	9	2	7	6	1	2

Appendix H

Sample of Open Coded Interview Transcript

(See Pullout Inserted Overleaf)

Appendix I

Record of Expenditure in Time on Data Collection

Table I

Record of Expenditure in Time

Fieldwork - Data Collection and Analysis	Hours	Months
56 Tape-recorded interviews	63	
72 Follow-up interviews and discussions	69	
Recording field notes	43	
On going data examination and analysis		14
Correspondence (writing and mailing letters, telephone calls, e-mail, faxes, etc.,)	140	
Travel to research site	90	
Travel between institutions	8	
Interview transcription	508	
Document collection	53	
Total	974	14

Appendix J

Core Curriculum and Curriculum Extension Courses in Diploma of Teaching and B.Ed. Degree Programmes

Table J

Core Curriculum and Curriculum Extension Courses in Diploma of Teaching and B.Ed. Degree Programmes

Core Curriculum	Core Units		Curriculum Extension
Subject Areas	Diploma	B.Ed./Dip.	No. of Courses
Art	2.0	2.0	3
Music/Dance	2.0	2.0	3
Drama	1.0	0.5	1
Physical Education	2.0	2.0	3
Health	2.0	1.5	2
Language	2.5	2.0	2
Literature	1.5	1.5	2
Reading	2.5	2.0	2
Mathematics	2.5	2.0	3
Science	2.5	2.0	3
Social Science	2.0	1.5	3
AV Technology	1.0	1.0	1
Technology Education	1.0	1.0	1
Computer Studies	1.0	1.0	1
Professional Education	2.5	2.0	2
Multicultural Studies	0.5	0.5	1
Special Education	1.0	0.5	1
Maori Studies	2.5	2.0	1
Total	32	26*	37

N.B. All student teachers take 12 units teaching experience.

Key

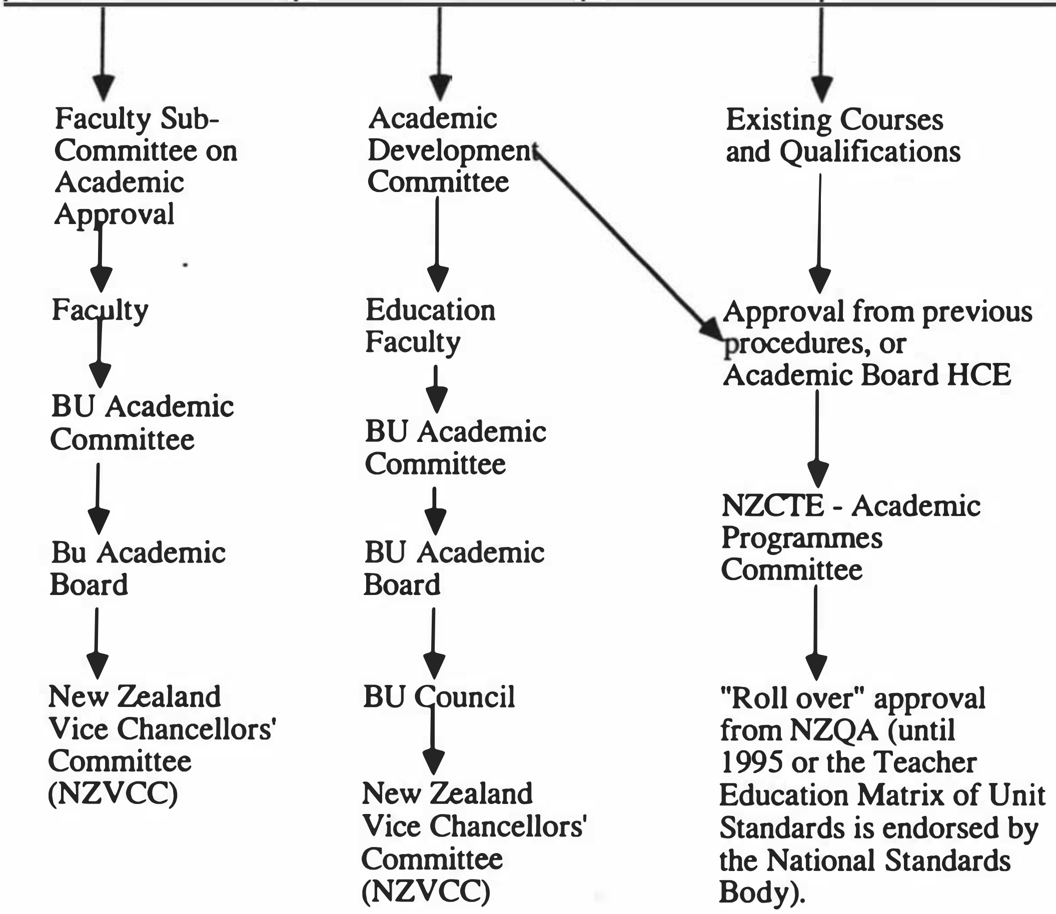
- 1 unit = 36 hours class contact time
- Diploma only student teachers - 10 units extension maximum
- B.Ed./Dip. student teachers - 2 units extension maximum
- * 1 unit to be exempted in lieu of an identifiable University paper

Source: Hilltop College of Education 1994 Calendar, p. 78.

Appendix K

Structure of the B.Ed. Degree Programme

A	B	C	D
BU	Education Faculty	HCE	
30 - 42 credits from any courses offered for a first degree from BU, and approved by the Academic Board	Conjoint papers. No fewer then 30 in EDUC from courses: ED A, ED B, ED 2. 6 EDUC credits at 300 level.	Curriculum 30 - 42 in Teaching Studies including at least 6 at 300 level.	Professional Education: as required for the award of the Diploma of Teaching.


Faculty Sub-Committee on Academic Approval
Faculty
BU Academic Committee
Bu Academic Board
New Zealand Vice Chancellors' Committee (NZVCC)
Academic Development Committee
Education Faculty
BU Academic Committee
BU Academic Board
BU Council
New Zealand Vice Chancellors' Committee (NZVCC)
Existing Courses and Qualifications
Approval from previous procedures, or Academic Board HCE
NZCTE - Academic Programmes Committee
"Roll over" approval from NZQA (until 1995 or the Teacher Education Matrix of Unit Standards is endorsed by the National Standards Body).

Key

1. A, B, C, D - four components of the B.Ed. degree programme
2. BU - Belmont University
3. HCE - Hilltop College of Education

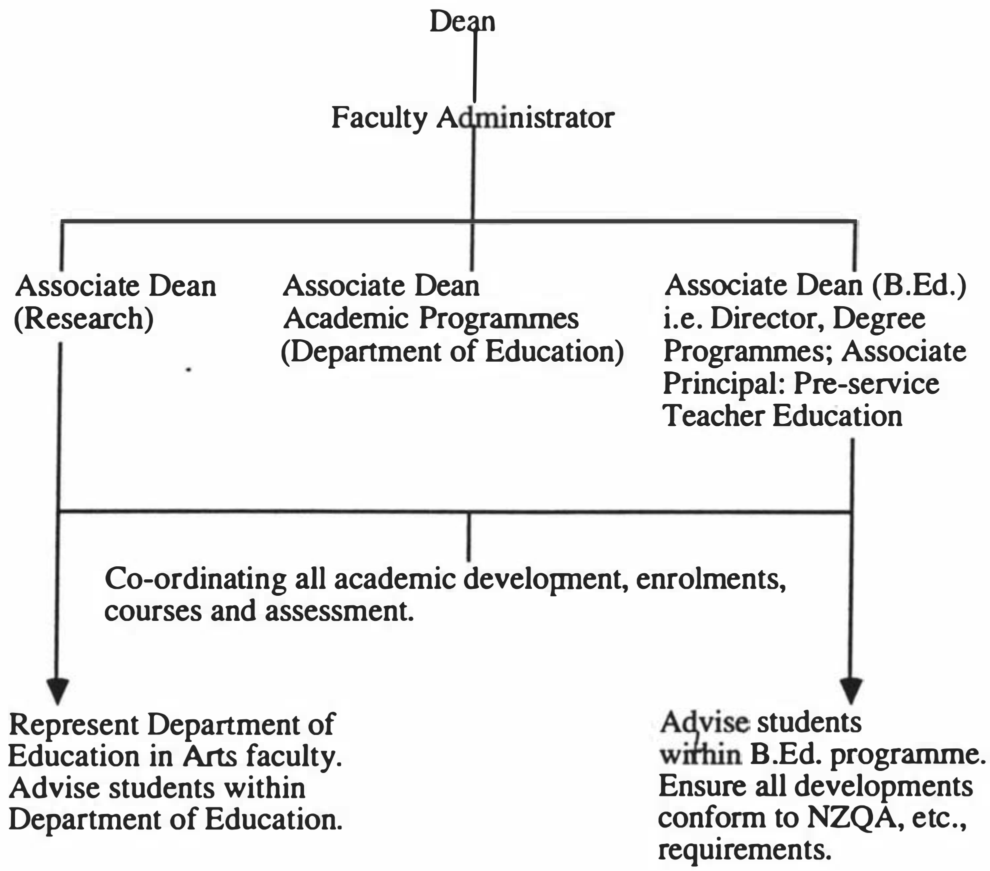
Source: B.Ed. Information Package, 21 May, 1993.

Appendix L

The Faculty of Education's Management Structure

The Management Structure

Personnel

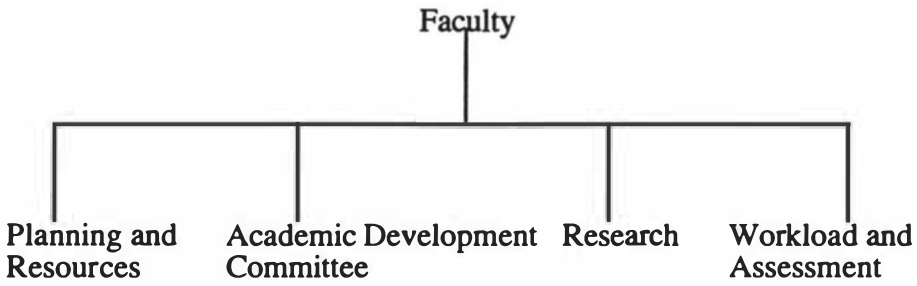

Dean
Faculty Administrator
Associate Dean (Research)
Associate Dean Academic Programmes (Department of Education)
Associate Dean (B.Ed.) i.e. Director, Degree Programmes; Associate Principal: Pre-service Teacher Education

Co-ordinating all academic development, enrolments, courses and assessment.

Represent Department of Education in Arts faculty. Advise students within Department of Education.

Advise students within B.Ed. programme. Ensure all developments conform to NZQA, etc., requirements.

Committees


Faculty
Planning and Resources
Academic Development Committee
Research
Workload and Assessment

Source: B.Ed. Information Package, 21 May, 1993.

DOCUMENTS

Amendments to the Statute for the Faculty of Education, 1993.

Bachelor of Education - Process for Estimating EFTS/Fees 1993, May, 1992.

B.Ed. Discussions, 1992.

B.Ed. Information Package, 3 May, 1993.

B.Ed. Information Package, 25 May, 1993.

B.Ed. Structure, Resource and Ministry EFTS Requirements, May, 1992.

Belmont University Annual Report and Financial Statement, 1993.

Belmont University Calendar, 1994.

Belmont University Department of Education Development Plan, 1990.

Core Policy, Recruitment and Selection, 1993.

Confidential Correspondence to the Chairperson of the Department of Education, 7 April, 1992

Confidential Correspondence to the Chairperson of the Department of Education, 30 April, 1992

EFTS Sharing and Rationale for B.Ed. Degree Cost Category Level, 15 July, 1992.

EFTS Structure and Shares for the Conjoint B.Ed./Diploma of Teaching, June, 1992.

Focusing on the End Product, 1992.

Future Relations with Belmont University: A Background Paper, 8 November, 1990.

Hilltop College of Education Calendar, 1994.

Hilltop College of Education Charter of Goals and Purposes, 1993.

Hilltop College of Education Course/Programme Development and Approval Policy, 1993.

Hilltop College of Education Programmes and Operations, 1993.

Hilltop College of Education Statement of Objectives 1994 - 1996.

Hilltop College of Education Teacher Trainees' Association Issues Paper, 21 October, 1991.

