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**Becoming a Tertiary Teacher in New Zealand:
Learning in Communities of Practice**

**A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of**

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New Zealand**

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Abstract

This thesis reports a research project studying how people become tertiary teachers in New Zealand. While studies of many aspects of tertiary teaching, teacher professional development and workplace learning have been published, no comparative study of tertiary teacher development across different types of institutions had been carried out. Few previous studies had linked the concept of learning in a community of practice with teachers' workplace learning.

A qualitative, interpretive research framework was adopted, using three case studies. Data were gathered from institutional documents, educational developers and experienced teaching staff of three representative institutions, a polytechnic, a wananga and a university, from mid-2000 to mid-2001. Data gathering strategies included semi-structured interviews with teachers and educational developers, examination of documents, a teacher questionnaire and some class observations. Interview transcripts and other data were analysed to identify common themes, and findings were reported as three individual cases before integration.

It was found that most tertiary teachers' learning about teaching and how to teach was in-service, mainly informal and experiential, and the knowledge gained was mainly tacit and process-oriented. Although that was complemented by varying amounts of formal learning, gained through courses or professional development activities, few tertiary teachers have sought or gained teaching qualifications. While institutions have central policies and procedures to support in-service teacher development, their implementation is often uneven, with little integration or balancing of the parts. Differences of practice were observed both between institutions, and between departments within institutions, indicating the importance of context for tertiary teachers' development.

It was concluded that non-formal workplace learning is likely to continue to be the mainstay of tertiary teacher development, and that it needs to be refocussed and approached from a fresh angle. The perspective of *learning in a community of teaching practice* provides a conceptual framework for integrating different levels and forms of support for tertiary teachers. Recommendations for strengthening tertiary teacher development are addressed at three levels: institutions (as social learning systems); communities of practice within those institutions (such as departments, discipline groups, programme teams, or campus whanau); and individual teachers (whose teaching identities develop within those communities).

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My husband, who has coped patiently as I cut back on the housework for six long years. I hope, however, that photography and gardening will take priority over housework when my post-thesis life returns to 'normal'.

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As a pakeha researcher working in 'mainstream' tertiary education, I have been privileged to be given access to a wananga during a period when concerns have been expressed about researchers who are not connected and accountable to Maori people. I have valued that experience, and believe that being allowed to observe the wananga's different ways of doing things has made a significant contribution to this project. Without a glimpse of the wananga's distinctive values and practices, it would have been too easy to assume that the teaching approaches of the polytechnic and university represented tertiary education in New Zealand.

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Chapter One: Introduction

This thesis presents the results of a research project that has explored how people become tertiary teachers in New Zealand. Working within a qualitative / interpretive framework or paradigm, I have used three case studies to gather mainly qualitative data relating to teachers and teaching at three institutions – a polytechnic, a wananga (Maori tertiary institution) and a university. My interpretation of the findings of those case studies has drawn upon Wenger’s (1998, 2000) ideas about community of practice, which I argue provide a fresh perspective on ways of supporting tertiary teacher development.¹

1.1 Why this project?

I originally completed a BA majoring in English and geography and trained as a secondary teacher (1959-62). After a period of teaching I stayed home to care for our young family. In 1971, when the children had started school, I joined the Technical Correspondence Institute² as a Communication English tutor, and so became a tertiary teacher. In 1981 I moved to Wellington Polytechnic, joining its professional development unit as an educational developer: my duties included providing support for new tutors through a substantial probation process, and contributing to courses and workshops on many aspects of polytechnic teaching. I helped to develop New Zealand’s first BEd degree for tertiary teachers, which started in 1995, and I have been its programme coordinator ever since. Its students (mostly extramural, studying part-time while working full-time) are teaching in polytechnics, wananga, private training establishments (PTEs), community adult education, government departments and commercial organisations. As an active member of the Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia (HERDSA) since 1988, I have had considerable contact with other educational developers from polytechnics and universities. In 1999, following a merger between Wellington Polytechnic and Massey University, I became a university academic: the polytechnic’s BEd and MEd degrees were continued by the university, and I have continuing to specialise in the education of tertiary teachers.

¹ “Tertiary” is used in this thesis to refer to the post-compulsory education and training sector in New Zealand, following the terminology of the Education Act 1989.

² Now known as The Open Polytechnic of New Zealand

From those experiences, and from my prior studies of aspects of tertiary teaching and polytechnic tutor training (Viskovic, 1995, 2000, 2001a), I was aware that most tertiary teachers in New Zealand were appointed without pre-service teacher training/education. It appeared that they learned about teaching mainly on-the-job, with varying amounts of support from sources such as induction, probation, mentoring, staff development workshops, and sometimes formal courses. Like most other tertiary teachers, I know I have learned a great deal over the years in informal, experiential ways, including intuition and reflection. Unlike many of them, however, I have also completed formal studies of tertiary teaching and education (DipEd, BEdStud and MEd, all part-time, in-service, through the 1980s and 1990s). That led me to wonder why so few tertiary teachers seem to be interested in formal study of the ideas and research that are part of their profession as teachers, and why so many feel they can rely on informal learning to be sufficient for their practical needs. It also raised questions for me about other people's perceptions of themselves as teachers and about their expectations of professional development.

That background led to my choice of the subject area for this research project, and guided the early stages of a literature review leading to the PhD research proposal. Initially I considered studying whether teachers in different types of institution had different perceptions of what counted as 'good teaching' in their contexts. As the project evolved, however, I became increasingly interested in the literature of community of practice, and realised that this offered a new way of considering what the interviewed teachers were saying about work and learning in their own contexts. My choice of this field of interest, developed from the literature, meant that a qualitative, interpretivist research approach was appropriate, as I wanted to explore the area more deeply and increase my understanding of it. I acknowledge that I did wonder in the early days whether more insistence on early and continuing formal courses on teaching might be an answer to improving institutional support for in-service teacher education: but that has not emerged as the main recommendation at the end of this study.

1.2 The research problem, purpose, key questions and design

Research problem

While there is a wide range of international literature that addresses matters such as tertiary learning and teaching, academic staff development, workplace learning and the development of expertise, studies have indicated that many tertiary teachers do not receive a substantial educational preparation for their teaching role, and that their teaching-related continuing professional development is also not extensive. While anecdotal evidence suggested that a similar situation would be found in New Zealand, no research had directly addressed tertiary teacher development here at the time this study commenced. Tertiary education in New Zealand underwent considerable expansion and structural change in the 1990s, reflecting wider social and economic changes, which suggested that contextual factors also needed to be considered. The problem to be investigated, therefore, is a lack of knowledge about how people become tertiary teachers in New Zealand institutional contexts. This was important to me because it was so closely related to the area of work I have been engaged in for many years, and my interest in improving tertiary teacher education in New Zealand.

Research purpose

The aim of this thesis is to investigate, describe and explain some processes by which people become tertiary teachers in New Zealand, in a range of different institutional contexts.

Research questions

The key research question is:

- **How do people become tertiary teachers in New Zealand?**

Three sub-questions are:

- What is teaching like in some typical tertiary institutions in New Zealand?
- What do some experienced teachers in selected departments of those institutions say about how they have developed as teachers?
- What provisions do those institutions currently make for the teacher education and development of their academic staff?

To address those questions, a qualitative, interpretive research framework was indicated. Case study (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1994; Yin, 1994) was selected as an appropriate research method, using a multiple-case design (Yin, 1994).

1.3 Structure and theoretical frame of the thesis

Chapter Two reviews a wide range of literature, in five major sections: background material on tertiary education in New Zealand; studies of teaching and learning in tertiary education; studies of expertise, excellence in teaching, and education for the professions; educational development for tertiary teachers; and workplace learning and community of practice. Many of the studies reviewed in the first four sections were based on teaching in higher education (universities) and few had considered how people became tertiary teachers and developed the practices and conceptions that were being studied. The literature review therefore supported the development of the research questions shown above. The fifth section identified the concept of community of practice (Wenger, 1998, 2000) as an important perspective that would be applied in the interpretation of the research findings. *Learning in a community of teaching practice* thus became the theoretical frame of the thesis.

Chapter Three addresses the planning and conduct of the research project. The first part expands on the research questions to be investigated. The second part discusses the overall framework of qualitative, interpretive research. The third part explains the choice of multiple-case study as the research method. The fourth part provides an account of the research design, including identification of cases and participants, selection of data gathering strategies and design of instruments. The final part records the implementation processes followed, including data gathering, analysis and quality checks. Triangulation of data sources was met by seeking data from institutional documents, institutions' staff developers, and some experienced teachers. Data gathering strategies, triangulated for each case, included an initial questionnaire (used in selecting interview participants); semi-structured interviews with developers and some experienced teachers; some class and site observations; and examination of documents. Data from interview transcripts were analysed using a grounded theory approach to identify themes and sub-themes; content analysis of documents was carried out; and data from observations were used to complement data from other sources and provide background descriptions of institutions.

Chapters Four, Five and Six present the research findings in the form of three instrumental case studies on becoming a teacher at a polytechnic, a wananga and a university respectively. The three chapters each follow a similar pattern, presenting material clustered by data source in sections that correspond to the main research questions above, i.e. addressing some characteristics of teaching in the institution, the experiences of some people in developing as teachers there, and the provisions made for supporting teacher education and development. Appendices O and P present vignettes of some teachers' communities of practice, which further illustrate contextual differences found in the cases.

Chapter Seven integrates key findings from the three cases, comparing similarities and differences. The levels and types of support given to teacher development varied, both within and between institutions, but at all sites there was considerable reliance on individual teachers' informal, experiential, and often incidental learning. The findings also established that the contexts or communities in which people became tertiary teachers through the experience of teaching were very important.

Chapter Eight discusses the case studies in relation to key ideas from the literature review, and in a number of areas finds considerable complementarity between the experiences of the teachers and institutions in the case studies and published studies of tertiary teaching, educational development and workplace learning. Connections made here between ideas from the literature and situations found in the case studies suggest that the concept of learning in communities of practice has considerable potential for advancing the development of tertiary teachers in New Zealand institutions. Features of learning associated with communities of practice - evolving forms of mutual engagement, understanding and tuning a sense of joint enterprise, and developing their repertoire, style and discourses (Wenger, 1998) - were seen as relevant in interpreting what happened for teachers in the case study institutions, and suggested there was scope for more attention to be paid to informal teacher development in future.

Chapter Nine develops conclusions and recommendations from the case studies and discussion. It is concluded that in New Zealand most tertiary teachers' learning about teaching has been in-service, informal, experiential, mainly process-oriented, and often

tacit. For some teachers that has been complemented by varying amounts of more formal learning, gained through courses or professional development seminars, but only a few have sought or gained teaching qualifications. While institutions have policies and procedures to support teacher development, their implementation is often dispersed and uneven, with little integration or balancing of the parts. Workplace learning is likely to continue to be the mainstay of teacher development, and therefore it needs to be refocussed and approached from a fresh angle. The perspective recommended is that of *learning in a community of teaching practice*, which provides an explicit conceptual framework for integrating different levels and forms of support for teachers, who are learning through their work as community members.

In this framework tertiary institutions are seen as social learning systems, and teachers as members of communities of practice functioning within those systems. A community of practice is concerned with developing, maintaining and passing on its practices and values among all members, not just newcomers, through processes such as participation, collegiality, reciprocity, negotiation and boundary-crossing.

Developing expertise in teaching and developing a teaching identity are thus ongoing aspects of working in a community of teaching practice: 'doing the work' of teaching is the basis of much informal and incidental learning. Nevertheless, while most workplace learning in such a community will continue to be largely informal, tacit and process-oriented, tertiary teachers' communities of practice also need to consider how members can gain propositional knowledge of teaching through more formal means.

Recommendations for strengthening teacher development are addressed at three levels: the first for an institution as an over-arching community; second, for communities of practice within an institution (such as departments, discipline groups, programme teams, or campus whanau groups); and third, for individual teachers (whose teaching identities develop within those communities). A framework model is used to link the three levels of recommendations.

Note: Appendix R provides a glossary of Maori terms, and Appendix S provides a glossary of abbreviations used throughout the thesis: they have been placed at the end of this volume for quick reference by readers.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This chapter discusses a wide range of literature underlying my research into how people become tertiary teachers: that literature both contributed to the development of key research questions and supports the theoretical focus adopted in the later discussion. The topic headings listed below indicate the scope of material reviewed: they are convenient for organisation, but a number of publications relate to more than one topic, and so could have been grouped differently. At the end of each topic I discuss the implications of key ideas, and identify some issues to be considered when developing the key research questions. The concluding section draws together those issues, and defines the research problem and questions to be addressed in this project.

- 2.1 Background: tertiary education in New Zealand
- 2.2 Tertiary teaching and learning: conceptions and perspectives
- 2.3 Expertise, excellence, professionalism and education for the professions
- 2.4 Educational development for tertiary teachers
- 2.5 Workplace learning and communities of practice
- 2.6 Conclusions and key research questions

The first four sections address a range of perspectives on tertiary teaching, many of which would be familiar to most educational developers, and some teachers, working in tertiary education contexts. The literature of the fifth section, relating to workplace learning, has been less widely discussed in relation to tertiary education. *Workplace learning in a community of practice* (Wenger, 1998, 2000) was the perspective that emerged from that last section as the theoretical focus for this study. (Topics such as academic leadership or the psychology of motivation and development were excluded, the former being seen as too broad and the latter beyond my area of expertise.)

2.1 Background: tertiary education in New Zealand

Most of the literature that is discussed in this review comes from overseas, particularly from the United Kingdom (UK) and Australia, with some from North America. That is because I have focused on English language publications, and because the New Zealand (NZ) tertiary system is very similar to those of Australia and the UK. Before moving on

to the wider literature, I consider some publications that illustrate aspects of the New Zealand tertiary teaching context.

There has been considerable focus in recent years in NZ on increasing the numbers of people engaging in tertiary education and training to gain job skills and qualifications. Changes following the Education Amendment Act 1990 focused on flexibility, responsiveness and access in the tertiary sector; on funding and efficient use of resources; and on accountability through the establishment of institutional charters and quality management systems. Such developments were justified by the government in terms of meeting the needs of national economic growth, international competitiveness and globalisation (Minister of Education, 1989; Ministry of Education, 1998). The focus has been on the economic needs of the nation to increase production and reduce unemployment, resulting in an instrumental emphasis on vocational education. Educational institutions have also been encouraged to increase their attention to research that can be funded by external sources such as industry and commerce, thus reducing their reliance on government funding. A series of reports from the Tertiary Education Advisory Commission (2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2001c) and the establishment of the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC) in 2002 have initiated further changes affecting funding and differentiation of providers in the sector.

A number of writers have studied the effects of government policies on tertiary education (for example, Butterworth and Tarling, 1994; Hall, 1994; Olssen and Matthews, 1997; Peters, 1997; Codd, 1999). There have also been studies of aspects of tertiary student learning, such as Willis (1989) or Prebble, Hargraves, Leach, Naidoo, Suddaby and Zepke (2004). There have been few studies, however, that directly addressed tertiary teachers and their institutional contexts. Some examples relating to teaching in polytechnics include McCallin (1993), Khull (1997), Patrick (1998), Dougherty (1999), Viskovic (1993, 1995, 2000, 2001a), and Perry (2000). Examples relating to community adult education and training opportunities programmes include Findsen (1996) and Bensemann (2001). Studies addressing aspects of university teaching include Sutherland (1999), Robertson (2003) and Kane, Sandretto and Heath (2004). Little attention has been given to the professional education of tertiary teachers.

The literature on Maori in tertiary education has been less substantial than that on early childhood and schooling for Maori. Metge (1984) and Pere (1994) have discussed principles of Maori learning and teaching across the lifespan. Tertiary examples available before this study began included: Benton and Benton (1995), Bishop and Graham (1997) and Jefferies (1997). More recent tertiary examples include: Mead (1999), Bishop and Glynn (1999), Hemara (2000), Irwin (2000), Skill New Zealand - Pukenga Aotearoa (2001), Tau, Ormsby, Manthei and Potiki (2003), and Maori Tertiary Reference Group (2003). Studies such as these indicated a growing awareness of areas of concern likely to be addressed in different ways by mainstream providers and Maori providers.

Massification and diversification

The information in this and the following paragraph has been drawn from *Profile and Trends 2000* (Ministry of Education, 2001), matching the year in which most data-gathering for this thesis was carried out. Tertiary student numbers had increased from nearly 150,000 in 1989 to 264,350 (168,520 equivalent full time students, or EFTS) in 2000. With the growing numbers had come a more diverse student population and an increased range of providers catering for them. Universities had 61% of total EFTS in 2000, and polytechnics had 32%.¹ Wananga provided courses in settings that maintained and promoted Maori language and cultural values. Institutions were funded partly by the Ministry of Education (MOE) and partly by student fees (often met through student loans). Private training establishments (PTEs) offered a mix of conventional qualifications and transition courses for NZ students, and some offered full-fee-paying courses for international students.

While many tertiary students were school leavers, a growing proportion was mature people seeking second-chance education, retraining for a change of career, or participating in continuing professional development (CPD). In 2000, mature students (25 years and over) were 49% of total enrolments, and 58% of part-timers were over the age of 30. Female students increased from 55% in 1997 to 57% of the total in 2000. Maori student enrolments increased 18% from 1997 to 2000 and comprised 16% of all

¹ Appendix A provides an extract from the legislation defining universities, polytechnics, wananga and colleges of education as public tertiary institutions. A private training establishment provides post-school education or vocational training, but is not an institution.

domestic students in 2000. Pacific Nations students increased 22% from 1997 to 2000, and were 5% of the total in 2000. Asian students were 9% of all domestic students in 2000, including recent immigrants as well as long-term citizens. Universities, polytechnics and some PTEs were also enrolling more international students every year.

The effects of those trends have impacted on tertiary institutions, teachers and students. Some effects for teachers were discussed in Viskovic (2001a), such as those resulting from increased class sizes, increasing student diversity, new curricula, and new quality management systems.

The Tertiary Education Advisory Commission (2001b) considered a range of options for improving teaching quality, and proposed requiring new academics to undertake some form of teacher training. The *Tertiary Education Strategy 2002-2007* (Ministry of Education, 2002) included a stronger system focus on teaching capability and learning environments, with Objective 5 referring to provider investment in the recruitment, retention and professional development of teachers, and rewarding innovation and excellence. A National Centre for Tertiary Excellence and Teaching Matters Forum are to be established in 2005, to explore the need for tertiary teaching qualifications and support professional development for tertiary teachers (Maharey, 2004).

The quality of teaching in tertiary education has thus been acknowledged as a concern: this study of the ways tertiary teachers are trained or educated or developed is therefore relevant and timely.

2.2 Tertiary Teaching: conceptions and perspectives

Most of the material in this section relates to teaching in higher education (university) contexts, with fewer studies arising from further education contexts (such as polytechnics, technical institutes or community colleges).

2.2.1 Empirical studies of tertiary teaching

Key ideas that have been addressed in empirical research studies include conceptions of learning and teaching; other perceptions held by teachers; and perspectives on teaching. Some included recommendations for tertiary teacher development.

Conceptions of learning and teaching

Much of the research on teachers' conceptions of teaching in higher education arose following earlier research into university students' conceptions of learning (for example, Saljo, 1979; Van Rossum and Schenk, 1984; Marton and Saljo, 1984; Marton, Dall'Alba and Beaty, 1993). The latter identified a hierarchy of six conceptions:

- Increasing one's knowledge
- Memorising and reproducing
- Applying
- Understanding
- Seeing something in a new way
- Changing as a person.

Related research into student learning identified patterns of deep, surface, and strategic or achieving approaches to learning, and some linked students' learning approaches to their perceptions of teachers' assessment expectations (for example, Marton, Hounsell and Entwistle, 1984; Richardson, Eysenck and Warren Piper, 1987).

From the later 1980s researchers linked conceptions of learning to teachers' strategies and practices (for example, Entwistle, 1988; Ramsden, 1988). Then came research (mainly phenomenographic) into university teachers' conceptions of teaching (for example, Marton and Ramsden, 1988; Martin and Balla, 1991; Samuelowicz and Bain, 1992; Gow and Kember, 1993; Kember and Gow, 1994). A typical example is Prosser, Trigwell and Taylor (1994), finding five conceptions of teaching held by university science teachers:

- Teaching as transmitting concepts of the syllabus
- Teaching as transmitting the teachers' knowledge
- Teaching as helping students acquire the concepts of the syllabus
- Teaching as helping students acquire teacher knowledge
- Teaching as helping students develop conceptions

Further studies looked at relationships between teaching approach and students' deep/surface learning (for example, Trigwell and Prosser, 1996; Trigwell, Prosser and Waterhouse, 1999).

Martin and Ramsden (1992) discussed how lecturers change their conceptions of teaching as a process of 'expanding awareness,' which individual teachers started at different points and moved through at different rates. They concluded that changing

teachers' understanding of teaching was a key to improving university teaching. Gow and Kember (1993) found two major orientations to teaching - knowledge transmission and learning facilitation - and concluded that: "Altering existing conceptions, however, is not a task to be underestimated" (p. 31). They recommended: "...encouraging lecturers to reflect on their own teaching by engaging in supported action research projects" (p. 32). Gibbs (1995a) similarly recommended changing lecturers' conceptions, to be achieved through action research projects.

Murray and Macdonald (1997) compared some university lecturers' conceptions of teaching with the lecturers' claimed teaching practices, and observed that "Staff beliefs about their role did not always appear to match their intentions or their subsequent actions" (p. 343). They related this to notions of espoused theory and theory-in-practice (Argyris and Schon, 1974). Similar effects had been noted by Samuelowicz and Bain (1992), who referred to this inconsistency as one of the "mysteries of higher education". Murray and Macdonald found that the teachers they studied reported gaining their teaching skills mainly from trial and error, learning by doing, observation of colleagues, advice from colleagues, and staff development workshops. They concluded: "A final explanation for the inconsistencies found could be that more staff development is needed to help staff challenge or operationalise their perceived role" (p. 346).

Overall, many studies of conceptions of teaching have been phenomenographic, and have focused on cognitive learning in "concept-heavy mainstream disciplines" (Eidos, 1997, p. 4) rather than the humanities or subjects involving experiential and affective learning. Recommendations for teacher development arising from such research mainly focused on ways of changing teachers' conceptions.

Other perceptions and perspectives held by teachers

Other researchers investigated teachers' attitudes, perceptions or reflections on their roles. Much of this literature also identified varied concerns about teachers' practice, frequently related to continuing attitudes and practices in teachers' contexts, not just to teachers' personal views of teaching.

Pettigrove (1992), studied tertiary teachers' self-perceptions and found that they saw themselves primarily as communicators and assessors of subject content, rather than experts in pedagogy, and saw teaching and research as very different activities, with teaching having no comparable theoretical underpinning or legitimation (p. 423).

Falchikov (1993) found that a range of factors influenced teachers' attitudes, and that innovators in particular shared factors such as being student-focussed, enjoying teaching and being involved in a variety of non-traditional activities. Her conclusion that "...the present study suggests that a majority of staff not only copes with but welcomes change" (p. 509) was more positive than Pettigrove's findings (above).

Burroughs-Lang (1996) found that lecturers' perceptions of their teaching role focused on traditional transmission and evaluation. "Lecturers mainly have idiosyncratic, intuitively-based knowledge about learning derived from their experiences with teaching and learning" (p. 47). Lecturers knew from experience what worked, but not why; and many did not see themselves as learners. Willcoxson (1998) found that academics tended to teach the way they had been taught (transmission); most were using lectures despite a lack of enthusiasm for them on the part of both teachers and students.

Most studies had focused on more experienced teachers, but Allan (1996) gathered accounts of people's first experiences as teachers in UK colleges and universities, noting that many felt they had been "flung in at the deep end" and "an indelible impression of the new university teacher increasingly as the victim of an identity crisis" (p. viii).

Ballantyne, Bain and Packer (1999) surveyed over 700 university teachers nominated as exhibiting exemplary practice, looking for themes and issues in the teachers' reflections. They concluded that, "the motivation to improve teaching is personal and intrinsic, arising from an enthusiasm for a subject and a desire to see students learn and grow" (p. 255). They also observed, however, that while lecturers were strong in content knowledge, they had limited knowledge of theories of learning and strategies of teaching, and so perpetuated traditional teaching methods with little reflection on their effects for student learning. Patrick and Smart (1998) took a different approach, in a

study to develop a measure for evaluating teacher effectiveness. They identified three inter-related dimensions: respect for students, ability to challenge students, and organisation and presentation skills. Those factors were supported by other publications, such as Brown and Atkins (1993) and Ramsden (1992).