Interim Report on the B.Ed., 10 March, 1994.

Internal Audit Report, 3 November, 1993.

Joint Working Party Report, 15 August, 1991.

Joint Working Party Terms of Reference, 17 May, 1991.

Key Points in our Negotiations for the Future Development in the Conjoint Degree, 27 November, 1990.

Memorandum of Agreement, 13 August, 1992.

Memorandum Re B.Ed. Degree, 26 October, 1991.

Memorandum Re B.Ed. Degree, 17 March, 1992.

Memorandum Re: B.Ed. Development and Teaching, 11 September, 1992.

Memorandum Re Proposed B.Ed., 15 October, 1991.

Memorandum: Review, Stage 2, 13 July, 1994.

Memorandum to College Council Re Focus on Paper on College/University Relations, 7 November, 1991.

Minutes of the Inaugural Meeting of the Faculty of Education, 16 October, 1992.

Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint B.Ed. and Faculty of Education Steering Committee, 4 May, 1992.

Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint B.Ed. and Faculty of Education Steering Committee, 26 May, 1992.

Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint B.Ed. and Faculty of Education Steering Committee, 12 June, 1992.

Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint B.Ed. and Faculty of Education Steering Committee, 6 August, 1992.

Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint Working Party, 3 May, 1991.

Minutes of the Meeting of the Joint Working Party, 24 July, 1991.

Notice for 27 November, 1990 Meeting of Committee on Conjoint Degree, 20 November, 1990.

Outcomes of Primary Teacher Training, 1992.

Principles of Teacher Development, 1992.

Proposal for Joint University-Teachers' College Degree, 27 July, 1987.

Proposed Structure of the B.Ed. Degree, 26 October, 1991.

Requested Amendments to the Statute for the Faculty of Education, October, 1993.

Review of Primary Programmes Report, 1992.

Second Report on the B.Ed., 16 August, 1994.

Some Issues Involved in the Degree Programme Proposal, 7 May, 1992.

Staff Development Core Policy, 1993.

The Future Shape of the Primary Programme, 1993.

The Question of Affiliation - A Starting Position, 18 April, 1991.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Administering for Excellence: Effective Administration in Education (1988) [*The Picot Report*]. Department of Education, Wellington: Government Printer.

Aidoo-Taylor, N. (1983). *A survey of implementation of the industrial arts program in selected Saskatchewan division iv schools.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Regina, Regina, Saskatchewan, Canada.

Altheide, D. L., & Johnson, J. M. (1994). Criteria for assessing interpretive validity in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 485-499). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Althusser, L. (1971). Ideology and ideological state apparatus. In L. Althusser (Ed.), *Lenin and philosophy and other essays* (pp. 123-173). London: New Left Books.

Apple, M., & Jungck, S. (1992). You don't have to be a teacher to teach this unit: Teaching, technology and control in the classroom. In A. Hargreaves & M. Fullan (Eds.), *Understanding teacher development* (pp. 20-42). London: Cassell.

Aspin, D. N. (1993). Quality, teacher education and internationalisation: A challenge for cooperation in teacher education. In P. Gilroy & M. Smith (Eds.), *International analyses of teacher education* (pp. 323-333). Abingdon: Carfax.

Ayers, J. B. (1986). *Teacher education programme evaluation: A case study past and future*. Paper presented at the annual conference of the National Council of States on Inservice Education, Nashville, Tennessee. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 275 669)

Bacharach, S. B., & Lawler, E. J. (1980). *Power and politics in organizations.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ball, D. L., & McDiarmid, G. W. (1990). The subject matter preparation of teachers. In W. R. Houston (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 437-449). New York: Macmillan.

Ball, S. J. (1993). Self-doubt and soft data: Social and technical trajectories in ethnographic fieldwork. In M. Hammersley (Ed.), *Educational research: Current issues* (Vol. 1, pp. 33-48). London: Paul Chapman.

Bassett, G. W. (1970). *Innovation in primary education: A study of recent developments in primary education in England and the U.S.A.* New York: John Wiley.

Batchelor, J. P. (1986). *Teacher selection: A Delphi investigation.* Unpublished master's thesis, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.

Battersby, D. (1981). *The first year of teaching: A grounded theory study.* Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.

Battersby, D., & Ramsay, P. (1987). *A case study of the in-school training programme for division A students at Palmerston North Teachers College* (Occasional Paper No. 1). Wellington: Government Printer.

Beare, H., Caldwell, B. J., & Millikan, R. H. (1989). *Creating an excellent school: Some new management techniques.* London: Routledge.

Beeson, G. W. (1991). Perspectives on change in Australian teacher education: Suggestions for action. *South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 19* (1), 49-58.

Before Five: Early Childhood Care and Education in New Zealand (1988). Department of Education, Wellington: Government Printer.

Bennis, W. G., Benne, K. D., & Chin, R. (1971). *The planning of change* (2nd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Benz, C. R., & Newman, I. (1985, October). *Seventeen teaching competencies: Perceptions of first-year teachers.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Midwestern Educational Research Association, Chicago, Illinois. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 267 033)

Benz, C. R., & Newman, I. (1986, March). *Qualitative-quantitative interactive continuum: A model and application to teacher education evaluation.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago, Illinois. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 269 405)

Berkeley, G. (1986). The good school - having a sense of mission. *The Practising Administrator, 8* (1), 14-15.

Berman, P., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1977). *Federal programs supporting educational change, Vol VII: Factors affecting implementation and continuation.* Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

Beyer, L. (1987). What knowledge is of most worth in teacher education? In J. Smyth (Ed.), *Educating teachers: Changing the nature of pedagogical knowledge.* London: Falmer Press.

Boag, H. N. (1980). *Teacher perception of curricular change.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada.

Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1982). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Borg, W. R., & Gall, M. D. (1983). *Educational research: An introduction* (4th ed.). New York: Longman.

Borman, K. M. (1990). Foundations of education in teacher education. In W. R. Houston (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 393-402). New York: Macmillan.

Boulding, K. E. (1989). *Three faces of power.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Bullough, R.V., Jr. (1993). Case records as personal teaching texts for study in preservice teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 9* (4), 385-396.

Bush, R. N. (1987). Teacher education reform: Lessons from the past half century. *Journal of Teacher Education, 38* (3), 13-19.

Campbell, J. K. (1988). Inside lives: The quality of biography. In R. R. Sherman & R. B. Webb (Eds.), *Qualitative research in education: Focus and methods* (pp. 59-75). London: Falmer Press.

Cantor, L. (1988). The amalgamation of Loughborough University of Technology and Loughborough College of Education. In G. Harman & V. L. Meek (Eds.), *Institutional amalgamation in higher education: Process and outcomes in five countries* (pp. 171-180). Armidale: University of New England.

Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986). *A nation prepared: Teachers for the 21st century.* New York: Carnegie Corporation.

Carruthers, J. (1990). A rationale for the use of semi-structured interviews. *Journal of Educational Administration, 28* (1), 63-68.

Champion, R. (1983). *Faculty reported use of research in teacher preparation courses: Six instructional scenarios.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 230 514)

Charmaz, K. (1983). The grounded theory method: An explication and interpretation. In R. M. Emerson (Ed.), *Contemporary field research: A collection of readings* (pp. 109-126). Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Charters, W. W., & Pellegrin, R. J. (1973). Barriers to the innovation process: Four case studies in differentiated staffing. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 9* (1), 3-14.

Check, M. G. (1947). *A survey of teacher training in Otago from 1848 - 1947.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Otago, Otago, New Zealand.

Cherrington, D. J. (1989). *Organizational behavior.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Chin, R., & Benne, K. D. (1976). General strategies for effecting changes in human systems. In W. G. Bennis, K. D. Benne, R. Chin, & K. E. Corey (Eds.), *The planning of change* (3rd ed., pp. 22-45). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Clark, C. M. (1984, April). *Research on teaching and the content of teacher education programs: An optimistic view.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Louisiana. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 251 424)

Clarke, S. C. T. (1985). Conversation with Dr. S. C. T. Clarke. *Challenge, 24* (1), 60-68.

Codd, J. (1988). "Picot: A risky reform?" *New Zealand Post Primary Teachers Association Journal, 3,* 2-4.

Codd, J. (1990). Policy documents and the discourse of the state. In J. Codd, R. Harker, & R. Nash (Eds.), *Political issues in New Zealand education* (2nd ed.), (pp. 133-149). Palmerston North: Dunmore Press.

Coles, K. A. (1981). *Implementation of the British Columbia elementary language arts curriculum guide: A study of teacher perceptions.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.

Collis, K. F., Hughes, P., & Byers, P. (1988). Institutional rationalization in Tasmania in the late 1970s and early 1980s: College and university. In G. Harman & V. L. Meek (Eds.), *Institutional amalgamation in higher education: Process and outcomes in five countries* (pp. 121-132). Armidale: University of New England.

Corbett, H. D., & Rossman, G. B. (1989). Three paths to implementing change: A research note. *Curriculum Inquiry, 19* (2), 163-190.

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (1990). Grounded theory research: Procedures, canons, and evaluative criteria. *Qualitative Sociology, 13* (1), 3-21.

Coxon, E., Jenkins, K., Marshall, J., & Massey, L. (1994). *The politics of learning and teaching in Aotearoa - New Zealand.* Palmerston North: Dunmore Press.

Crandall, D., Eiseman, J., & Louis, K. (1986). Strategic planning issues that bear on the success of school improvement efforts. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 22* (3), 21-53.

Creswell, J. W., & Roskens, R. W. (1983). U.S. multicampus systems - is there a lesson for Australia? *Journal of Tertiary Educational Administration, 5* (2), 131-136.

Cronbach, L. J. (1975). Beyond the two disciplines of scientific psychology. *American Psychologist, 30*, 116-127.

Crowther, F. A. (1972). *Factors affecting the rate of adoption of the 1971 Alberta social studies curriculum for elementary schools.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada.

Dalin, P. (1978). *Limits to educational change.* New York: St. Martin's Press.

Darling-Hammond, L., Wise, A. E., & Klein, S. P. (1995). *A license to teach: Building a profession for 21st-century schools.* Boulder: Westview Press.

Dart, L., & Drake, P. (1993). School-based teacher training: A conservative practice? *Journal of Education for Teaching, 19* (2), 175-189.

Davey, L. (1991). *The application of case study evaluations.* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 338 706)

Deal, T. (1990). Reframing reform. *Educational Leadership, 47* (8), 6-12.

Deal, T., & Kennedy, A. (1982). *Corporate cultures: The rites and rituals of corporate life.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Delamont, S. (1992). *Fieldwork in educational settings: Methods, pitfalls and perspectives.* London: Falmer Press.

DeLandsheere, G. (1987). Teacher education. In M. J. Dunkin (Ed.), *The international encyclopaedia of teaching and teacher education* (pp. 77-83). London: Pergamon.

DeLandsheere, G. (1988). History of educational research. In J. P. Keeves (Ed.), *Educational research, methodology, and measurement: An international handbook* (pp. 9-16). London: Pergamon.

Denzin, N. K. (1970). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods*. Chicago: Aldine.

Denzin, N. K. (1989). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Introduction: Entering the field of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 1-22). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Doll, R. C. (1986). *Curriculum improvement: Decision making and process* (6th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Downey, L. W. (1975). *Social studies in Alberta 1975*. Edmonton: Alberta Education.

Doyle, W., & Ponder, G. (1977-78). The practicality ethic in teacher decision making. *Interchange, 8* (3), 1-12.

Edson, C. H. (1988). Our past and present: Historical inquiry in education. In R. R. Sherman & R. B. Webb (Eds.), *Qualitative research in education: Focus and methods* (pp. 44-58). London: Falmer Press.

Education Act 1877 (1877). Wellington: Government Printer.

Education Act 1989 (1989). Wellington: Government Printer.

Education Amendment Act 1990 (1990). Wellington: Government Printer.

Education and Science Select Committee (1986). *Report on the inquiry into the quality of teaching*. Wellington: Government Printer.

Education To Be More (1988) [*The Meade Report*]. Department of Education, Wellington: Government Printer.

Edwards, W. L. (1986). *The principalship in a New Zealand secondary school: An ethnographic study*. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of New England, Armidale, Australia.

Eisner, E. W. (1991). *The enlightened eye.* New York: Macmillan.

Eisner, E., & Peshkin, A (1990). *Qualitative inquiry: The continuing debate.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Elliot, J. G. (1974). *Improving teacher selection.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand.

Ellis, P. D. (1984). An analysis of six major reports on teacher education in the United States with special reference to their recommendations for the pre-service curriculum 1933-1983 (Doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, U.S.A., 1984). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 45*, 08A.

Ennis, J. E. (1972). *Guidance of the first year teacher: An investigation of the role and influence of the head-teacher and his staff in the guidance of Dunedin Teachers' College graduates during their first year of teaching in Otago schools.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand.

Erickson, F. (1986). Qualitative methods in research on teaching. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rd ed., pp. 119-161). New York: Macmillan.

Everton, T., & White, S. (1992). Partnership in training: The University of Leicester's new model of school-based teacher education. *Cambridge Journal of Education, 22* (2), 143-155.

Feiman-Nemser, S. (1990). Teacher preparation: Structural and conceptual alternatives. In W. R. Houston (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 212-233). New York: Macmillan.

Felder, B. D. (1985). *Reflective inquiry teacher education: University of Houston College of Education teacher education program* (Report). U.S. Department of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction service No. ED 271 441)

Finn, C. E., Jr. (1984). Toward strategic independence: Nine commandments for enhancing school effectiveness. *Phi Delta Kappan, 65* (8), 518-524.

Firestone, W. A. (1987). Meaning in method: The rhetoric of quantitative and qualitative research. *Educational Researcher, 16* (7), 16-21.

Firestone, W. A. (1993). Alternative arguments for generalizing from data as applied to qualitative research. *Educational Researcher, 22* (4), 16-23.

Fitzsimons, P. (1995). The management of tertiary educational institutions in New Zealand. *Journal of Education Policy, 10* (2), 173-187.

Fitzsimons, P., & Peters, M. (1994). Human capital theory and the industry training strategy in New Zealand. *Journal of Education Policy, 9* (3), 245-266.

Foddy, W. (1993). *Constructing questions for interviews and questionnaires: Theory and practice in social research.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Fraser, B. J. (1985, March - April). *Improving science teacher education programs through inclusion of research on classroom psychosocial environment.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Illinois. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 266 011)

Freiberg, H. J., & Waxman, H. C. (1990). Changing teacher education. In W. R. Houston (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 617-638). New York: Macmillan.

Fullan, M. (1972). Overview of the innovative process and the user. *Interchange, 3* (2-3), 1-46.

Fullan, M. (1979). Conceptualizing problems of curriculum implementation. In W. Werner (Ed), *Curriculum Canada* (pp. 40-50). British Columbia: Canadian Association of Curriculum Studies.

Fullan, M. (1982). *The meaning of educational change.* Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education Press.

Fullan, M. (1985). Change processes and strategies at the local level. *The Elementary School Journal, 85* (3), 391-421.

Fullan, M. (1986). The management of change. In E. Hoyle & A. Macmahon (Eds.), *The management of schools* (pp. 73-86). London: Kogan Page.

Fullan, M. (1991). *The new meaning of educational change.* London: Cassell.

Fullan, M. (1993). *Change forces: Probing the depths of educational reform.* London: Falmer Press.

Fullan, M., & Hargreaves, A. (1992). *Teacher development and educational change.* London: Falmer Press.

Fullan, M., & Pomfret, A. (1977). Research on curriculum and instruction implementation. *Review of Educational Research, 47* (1), 335-397.

Gades, R. E. (1985, December). *Improving enrollments in business teacher education programs.* Paper presented at the meeting of the American Vocational Association, Atlanta, Georgia. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 265 395)

Gage, N. L. (1989). The paradigm wars and their aftermath: A "historical" sketch of research on teaching since 1989. *Educational Researcher, 18* (7), 4-10.

Gardiner, D. A. (1982). *Preservice training for science teaching and the subsequent classroom practices of teacher-graduates.* Unpublished doctoral thesis, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.

Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures.* New York: Basic Books.

Gehrke, N. J. (1981). A grounded theory study of beginning teachers' role personalization through reference group relations. *Journal of Teacher Education, 32* (6), 34-38.

Gehrke, N. J. (1982). Teacher's role conflicts: A grounded theory-in-process. *Journal of Teacher Education, 33* (1), 41-46.

Giarelli, J. M., & Chambliss, J. J. (1988). Philosophy of education as qualitative inquiry. In R. R. Sherman & R. B. Webb (Eds.), *Qualitative research in education: Focus and methods* (pp. 30-43). London: Falmer Press.

Gibbs, C. J. (1994). *Teacher efficacy, orientations toward children and self-esteem: The effects of student teaching practice*. Unpublished doctoral thesis, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.

Gibbs, C. J. (1995, March). *Higher level NQF standards: Some insights from the QUALSET teacher education standards.* Unpublished paper, Palmerston North College of Education, Palmerston North.

Gibbs, C. J., & Munro, R. (1993). *Qualifications standards for education in teaching (QUALSET): Endorsed unit standard titles for qualifications in primary and secondary teacher education.* Wellington: New Zealand Qualifications Authority.

Gickling, E. E., Guckes, L. R., Hollingsworth, P. M., Johns, K.W., Tower, T. R., & Trent, J. H. (1984). *Educators' preferences for teacher training: A survey of teachers, teacher trainers and school administrators from seven western states.* Nevada University: Reno College of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 255 472)

Gilroy, P., & Smith, M. (Eds.). (1993). *International analyses of teacher education.* Abingdon: Carfax.

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research.* Chicago: Aldine.

Goedegebuure, L. C. J., & Vos, A. J. (1988). Mergers and the restructuring of higher vocational education in The Netherlands. In G. Harman & V. L. Meek (Eds.), *Institutional amalgamation in higher education: Process and outcomes in five countries* (pp. 197-213). Armidale: University of New England.

Goetz, J. P., & LeCompte, M. D. (1984). *Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research.* New York: Academic Press.

Goodlad, J. I. (1975). *The dynamics of educational change.* Toronto: McGraw-Hill.

Goodlad, J. I. (1990). *Teachers for our nation's schools.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Goodlad, J. I. (1991). Why we need a complete redesign of education. *Educational Leadership, 49* (3), 4-10.

Goodman, J. (1988). University culture and the problem of reforming field experiences in teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 39* (5), 45-53.

Goodson, I. F. (1993). Forms and knowledge of teacher education. In P. Gilroy & M. Smith (Eds.), *International analyses of teacher education* (pp. 217-229). Abingdon: Carfax.

Gouldner, A. W. (1970). *The coming crisis of western sociology.* New York: Avon Books.

Gray, G. (1987). *Factors influencing how teachers implement the new grade eight social studies curriculum in Saskatchewan.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, Canada.

Grimmett, P. P. (1988). The nature of reflection and Schon's conception in perspective. In P. P. Grimmett & G. L. Erickson (Eds.), *Reflection in teacher education* (pp. 5-15). New York: Teachers College Press.

Gross, N., Giacquinta, J., & Bernstein, M. (1971). *Implementing organizational innovations: A sociological analysis of planned educational change.* New York: Basic Books.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1981). *Effective evaluation.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1989). *Fourth generation evaluation.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105-117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hammersley, M. (1992). *What's wrong with ethnography?* London: Routledge.

Hargreaves, A. (1993). Teacher development in the postmodern age: Dead certainties, safe simulation and the boundless self. In P. Gilroy & M. Smith (Eds.), *International analyses of teacher education* (pp. 95-112). Abingdon: Carfax.

Hargreaves, A. (1994). *Changing teachers, changing times: Teachers' work and culture in the postmodern age.* London: Cassell.

Hargreaves, A. (1995). *Towards a social geography of teacher education.* Unpublished paper, Department of Educational Administration, Ontario: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Hargreaves, A., & Fullan, M. (1992). *Understanding teacher development.* London: Cassell.

Harman, G. (1983). Research on institutional amalgamations in tertiary education: Concepts, classificatory schemes and relevant literature. *Journal of Tertiary Educational Administration, 5* (2), 113-129.

Harman, G., & Meek, V. (1988). *Institutional amalgamation in higher education: Process and outcomes in five countries.* Armidale: University of New England.

Harte, A. H. W. (1972). *The training of teachers in New Zealand from its origins until 1948.* Christchurch: Simpson and Williams.

Havelock, R. G. (1971). *Planning for innovation through dissemination and utilization of knowledge.* Michigan: University of Michigan.

Henwood, K. L, & Pidgeon, N. P. (1992). Qualitative research and psychological theorizing. *British Journal of Psychology, 83,* 97-111.

Hocking, H., & Caldwell, B. (1990). Conceptual frameworks. In R. J. S. Macpherson & J. Weeks (Eds.), *Pathways to knowledge in educational administration: Methodologies and research in progress in Australia* (pp. 5-15). Launceston: Australian Council for Educational Administration.

Hoffman, J. V. (1984). *Research on teaching and its relationship to teacher education.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the International Reading Association, Atlanta, Georgia. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 265 127)

Holmes Group (1986). *Tomorrow's teachers.* East Lansing, MI: The Holmes Group.

Holstein, J. A., & Gubrium, J. F. (1994). Phenomenology, ethnomethodology, and interpretive practice. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research,* (pp. 262-272). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hosseiny, H. (1985). ESL teachers' perceptions of their pre-service and in-service needs (Doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University, New Jersey, U.S.A., 1985). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 47,* 02A.

Houston, W. R. (1990). *Handbook of research on teacher education.* New York: Macmillan.

Howey, K. R (1983). Teacher education: An overview. In K. R. Howey & W. Gardner (Eds.), *The education of teachers: A look ahead* (pp. 6-37). New York: Longman.

Howey, K. R. (1984). *The next generation of teacher preparation programs.* Paper presented at a hearing of the National Commission on Excellence in Teacher Education, Minneapolis, Minnesota. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 250 288)

Howey, K. R. (1989). Research about teacher education: Programs of teacher preparation. *Journal of Teacher Education, 40* (6), 23-26.

Howey, K. R., & Gardner, W. (1983). *The education of teachers: A look ahead.* New York: Longman.

Howey, K. R., & Zimpher, N. L. (1989). *Profiles of preservice teacher education: Inquiry into the nature of progress.* New York: State University of New York Press.

Huberman, A. M. (1988). Teacher careers and school improvement. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 20* (2), 119-32.

Huberman, A. M., & Miles, M. B. (1984). *Innovation up close: How school improvement works.* New York: Plenum Press.

Husen, T. (1988). Research paradigms in education. In J. P. Keeves (Ed.), *Educational research, methodology, and measurement: An international handbook* (pp. 17-20). London: Pergamon.

Hutchinson, S. (1988). Education and grounded theory. In R. R. Sherman & R. B. Webb (Eds.), *Qualitative research in education: Focus and methods* (pp. 123-140). London: Falmer Press.

Isherwood, J. (1975). *An analysis of attitudes, interests and biographical data of teachers and student teachers in relation to tenure.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.

Jacknicke, K. G., & Rowell, P. M. (1987). Alternative orientations to educational research. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 33* (1), 62-72.

Janesick, V. J. (1994). The dance of qualitative research design: Metaphor, methodolatry, and meaning. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 209-219). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Jaquiery, E. J. (1977). *An exploratory investigation into the social and educational backgrounds and attitudes of secondary school teacher trainees and some implications for pre-service teacher training.* Unpublished master's thesis, Victoria University of Wellington, Wellington, New Zealand.

Jick, T. D. (1979). Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: Triangulation in action. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 24* (4), 602-611.

Johnson-Slaughter, I. B. (1984). The impact of the teacher corps program on teacher education and certification requirements: A case study (Doctoral dissertation, Washington State University, U.S.A., 1984). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 45,* 07A.

Kaabwe, E. S. M. (1980). *A study of curriculum implementation: Teachers' perceptions of factors affecting the implementation of the new division iii English programme in Regina schools.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Regina, Regina, Saskatchewan, Canada.

Katz, L. G., & Raths, J. D. (1985). A framework for research on teacher education programs. *Journal of Teacher Education, 36* (6), 9-15.

Katz, L. G., & Raths, J. D. (1992). Six dilemmas in teacher education, *Journal of Teacher Education, 43* (5), 376-385.

Kenny, W. R., & Grotelueschen, A. D. (1984). Making the case for case study. *Curriculum Studies, 16* (1), 37-51.