In the literature noted so far there has been a strong emphasis on university teaching. A significant exception is Pratt and Associates (1998), whose study included adult, further and higher education, and was spread over several countries. Pratt et al. identified five perspectives on teaching (not hierarchical categories), reflecting teachers' beliefs, intentions and actions in response to different contexts and purposes:

<i>Perspective</i>	<i>Brief Definition</i>
Transmission:	Effective delivery of content
Apprenticeship:	Modelling ways of being
Developmental:	Cultivating ways of thinking (intellectual development)
Nurturing:	Facilitating self-efficacy (personal development)
Social reform:	Seeking a better society.

Another who considered non-university teachers was Patrick (1998). Her New Zealand study found considerable consistency between the teachers' stated philosophies, their practice and their awareness of student learning. Patrick also found that they put more focus on political issues and social reform than was generally reported in studies of university teachers: Malcolm and Zukas (2001) found a similar situation in the UK.

The literature thus presents diverse views of teaching. A number of writers identified concerns, though not all linked those to suggestions for teacher development. Many of the issues discussed echoed my own observations, and anecdotal comments by New Zealand polytechnic and university staff developers, suggesting that further study of New Zealand tertiary teachers would be worthwhile.

2.2.2 Scholarly discussions of tertiary teaching

Some academics have reflected on their own experiences and observations, while others have reviewed and integrated findings from empirical studies such as those above.

Many publish in journals such as *Teaching in Higher Education* (UK) or the *Journal of Excellence in College Teaching* (USA) – I will not attempt to canvas them all here.

Reviews of the literature on teaching and learning

Kember (1997) examined the research to date into university academics' conceptions of teaching. He suggested more research into the relationship between facets of teaching and learning was needed.

From a survey of the literature of teaching and learning in higher education (TLHE), Zukas and Malcolm (1999) identified five pedagogic "identities", further discussed in Malcolm and Zukas (2000, 2001):

- Educator as reflective practitioner,
- Educator as critical practitioner,
- Educator as situated learner within a community of practice,
- Educator as psycho-diagnostician and facilitator of learning,
- Educator as assurer of organisational quality and efficiency, deliverer of service to agreed or imposed standards.

Their discussion of those identities developed a very different perspective from Kember's, taking more account of the contextualised nature of teaching practice, and also making one of the first published links between tertiary teachers and the concept of situated learning in a community of practice.

Another overview article is that of Kane, Sandretto and Heath (2002), who criticised the research approach of many of the studies of conceptions of teaching on the grounds that they relied on what teachers said in interviews, with no balancing observation of what they did in class to verify what they said about their teaching.² They suggested that studies of teacher beliefs and thinking in school contexts offered conclusions that could transfer to tertiary settings, noting that the school teacher and tertiary teacher literatures rarely referenced each other³. They concluded:

What is clear is that further research is needed to make explicit the links between tertiary teachers' espoused theories and their teaching practice so that we can understand better how university academics learn to teach and, especially, so that novice teachers may benefit (p. 204).

² However, the phenomenographic research approach used in many studies of conceptions of teaching is based on studies of second order data: "Phenomenographers do not claim to study 'what is there' in the world (reality) but they do claim to study 'what is there' in people's conceptions of the world" (Webb, 1996, page 87).

³ Their comments echoed those of Entwistle, Skinner, Entwistle and Orr (2000), who also noted little cross-referencing between the higher education and school-based literatures, with the former focusing on conceptions of learning and teaching and the latter on teachers' beliefs and knowledge.

Those three reviews produced different commentaries on a largely similar body of literature, and all raised implications for tertiary teacher development.

Other views of teaching

Eisner (1994) suggested that teaching could be considered an art, because teachers make judgments based on qualities that unfold during the course of action; their activity is not dominated by prescriptions or routines but is influenced by unpredicted contingencies; and the ends that teaching achieves are often created in process. Similar ideas were applied to tertiary education by Trow (1993):

Teaching is not an action, but a transaction; not an outcome, but a process; not a performance, but an emotional and intellectual connection between teacher and learner. (p. 20)

Fox (1983) discussed teachers' personal theories of teaching, identifying four metaphors: transfer, shaping (simple theories), growing and travelling (developed theories). Although Fox's work is now old, and was based on anecdotal comments and observations rather than systematic research, it has been cited in other discussions of teaching (for example, Kember, 1997; Murray and Macdonald, 1997; Pratt, 2002).

Sotto (1996) critiqued the notion that "given sufficient good will and rigorous reflection, the level of teaching could be improved" (p. 205). Detailed knowledge and supervised experience were also necessary, as in preparation for practice in other professions. He hoped academics would see teaching and learning as "mysterious matters", meriting research that would lift teaching from being a "self-evident" activity into as rewarding and creative an activity as their research into their disciplines (p. 208). Similar issues were raised by Weimer (1997) who discussed commonly held assumptions "that devalue the inherent intellectual richness and intrigue of teaching".

Other writers have discussed views of teaching that reflect the ways by which government or institutional policies influence the work of teachers. For example, Codd (1997) critiqued the technocratic-reductionist view of teaching and learning that he associated with the approach of New Zealand's National Qualifications Framework (see Table 1, following).

	Technocratic-Reductionist	Professional-Contextualist
Role model	Skilled technician	Reflective practitioner
Criterion of good practice	Competence	Integrity
Pedagogical aim	To produce the attainment of specific learning outcomes	To enable the development of diverse human capabilities
Administrative context	Efficient management (hierarchical)	Professional leadership (collaborative)
Type of motivation	Extrinsic	Intrinsic
Form of accountability	Contractual compliance	Professional commitment

Table 1: Contrasting Conceptions of Teaching (Codd, 1997, p. 140)

Codd concluded that “...what we have now in New Zealand’s educational institutions, including higher education, is a political struggle between two opposing views of teaching” (p. 139) and “...it could be argued that behind these two conceptions of teaching lie different assumptions about human nature.” (p. 141).

Hall and Kidman (2004), in another New Zealand example, developed a relational view of university learning and teaching (see Fig. 1, following). Their model does not imply a preference for any one of the views of teaching and learning described above: its focus is rather on a series of simultaneous relationships between learner, teacher and what is to be learned, within an institutional context.

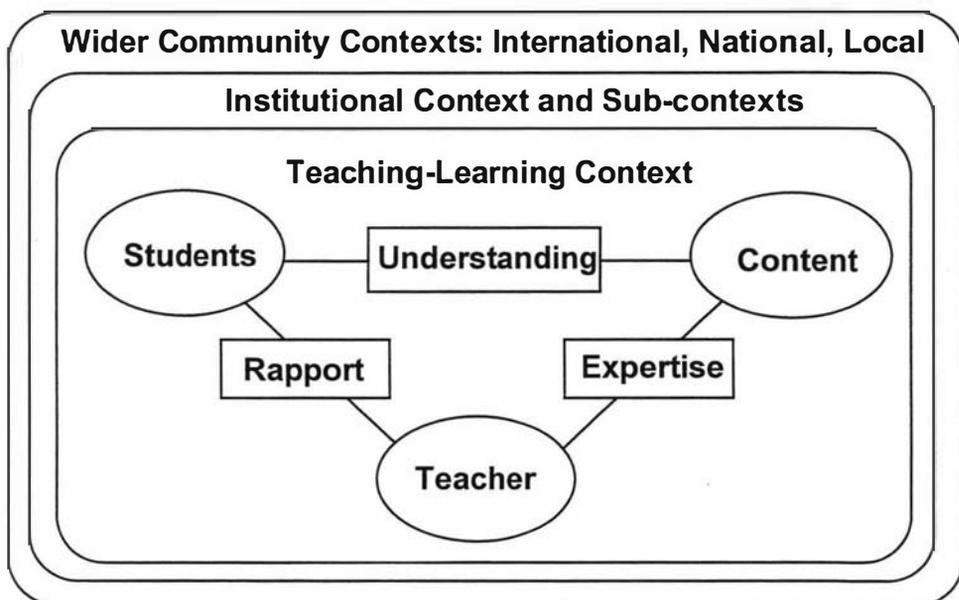


Fig. 1: Relational Model of Teaching and Learning (Hall and Kidman, 2004, p. 333)

In that last group of examples from the literature, I found art, metaphors, mystery, emotional and intellectual connection, tension between the technical and professional, anxieties about assumptions, and a contextual map - all contributing to a broad tapestry of ways of thinking about teaching. While formal empirical studies of conceptions of teaching are important, they are not the only ways of seeing, and the literature confirms that many perspectives are being shared.

2.2.3 Implications for this study

Different approaches to studying teachers' perspectives or conceptions of their roles resulted in different ways of describing aspects of tertiary teaching. Descriptions of conceptions of teaching were often divided (by the researchers rather than the people they had studied) into categories representing types or levels of teaching. Those developed through phenomenographic analysis produced hierarchical series of conceptions of university teaching. Other analyses, such as those of Pratt et al. (1998) or Zukas and Malcolm (1999), were not hierarchical, and may be more useful when considering teachers' attitudes and practices across a variety of institutional contexts.

There were differences in emphasis or examples cited, resulting from the research approach adopted (for example, studying experienced or novice teachers, or looking for links between teachers' conceptions of teaching and students' conceptions of learning, or analysing other researchers' findings). There were also differences in interpretation of the concerns observed and their implications for teacher development.

Most of the literature addressed studies of university teaching. There have also been studies of (and by) teachers in vocational or further education, mainly in the UK and Australia. Many of those, however, I have included in section 2.3 below, because their focus has been more on the professional role.

There was little discussion of how teachers' conceptions or attitudes or practices had developed. Several writers observed that teachers appeared to rely mainly on tacit experiential knowledge and did not have a strong theory-based understanding of their own teaching (e.g. Murray and Macdonald, 1997). They told me little, however, about

how those teachers had gained access to and adopted that tacit knowledge, and whether their beliefs and practice had changed with experience. Tacit assumptions and practices in teachers' communities were rarely made explicit by practitioners as a public body of knowledge. Some writers commented on the effects of educational development, or lack of it, for teaching: but studies more concerned with academic staff development have been placed in section 2.4 below.

While there have been many studies of teaching and learning in higher education, some suggest that tertiary teachers do not appear to have a deep understanding of or familiarity with that literature (e.g. Ballantyne et al, 1999). Many studies have gathered the views of individual teachers about their attitudes and practices (e.g. Prosser et al, 1994), but few asked about common practices shared and learned in their teaching community. Many of the findings have been based on research carried out only in universities. It is not clear whether those findings would necessarily apply to New Zealand tertiary teachers working in a wider range of institutional contexts and subject areas: that becomes an area of interest for this study.

2.3 Expertise, Excellence and Professionalism

This section includes both studies of expertise or excellence in tertiary teaching, and some more general studies that have potential for their ideas to be transferred to that context. The literature of education for the professions, as it relates to the education of tertiary teachers, is also noted. While there is a wide general literature on expertise, comparatively few writers have discussed expertise in relation to tertiary teaching.

2.3.1 Expertise

In studies of expertise I found two main areas of interest: stages in the development of expertise, and characteristics of expertise and expert performance.

Stages in the development of expertise

Dreyfus and Dreyfus' (1986) Model of Skill Acquisition proposed a sequence of developmental levels that people were observed to pass through over time:

- Level 1. Novice
- Level 2. Advanced Beginner

- Level 3. Competent
- Level 4. Proficient
- Level 5. Expert

Characteristics of the expert level include:

- No longer relies on rules, guidelines or maxims,
- Intuitive grasp of situations based on deep tacit understanding,
- Analytic approaches used only in novel situation or when problems occur,
- Vision of what is possible.

The emphasis of the model is mainly on learning from experience, with few references to more formal, propositional learning. Similar processes were described by Hoffman (1998), who considered the cognitive psychology of expertise. From a developmental view, Hoffman found a sequence from novice to master could be seen. In terms of knowledge structure, it took time to become an expert, and by then one's knowledge was both specific to the domain and very extensive.