Kilmann, R. H. (1984). *Beyond the quick fix: Managing five tracks to organizational success.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kingston, C. C. (1983). *The induction of beginning teachers, a beginning model: An investigation of beginning teachers' entry to the Otara schools' district.* Unpublished master's thesis, Auckland University, Auckland, New Zealand.

Kirk, D. (1986). Beyond the limits of theoretical discourse in teacher education: Towards a critical pedagogy. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 2,* 155-167.

Kirk, J., & Miller, M. L. (1986). *Reliability and validity in qualitative research.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Kliebard, H. (1972). Metaphorical roots of curriculum design. *Teachers College Record, 73,* 403-404.

Knight, C. L. (1992, June). *Colleges of education as stand-alone institutions.* Paper presented at the first national conference of the New Zealand Council for Teacher Education, Auckland.

Knight, J. (1993). The political economy of the teacher education industry. In J. Knight, L. Bartlett, & E. McWilliam (Eds.), *Unfinished business: Reshaping the teacher education industry for the 1990s* (pp. 1-20). Rockhampton: University of Central Queensland Press.

Knight, J., Lingard, R., & Bartlett, L. (1993). Re-forming teacher education: The unfinished task. In J. Knight, L. Bartlett, & E. McWilliam (Eds.), *Unfinished business: Reshaping the teacher education industry for the 1990s* (pp. 21-65). Rockhampton: University of Central Queensland Press.

Koehler, V. (1985). Research on preservice teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 36* (1), 23-30.

Kohut, S., Jr. (1992). *Follow-up studies at regional state universities.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association of Teacher Education, San Antonio, Texas. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 343 854)

Kroder, L. M., & McLintock, R. (1988). The Sydney College of Advanced Education amalgamation. In G. Harman & V. L. Meek (Eds.), *Institutional amalgamation in higher education: Process and outcomes in five countries* (pp. 133-144). Armidale: University of New England.

Kuhn, T. S. (1970). *The structure of scientific revolutions* (2nd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lanier, J. E., & Little, J. W. (1984). *Research on teacher education.* Austin, Texas: Texas University, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 251 450)

Lanier, J. E., & Little, J. W. (1986). Research on teacher education. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rd ed., pp. 527-569). New York: Macmillan.

Layder, D. (1993). *New strategies in social research.* Oxford: Polity Press.

Learning for Life I: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen (1989). Department of Education, Wellington: Government Printer.

Learning for Life II: Education and Training Beyond the Age of Fifteen (1989). Department of Education, Wellington: Government Printer.

Leavitt, H. B. (1991). World issues and problems in teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 42* (5), 323-331.

Leavitt, H. B. (1992). *Issues and problems in teacher education: An international handbook.* New York: Greenwood Press.

Leithwood, K., Begley, P. T., & Cousins, J. B. (1992). *Developing expert leadership for future schools.* London: Falmer Press.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Linke, R. D. (1983). An historical perspective on the reorganisation of teacher education in Australia. *Journal of Tertiary Educational Administration, 5* (2), 101-112.

Liston, D. P., & Zeichner, K. M. (1987). Critical pedagogy and teacher education. *Journal of Education, 169* (3), 117-137.

Little, J. W. (1982). Norms of collegiality and experimentation: Workplace conditions of school success. *American Educational Research Journal, 19,* 325-340.

Locke, L. F. (1985, August). *Research and the improvement of teaching: The professor as the problem.* Paper presented at the AIESEP International Conference, Garden City, New York. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 266 114)

Lowenberg, J. S. (1993). Interpretive research methodology: Broadening the dialogue. *Advanced Nursing Science, 16,* 57-69.

Lukes, S. (1974). *Power: A radical view.* London: Macmillan.

Lukes, S. (1977). *Essays in social theory.* London: Macmillan.

Marks, V. C. (1988). *Teachers' perceptions of the new grade eight social studies curriculum in Saskatchewan.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Regina, Regina, Saskatchewan, Canada.

Marsh, C. (1988). *Spotlight on school improvement.* Sydney: Allen & Unwin.

Marsh, C. (1990). Recent developments in primary initial teacher training in Wales: An outsider's perspective. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 16* (2), 185-197.

Marshall. J. D. (1992, June). *Principles and the national curriculum: Centralised 'development'*. Paper presented at the first national conference of the New Zealand Council for Teacher Education, Auckland.

Martin, D. S., Saif, P. S., & Thief, L. (1986-87). Curriculum development: Who is involved and how? *Educational Leadership, 44* (4), 40-48.

Martin, J., & Samels, J. E. (1994). Achieving academic excellence through strategic mergers: A new approach. In J. Martin & J. E. Samels (Eds.), *Merging colleges for mutual growth: A new strategy for academic managers* (pp. 3-21). Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.

Massey, L. E. (1980). *An analysis of curriculum change.* Unpublished doctoral thesis, Auckland University, Auckland, New Zealand.

Mathison, S. (1988). Why triangulate? *Educational Researcher, 17* (2), 13-17.

Maxwell, J. H. (1992). Understanding and validity in qualitative research. *Harvard Educational Review, 62* (3), 279-300.

McClintock, C., Brannon, D., & Maynard-Moody, S. (1979). Applying the logic of sample surveys to qualitative case studies: The case cluster method. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 24,* 612-629.

McCulloch, M. (1993). Democratisation of teacher education: New forms of partnership for school based initial teacher education. In P. Gilroy & M. Smith (Eds.), *International analyses of teacher education* (pp. 293-303). Abingdon: Carfax.

McCutcheon, G. (1981). On the interpretation of classroom observations. *Educational Researcher, 10*, 5-10.

McFee, G. (1992). Triangulation in research: Two confusions. *Educational Research, 34* (3), 215-219.

McGee, C. (1995, December). *The place of teaching practice in pre-service teacher education: Lessons from research.* Paper presented at the New Zealand Association for Research in Education conference, Massey University, Palmerston North.

McGrath, D. (1988). Reorganization or amalgamation? The merging of Auckland Teachers College and Secondary Teachers College. In G. Harman & V. L. Meek (Eds.), *Institutional amalgamation in higher education: Process and outcomes in five countries* (pp. 181-196). Armidale: University of New England.

McGrath, D. (1994, October). *Traditional approaches to teacher education: A look back to the future.* Paper presented at the second national conference of the New Zealand Council for Teacher Education, Wellington.

McKinnon, K. R (1988). United we stand..... the process of amalgamation at Wollongong University. In G. Harman & V. L. Meek (Eds.), *Institutional amalgamation in higher education: Process and outcomes in five countries* (pp. 105-119). Armidale: University of New England.

McNamara, D. (1990). Research on teacher training in a changing society: The case of Britain in the late 1980s. In R. P. Tisher & M. F. Wideen (Eds.), *Research in teacher education: International perspectives* (pp. 121-139). London: Falmer Press.

McNamara, D. (1991). Subject knowledge and its application: Problems and possibilities for teacher educators. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 17* (2), 113-128.

McNamara, D. (1993). Towards reestablishing the professional authority and expertise of teacher educators and teachers. In P. Gilroy & M. Smith (Eds.), *International analyses of teacher education* (pp. 277-291). Abingdon: Carfax.

McWilliam, E., & Knight, J. (1993). Training competent teachers for the education industry? In J. Knight, L. Bartlett, & E. McWilliam (Eds.), *Unfinished business: Reshaping the teacher education industry for the 1990s* (pp. 93-110). Rockhampton: University of Central Queensland Press.

Meek, V. L. (1988a). Comparative notes on cross-sectoral amalgamation of higher educational institutions: British and Australian case studies. *Comparative Education, 24* (3), 335-349.

Meek, V. L. (1988b). Notes on higher educational mergers in the United Kingdom. In G. Harman & V. L. Meek (Eds.), *Institutional amalgamation in higher education: Process and outcomes in five countries* (pp. 159-169). Armidale: University of New England.

Merriam, S. B. (1985). The case study in educational research: A review of selected literature. *The Journal of Educational Thought, 19* (3), 204-217.

Merriam, S. B. (1988). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mertz, N., & McNeely, S. R. (1992). *Pre-existing teaching constructs: How students "see" teaching prior to training.* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 346 075)

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1984). *Qualitative data analysis: A sourcebook of new methods.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Millet, J. D. (1976). *Mergers in higher education: An analysis of ten case studies.* Washington, DC: The American Council on Education.

Mishler, E. G. (1979). Meaning in context: Is there any other kind? *Harvard Educational Review, 49* (1), 1-19.

Morgan, G. (1980). Paradigms, metaphors, and puzzle solving in organization theory. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 25* (4), 605-622.

Morley, D. J. (1976). *Perceptions of a teaching practice programme.* Unpublished master's thesis, Auckland University, Auckland, New Zealand.

Morrison, K. (1989). Training teachers for primary schools: The question of subject study. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 15* (2), 97-111.

Murdoch, R. T. (1978). *Professional development: The induction and education of beginning teachers* (Research Report). Christchurch: Christchurch Teachers' College.

Musgrove, F. (1979). Curriculum, culture and ideology. In P. Taylor (Ed.), *New directions in curriculum studies* (pp. 57-69). Sussex: Falmer Press.

National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education (1985). *A call for change in teacher education.* Washington, DC: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983). *A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform.* Washington, DC: United States Government Printing Office.

Ndambuki, J. E. (1994). *The impact of institutional amalgamation on organisational structure, culture and decision making.* Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of New England, Armidale, Australia.

Neville, M. (1992). Management of change. In A. Walker (Ed.), *Management tools for educational managers*, (pp. 103-129). Singapore: Prentice Hall.

New Zealand Department of Education (1930). *The report of the parliamentary recess education committee on educational reorganisation in New Zealand (the Atmore report).* Wellington: Government Printer.

New Zealand Department of Education (1962). *Report of the commission on education in New Zealand (the Currie report).* Wellington: Government Printer.

New Zealand Department of Education (1979). *Review of teacher training.* Wellington: Government Printer.

New Zealand Department of Education (1989). *Highlights in education 1816 - 1988.* Wellington: Government Printer.

New Zealand Ministry of Education (1993). *Education for the 21st century: A discussion document.* Wellington: Learning Media.

New Zealand Treasury (1987). *Government management: Volume II. Education issues.* Wellington: Government Printer.

O'Donnell, J., Schneider, H., Seidman, E., & Tingitana, A. (1989). *The complexities of teacher education in a professional development school: A study through in-depth interviews.* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 309 153)

Organisation for Economic and Co-operative Development. (1990). *The teacher today: Tasks, conditions, policies.* Paris: OECD.

Oliver, D. A. (1992). *The impact of fee-paying students on a New Zealand secondary school.* Unpublished master's thesis, University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.

O'Loughlin, M., & Campbell, M. (1988). *Teacher preparation, teacher empowerment, and reflective inquiry.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 291 699)

Owens, R. G. (1982). Methodological rigor in naturalistic inquiry: Some issues and answers. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 18* (2), 1-21.

Owens, R. G., & Steinhoff, C. R. (1989). Towards a theory of organizational culture. *Journal of Educational Administration, 27* (3), 6-16.

Parker, P. R. (1991). The application of interpersonal communication and group dynamics as a curriculum component for the professional development of preservice teachers. (Doctoral dissertation, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, U.S.A., 1991). *Dissertation Abstracts International, A 52*, 03.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Pearson, A. T. (1989). *The teacher: Theory and practice in teacher education.* New York: Routledge.

Peck, R., & Tucker, J. (1973). Research on teacher education. In R. M. W. Travers (Ed.), *Second handbook of research on teaching* (pp. 940-978). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Pelesikoti, T. L. (1986). *Selection for teaching in Tonga and Palmerston North, New Zealand.* Unpublished master's thesis, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.

Peters, M., Marshall, J., & Massey, L. (1994). Recent educational reforms in Aotearoa. In E. Coxon, K. Jenkins, J. Marshall, & L. Massey (Eds.), *The politics of learning and teaching in Aotearoa - New Zealand* (pp. 251-272). Palmerston North: Dunmore Press.

Peters, T. (1987). *Thriving on chaos: Handbook for a management revolution.* New York: A. Knopf.

Pfeffer, J. (1981). *Power in organizations.* New York: Harper Business.