Eraut (1994) noted tacit knowledge and intuition (in the Dreyfus expert level) as critical features of professional expertise applicable to educational settings. He commented, however, on the model's limited focus on the interactive and progressive nature of decision-making, which he considered important in teaching. Ethell (1998), discussing the knowledge-in-action of expert university teachers, similarly noted that the procedural knowledge of experts was largely unarticulated, tacit, and grounded in experience. Few other writers linked developmental stages to tertiary teachers' expertise: Kember (1997) suggested that teachers' awareness of conceptions of teaching might follow a developmental sequence; and Kugel (1993) saw five stages of focus rather than expertise that US college teachers went through in developing as professors.

Characteristics of expertise

Glaser and Chi (1988) discussed seven key characteristics of expertise:

- Experts excel mainly in their own domains;
- Experts perceive large meaningful patterns in their domain;
- Experts are faster than novices at performing skills of their domain, and they solve problems with little error;
- Experts have superior short-term and long-term memory;
- Experts see a problem in their domain at a deeper level than do novices;
- Experts spend a great deal of time analysing a problem analytically;
- Experts have strong self-monitoring skills.

Billett (1996) identified similar ideas, but also emphasised the social context in which expertise is developed. Billett (1998a) presented a socio-cultural perspective on expertise in a workplace community, identifying key elements of expertise as being:

- *Relational* to a particular community of practice, i.e. workplace
- *Embedded* the result of extensive social practice over time
- *Requiring competence* in the community's discourse and activities
- *Reciprocal* shaping as well as being shaped by the community of practice
- *Requiring pertinence* in the appropriateness of problem solutions, such as knowing what behaviours are acceptable.

Billett's work (see also 2.5 below) thus provided a useful bridge between individual characteristics of expertise, as described by Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) or Glaser and Chi (1988), and the communal workplace settings in which people develop and apply their expertise and perform with others. Stein (1997) similarly saw expertise as a function of social context as well as individual skills, knowledge or experience, saying: "the expert and his or her social system can be viewed as a coupled system" (p. 191).

Hamachek (1999) linked behaviours associated with teacher excellence to more general studies of expert/novice behaviour, and cited Sternberg and Horvath's (1995) conclusion that three basic domains - knowledge, efficiency and insight - were critical in teaching. Rather than meeting one single definition of teaching expertise, effective teachers shared a 'family' of characteristics. Hamachek identified four major clusters of characteristics: personal, intellectual, interaction style and instructional approaches. Teachers' expertise thus included aspects of their personal and interpersonal engagement with students and colleagues, as well as their knowledge of instructional skills and the curriculum. Gibbs (2003) reached similar conclusions in a study of teachers' self-efficacy. He argued that: "Teaching is complex and demanding. Teachers require not only qualities such as passion and enthusiasm, but capacities for resilience, survival and innovation" (p. 1).

Studies of expertise have a number of implications for tertiary teacher development. The work of Dreyfus and Dreyfus shows that expertise develops in stages over time, largely through experiential learning in a workplace. Eraut links the expertise of teachers to the nature of professional work. Hamachek and Gibbs point out that personal characteristics contribute to aspects of teacher expertise. Glaser and Chi, and

Billett, emphasise that expertise is domain-specific. Because most tertiary teachers have gained their primary expertise in the domain of their discipline or occupation, becoming a teacher involves developing expertise in a new domain. Factors likely to support the development of workplace expertise therefore need to be considered when studying in-service tertiary teacher development.

2.3.2 Professions, professionalism, education for professions

I will consider only briefly the nature of a profession and professional work, which have been discussed by a number of writers (for example, Schein, 1972; Houle, 1980; Hoyle and John, 1995). While it can be questioned whether tertiary teaching meets all the features by which some writers define a profession, Downie (1990) described characteristics of a *professional* that are relevant to teaching. He also noted that the professional must be educated as distinct from merely trained. Issues commonly raised in the literature included education for professional work, and tertiary teachers as professionals, discussed below.

Education for professional work

Most of the literature on education for the professions is generic, not focussed on tertiary teaching itself as a profession (for example, Bines and Watson, 1992; Curry, Wergin and Associates, 1993; Taylor, 1997; Gonczi, 2001). Many papers raise issues that are relevant to consider, however, in relation to tertiary teachers as professionals. Common themes were pre-professional programmes, continuing professional development, and experiential learning that occurred outside formal programmes.

Baskett, Marsick and Cervero (1992) discussed approaches to professional education and proposed:

- Pre-professional programs that emphasise practical as well as theoretical knowledge;
- Legitimising practical knowledge, by helping professionals to articulate and share their repertoires of practical knowledge;
- Addressing contextual influences, such as working in diverse cultures.

While Baskett et al (1992) assumed the existence of pre-professional programmes, the literature records few such programmes for teachers in tertiary education. Baskett and Marsick (1992) acknowledged that much learning in professionals' careers took place

outside formal programmes, and noted factors such as: self-directed and self-planned learning; emphasis on practical knowledge and reflection-in-action; the social context; a cycle of learning over long periods of time. Farmer, Buckmaster and Le Grand Brandt (1992) suggested cognitive apprenticeship had value as an approach to continuing professional education. Cleminson and Bradford (1996) considered the relationship between academic (university-based) and experiential (work-based) learning for professionals. The value of the latter extended beyond immediate tasks to include the professional culture and workplace values and norms. Like Baskett et al (1992) they concluded that both formal academic programmes and less formal workplace mentoring were essential: "It is not sufficient to allow learning through practice alone" (p. 257).

Eraut (1994) discussed differences between people's personal working knowledge, and the formal, public knowledge base of their profession. He proposed four principles for professional education that could be applied to tertiary teachers and are consistent with the studies cited in the paragraph above:

- A significant part of the initial qualification must be performance-based.
- Initial blocks of propositional knowledge should be kept as short as possible, unless there are opportunities to use that knowledge in practice.
- Process knowledge of all kinds should be accorded central importance.
- There should be a clearly articulated approach to professional learning and development, linked to a system of initial and further qualifications (1994, p. 121).

Eraut observed that much teaching was done in comparative isolation, rather than collegial collaboration: "Most performing occupations offer considerable opportunity to observe master-performers at work both before and after initial training... Why then do teachers not get these kinds of opportunity?" (ibid., p. 38).

The work and influence of Schon (1983, 1987) should be noted in any discussion of professional education. Schon critiqued the notion of professionals as unchallengeable experts, and believed professional education should avoid being technician or instrumental. He therefore recommended reflective practice as a significant part of ongoing professional development. His concept of the reflective practitioner has continued to be explored and extended, and sometimes critiqued, in many works relating to adult and tertiary education, for example: Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985; Handal and Lauvas, 1987; Mezirow and Associates, 1990; Osterman and Kottkamp,

1993; Eraut, 1994; Brookfield, 1995; Smith, 1995; Elliott, 1997; Ferry and Ross-Gordon, 1998; Boud and Walker, 1998; Light and Cox, 2001; Kane et al., 2004.

The concept of reflection in tertiary education links to works on transformative learning (for example, Mezirow, 1991, 1997; Cranton, 1994a, 1994b, 1996); self-directed learning (for example, Candy, 1991); experiential learning (for example, Kolb, 1984; Weil and McGill, 1989; Boud, 1993; Brookfield, 1998); and intuition (Atkinson and Claxton, 2000). While acknowledging those works are relevant to and used by tertiary teachers, I will not go further into those areas in this review, mainly for length reasons.

Tertiary teachers as professionals

Most tertiary teachers are appointed on the basis of their prior occupational qualifications and/or disciplinary expertise and knowledge (Bok, 1991; Beaty, 1998; Knight, 2002), not because they are professional teachers. Johnston (1998) considered academics as 'learning professionals' and adopted Warren Piper's (1994) category of 'expert occupation'. Whereas some professions emphasised formal on-going learning, requiring it for continued registration, that situation did not apply to university staff. Most undertook no formal preparation for the teaching role, and few engaged in formal professional learning opportunities. Johnston noted a "commonly held assumption that teaching is not something that one learns about" (1998, p. 5), and suggested reasons for that assumption included beliefs that only poor teachers had something to learn, or that subject expertise was sufficient. Boice (1992) similarly observed: "On the whole, academe subscribes, however unwittingly, to social Darwinism. We expect people with the right stuff to succeed and those without it to fail" (p. 190).

Hativa, Barak and Simhi (2001), in a study of exemplary university teachers' beliefs, found that many lacked a systematic preparation for their teaching role, and that this could lead to fragmented pedagogical knowledge and unfounded beliefs about what made teaching effective. Other writers who have considered the nature of university teaching, and some reasons for a lack of status or professionalism, included Malcolm and Zukas (2000). They observed that, in many UK universities, staff and educational development had come from a training rather than an educational tradition. That had

“encouraged the idea that teaching is a separate and essentially different activity from research...” (p. 53).

Beaty (1998) referred to the “double professionalism” of higher education teachers, seeing discipline base and education as the two areas of professionalism. She emphasised that development through experience alone did not guarantee teaching quality or a professional approach, nor did one or two days of workshops: a more substantial programme leading to a form of accreditation was needed. Johnston (1998) proposed that factors needed in such a programme should include:

- Professional learning being seen as a normal part of the teaching role;
- An institutional context that supports learning associated with teaching;
- Bringing teachers together to consider teaching in collaborative settings;
- A programme of professional learning should be self-directed.

Those proposals complement the conclusions of Baskett et al (1992) and Cleminson and Bradford (1996) on professional education, and Eraut’s (1994) suggestions for professional education. They also provide an approach to addressing some of the concerns expressed about tertiary teachers’ preparation.

Studies of further education (FE) in the UK tended to take a different view of teacher professionalism. Elliott (1998) found most FE lecturers did not see themselves as belonging to a profession; but a looser use of the idea of “being professional” to indicate commitment, self-organisation and a certain status was evident in debates about working in further education. Hodkinson (1998) and Avis (1999) observed problems for FE teachers in seeing themselves as professionals when the nature of their work came under pressure from managerialist changes in their context. Hodkinson (1998) commented, however, that: “In many VET⁴ areas, too many staff have always lacked the breadth and insight as *educational* professionals to back up their ‘subject’ expertise” (p. 204, author’s emphasis). Clow (2001) argued that: “a cohesive view of professionalism could create a less exploited workforce and lead to an improved quality of teaching in FE” (p. 407). Robson (1998, 2000) and Robson, Bailey and Larkin (2004) noted problems of professional identity, as most FE teachers had previously become qualified and experienced in some other occupation. That, coupled with a

⁴ VET: Vocational Education and Training

limited amount of teacher training/education, had a strong influence on their transition into and adoption of the role of 'professional' teacher. Robson (2002) found that experienced FE teachers believed that much of their professional knowledge about teaching was tacit.

McCallin (1993) provided a New Zealand study of socialisation into a second career as teacher. She interviewed polytechnic nursing tutors, who had learned to act like teachers by engaging with colleagues and doing the work of teaching - a very different process from both their training as nurses and their professional work in a clinical environment.

Studies cited above (and in 2.3.3 following) thus show that, as a professional occupation, tertiary teaching has lacked some of the depth of preparation required by other professions such as medicine, law or engineering. While teachers may have gained substantial knowledge, expertise and experience in their subject-area domain, there has been little expectation of a similar level of preparation for the teaching domain. Baskett et al (1992) and Eraut (1994) argued that formal propositional learning needs to be matched by informal learning in the workplace. In tertiary teaching, however, the emphasis has arguably been mainly on the latter, with little agreement on the value of the former, or how and when it will be achieved. In effect, most tertiary teachers receive their 'teacher education' through forms of activity that would be considered 'professional development' in other professions, such as short courses, conferences, professional interactions, networking and learning by doing (Becher, 1996).

2.3.3 Excellent teaching, expertise in tertiary teaching

Many of the writers whose work is referenced in this sub-section have linked excellent teaching to academic staff development (see also section 2.4 below). Some discussed links with the institutions' quality assurance processes and evaluation of teaching. Key issues discussed below are: identifying excellent teachers, and ways of fostering and rewarding excellent teaching/teachers.

Identifying excellent teachers

Most studies identified excellent or exemplary teachers either by seeking nominations from peers (for example, Lowman, 1996; Centra, 1996; Ballantyne et al., 1999), or by focusing on those who had won teaching awards (for example, Dunkin and Precians, 1992). Some studies focused on the award processes themselves (for example, Warren and Plumb, 1999).

Dunkin and Precians (1992) compared award-winning university teachers with novice teachers. In a related paper Dunkin (1995) found that: “expert teachers differ from their less expert colleagues in the complexity and sophistication of their thoughts about teaching” (p. 23). He concluded that the differences between the novices and experts indicated developmental tasks to be achieved, and that such tasks could be used to give focus to staff development programmes. Johnston (1996a) also studied academics who had won awards; her conclusions challenged the assumption that externally imposed quality assurance measures would necessarily improve university teaching.

Andrews, Garrison and Magnusson (1996) asked colleagues to nominate excellent teachers for their study of teaching excellence in higher education. They concluded that excellent teachers:

- Seem to want to facilitate a deep approach to learning;
- Use instructional processes that are congruent with their preferred approach;
- Have values and beliefs (for example, honesty, integrity, genuineness, respect for self and students) that are foundational to a meaning approach to learning.

Rewarding and fostering excellent teaching / teachers

Gibbs (1995b) identified problems in common practices designed to reward and promote excellent teachers. One problem was the lower status of teaching when compared with research in promotion processes. He summed up: “The crucial question is how the promotion of excellent teachers can be undertaken in a way which will maximise the promotion of excellent teaching” (p. 81). Ramsden and Martin (1996) similarly found that many staff thought research was appropriately valued, but teaching undervalued. They concluded: “Successful schemes will require visionary leadership. They will build on existing academic values and expectations, combining changes to organisational climates with changes to reward systems and employment practices” (p.

299). Elton's (1998) discussion of ways of recognising and rewarding excellent teaching concluded that a trained teaching profession was essential and that, while individual teaching excellence was necessary, there must also be excellence at departmental and institutional levels.

Several writers identified problems in the ways that teaching might be judged. McLean and Blackwell (1997) proposed that "excellence in teaching resides in a reflective, self-critical, theoretically informed approach" (p. 85). That led them to criticise the 'inspection' methodology used by Teaching Quality Assessment teams in the UK. Magin (1998) raised concerns about approaches to documenting evidence in the recognition and rewarding of good teaching. Trigwell (2001) emphasised that the criteria used to judge teaching must be consistent with the criteria being used to develop teaching (such as being scholarly and being focused on student learning). Nicoll and Harrison (2003) expressed concern that professional development for teachers that took a "technical" approach might use standards of competence to "normalise and fashion what it means to be a good teacher" (p. 23).

Skelton's (2004) evaluation of the National Teaching Fellowships Scheme in the UK found there had been little debate about alternative interpretations of teaching excellence, and no strategy to date to use the scheme as a development mechanism. In New Zealand, national Tertiary Teaching Excellence Awards were instituted in 2002, resulting in two publications to date profiling national winners of awards (NZQA, 2002 and 2003), but no review of the effects of that scheme has been published yet.

Teaching as a form of scholarship

Boyer's (1990) work on the scholarship of teaching provided another perspective on recognition of university teaching, and ways of increasing its theoretical grounding and status. Later writers built on that work, particularly Glassick, Huber and Maeroff (1997), who proposed standards for evaluating the scholarship of teaching that paralleled those for other forms of scholarship. Badley (2003) suggested that the 'scholarship of teaching' framework was useful not only in evaluation, but also in providing guidelines for the practice of teaching. Trigwell and Shale (2004) proposed a

scholarship of teaching model that focused on “a reflective and informed act engaging students and teachers in learning” (p. 523).

Ronkowski (1993) also discussed ways of fostering scholarly teaching, especially among new faculty members. Ronkowski echoed many others in observing that much knowledge about teaching was tacit, developed over the years by trial and error, hindsight, intuition, and years of discovering which practices worked best. “Because teaching has not been recognised as a form of scholarship, accompanied by appropriate rewards and resources, faculty have traditionally practiced the teaching profession as bricoleurs (do-it-yourselfers)...” (pp. 80-81).

2.3.4 Implications for this study

Much of the discussion of excellent or expert teaching has been concerned more with ways of recognising it than with ways of developing it. Concerns were expressed that excellence in teaching was perceived by many university academics as being less important than their disciplinary expertise and excellence in research. Such views were generally already held in the communities that new teachers joined, and likely to be transmitted and kept alive through the process of social enculturation. Studies also suggested that many staff did not perceive their teaching as a ‘professional’ activity.

The literature on expertise, such as Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) and Glaser and Chi (1988), fitted well with the literature on professions and professional education, such as Eraut (1994, 2000); and together they could be applied to thinking about teaching as a professional activity. I see clear links between such studies and issues of workplace learning that are discussed below in section 2.5, especially when related to teachers as members of a professional community of practice.

Some studies (for example, Eraut, 1994; Johnston, 1998) included suggestions that formal education and development programmes should be provided to support tertiary teachers in learning their profession. Those proposals link to educational development (section 2.4, following). The extent to which engaging in teacher education and development is perceived as a professional responsibility (by both teachers and their institutions) will be a matter to consider further in this study.

There has been little attention in the literature to teachers' accounts of how their teaching expertise has developed, as they have gained experience during their careers. A number of writers noted teachers' lack of knowledge about learning and teaching, however, often linking this to limited professional education, and/or the greater status given to expertise in their discipline or former occupation. There were few New Zealand sources in this section, suggesting that teachers' perceptions of and attitudes towards expertise and professionalism should be considered in this study.

2.4 Educational Development for Tertiary Teachers

In this section the term *educational development* is used to mean development focussed on the teaching area of academics' work (also referred to in the literature as academic development, education/educational development, professional development or staff development). I also use *Educational Development Unit* (EDU) as a generic term for the centres, units or departments that provide such development. The sub-section topics following reflect issues perceived to be of significance to educational development in New Zealand institutions.

2.4.1 The nature of educational development

Directions in Staff Development (Brew, 1995) provided an overview whose contents were typical of the range found in publications on educational development in higher education. Brew's introduction set the scene:

Staff developers are essentially pragmatists, concentrating on the next meeting or the next course or consultation. The best of this work is informed by theories about the nature of human learning and curriculum, and by values about what a university is. More often than not these ideas are not articulated. In this book I have endeavoured to bring together examples and discussion of good practice... (pp. 1-2).

Brew acknowledged contextual influences on teaching and learning, and the many roles that developers undertook. Other chapters addressed topics such as action research, courses on teaching, staff projects, student feedback, or quality assurance: they focused more on practice than on underpinning ideas, except for a final chapter on areas of challenge (Boud, 1995). Boud identified two conceptions of staff development (his term): first as the "conscience of learning and teaching" (p. 204) in the university, and

second as a key institutional and personnel function. He summarised developments in learning theory that had implications for staff development – several relating to contextual learning in organisations had rarely appeared in the literature of tertiary teaching before that time, and can be linked to the work of writers such as Billett (1995, 1998a, 1998b) (see also sections 2.3.1 above and 2.5.3 below):

- Learning occurs whether there is formal instruction or not
- Learning is relational
- Learning that occurs away from the workplace may be necessary, but is intrinsically limited
- Learning in organisations is typically problem-oriented
- Learning in the workplace is a social activity that is influenced by the norms and values of the workplace
- Learners' expectations are a function of their prior experience
- Learning from experience requires attention to reflection and processing of experience (Boud, 1995, p. 209).

Weimer's (1996) introductory chapter in Menges and Weimer (1996) provided a theoretical underpinning for the rest of that book, emphasising the scholarship of teaching (Boyer, 1990). Other chapters, however, focused more on practical issues of college teaching in the US, thus echoing the pattern found in Brew (1995). The practical focus of Brew (1995) is also seen in Johnston and Adams' (1996) description of an EDU at an Australian university, whose work would be typical of many EDUs:

... a very busy programme of activities, such as workshops, seminars, the introduction of a student feedback service, individual consultations, collaborative projects with faculties and other groups, and input to policies and procedures through membership of committees. A regular newsletter informed about forthcoming activities and provided ideas related to teaching. Several resource booklets were produced to provide useful, accessible advice... (p. 22).⁵

A theme noted in several studies was the need for educational development to support the varied needs of academics. For example, Brew and Boud (1996) observed a growing need to support university teachers "being appointed from a greater range of backgrounds and types of experience and performing an increasingly diverse range of roles" (p. 17). They concluded that staff development needed to recognise the individualistic, autonomous nature of most academic work, and academic values held by established staff but not necessarily shared by newcomers. Thompson (1998) also

⁵ In another paper the same year, however, Johnston (1996b) discussed the difficulties many academic staff had in finding time to attend professional development activities offered by the unit described here.

linked professional development needs to the changing roles of academics. Stefani (1999) noted the diversity of backgrounds of the developers themselves, but observed that, while academic development was a diverse and complex profession, it was not highly valued at institutional or departmental levels.

Gosling (2001) reviewed the situation of EDUs in the UK, five years after an earlier study (Gosling, 1996). He listed their basic functions as some or all of: improvement of teaching, professional development of staff, organisational and policy development, and learning development of students. Gosling argued there was a need for more contestation of the notion of development (citing the influence of Webb, 1996a, 1996b) and a growing interest in the scholarship of teaching (citing Boyer, 1990, and Hutchings and Shulman, 1999). He therefore added two more EDU functions: informed debate about learning, teaching and the goals of education; and promotion of the scholarship of teaching and research into higher education. Fraser's (2001) study of Australasian academic developers' conceptions of their profession found a range of perspectives and functions among developers that complemented Gosling's findings.

Two writers who linked university staff development to the concept of organisational learning were Candy (1996) and James (1997). Candy (1996) argued that academic development in a learning organisation should be:

- Anticipatory rather than reactive;
- Research-based and theoretically rigorous;
- Exemplary in terms of modelling best practice in teaching/learning;
- Embedded in the institutional culture and context;
- Reflective, and encourage reflective awareness of practice; and
- Geared towards lifelong personal / professional development (p. 11).

James (1997) emphasised principles of organisational learning theory as a basis for staff development (similar ideas emerge later in Wenger, 1998, 2000):

The concept derives from a principally democratic view of organisation, placing faith in flexible structures and dispersed learning rather than hierarchical structures. The broad idea, therefore, is of an organisation able to change through the learning of its individual members (p. 36).

Two later books, Macdonald and Wisdom (2002) and Kahn and Baume (2004), and a special issue of the *International Journal for Academic Development* (2003) indicated continuing trends in educational development. The first focused on the contribution of

academic development to research and to changing teaching practices within subjects, departments and institutions. The second provided a more general overview of educational development practices, and can be seen as an update on Brew (1995). Stefani (2004) observed in its opening chapter that the move by most EDUs in the UK to offer qualifications in teaching for new staff meant that developers were “adopting a scholarly rather than a training focus” (p. 17). Articles in the third publication also referred to the research and scholarly work of academic developers. Thus while there was still a practice focus, as found earlier in Brew (1995), some new factors were emerging post-2000, such as a stronger interest in developing the research, scholarship and expertise of developers themselves.

There have been many journal articles (for example, in *Higher Education Research and Development* or *International Journal for Academic Development*) and conference papers (for example, from HERDSA conferences) that address educational development activities in universities. There are far too many to address here, so I represent them by one typical example, Sandretto, Kane and Heath (2002): this reported research evaluating a Teaching Intervention Programme offered by the EDU of a NZ university for novice academics, using videotapes as a basis for stimulated recall to help make tacit theories about teaching and learning more explicit.

Articles about educational development in further education have been fewer, and are more likely to appear in journals such as *Research in Post-Compulsory Education* (for example, Avis, 2002); *Journal of Vocational Education and Training* (for example, Bailey and Robson, 2002); or *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Vocational Education Research* (for example, Robson, 2002). A typical example is Harris, Simons, Hill, Smith, Pearce, Blakeley, Choy and Snewin (2001), discussing the changing role of staff development for teachers and trainers in Australian vocational education and training. A number of their findings reflected factors similar to those affecting polytechnics and PTEs in New Zealand: training and development provisions for permanent staff varied from those for casual or part-time staff; and time, access, lack of funding and lack of information were significant barriers for non-permanent staff.