Pincus, J. (1974). Incentives for innovation in public schools. *Review of Educational Research, 44,* 113-144.

Podrebarac, G. R. (1982). *Practitioner's perceptions of curriculum implementation.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

Popkewitz, T. (1987). *Critical studies in teacher education.* London: Falmer Press.

Popkewitz, T. S., Tabachnick, R. B., & Zeichner, K. (1979). Dulling the senses: Research in teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 30* (5), 52-60.

Porter, P. (1988). Amalgamation from the perspective of college council: The case of the Western Australian College of Advanced Education. In G. Harman & V. L. Meek (Eds.), *Institutional amalgamation in higher education: Process and outcomes in five countries* (pp. 145-156). Armidale: University of New England.

Porter, P. (1993). Standards versus standardisation: What kind of national teaching council for what kind of professional development? In J. Knight, L. Bartlett, & E. McWilliam (Eds.), *Unfinished business: Reshaping the teacher education industry for the 1990s* (pp. 111-121). Rockhampton: University of Central Queensland Press.

Purkey, S. C. (1986). The good school: The thirteen characteristics. *The Practising Administrator, 8* (1), 15-17.

Ramsay, P. (1987). The ethnographic approach to studying schools and classrooms. *New Horizons, 28,* 49-60.

Ramsay, P. (1992, June). *Achieving change: The amalgamation of Hamilton Teachers College and the University of Waikato.* Paper presented at the first national conference of the New Zealand Council for Teacher Education, Auckland.

Ramsay, P. (1993). *Teacher quality: A case study prepared for the Ministry of Education as part of the O.E.C.D. study on teacher quality.* Hamilton: University of Waikato.

Ramsay, P., & Battersby, D. (1988). *A study of in-school training for division A student teachers: Final report.* Wellington: Government Printer.

Ramsay, P., Hawk, K., Harold, B., Marriott, R., & Poskitt, J. (1993). *Developing partnerships: Collaboration between teachers and parents.* Wellington: Learning Media.

Ramsay, P., Sneddon, D., Grenfell, J., & Ford, I. (1983). Successful and unsuccessful schools: A study in Southern Auckland. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Sociology, 19* (2), 272-304.

Renihan, F. I., & Renihan, P. J. (1984). Effective schools, effective administration and institutional image. *The Canadian Administrator, 24* (3), 1-6.

Rennie, D. L., Phillips, J. R., & Quartaro, G. K. (1988). Grounded theory: A promising approach to conceptualization in psychology. *Canadian Psychology, 29* (2), 139-150.

Renwick, M. (1993). *Innovation in teacher education.* Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Renwick, M., & Vize, J. (1990). *Windows on teacher education: Phase 1, initiation into teacher education.* Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Renwick, M., & Vize, J. (1991). *Windows on teacher education: Phase 2, the second year.* Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Renwick, M., & Vize, J. (1992). *Windows on teacher education: Phase 3, the third year.* Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Renwick, M., & Vize, J. (1993a). *Windows on teacher education: Phase 4, the first year in the classroom.* Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Renwick, M., & Vize, J. (1993b). *Windows on teacher education: The final report.* Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Renwick, W. L. (1978). *The university departments of education: A view from the outside.* In Current issues in education 6: Teachers college and university relationships in New Zealand (pp. 35-43). Wellington: Government Printer.

Report of the Working Group on Post Compulsory Education and Training (1988) [*The Hawke Report*]. Department of Education, Wellington: Government Printer.

Rist, R. C. (1977). On the relations among educational research paradigms: From disdain to detente. *Anthropology and Education, 8,* 42-48.

Rodriguez, A. J. (1993). A dose of reality: Understanding the origin of the theory/practice dichotomy in teacher education from the students' point of view. *Journal of Teacher Education, 44* (3), 213-222.

Ross, D. D. (1988). An introduction to curriculum criticism. In R. R. Sherman & R. B. Webb (Eds.), *Qualitative research in education: Focus and methods* (pp. 162-174). London: Falmer Press.

Rossman, G., & Wilson, B. (1985). Numbers and words: Combining quantitative and qualitative methods in a single large-scale evaluation study. *Evaluation Review, 19*, (5), 627-643.

Russell, T. (1993). Teachers' professional knowledge and the future of teacher education. In P. Gilroy & M. Smith (Eds.), *International analyses of teacher education* (pp. 205-215). Abingdon: Carfax.

Samels, J. E. (1994). Higher education mergers, consolidations, consortia, and affiliations: A typology of models and basic legal structures. In J. Martin & J. E. Samels (Eds.), *Merging colleges for mutual growth: A new strategy for academic managers* (pp. 22-41). Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.

Sarantakos, S. (1993). *Social research.* Sydney: Macmillan.

Sarason, S. B. (1971). *The culture of the school and the problem of change.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Sarason, S. B. (1982). *The culture of the school and the problem of change* (rev. ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Sarason, S. B. (1990). *The predictable failure of educational reform.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Saylor, J. G., Alexander, W. M., & Lewis, A. J. (1981). *Curriculum planning for better teaching and learning* (4th ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Schein, E. H. (1985). *Organizational culture and leadership.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schofield, J. W. (1993). Increasing the generalizability of qualitative research. In M. Hammersley (Ed.), *Educational research: Current issues* (Vol. 1, pp. 91-113). London: Paul Chapman.

Schon, D. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action.* New York: Basic Books.

Schon, D. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schutz, A. (1970). *Alfred Schutz on phenomenology and social relations* (H. R. Wagner, Ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Scott, E. M. (1987). Teacher thinking and practice: Implications for the teaching and learning of psychology in education courses (Doctoral dissertation, University of Surrey, United Kingdom, 1987). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 49*, 01A.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1992). *Moral leadership: Getting to the heart of school improvement*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Sherman, R. R., & Webb, R. B. (1988). Qualitative research in education: A focus. In R. R. Sherman & R. B. Webb (Eds.), *Qualitative research in education: Focus and methods* (pp. 2-21). London: Falmer Press.

Sherman, R. R., Webb, R. B., & Andrews, S. D. (1984). Qualitative inquiry: An introduction. *Journal of Thought, 19* (2), 24-33.

Shimahara, N. (1988). Anthroethnography: A methodological consideration. In R. R. Sherman & R. B. Webb (Eds.), *Qualitative research in education: Focus and methods* (pp. 76-89). London: Falmer Press.

Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher, 15* (2), 4-14.

Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review, 57* (1), 1-22.

Shulman, L. S. (1990). Reconnecting foundations to the substance of teacher education. *Teachers College Record, 91* (3), 300-310.

Shulman, L. S. (1992). Toward a pedagogy of cases. In J. H. Shulman (Ed.), *Case methods in teacher education* (pp. 1-30). New York: Teachers College Press.

Simpson, M. (1994). *The Hawera division A teacher education and training programme - an evaluation of its delivery*. Unpublished master's project, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.

Skipper, C. E. (1987, April). *A cross sectional study of preservice teacher preferences for college course learning activities.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, DC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 282 873)

Smith, H. I. (1949). *Teacher training in the Auckland Province: An historical survey of the more important changes in the system of training primary school teachers in the Auckland Province 1853 - 1945.* Unpublished master's thesis, Auckland University, Auckland, New Zealand.

Smith, M. L. (1987). Publishing qualitative research. *American Educational Research Journal, 24* (2), 173-184.

Smith, P. A. (1992). *A case study of the selection of the 1991 graduating cohort of Wellington College of Education to their first teaching positions in primary schools.* Unpublished master's project, Victoria University of Wellington, Wellington, New Zealand.

Smithells, J. (1992). *An investigation of the perceptions of staff, a chronology of events and a historical overview of the amalgamation of the University of Waikato (Te Whare Wananga o Waikato) and Hamilton Teachers' College (Te Whare Taikiura o Waikato).* Unpublished master's project, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.

Snook, I. (1991). Policy change in higher education: The New Zealand experience. *Higher Education, 21*, 621-634.

Snook, I. (1992). Teacher education: A sympathetic appraisal. *Tutor, 40*, 4-10.

Sowden, S., & Keeves, J. P. (1988). Analysis of evidence in humanistic studies. In J. P. Keeves (Ed.), *Educational research, methodology, and measurement: An international handbook* (pp. 513-526). London: Pergamon.

Stake, R. (1978). The case study method of social inquiry. *Educational Researcher, 7* (2), 5-8.

Stake, R. E. (1994). Case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 236-247). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Steers, R. M. (1977). *Organizational effectiveness: A behavioral view.* Santa Monica: Goodyear.

Steier, L. P. (1978). *Teacher usage and perception of the 1977 division iii English curriculum in its first year of implementation in the province of Saskatchewan.* Unpublished master's thesis, College of Education, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, Canada.

Stiles, W. B. (1990, July). *Narrative in psychological research.* Occasional papers in psychology, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.

Stout, C. J. (1989). Teacher's views of the emphasis on reflective teaching skills during their student teaching. *The Elementary School Journal, 89* (4), 511-527.

Strauss, A. (1987). *Qualitative analysis for social scientists.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1994). Grounded theory methodology: An overview. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Sultana, R. G. (1991). Research in teaching and teacher education: Qualitative methods and grounded theory methodology. *South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 19* (1), 59-68.

Symes, C. (1992). The practice of educational theory: Some reflections. In D. M. Cavanagh & G. W. Rodwell (Eds.), *Dialogues in educational research* (pp. 32-56). Darwin: William Michael Press.

Taylor, W. (1978). Teachers college and university relationships in New Zealand. In *Current issues in education 6: Teachers college and university relationships in New Zealand* (pp. 3-34). Wellington: Government Printer.

Temple, P., & Whitchurch, C. (1994). An international perspective: Recent growth mergers in British higher education. In J. Martin & J. E. Samels (Eds.), *Merging colleges for mutual growth: A new strategy for academic managers* (pp. 209-226). Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.

Tesch, R. (1990). *Qualitative research: Analysis types and software tools.* London: Falmer Press.

The EFTS Funding System for Tertiary Institutions (1992). Wellington: Government Printer.

Tickle, L. (1987). *Learning teaching, teaching teaching....* London: Falmer Press.

Tickle, L. (1994). *The induction of new teachers: Reflective professional practice.* London: Cassell.

Tisher, R. P. (1990). One and a half decades of research on teacher education in Australia. In R. P. Tisher & M. F. Wideen (Eds.), *Research in teacher education: International perspectives* (pp. 67-87). London: Falmer Press.

Tisher, R. P., & Wideen, M. F. (1990). *Research in teacher education: International perspectives.* London: Falmer Press.

Tom, A. (1980). Teaching as a moral craft: A metaphor for teaching and teacher education. *Curriculum Inquiry, 10*, 317-323.

Tom, A. (1985). Inquiry into inquiry-oriented teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 36* (5), 35-44.

Tom, A., & Valli, L. (1990). Professional knowledge for teachers. In W. R. Houston (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 373-392). New York: Macmillan.

Tomorrow's Schools: The Reform of Education Administration in New Zealand (1988). Department of Education, Wellington: Government Printer.

Travers, R. M. W. (Ed.). (1973). *Second handbook of research on teaching.* Chicago: Rand McNally.

Trice, H. M., & Beyer, J. M. (1993). *The cultures of work organizations.* New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Turner, J. H. (1982). *The structure of sociological theory* (3rd ed.). Homewood, IL: Dorsey Press.

Turner, J. H. (1993). Teacher preparation and educational development. In P. Gilroy & M. Smith (Eds.), *International analyses of teacher education* (pp. 263-275). Abingdon: Carfax.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (1990). *Innovations and initiatives in teacher education in Asia and the Pacific region.* Bangkok: UNESCO.

Watkins, D. (1986). The good school: An international forum. *The Practising Administrator, 8* (1), 12-14.

Watson, G. (1987). Make me reflexive - but not yet: Strategies for managing essential reflexivity in ethnographic discourse. *Journal of Anthropological Research, 43* (1), 29-41.

Weber, M. (1947). *Max Weber: The theory of social and economic organization* (A. M. Henderson & T. Parsons, Trans.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Weber, M. (1968). *Volume two: Economy and society, an outline of interpretive sociology* (G. Roth & C. Wittich, Eds.). New York: Bedminster Press.

West-Burnham, J. (1990). The management of change. In B. Davies, L. Ellison, A. Osborne, & J. West-Burnham (Eds.), *Education management for the 1990's* (pp. 93-108). London: Longman.