There is also a body of literature that could be said to complement the work of educational development units.⁶ Such publications commonly include topics such as teaching techniques, course planning, assessment, supervision, evaluation, reflection, action research and so on; more recent examples add e-learning. Many, such as the SEDA series of books published by Kogan Page, have been written by educational developers (for example, Brown and Race, 1995). Such books can be used as references by developers when planning workshops, as texts in formal courses on teaching, or as ‘self-help manuals’ by individual teachers. Typical examples from higher education include: Ramsden (1992); Biggs (1999); Prosser and Trigwell (1999); Light and Cox (2001). Typical examples from adult and further education include: Ashcroft and Foreman-Peck (1994); Rogers (1996); Wallace (2001); Jarvis (2002); Armitage, Bryant, Dunnill, Hayes, Kent, Hudson, Lawes and Renwick (2003); Zepke, Nugent and Leach (2003).

Other materials used by developers include HERDSA’s *Checklist on Valuing Teaching and Challenging Conceptions of Good Teaching* (Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia, 1990, 1992), intended as research-based guides to good practice. Publications on specific topics are also common, such as mentoring (for example, Blackwell and McLean, 1996; Colwell, 1998; Harper and Sawicka, 2001) or developing teaching portfolios (for example, Edgerton, Hutchings and Quinlan, 1991; Weeks, 1996; Seldin, 2004).

The literature reviewed in this section showed that EDUs have become an established part of most tertiary education institutions, and that most fulfilled a range of functions as called for by their context. Some of those functions depended on their location, which is considered in the next section. What the literature did not reveal, however, was whether many academics used the services of their institution’s EDU at various stages in their careers; and whether many made use of the books and journals about teaching and learning instead of or as well as going to their EDU.

⁶ Weimer (1996, p. 1) has referred to “a virtual library of tomes, (some comparatively well known, most obscure) that are part of higher education’s pedagogy”.

2.4.2 The location of educational development

There has been considerable debate over whether educational development should be provided by a central institutional unit or distributed through departments, and whether it should be located in academic units, or in departments such as human resources, or varying combinations of those. Land (2001) suggested that developers could also be located “in terms of their tendency towards emancipatory purposes (critique) or domesticating purposes (institutional policy)” (p. 4). The following paragraphs indicate the types of issues that have been discussed.

Gibbs (1996) observed that most educational development was organised in centrally funded and staffed units; but universities also gave departments and disciplines considerable independence. Central EDU provision tended to focus on individuals attending workshops or seminars, and few events reached more than a small proportion of academics. Training in generic skills was also unlikely to address context-specific problems. Gibbs therefore proposed centrally-funded but departmentally-oriented educational development. Jenkins (1996) also argued for discipline-based educational development, “to have a significant impact on the broad mass of staff” (p. 50) and to address pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986, 1987).

Studies in the US literature have similarly emphasised activities that are best carried out within a department, for example, Quinlan’s (1996) discussion of mentoring, coaching, portfolios and teaching circles for involving faculty in peer evaluation and improvement of teaching. Richardson and Sylvester (1998), from a New Zealand polytechnic, proposed a strong central unit, to have critical mass in the institution, but decentralised provision. They agreed with Johnston (1997a) that there was a tension for staff in EDUs who were trying to balance individualised consultancy for academics against working to influence the wider institution. Issues of scale also influenced provision in a smaller institution such as a polytechnic.

Hicks (1999) analysed academic development in Australian universities using a framework with a central/local dimension and a generic/discipline-specific dimension. He concluded that the dominant form of education development still lay in central units’ generic programmes, although he advocated an integrated model offering both

local and central provision. The local/central balancing act was a difficult one, raising issues such as: whether central/generic activities provided more open access; whether local initiatives would give sufficiently comprehensive coverage; whether a local/discipline focus might subordinate teaching issues to the content of the discipline (p. 49).

Some discussions of departmental-level development made little mention of the involvement of an EDU. Boud (1999) suggested that while much informal academic development took place in academics' immediate professional settings (departments and research sites), more formal approaches could also be adopted in those settings, because "... it is in these sites that academic identity is formed and is most powerfully influenced" (p. 3). Knight and Trowler (2001), discussing departmental leadership, advocated continuing professional development (CPD) within departments. They saw learning as "situated and contexted... located in the daily operations of activity systems or communities of practice" (p. 147). They challenged the dominant centralised model, saying: "Central staff development provision can easily be ignored by the disengaged... The community of practice approach to CPD is about trying to distribute expertise among team members" (p. 150).

Ferman (2002) found that academics favoured collaborative, workplace-embedded forms of professional development, linking this to academics' limited time for engaging in development and to theories of situated cognition (Brown, Collins and Duguid, 1989) and learning in a professional practice context (Schon, 1983, 1987). Stefani and Elton (2002) supported development in disciplinary contexts by making a link to teachers' research interests. They concluded that convincing university staff that teaching was a problematic and therefore a researchable activity might best be achieved through teachers reflecting on problems in their own teaching, and then attempting to solve them in accordance with the culture of their discipline.

Radloff (2005) described a model of decentralised education development within a faculty (comprising four departments and a school). Its focus was on building staff capability, with links to the university's quality assurance framework. Institutional restructuring meant location was still an issue, however, and so "Some combination of

centralised and decentralised approaches will be the most likely outcome... A good decision depends very much on how well the senior leadership understand the kinds of capabilities staff need to support quality teaching and learning and operate as self-managing professionals..." (p. 87).

Some criticisms of the location of EDUs have related to their placement in administrative or personnel departments in some institutions. Malcolm and Zukas (2001) commented on the effects of this and suggested stronger links with education faculties were needed to avoid a technicist training and organisational development focus (p. 40). Rowland (2001) also argued that academic development would be enhanced if expertise were brought together from both EDUs and education faculties, noting a lack of academic credibility in institutions where development units had a 'support' positioning.

Overall, while there has been discussion of the merits of decentralised vs. centralised educational development, there has been little evaluation done that compares the effects of each (Hicks, 1999, p. 50). Arguments have been presented in favour of educational development based in disciplinary groups or departments, but little has been said about the strength of the teaching culture needed in such communities to sustain such development. Most arguments for decentralisation have come from university contexts, and may be less easily applied in smaller institutions. It appeared that most institutions still had centralised units (Hicks, 1999), although their staff might increasingly be working in a decentralised way with departments, not just with individual staff members. Most writers who proposed change favoured more dispersed, discipline-based development within a community such as a department.

2.4.3 Educational development through courses and qualifications

As well as providing initial and continuing development through short introductory courses, workshops and seminars, many tertiary institutions have developed formal qualifications for tertiary teachers (examples are discussed below). Most accounts suggest, however, that a very small proportion of academic staff actually participate in such courses. When Johnston (1996b, 1997b) studied how teaching-related professional development was prioritised and fitted into the busy working lives of university

lecturers, she found staff tended to respond reactively to occasional activities offered, rather than pre-planning their professional development or engaging in longer courses.

Courses for university teachers

Typical examples of Australian post-graduate programmes for university staff were discussed by Andresen (1995) and Brew and Barrie (1999). Brew and Barrie concluded that: “Courses which take the staff member away from their normal work context for the purposes of accreditation, need to also be relevant to the departments to which they return” (p. 42). Andresen noted positive participation and completion rates in a programme, but also that:

Study can present a severe test of academic self-esteem as participants who have become expert scholars in their own discipline experience the ignominy of being mere beginners in a totally new disciplinary area of the social sciences... (p. 50).

In the UK, the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA) established a Teacher Accreditation Scheme in the 1990s (Baume and Baume, 1996; Beaty, 1998). The SEDA scheme accredited programmes offered by universities in the UK, and had some influence in Australasia (Weeks, 1997; Wellington Polytechnic, 1998; Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia, 1997, 2002). The SEDA scheme also influenced the processes and standards for membership of the Institution for Learning and Teaching (ILT). The ILT was established in the UK in 1998, “to provide professional standing for teachers in higher education comparable to that in other professions” (ILT Planning Group, 1998, p. 1). Membership could be achieved by presentation of a portfolio (for existing teachers) or completion of an ILT-accredited course of study (for new teachers). Unlike the provisions of many professional bodies, ILT membership was voluntary and did not constitute a ‘licence to practice’.⁷

Fraser’s (2005) discussion of graduate university teaching programmes concluded that current programmes needed to take into account the growing research base on teaching in higher education, be accessible for academics at different stage of their careers, and acknowledge academics’ disciplinary teaching contexts. Fraser concluded, however, that funding structures that favoured research in recruitment, pay and promotions meant

⁷ In May 2004 the ILT was absorbed into the new Higher Education Academy. A membership scheme has continued.

that teaching as a profession was likely to remain under-valued in institutions, and so participation in courses on teaching would remain low.

In the USA, courses are often provided for teaching assistants (TAs), before they reach full academic appointments. Nyquist, Abbott and Wulff, (1989) discussed the training of such TAs, but noted the lack of adequate training and the complexity of the contexts in which they worked (p. 1). Ten years later Nyquist, Manning, Wulff, Austin, Sprague, Fraser, Calcagno and Woodford, (1999) found similar concerns still remained to be addressed.

While there have been a few studies of the effects of courses on teaching like those discussed above, no clear trends emerged. Findings reported in the following examples suggested that teachers' community contexts, personal attitudes and level of commitment need to be considered - factors that are not strongly related to the content or conduct of the courses.

Gibbs and Coffey (2004) reported a study involving academics from 22 universities in 8 countries. They found "a range of positive changes in teachers in the training group, and in their students, and a contrasting lack of change, or negative changes, in untrained teachers from the control group" (p. 87-8). Trowler and Cooper (2002) explored why some academics thrived on and benefited from programmes on teaching and learning, while others resisted or dropped out. Factors identified included people's expectations and perceptions, and the influence of practices and assumptions in teachers' home departments. Stefani and Elton (2002) evaluated a continuing professional development course, SEDA-accredited, which provided for individualised study through experiential, problem-based, open learning. They concluded that it suited academics "who wish to base their approach to learning and teaching on action research... but may well be too onerous for others" (p. 117).

Thus studies of courses for university teachers reported mixed effects, and few reported high numbers of staff participating.

Courses for teachers in further education

In the UK, CertEd(FE) programmes have been available for many years through pre-service, full-time study (one year) or in-service, part-time study (Robson, Cox, Bailey and Humphreys, 1995). Bathmaker (1999) and Zukas and Malcolm (2001) discussed the development and effects of standards set by the Further Education National Training Organisation (FENTO). Zukas and Malcolm (2001) observed that the FENTO standards paid more attention to social context and collegiality than did the ILT standards. From September 2001, government regulations required all FE teachers in the UK to gain teaching qualifications that met the FENTO standards, at one of three levels depending whether they were full-time or part-time teachers (Department for Education and Employment, 2000). Bailey and Robson (2002) discussed issues of registration bodies, 'qualified teacher status' and licence to practice, which to date had applied only in schools. Lucas (2004) concluded that while many recent developments in the 'FENTO Fandango' were welcome, there was a danger of over-regulating a sector that was "characterised by its diversity of learners and learning contexts" (p. 35).

Australian examples included Hall and Are (1991), Hall (1993) and Chappell and Melville (1995) on issues for technical and further education (TAFE) teachers. From the mid 1990s, however, changes in the nature of TAFE and in the employment conditions of its lecturers had reduced participation in teacher education (Brew, 2000). Chappell (2001) and Chappell, Solomon, Tennant and Yates (2002) noted an increase in the number of sites of vocational education and training (VET), with TAFE no longer the major provider, and different types and levels of qualifications appearing for VET staff. Widespread use of industry-developed training packages also had an impact on teachers and trainers. Santoro (2003) noted that perceptions of a training / teaching divide among staff in VET could be "counter-productive to their forging new identities in a changed education context" (p. 211).

A New Zealand study examined changes in polytechnic tutor training (Viskovic, 1993, 1995). From 1973 all new full-time tutors had been required to complete blocks of in-service training at a national training centre, with all costs centrally funded. After 1990 polytechnics became bulk-funded and responsible for their own teacher development. Since then teachers' access to tutor training had varied, depending partly on

institutional funding priorities and partly on the employment contracts negotiated at different sites. Subsequently, however, several polytechnics had established local certificates and diplomas in tertiary teaching, one established a BEd and MEd, and qualifications registered on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) also became available (Viskovic, 2000, 2001b).

Overall, the literature showed that tertiary teaching qualifications were available internationally in both further and higher education, ranging from short undergraduate certificates to post-graduate diplomas and masters degrees. The reported level of participation by teachers was often low, especially in universities, but could be higher in some areas of further education. Teachers' choices were mainly shaped by what was available and expected in their own institutional or national context. Patterns of course availability and teacher participation in New Zealand across a range of institutional contexts have not been reported to date, and so are of interest in this study.

2.4.4 Theories and critiques of educational development

Many of the studies of teaching and learning reviewed in section 2.2 above have contributed to the work of educational development units and their staff, and some have become texts used in courses on tertiary teaching. Preparing this review, however, confirmed my previous impression that up until about 2000/2001, when the data gathering for this thesis was carried out, there had been comparatively few studies that addressed theories or philosophies of educational development for tertiary teachers. Many studies were a-theoretical: Tight (2004) found a similar situation in the wider field of articles on higher education: "In the majority of cases, any theoretical perspective is only implicit, and broader engagement with theory is absent" (p. 395).

Those writers who have taken a more critical or analytical view of educational development have discussed a number of concerns or issues, such as the emphasis of developers on practice and their lack of explicit theorising (Webb, 1996c; Boud, 1999); a perceived 'surface' or 'training' focus on teaching skills and a lack of connection with wider educational and social values (Rowland, 2001; Malcolm and Zukas, 2001); the need for a scholarship of academic development (Badley, 2001; Eggins and Macdonald, 2003; Gosling, 2003; Knapper, 2003); and whether developers are members of a

profession or discipline or 'academic tribe' (Knapper, 2003; Bath and Smith, 2004). Thus since about 2000 there has been growing interest in looking beyond the pragmatic aspects of educational development. Some key ideas that are emerging are noted below.

Webb (1996c) took the position that "... 'development' is a site for contestation – it is not a unitary concept which we will one day provide a model for" (p. 32). He argued that staff development had needed to prove its essential and immediate practicality to its market, and that the practical had been valued over the theoretical, and especially the philosophical. In his experience, both 'practitioners' (tertiary teachers) and developers wanted answers rather than further questions. Webb went on to discuss staff development from a range of perspectives: he saw postmodernism, for example, as acknowledging multiple claims to understanding, and challenging staff developers to move out of their comfort zones of reflective practice, action research or phenomenography. Boud (1999) provided a summary of changing perspectives on educational development over the last 50 years or more, and, like Webb, noted the lack of explicit theorising during much of that time. Coming to the 1990s, he observed that the certainties of earlier times had been challenged, as academic work became more complex, differentiated and fragmented.

Rowland, Byron, Furedi, Smyth and Padfield (1998), Jenkins (1999) and Andresen (2000) debated the nature of educational development in a series of articles. Issues of teachers' primary disciplinary focus, engagement with students, the content and focus of central EDU courses, and the scholarship of teaching were raised. Rowland (2001) continued to challenge what he called "surface learning about teaching" (p. 162), and suggested that much that was written about teaching in higher education reflected a lack of connection with wider social values and purposes. Malcolm and Zukas (2001) linked recent growth in the literature of TLHE to the growth of staff development in British universities. They noted, however, that much of that literature was dominated by "psychological versions (particularly cognitive and humanistic) of the learner and teacher" (p. 35). Like Webb and Rowland, they found a lack of competing discourses, such as the sociological understandings they found in the adult education literature, or in critical writing on higher education as a social, political and economic institution.

Land (2001) explored notions of change that underpinned the ways in which academic developers (his term) in the UK practised in organisational contexts and cultures. From his analysis he developed a model of academic development that interwove developers' orientations, organisational factors and perspectives from the research literature. Land (2003) discussed the 12 orientations in more detail, and related developers' practice to Wenger's (1998) concept of "negotiation of meaning" in their organisational communities.

The concept of a scholarship of educational development and questions about whether developers are members of a profession or discipline of educational development have been linked in some studies. The concept of a scholarship of academic development was promoted by Badley (2001), who argued for "an eclectic and pragmatic model".

Echoing Rowland and Webb, he said:

... if academic developers wish to be regarded as full members of the academic community, as active participants in that conversation, then they must take themselves seriously as scholars and not operate as relatively unreflective practitioners (p. 162).

Eggs and Macdonald (2003) gathered a range of views on the scholarship of academic development and related research. A chapter by Gosling (2003) discussed philosophical approaches to development, challenging some of the assumptions underlying concepts such as 'scholarship of teaching and learning' and 'evidence-based practice'.

Discussion has continued on whether academic development has a sufficient theoretical base to be considered a profession, with Knapper (2003) concluding: "...the work of developers may become more firmly grounded in research on teaching and learning in higher education (what might be termed evidence-based educational development)" (p. 8). Bath and Smith (2004) saw developers as an 'academic tribe' (echoing Becher and Trowler, 2002) and defended the proposition "...that the discipline that academic development is part of, namely the discipline of *higher education*, is a legitimate academic discipline in its own right (p. 9).

Such discussions suggest EDUs and developers may be moving into a more soundly-based academic position within their institutions. While much of their day-to-day work may still be 'practical', increasing attention is being paid by some developers to

research, to offering formal academic programmes, to a sense of scholarship and collegiality among developers, and to the wider social and political context of tertiary education. The existence of well-established journals and professional associations⁸ supports the notion that there is now a distinct community or ‘tribe’ of developers across English-speaking countries, especially in universities. That provides a basis for developers to be recognised as peers by other academics, and more opportunity for them have an emancipatory role (Land, 2001) in their institutions, or to be the “conscience of learning and teaching” (Boud, 1995, p. 204). The argument for units to have an academic rather than general departmental status is strengthened, and issues of location can then be related to a unit’s philosophy of development, not simply to matters of custom or institutional convenience.

2.4.5 Implications for this study

This section of the review showed that educational development functions have been established in most tertiary education institutions, generally associated with some sort of central unit, and that those units are likely to provide a range of commonly accepted activities and services. Such provision is commonly linked to the practical needs of an institution and its staff, and any theoretical underpinning has tended to be tacit (and based on the teaching and learning literature) rather than explicitly stated. There has been discussion of matters such as the effects of the location of development; the central generic focus of many EDUs; and the desirability of providing accredited programmes. The literature reviewed suggests that gaining a qualification in teaching has remained voluntary for most teachers in universities, but may be required in some areas of further education. Certificates and diplomas, or portfolios leading to some form of accreditation, are the most common forms of recognition, but do not lead to professional registration. Writers such as Webb, Rowland, Land and Gosling have raised wider issues, but on the whole much of the literature has had a practical or pragmatic tone, suggesting that the work of many developers is more ‘domesticating’ than ‘emancipating’ (Land, 2001). Recent trends, however, indicate a more scholarly approach to educational development is emerging (Knapper, 2003).

⁸ HERDSA and SEDA have already been mentioned; the International Consortium for Educational Development (ICED) and Society for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education (STLHE) are further examples.

There has been considerable variation in the treatment of educational development for tertiary teachers, and once again the literature has been largely based in university contexts and outside New Zealand. Matters for consideration in this study therefore include the philosophy, purposes, functions and location of EDUs in different types of New Zealand institutions, particularly in relation to the ways they provide support for teacher development.

2.5 Workplace learning and community of practice

Unlike most school teachers, few tertiary teachers undertake a substantial pre-service training or education for teaching (Ramsden, Margetson, Martin and Clarke, 1995; Smith, 1995; Johnston, 1998; Robson, 1998; Laurillard, 2002). They therefore learn mainly on-the-job, after their appointment. Depending on their institution's practice, they may engage in various off-job courses and professional development activities related to their teaching. Most tertiary teachers work in a series of overlapping contexts or communities, such as their institution, discipline or profession, department, programme or teaching team, and classes.

Thus both workplace learning and teachers' social contexts or communities were of interest to me, and became central to this study because I found they had received little attention to date in research on tertiary teaching. Many of the key writings on workplace learning and community of practice came from non-education contexts, but their ideas were relevant to consider in relation to tertiary teachers' workplace learning.

2.5.1 Community of practice

The concept of *community of practice* has been referred to in some studies cited above (Billett, 1998a; Zukas and Malcolm, 1999; Knight and Trowler, 2001). Although they referenced Lave and Wenger (1991) and/or Wenger (1998), community of practice was not their central subject: it has been more fully discussed in studies I consider in this present section.

My main interest is in the concept of *community of practice* as discussed by Wenger (1998, 2000), because much of the focus of those studies was on learning in organisational communities, and so can be related to tertiary educational institutions.

The term had earlier been used, however, in Lave and Wenger's (1991) study of situated learning, legitimate peripheral practice and aspects of apprenticeship, which they associated with learning in communities of practice.

Legitimate peripheral participation and situated learning

Lave and Wenger (1991) studied forms of apprenticeship learning, which they linked to the concept of *situated learning*, and developed the related concepts of *legitimate peripheral participation* and *community of practice*. *Community of practice* they defined as "a set of relations among persons, activity and the world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities" (p. 98). *Legitimate peripheral participation* meant that newcomers to a community of practitioners were legitimately part of that community, gradually moving into full participation as they learned and contributed to the community's culture and practices. The concept also included the learning of old-timers, both from each other and from newcomers:

Legitimate peripheral participation refers to both the development of knowledgeable skilled identities in practice and to the reproduction and transformation of communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991, p. 55).

Lave and Wenger saw the learning of members of a community as *situated*, meaning that members were all learning by being part of (situated in) a social context of real practice, involving much more than just 'learning by doing'. *Situated* did not refer just to the location of people's thoughts and actions in space and time, or just to people 'receiving' a body of skills or factual knowledge about the world; rather it involved an emphasis on "activity in and with the world; and on the view that agent, activity and the world mutually constitute each other" (ibid., p. 33). That view of situated learning was consistent with the earlier work of Brown, Collins and Duguid (1989), who contrasted decontextualised school learning with the informal situated learning of craft apprentices and concluded that authentic activity was needed as part of the process of enculturation into a community of practitioners. "... knowledge is situated, being in part a product of the activity, context, and culture in which it is developed and used" (p. 32).

Other studies that have considered situated learning include Lave (1993), Brown and Duguid (1993) and Billett (1996). Lave (1993) discussed practice, learning and context as "situated activity", emphasising social engagement as a key element: "People in

activity are skilled at, and are more often than not engaged in, helping each other to participate in changing ways in a changing world” (p. 5). Brown and Duguid (1993) emphasised that “Situation is not simply the physical context - it has social connotations” (p. 13). Billett (1996) defined situated learning as: “... learning through goal-directed activity situated in circumstances which are authentic, in terms of the intended application of the learnt knowledge” (p. 263). He emphasised the importance of socio-cultural as well as cognitive factors in the development of knowledge and expertise.

In this study a synthesis of those positions leads to the use of *situated learning* to refer to the workplace learning of tertiary teachers, gained through participating together in social groups (communities of practice) in authentic settings, resulting in the acquisition and sharing of skills, knowledge, attitudes and values that are relevant to and applied in those settings (in tertiary institutions).

Cognitive apprenticeship

While Lave and Wenger’s (1991) work developed from studies of traditional craft apprenticeship, several other studies have focused more on the concept of *cognitive apprenticeship*. Brown et al (1989) drew comparisons between traditional and cognitive apprenticeship. Farmer et al (1992), cited above (page 22), related cognitive apprenticeship to continuing professional education. Cognitive apprenticeship was linked to helping adults learn by LeGrand Brandt, Farmer and Buckmaster (1993), as a supplement to traditional types of instruction and self-directed learning experiences. Referring to people’s need to learn to deal with “ill-defined, complex and risky problems”, they said: “Cognitive apprenticeship provides access to knowledge that traditional forms of instruction cannot offer. This is knowledge normally held tacitly about how to perform in the real world” (p. 167).