Whitaker, P. (1993). *Managing change in schools.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Whitty, G. (1993). Education reform and teacher education in England in the 1990s. In P. Gilroy & M. Smith (Eds.), *International analyses of teacher education* (pp. 263-275). Abingdon: Carfax.

Wideen, M. F., & Holborn, P. (1990). Teacher education in Canada: A research review. In R. P. Tisher & M. F. Wideen (Eds.), *Research in teacher education: International perspectives* (pp. 11-32). London: Falmer Press.

Wilkin, M. (1992). The challenge of diversity. *Cambridge Journal of Education, 33* (3), 307-322.

Wittrock, M. C. (1986). *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rd ed.). New York: Macmillan.

Woodman, R. W., & Pasmore, W. A. (1987). *Research in organisational change and development* (Vol. 1). London: Jai Press.

Woods, P. (1988). Educational ethnography in Britain. In R. R. Sherman & R. B. Webb (Eds.), *Qualitative research in education: Focus and methods* (pp. 2-21). London: Falmer Press.

Wragg, E. C. (1982). *A review of research in teacher education.* Windsor: NFER - Nelson Publishing.

Yin, R. K. (1984). *Case study research: Design and methods.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case study research: Design and methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Yin, R. K., & Heald, K. A. (1975). Using the case survey method to analyze policy studies. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 20*, 371-381.

Zeichner, K. M. (1983). Alternative paradigms in teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 34* (3), 3-9.

Zeichner, K. M. (1986). Preparing reflective teachers: An overview of instructional strategies which have been employed in preservice teacher education. *International Journal of Educational Research, 11* (5), 565-575.

Zeichner, K. M. (1993). Traditions of practice in U.S. preservice teacher education programs. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 9* (1), 1-13.

The Eight General Categories

Category 1: Organisational Structure

Properties	Propositions
1.1 Complexity	1.1.1 The College's organisational structure is complex and hierarchical. 1.1.2 External to, and at the apex of the structure, is the Ministry of Education with regulatory, policy and funding functions. 1.1.3 The College is governed by its Council and guided by its charter, statement of objectives, and education policy.
1.2 Operational	1.2.1 Policy and regulations for the levels of operation both internal and external to the organisation are outlined in the charter, statement of objectives, and other official and unofficial documents. 1.2.2 The organisational structure has, to some extent, distanced management (decision makers) from the day to day operations. 1.2.3 Auditing and evaluation policies and procedures are not well developed and fully operational. 1.2.4 There are communication problems and the system is inefficient in some areas of its operation. 1.2.5 The system of levels of operation has a built in monitoring function.
1.3 Accountability	1.3.1 The organisational structure is designed to meet management requirements set by the Ministry of Education.
1.4 Cultural	1.4.1 There is a whanau (family) type relationship between staff and student teachers. 1.4.2 Staff members value consultation, collaboration and collegiality (team approach). 1.4.3 The College has a tradition of outstanding achievement in art. 1.4.4 There are rites and rituals which have symbolic value for the College.

Category 2: Mission

Properties	Propositions
2.1 Vagueness	2.1.1 There is no well articulated overall philosophy of pre-service primary teacher education in the College's charter or statement of objectives. 2.1.2 With regard to pre-service primary teacher education, the goals, as stated in the charter and statement of objectives, are vague. 2.1.3 Education and training are stated as two different entities, but their differences are not articulated.
2.2 Clarity	2.2.1 The College's values are stated clearly in the charter. 2.2.2 There is a high level of agreement among participants on what they believe are the major goals of pre-service primary teacher education.
2.3 Product	2.3.1 Characteristics graduates should possess are expressed both with a narrow subject specific focus and a broad general focus. 2.3.2 There is a high level of agreement among participants on the major characteristics a graduate should possess. 2.3.3 There is a high level of agreement among participants that they can produce only beginning teachers.
2.4 Uncertainty	2.4.1 Colleges of education no longer hold a monopoly on teacher education. 2.4.2 Amalgamation with the university is a possibility. 2.4.3 There are several suggested models of teacher education for the future. 2.4.4 Changing the present model could be detrimental to teacher education.
2.5 Quality	2.5.1 Quality features predominantly in the College's mission statement, but it is not defined in concrete terms. 2.5.2 Internal mechanisms for assessing and monitoring quality are not well developed and operational.

Category 3: Involvement

Properties	Propositions
3.1 Levels	3.1.1 Staff members are involved in different ways and at different levels in the organisation. 3.1.2 The different roles and levels of involvement are intimately related. 3.1.3 Existing workload is not always taken into account when additional responsibilities are delegated. 3.1.4 Roles and responsibilities vary among individuals holding similar positions. 3.1.5 Roles and responsibilities are not always formally documented.
3.2 Managerial	3.2.1 Under the Education Amendment Act 1990, management's function has been redefined. 3.2.2 Important decision making by the executive is not always a consultative process. 3.2.3 Survival is, to a large extent, dependent on managerial decision making. 3.2.4 There is a business approach to managing teacher education.
3.3 Departmental	3.3.1 There is a high level of co-operation within departments. 3.3.2 Departments are highly compartmentalised.

Category 4: Programme

Properties	Propositions
4.1 Types	4.1.1 The College offers two, three and four year programmes leading to the Diploma of Teaching. 4.1.2 The Diploma of Teaching is the requirement for provisional teacher registration and is seen as the most important qualification.
4.2 Development	4.2.1 Programme review and development is a consultative and monitoring process at the College-wide and system levels. 4.2.2 Course development is mainly at the individual and departmental levels. 4.2.3 The College has a systems level approach to programme and course approval based on formal policy. 4.2.4 Factors influencing course and programme development or change are both internal and external to the institution. 4.2.5 Procedures and requirements for course changes and new course development are different depending on the extent of the changes.

4.3 Congruence	4.3.1 Most participants claim that there is a high level of articulation between the College's core curriculum component and the primary schools' curriculum. 4.3.2 The College is in a delicate position because it has to satisfy both the Ministry of Education and the primary schools. 4.3.3 Some participants see the College as having a leadership role in education.
4.4 Methods	4.4.1 There is contradiction among participants as to whether the College advocates a particular teaching approach. 4.4.2 There is no consensus about claims to using a particular teaching approach. 4.4.3 Traditionally, the College's orientation to teacher education has been practical, humanistic and liberal.
4.5 Resources	4.5.1 The College is generally well equipped with teaching resources for the Diploma of Teaching programme. 4.5.2 The adequacy of physical facilities is related to subject area, class size and student population.

Category 5: Evaluation

Properties	Propositions
5.1 Levels	5.1.1 Programme evaluation is conducted at several levels of the organisation. 5.1.2 Programme evaluation is processual and guided by internal and external guidelines and mechanisms. 5.1.3 Course evaluation is processual and conducted at various levels within the organisation and at the system level. 5.1.4 Programme or course evaluation and changes are influenced by a number of internal and external factors.
5.2 Types	5.2.1 Course evaluation is both informal and formal, and conducted internally and externally. 5.2.2 Programme evaluation is a formal process conducted both internally and externally. 5.2.3 Peer evaluation and 'light sampling' are the latest dimensions added to the College's monitoring mechanism. 5.2.4 External factors are more influential in effecting course or programme evaluation and changes.

Category 6: Selection

Properties	Propositions
6.1 Complexity	6.1.1 Selection is a complex process guided by a formal policy. 6.1.2 Inter-institutional co-operation required for admission, depending on the programme, is problematic.
6.2 Competitiveness	6.2.1 There is no zoning system and prospective student teachers have wide options. 6.2.2 The economic viability of the institution is dependent on the student teacher population. 6.2.3 Open days, personal contact campaigns, and the electronic and print media are the major marketing strategies employed. 6.2.4 There is tension created by commitment to co-operative institutional marketing policy and the need to be competitive.
6.3 Flexibility	6.3.1 Provision is made to accommodate prospective student teachers in the interview process. 6.3.2 There is flexibility to allow for inter-institutional provisional registration. 6.3.3 Prior learning and experience are credited by the College.

Category 7: Support System

Properties	Propositions
7.1 Hierarchical	7.1.1 The College has both a formal and informal student support system. 7.1.2 The formal support system is guided by policy and operates on a systems level basis. 7.1.3 Policy is enforced both formally and informally. 7.1.4 The College's grievance procedure policy functions on a systems level basis. 7.1.5 A variety of support services are provided for student teachers and special provision is made for student teachers of ethnic minority groups.
7.2 Developmental	7.2.1 The College has a policy of staff in-service training. 7.2.2 There are three major types of staff development. 7.2.3 Financial support for staff is limited to assistance for pursuing academic studies. 7.2.4 Peer support is the form of support staff members value most.

Category 8: Relationship

Properties	Propositions
8.1 Inter-institutional	8.1.1 There is a close working relationship between the College and the primary schools, particularly the normal and model schools. 8.1.2 There are several levels of relationship between the primary schools and the College. 8.1.3 The teacher secondment programme between the primary schools and the College has been jeopardised by new education policy. 8.1.4 The College has a tradition of a working relationship with Belmont University.
8.2 Community	8.2.1 There is College-community involvement at several levels. 8.2.2 Community involvement is a requirement under the Education Amendment Act 1990.

The Four Categories in the Survival Process

Category 1: Initiation

Properties	Propositions
1.1 Coercive	1.1.1 The political factor seemed to be the most influential in the change process. 1.1.2 The College seemed to have been covertly pressured to establish closer relations with the University.
1.2 Instrumental	1.2.1 Key people in both institutions were the primary initiators. 1.2.2 Key people in both institutions had assessed the changing educational environment, were aware of its implications and moved to take action. 1.2.3 A history of a good working relationship between both institutions and close relationships among senior staff at both institutions facilitated the process. 1.2.4 Initiation was characterised by informal and formal discussions between and among key players and efforts to sensitise management and staff at both institutions to the need for change.

Category 2: Preparation

Properties	Propositions
2.1 Antecedents	2.1.1 There were several events preceding the informal and formal discussions on closer relations that assisted the College in articulating its position and philosophy with regard to teacher education. 2.1.2 The key actors at the College were clear on the position the College should take in establishing closer relations with the University and the introduction of the B.Ed. degree programme.
2.2 Mobilisation	2.2.1 The key actors played pivotal roles in persuading and convincing their respective institutions to take the proposed changes on board. 2.2.2 Both informal and formal means of communication were used by the primary initiators to market the changes within their respective institutions.
2.3 Planning	2.3.1 Planning by the College was characterised by prior and ongoing extensive and intensive preparation and the utilisation of specific strategies. 2.3.2 Both institutions established intra-institutional networks of committees and sub-committees to prepare for the negotiations.

Category 3: Negotiation

Properties	Propositions
3.1 Systemic	3.1.1 There were several interrelated levels of formal negotiations between the two institutions. 3.1.2 A network of inter-institutional committees and sub-committees, operating at different levels, constituted the approach adopted for formal negotiations between the two institutions. 3.1.3 The structure of network of inter-institutional committees and sub-committees was both hierarchical and lateral.
3.2 Naturalistic	3.2.1 The negotiations were characterised by the use of diverse strategies and numerous meetings, discussions and decision making. 3.2.2 Proposals (in the form of papers) facilitated the discussions and decision making process. 3.2.3 Formal negotiations were intra- and inter- institutional and also external to both institutions.
3.3 Problematic	3.3.1 The period of formal discussions and negotiations was short. 3.3.2 The negotiations were plagued by cultural conflict and attitudinal problems. 3.3.3 There were difficulties in the area of the timing and dissemination of information. 3.3.4 Marketing the product was a difficult and time consuming exercise.

Category 4: Implementation

Properties	Propositions
4.1 Disorganised	4.1.1 The implementation process was fraught with administrative, cultural, attitudinal and resourcing problems. 4.1.2 Most participants felt implementation was not well planned. 4.1.3 The communication system was, generally, inefficient. 4.1.4 The visiting lecturer model was difficult to operationalise and the programme itself was fragmented.
4.2 Deficient	4.2.1 The B.Ed. degree programme was under resourced. 4.2.2 There was no policy for staff recruitment and development. 4.2.3 There was no mechanism to oversee and facilitate the day to day operations of the programme and no evaluation of the programme was conducted at the end of the first year of implementation. 4.2.4 Both institutions were not inclined to deal with unresolved issues until formative evaluation was initiated. 4.2.5 The programme did not seem to be meeting the needs of student teachers of minority groups.
4.3 Changing	4.3.1 Implementation was a changing process. 4.3.2 A process of ongoing review was initiated during the second year of implementation. 4.3.3 Attempts made during the second year of implementation to deal with implementation difficulties resulted in some improvement but increased tension in other areas.
4.4 Impacting	4.4.1 The B.Ed. degree programme and the affiliation with Belmont University have had a profound effect on the College, particularly its culture. 4.4.2 There have been both positive and negative outcomes at the institutional and individual levels. 4.4.3 Implementation is ongoing and susceptible to continuous change and difficulties.

Sample Coded Interview Transcript

Participant: Anonymous

Place: Hilltop College of Education

Date: Wednesday 16 February 1994 Time: 1:30 - 2:30 p.m.

Philosophy (believe/think pre-service primary t. edu. should provide)

2. **Q.: Do you mind me taping the interview?**

2.11 A.: That's fine by me.

Q.: What do you believe pre-service primary teacher education should provide?

A.: It should provide key skills and key knowledge for beginning classroom practice. It's beg. tech.
not aiming at providing superb teachers. It's job is to produce really good beginning teaching as
practitioners. You are not in the business of producing totally effective teachers. I a lifelong
believe strongly in a developmental view of teaching, that you never stop learning, process.
therefore, people will enlarge their view of teaching and become not just more
competent but better developed. It is absolutely crucial in my view that you lay a
groundwork of good basic skills and the key skills, the most obvious being control
2.11.1 and management. But those are not as key as things like a really deeper understanding
2.13 of how to make your planning help children learn. Not just how to make your
2.13.1 planning mean that you can get through the day with everybody doing something but
2.13.2 how you link your planning to children's learning. I believe you lay the skills and the
attitudes and the values as well as the knowledge for that. I believe you lay the
groundwork for a whole view of education and your role as a teacher in the educational
2.10 process. I believe you lay the groundwork of your view of yourself as a continually
2.13.3 self reflecting practitioner. Those are just some of the key factors you lay in pre-service training.

Role

1 **Q.: What is your role in pre-service primary teacher education at the College?**

1.1 A.: The majority of my teaching is in both year one and two of both the diploma and the teaching role & level
B.Ed. programme. I teach _______ 100 and 200 level which is a kind of nuts and
bolts stuff. I'm right in the middle of teaching five first year classes at the moment. Content
We have moved from the role of the teacher to planning. And next week we'll be
moving on to observational skills. Then we'll be looking at assessment and
evaluation. And then we'll be looking at basic classroom management tips. This is all
at a very introductory level, ready for them to go out on their first TE (Teaching
Experience). So I'm laying that knowledge groundwork and a bit of skill practice at

the moment. When they come back from their TE we move on to wider issues of basic content
classroom practice like grouping - why you group and how you group children, cont'd.
strategies for co-operative learning, that basic stuff. The second year is a development
of that. I also teach in the growing B.Ed. programme. We are moving this year into nature of B.Ed.
1.2 our second year. I'm the _______ of the first six credit paper of the year one B.Ed.
1.3 programme and I teach a Selected Studies paper in _______. I also have
1.4 professional administrative responsibilities.

Goals

40 **Q.: What do you see as the goals of pre-service primary teacher education?**

A.: I've got a very clear picture of key elements. One of the key elements is laying the
40.13 foundation. Another key element is getting the students able to survive in a classroom
40.14 so that they can then go on and grow themselves, which they won't be able to do if
40.14.1 they feel insecure and uncomfortable and unskilled in the classroom. I guess I also see
40.15 quite a key goal in helping them to discover the kind of teacher they can be. We don't
40.16 put it into them, but in many ways, what we do help sharpen their own perceptions of
their own abilities and relate them to teaching. We try not to destroy their enthusiasm motivation
and their liveliness. And we try and marshal that towards teaching. I guess that's an creativity
important goal for the person to develop and to take that development and use it in the
service of teaching.

Q.: How are those goals reflected in pre-service primary teacher education programmes here at the College?

40.17 A.: I guess they are reflected, particularly the last one I specified, because we place an selected studies
emphasis in the College on courses that extend the student, particularly in the Creative
40.17.1 Arts, Drama, Music, the Performing Arts, and Painting, the representational Arts. curriculum culture
40.17.2 We've always had strong programmes in those areas and they are the ones which
really help enhance students' creativity. We value it very highly. And that's reflected
40.17.3 in the programmes that are given students and they are encouraged to choose. We're
40.17.4 no longer offering as many courses. And it doesn't reflect the goals of the College. It
40.17.5 reflects the realities of the new financing of tertiary institutions. You can't offer as financial
wide a range of courses as you would like because you are much more tightly focused constraints
on managing the money as an institution. (EFTS)

Q.: How are the goals which you have mentioned reflected in the areas of the programme in which you are involved?

40.18 A.: I guess the goal of basic competence for survival in the classroom is reflected by
teaching a programme which zeros in on the basic skills of teaching. We teach the
40.18.1 basic skills because that reflects what we think are important outcomes.

Role (Prog. Dev.)

12 **Q.: What is your involvement in pre-service primary teacher education programme development?**

(Role 1.5) 12.7 A.: Considerable, because we always develop programmes within the College co-
operatively. We have just been through a big exercise in setting the outcomes for each
11 N.B. year of training in _________. We write our individual classes but we always discuss Process - course development
11.11 11.11.1 those. We hold master folders which carry key ideas, sample session plans, resources
that we use, so that we've all got a central teaching document to refer to. That's co-
11.11.3 operatively planned and co-operatively revised. And we do a lot of discussion
amongst ourselves about the way we teach and the outcomes for the students. We do a
11.11.4 lot of discussion about students who are failing or students who need some support
11.11.4.1 and work out how it's best given. I'm involved in all that. In the B.Ed. I'm very B.Ed. prog. development
11.11.5 involved because it has been a very co-operative development between the University -co-operative
11.11.5.1 and the College. I have been in on that right from the beginning planning the course (Coll. & Univ.)
and helping to design the assignments, teaching and tutoring and evaluating. In every
11.11.5.2 step of the way, it's being done co-operatively.

Factors Influencing P.P.P. Development

41 **Q.: What factors influence pre-service primary teacher education programme development here at the College?**

A.: I'd say, talking from my own perspective, that I change my courses every year. It's Individual course dev. levels
41.1 like layers of it. At a personal level, I would edit and change and amend my courses
41.1.1 every year, in the light of what's been successful. That's one level of factors. The
next level would be within the department, the process of redefining our outcomes.
41.1.2 This is the departmental review. Then at the College level, the College policies about
41.1.3 course review shape it. We are gradually developing much more detailed policies from
our Council in the area of the process by which we evaluate. When we change more
N.B. Policy & Process than twenty-five per cent of a course internally, we have to call in an external review
committee. And we re-present the new course to them and ask for feedback and then
put it back through the Academic Board for approval. So there's that official quality
41.1.4 level. Outside it all is NZQA (New Zealand Qualifications Authority) and the effect of External orgs.
41.1.5 NZQA and the Unit Standards and Qualification Framework on teacher education,
generally. We're all watching that. It's impacting on that but not fully yet because N.B. Impact.
we're still working through what it means for our courses. Teacher education has got
roll over approval for its courses until 1995, so we will be coming really to grips in
1994 with what those unit standards will mean for our courses. I see that as a four
level approach.

Q.: Have the unit standards been released yet?

A.: Yes. My understanding is they have and I feel very negligent saying I don't know. I Unit Standards Infused?
really don't know. I haven't had time to come to grips with them but I know that some
of my colleagues have the draft document from last year. I decided I would wait and

see what the final document was and then respond to that because I needed to be
focused on my own doing. It isn't that I'm ignoring it; I'm just choosing when I N.B.
respond.

How P.P.P. Fit with P.Schools' Curriculum

42 **Q.: How do pre-service teacher education programmes fit with or relate to the national primary schools' curriculum?**

42.6 A.: Very well I think. In actual fact if you're talking about how we manage our
42.6.5 programmes and how we develop them, I think we're doing that much more in line Why?
with the national curriculum development framework and the various curriculum
achievement initiatives. We're using those to alter what we teach much more than
we're using the framework. I know that in the B.Ed. the focus of the second
assignment for the students will be working in schools with their associate teachers to N.B. Focus of B.Ed. IN SCHOOL ASSIGNMENT
see what impact the curriculum framework and the curriculum initiatives are having in
that school and in their class and what their associates' opinion is. We are doing this
because we think it's so necessary that the students go out of here very clear about
what the framework means. Not just what it says but what it means for their teaching
and be very familiar with the latest developments in each of the curriculum areas, as the
42.6.6 achievement levels are set, etc. So they're totally incorporated as they come through in
42.6.7 all our teaching. We have to. We're not going to survive in schools if we don't. NOTION: SURVIVAL
They have to go out there clearly understanding what their teaching role is in light of the
42.6.1 curriculum framework.

Why B.Ed. was Introduced

13 **Q.: What factors influenced the development of the B.Ed.?**

13.3 A.: Government policy, I would say. The present inister of Education signalled very Political factor.
clearly when he was in opposition that he was totally in favour of amalgamation of Univs.! providing
teachers' colleges into the universities, totally, and all teacher education being done by all teacher education
13.3.1 the universities. He has changed that stand as he has become Minister. But it's very
13.3.2 clear, the writing's on the wall, that the relationship with the University is an important
one not just for its inherent academic value but because the days of stand alone
teachers' colleges are numbered. They're numbered overseas, everywhere. We'd be
13.3.3 foolish to say there's no relevance. In fact we've had a relationship with ——— for a Historical-relationship with Univ!
long while in which we've made it possible and they made it possible for our students
to do a conjoint B.A. degree and the Diploma of Teaching over four years. And the Origin of
13.19 B.Ed. degree really grows out of that. But I think the really key development here is B.Ed.
that the development here has been the development of an education faculty with a
fifty-fifty sharing of the funding and the idea that we're both members of the faculty.
13.19.1 It's a wider institution and it has got a lot of promise in that way of structuring it.
Basically the Minister's perceived view and the fact that we've always had a
relationship with ——— and everybody else was doing it. What we did was wait N.B. Evolutionary Dev. of B.Ed.
until the right structure came along and worked at evolving it.

N.B. Structure of B.Ed.

Involvement in the Development of the B.Ed.

26 **Q.: What was your involvement in the development of the B.Ed. programme?**

26.9 A.: Considerable. I've been in it right from the development of the _____ six credit paper Manner - enthusiastic
and I taught in both the _____ six credit and the ______ six credit paper last year. I'm Supportive of B.Ed.
_________ this year and I'll be teaching again in the _______ paper. And I expect to
go on being involved.

B.Ed.'s Development- Negotiations

47 **Q.: Can you tell me briefly about the negotiations and the whole process of developing the programme?**

A.: I was very struck by the willingness of the Dean, ______, as Head of Department at Dean's attitude
Belmont to listen to what the College wanted and to be very clear that this is a
professional degree which is different from a general Arts degree, and which therefore
47.1 has to represent good professional practice and that it is as important as the intellectual
understanding. In fact, of course, they're closely related, but there was no sense in
47.1.1 which University claims, University work, had priority. It was an equal balance of the
47.1.2 practical training, particularly the school based training, and the theoretical knowledge
that university staff brought. Now that becomes quite significant in quite practical
47.1.3 issues like students out on teaching experience. There has been no suggestion, for teaching experience
instance, as in overseas programmes, that teaching practice is what you do at the
beginning of the university year and at the end of the university year and in between
you're totally in class. They have absolutely accepted that our students will be in a
rolling way out in schools. It sounds a little thing but it has major logistical strategy: redistribution of lectures
47.1.4 consequences. We re-distribute lectures, for instance, so that students don't have to
come into College while they're out on teaching experience because they may be in
47.1.5 ____ and it's very expensive to travel in. The University has accepted that and they're College's gains in the negotiations -
even, this year, starting teaching three weeks early so that we get more lecture time in
before our first years go out. There are very profound consequences. The University Univ. facilitating teacher education.
47.1.6 is altering the way they deliver things to accommodate the fact that this is a practical
and professional degree.

Q.: What about your involvement in programme development?

A.: I really don't know how to describe it. I've just been in right from the beginning - the Involved & Supportive
meetings where we planned, the meetings where we decided what the topics were, and
the meetings where we decided what the readings would be. I've been in small groups
designing the assignments and delivering the course. This year we have a new Change brought by new staffing appointment
Professor of Teacher Education, ______, who comes with a deep knowledge of
teacher education in a way that it's fair to say other members of the department down
there (the University) don't have. That's exactly why she was employed. She is
bringing a whole new dimension. And we're doing a lot of redevelopment on the run,
as we go, because she has just begun. I think it's very exciting and I've found it very

stimulating. The process is hectic but that's because of unfortunate timelines. I find it Support for Affiliation
really challenging intellectually. You're tapping into that University knowledge base
which we haven't time to develop and nourish in the way our programme runs. I'm all
for the relationship with the University. And the development for me has been a real Personal Benefits.
learning curve of tapping into a a knowledge base. It's really useful.

19 **Q.: What changes did the B.Ed. programme bring?** Changes brought by the B.Ed.

19.34 A.: For those students enroled in it, a change of attitude about work because they have to
become accustomed very quickly to the University style of working. And they have to
19.34.6 integrate it with their College work which is often much more practically based. The
19.34.6.1 work they are doing in many curriculum areas is very oriented towards work for the
19.34.6.2 classroom. At the same time as doing that they have to think about why they're doing
it that way. In a University course they may be considering the big issue of why we N.B. Fragmentation
do things this way. And they are considering that area and they are working practically
19.36 in this area and they can't quite see the connection. They are finding it quite stressful.
19.36.1 And just the hours. They have got a lot of work on their plate. They've got a lot of
assignments. So there are the big issues of stress and time management for students,
19.36.3 negatively. Positively, there's a lot of challenge in there. They've certainly sharpened
19.34.6.3 up their ideas about presentation. For us, right at the moment, it's just the issue of
19.34.4 getting two organisations to work together so that you don't double everything you do.
19.40 It's been very hard work. A lot of time. I continue to believe that it will get better as N.B. Situation will improve
19.3 we get more used to working with each other. We won't have quite the level of input
19.4.3 that we've got at the moment. At the moment I'm teaching thirteen one and a half hour
slots a week for the first six weeks of the year. And the B.Ed. lectures are on top of N.B. worried!
those. I'm teaching a secondary school load for six weeks. Secondary school teachers
teach a maximum of twenty-five hours a week. I'm teaching close to that and it's just
not supportable for a tertiary institution. And if you talk to me about research I'll
probably burst into tears because, who has time? One moment I'm in class or I'm
processing stuff or I'm home asleep. My life is just totally taken over. It's a fact of
the changing of time. It's a consequence actually of the B.Ed. We've got all of our
students in College at the moment. And it's the only time this will happen. It's
because we're changing to the sequence of a four year course. For most of the
19.41 students it has been a three year course. One of the unforeseen consequences is that
19.41.1 we'll have all the students in at once. So we're delivering a lot of classes because we
have all the students here. So it has had that consequence on the staff that we're N.B. Increased opportunities for further study.
19.14 incredibly busy. But it will get better. The other consequence it has had, of course, is
the career widening of opportunities for us for further study. Not that we didn't
19.14.1 before, but it was easy not to do it. Now it is very clear that we need to brush up our
academic skills. I'll be doing that along with a number of other people with further Doing & proposes to do Univ. study in the future

study through the faculty this year and next year and subsequent years. This year I'm doing a paper in _______ in education and then I'll be moving into a _____ programme. Univ. Study

Q.: Is there anything else you would like to say about the B.Ed. programme?

A.: I'm generally very positive about it. I think it's a wonderful opportunity. I think the students are getting a much broader perspective on their job. And I think it's a much needed antidote to the tendency in pre-service education to teach a very shallow skills based "do this in the classroom because it works" sort of approach. I am not saying that we did that because many people don't. They teach much more deeply than that. Certainly, the contact with the University will remove any temptation to do that. And our students deserve it. We are getting nowadays much better qualified students. The students who come in here (I've been here for eight years full-time) are just more mature and qualified and they demand more. They are not just happy if they get what they see as shallow and irrelevant material. I think it meets their challenges too.

N.B. Positive: enthusiastic.
N.B. Impact on College staff & prog.

Check other participants' comments about age group.

Pedagogy – Teaching Approach

39 **Q.: What is the major teaching approach advocated by Wellington College of Education?**

39.7 A.: I think the distinctive thing would be the interactive group process. We have never had
significant numbers of large lectures, only at particular times and for particular things
39.7.5 like briefing for teachers, teaching experience, or visiting speakers. Basically, we go
for the twenty member small group discussion based and organised interactive
39.7.5.i process. That's our favourite one. I'm not saying we always do it well. You can run
39.7.6 a very boring interactive session or a good one. That would be our chief orientation.

Interactive; Small group.

Q.: What teaching approach do you use in your specific area(s)?

39.7 A.: I use the interactive approach. I have taught here long enough to have picked up the general style. I probably talk too much because I come from a ______ lecturing background. I run what I hope are interactive small group sessions. For all my courses that's the strategy. That's the general style of approach, I would think.

N.B. Individual teaching approach.

Teaching Resources

43 **Q.: What teaching resources are available to you for use in your area(s) of the programme?**

43.6 A.: We have all the usual range of resources like books, videos, those sorts of things. We
have free access to them and photocopying. We have budgets that are available, but
you can always spend more. I wouldn't moan. I think we're quite reasonably
43.10 serviced. I don't know that that will go on because I see tertiary funding reclining in
relation to what you're asked to do. So I expect our budgets to be cut back. But I'm
43.10.1 not aware of any constraints where there are areas of resource, like the library, that
43.10.2 we're not allowed to have. Our librarians manage very well on a not very big budget
43.11 and we get good response. We've got excellent servicing from the point of view of

43.12 people working for the programme. They do the back up things like photocopying and
43.12.1 the bookings, supplying the resources. They are uniformly excellent. I don't know
43.12.2 how we get such a good bunch, but they're great. I think we're well resourced. One
43.6 index for me is anybody who comes in from schools often spends the first six weeks
in shock. They have a study with a desk and a telephone at work. They go to the
library and if they don't have the material they get it for them. And anything they want
copied, reproduced, or filled out for their programme, is done within a matter of
minutes. In terms of the primary and secondary sector, we are well resourced, as
people.

efficiency & Service

Q.: How do you utilise these resources in your teaching?

43.13 A.: Just all the ways you can. I use a lot of videos. I refer students to readings. I use a lot of handout material that's printed in the College printery. I use all the AV resources like OHT's and tape-recorders, video cameras. They 're all available for use. I just use the full range.

Makes use of the full range of resources available

Programme Evaluation

46 **Q.: How are pre-service primary teacher education programmes evaluated?**

46.7.1 A.: We evaluate every course we teach. We teach courses at a unit or half unit level. A half
unit is one and a half hour session a week for six weeks. A full unit is two one and a
half hour sessions a week for six weeks. At the end of a course, either half unit or full
46.7.1 unit, there's a College requirement that we evaluate it. For the primary programme,
46.5 the students fill out a standard evaluation form. We also have developed, as
46.5.12 individuals, various ways of evaluating. Some of us have, for instance, post boxes in
46.5.13 our classrooms in which people can put anonymous suggestions. With the new
46.5.14 Professor in the B.Ed., we are doing a daily evaluation. After each lecture people fill
46.5.14.1
46.5.14.2 out an evaluation form. We're using that to evaluate the programme as we go. There
46.12 is a very clear process described in the policy for students to go through when they feel
46.12.1 a course is not delivering. It begins with talking to the lecturer concerned and then the
46.12.2 department's head and then the director of the programme. It's all detailed in the
46.12.3 calendar and the students know. They have a sub-group of student executives who are
getting clearer and clearer about coaching students about how to do this. So we've got
that kind of ongoing comment from students. We've got a developing staff appraisal
system. And of course we have requirements on the feedback we give students in
marking. Our policy on student assessment has a section on, not course evaluation,
but, performance of the lecturer in marking the course. We've got quite a strict
timeline that we're marking to. And if we don't adhere to that then there are
consequences. I think there's really quite a lot of evaluation. What we don't have yet
is peer review systems, totally across the board, where we can give each other
informal feedback, teacher to teacher, on how we're teaching. But we're working on
46.5.11 those as well. The evaluations are used to change the courses within departments. It's

half & full unit courses differentiated

Forms & Process of evaluation

Ongoing Student evaluation

Staff appraisal

Student assessment & time-lines

College-wide peer appraisal lacking

still a matter under discussion as to how far they go. There are questions such as, Are they going to be used for formal evaluation of the department? Formal evaluation of the staff member? We haven't yet got a good system for that. It's mainly at the change the course level that we take our evaluation.

evaluation policy still being developed re use of data.

VISION of P.P.T. Edu. for the FUTURE

22 **Q.: What do you see as the future direction of pre-service primary teacher education?**

22.19
22.19.1

A.: I don't know. My fear is that it will be seen as a purely academic process with the practical tacked on. My fear is that we will follow that North American model which I believe is not suitable specifically because in this kind of professional training you need to move backwards and forward between learning a theory and applying it. It's a practice occupation. It is not something where you get a body of knowledge and then you do the translating into practice. I believe it's this interaction approach that New Zealand's got that is one of the strengths of its teaching, where teachers move from the classroom into individual training and back all through their career. They do continuing training after they leave. I believe that produces better professionals. I fear that for a variety of reasons, ministerial dispositions and belief, for example Tony Steele in the last government kept saying that, "Training college is a waste of time. They need to go straight into schools to be trained". I believe that is a risk which has receded because this government doesn't need any more trouble. I don't think they'll take on the teacher unions. But I don't think it's gone away. I think that money will drive that as much as anything because it's expensive to train teachers with this in and out approach. You need funding for teachers' time in schools and that makes it very expensive. You spend about a third more on training teachers than on the B.A. programme. Then, of course, you have to ask about whether we're training too many given there aren't enough jobs. So there's every incentive at the policy level to cut teacher training. And there's every incentive apparently in some ideological quarters to wipe it out because it seems irrelevant. Those are my fears for it. My goals. I just like to see the standards get higher and higher. Since I've come here I reckon that we're putting out far more competent beginning teachers, in the last eight years. No one has been collecting good data so I can't show you data that proves my feeling. But my feeling is strong. And the informal report back form schools is that the young teachers that are going into classrooms are superb. They say things like, "I couldn't have done in my first year, probably not even in my fifth year what X does". They might be talking about only our successes, but I've got a feeling that they're not bad. I like to see that standard getting higher and higher.

New Zealand's approach

Threat of political interference. Future of teacher education. Union's involvement.

Impact of funding & employment opportunities

Personal goals for teacher education.

Characteristics of an Excellent Primary Graduate

9 **Q.: How would you describe an excellent graduate of the pre-service primary programme?**

A.: I am thinking of one last year. Why did I think she was excellent? Because as a just to graduate teacher she was managing a total classroom and the individuals within it with a level of smoothness and integration of everything she did, and that the children did, that I would have found admirable in a sixth year teacher. She was performing well above my expectations. And I realised then that I do have a series of staggered expectations. I don't expect such a smooth performance, for instance, from a beginning teacher. An excellent teacher. The absolute key for me is that they clearly understand that they're responsible for organising the children's learning. And if the children are not learning that they see it as their problem and not the fault of the children. In other words, they work on changing their programme and their approach. They don't blame the children. That would be my absolute key for a teacher. If you don't believe that then you shouldn't be a teacher. I'd expect all beginning teachers to have that as a very pivotal idea in relation to what they're doing. An excellent one is one who can exemplify that in every thing they do in the classroom. They run a programme that caters for the learning needs of all the children and they can handle it competently and smoothly, so the classroom experience with the kids is really good and you don't see how hard a job it is to do that. An excellent one does it smoothly like an excellent pianist. You don't think, "Oh! we got all the notes right." You think, "Oh! what a wonderful interpretation." You look at an excellent teacher and say, "What a great classroom that would be to be in".

what participant sees as important

expectations

9.24

The teacher's responsibility

9.25

The End.

Signed:______________________ Date:______________