Bonk and Kim (1998) referred to cognitive apprenticeship in a discussion of socio-cultural theory in relation to adult learning. They noted that “In focusing on the context or activity, rather than the individual, socio-cultural theorists highlight the social aspect of learning and cognition” (p. 69). They listed a range of teaching methods suited to cognitive apprenticeship: modeling, coaching, scaffolding and fading, articulation,

reflection, and exploration, and noted that adult learning experts such as Apps (1991), Brookfield (1990) and Jarvis (1995) already espoused such teaching approaches for adult learners. Guile and Young (2001) also discussed apprenticeship as a social theory of learning, concluding that an advantage of that focus was that it “does not rely on behaviourist and individualistic assumptions about the learner or on a transmission model of teaching” (p. 62).

Cognitive apprenticeship can thus be seen as complementing traditional craft apprenticeship in providing another approach to workplace learning, including learning within professional occupations. Associating it with socio-cultural aspects of learning and performing in the real world also links it to situated learning and community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

Exploring concepts of community of practice

Wenger (1998) elaborated on the concept of community of practice that had been introduced in Lave and Wenger, 1991, and argued for it to be seen as a social theory of learning with four interconnected components: meaning, practice, community and identity. *Meaning* referred to people’s ability to experience the world and life as meaningful; *practice* to the shared frameworks and resources that support action; *community* to the social configurations in which enterprises are defined as worth pursuing; and *identity* to the way learning changes who people are within the context of their communities. While he referred (pp. 100-101) to the concepts of peripherality, legitimacy and situated learning developed in Lave and Wenger (1991), they were not a major concern of this work, but he continued to refer to ‘newcomers’ and ‘old-timers’.

Wenger talked about communities of practice thus:

We all belong to communities of practice. At home, at work, at school, in our hobbies – we belong to several communities of practice at any given time. And the communities of practice to which we belong change over the course of our lives... They are so informal and so pervasive that they rarely come into explicit focus, but for the same reasons they are also quite familiar (Wenger, pp. 6-7).

For Wenger, indicators of a community of practice were things like knowing who belongs; shared ways of doing things; sustained mutual relationships (which might be

harmonious or conflictual); rapid flow of information and propagation of innovation; knowing what others know and can do; jargon, shortcuts, local stories and inside jokes; ability to assess what is appropriate in a situation; shared discourse reflecting a certain perspective on the world.

Wenger distinguished between large organisations and communities of practice within them, and argued that placing the focus on participation had broad implications for what it takes to understand and support learning in communities of practice:

- For *individuals*, it means that learning is an issue of engaging in and contributing to the practices of their communities
- For *communities*, it means that learning is an issue of refining their practice and ensuring new generations of members
- For *organisations*, it means that learning is an issue of sustaining the interconnected communities of practice through which an organisation knows what it knows... (ibid., pp. 7-8).

Learning in practice involved several processes for communities and their members:

- evolving forms of mutual engagement;
- understanding and tuning a sense of joint enterprise; and
- developing their repertoire, styles and discourses (ibid., p. 95).

In considering the relationship between individuals and their communities, Wenger used the notion of *trajectories* to discuss people's change and movement over time and location. He saw practices in a community evolving as *shared histories of learning*, a combination of personal and collective experiences reified and intertwined over time. The temporal development of *identity* was critical: "We are always simultaneously dealing with specific situations, participating in the histories of certain practices, and involved in becoming certain persons" (ibid, p. 155). Encounters between different generations of participants (*newcomers* and *old-timers*) brought together different perspectives that contributed to the experience of the community.

Overall, Wenger (1998) developed a fuller view of communities of practice, and learning in such communities, than had Lave and Wenger (1991). This later view offered a way of interpreting the sorts of things that happen in communities, and recognising interacting influences, without imposing a rigid set of expectations. Such an approach fits well with the exploratory frame of mind in which I have approached this study. Wenger's identification of different implications for organisations and

individuals and communities within them also provides a useful framework for considering the workplace learning of teachers in tertiary institutions.

Organisations as social learning systems

Following Wenger (1998), several studies have focused on communities in large organisations. Brown and Duguid (1998) discussed the organisation of knowledge in firms, seeing it as the accumulated knowledge held in a community of practice. Wenger (2000) considered what organisations needed to do to “design themselves as social learning systems” (p. 225). Three constitutive elements of a social learning system were *communities of practice* (within a larger organisation); *boundary processes* among those communities (movement of members and exchange of ideas between communities); and *identities* as shaped by individuals’ participation in the systems. Wenger acknowledged that some communities could become insular and defensive; that boundaries could create divisions as well as positive exchanges; and that traditional management systems did not always foster the collegiality, reciprocity and negotiated learning that were the currency of a social learning system (p. 243).

Wenger, McDermott and Snyder (2002) discussed the ‘cultivation’ of communities of practice and their stages of development. They distinguished between communities of practice (evolving and ending organically, with fuzzy boundaries) and other workplace groups such as departments and project teams (with formal functions and clear boundaries). “Because communities of practice are organic, designing them is more a matter of shepherding their evolution than designing them from scratch” (p. 51).

Tertiary education institutions are organisations that have communities of practice within them, as discussed here and as shown by some of the literature on tertiary institutions (for example, Martin, 1999; McNay, 2000; Kogan, 2000; Knight and Trowler, 2001; Knight, 2002; Astin, 2003). I also see it as possible, however, for some formally established units such as departments to be perceived by members as being communities of practice. That perception is investigated in this study.

Educators' views of situated learning and community of practice

Gonczi (2001) took a positive approach to the concepts of community of practice and apprenticeship in education for the professions:

... the best way to prepare people for professional practice is through some form of apprenticeship - an educational process in which the exercise of judgement and the ability to act in the (professional) world would emerge out of the complex interactions to be found in a community of practice... (p. 2).

Eraut (2002) accepted Lave and Wenger's (1991) argument that participation in a community of practice was a good way to learn, but he questioned their proposition that it was the only way to learn. Laurillard (2002) critiqued a view of learning as situated cognition: 'authentic activity' was valuable, but she questioned the value of informal, situated knowledge on its own, if not complemented by some more academic, theoretical learning.

Thus, while situated learning in a community of practice was recognised in several studies, it was not necessarily sufficient as the only form of learning, and its efficacy could depend on a range of factors in the work context. Some learning situations offer exposure to only a limited range of the skills or knowledge that could be relevant, and 'learning to cope' may not lead people to seek fuller explanations for their practice or alternative ways of understanding. Similar concerns have been raised by Billett (1995) – see page 58 below. The sufficiency of informal workplace learning is an issue considered in this study.

Community of practice in academic communities

Studies of academic communities that specifically referred to community of practice (Wenger, 1998) have been few, but began to emerge from about 2000 onward. They included Malcolm and Zukas (2000), Trowler and Knight (2000), MacDonald (2001), Avis, Bathmaker and Parsons (2002), and Bathmaker and Avis (2005). These were all published after this study began, and widened the perspective I was able to bring to the interpretation of the case study findings.

Malcolm and Zukas (2000) discussed academics' multiple identities as members of several communities within the university, such as their disciplines, departments or

research groups. They noted that the work of Lave and Wenger, while encountered in some higher education discourse, and in practices such as mentoring, had not been widely explored in terms of implications for the learning of university teachers.

Trowler and Knight (2000) studied the experiences of new academic appointees in Canadian and English universities, and concluded that activity system theory (Engestrom, 1990) and the concept of community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) contributed to a fuller understanding of their findings. Some implications for practice included:

- The rational-cognitive model of learning needs to be supplemented by a situated learning model, making induction a departmental/team concern;
- Tacit knowledge cannot simply be transmitted, constructivist learning needs support.

Viskovic and Robson (2001) found that Wenger's ideas of identity and community related well to the development and professional identity of lecturers in FE colleges (UK) and New Zealand polytechnics. In the United States, the concept of Faculty Learning Communities has been promoted at Miami University (Cox, 2001) and linked to both Wenger's concept of community of practice and Boyer's concept of the scholarship of teaching.

Community of practice has thus been shown to be relevant to academic communities and their development, but not yet widely explored in those contexts. Situated learning, however, has been less often referred to.

2.5.2 Studies of academic communities or cultures

Many writers have discussed factors related to communities of tertiary teachers, but without specific reference to Wenger's (1998) concept of community of practice. This area of the literature includes studies of academic contexts and cultures; discussion of people's perceptions of collegiality or isolation; and examples of ways by which teachers and teaching can be supported in their academic communities.

Studies of communities in academic contexts

Many issues can become a focus for identifying a community of interest, and groups and cultures may overlap. A range of perspectives can be found – I will not examine

them in detail here. Examples from further and higher education in the UK and Australia include: Ainley and Bailey (1997), Hodkinson (1998), Avis (1999), Adams (1998), Trowler (1998), Martin (1999), Taylor (1999), McNay (2000), Becher and Trowler (2002), Silver (2003). Examples from the USA include Austin (1990), Angelo (1997), Baker (1999), Astin (2003), and Shulman (1993, 2004). Examples from New Zealand include: Fitzsimons (1997), Sutherland (1999), Perry (2000), Gilbert and Cameron (2002), and Taurima and Cash (2000). Common themes have been changes in institutional contexts and the ways that groups, as well as individuals within them, have responded. While these studies have referred to ‘communities’, Wenger’s notion of ‘community of practice’ has not been their focus.

Perceptions of collegiality in academic communities

Other writers have examined aspects of collegiality, both positive and negative, as perceived in modern academic life. Blunden (1996) identified possible conflicts between academics’ loyalties to discipline, students, colleagues, employing institution, and society, and therefore potential for ethical dilemmas. Massy and Wilger (1994) discussed “hollowed” collegiality, suggesting that fragmented communication patterns can isolate individuals, tight resources can strain faculty relationships, and prevailing methods of evaluation and reward can undermine efforts to create more faculty interaction. O’Neill and Meek (1994) examined academic professionalism and the self-regulation of performance, and found tension between quality assurance systems and individuals’ professional values.

Kogan (2000) studied higher education communities and academic identity, commenting that the use of the term “community” was “slippery” (p.207) and needed to be better defined. [I would define a community as: *An interacting group of people, with some common characteristics (such as membership of a profession) or shared interests.* The term can also be used in a more abstract sense to encompass a perceived *sense of community* held by such a group.]

Findings of conflict, negativity and tension found in such studies are consistent with Brown and Duguid’s (1993) observation that communities can be diffuse, fragmented and contentious, not necessarily warm and welcoming, and Wenger’s (1998) comment

that relationships in a community may be conflictual rather than harmonious. Kogan's linking of identity and community also echoes Wenger's work.

Promoting or supporting change in academic communities

While the writers above raised concerns about some characteristics of academic communities, others have focused on a need for culture change to support teaching and teachers. For example, Shelton and DeZure (1993) discussed a wide range of issues for college teaching in the USA, and concluded:

Improving college teaching and elevating its status will require changes in the prevailing culture of the academy, a culture that has become rigidly entrenched and resistant to efforts to change it. Long-term answers involve systemic changes in our institutional culture - not singular solutions limited to a Teacher of the Year Award or appointment of a low-budget Office of Instructional Effectiveness (p. 28).

The "solitude of teaching" was a focus for Hutchings (1994), who concluded that a change in campus culture was needed for faculty to become "professional colleagues to each other in teaching as they are in research" (p. 20). Willcoxson and Walker (1995) discussed valuing teaching as a strategy for changing the organisational culture of an academic department, but recognised that fundamental change in values and assumptions would occur only slowly.

Johnston (1997b) noted that academic work was often "a complex, individual and private activity" (p. 257), which needed to be acknowledged in professional development provision. Kraft (2000) echoed Massy and Wilger (1994) in talking of the isolation of faculty life in colleges in the USA, but found faculty who did want to connect. By contrast, sustained collegial development of a community culture over time can be seen in the example of Alverno College since the late 1970s (Mentkowski and Associates, 2002).

Several writers have observed that change may be more readily achievable at a departmental rather than institutional level. For example, Bishop and Graham (1997), in a study of the implementation of Treaty of Waitangi goals in a New Zealand university, found that running workshops with departmental groups was effective. Knight and Trowler (2000) explored the influences of departmental culture and leadership, and

concluded that exhortations for better teaching or learning would have little impact unless departmental cultures were conducive to better teaching. Cranton and Carusetta (2002) studied a newly-formed group of teachers implementing an integrated, cross-faculty curriculum, and found that: “Faculty who were discouraged by the traditional university culture found a place to belong, a place where teaching was valued and discussed” (p. 176).

Overall, many of the writers on higher education communities or cultures perceived academics’ disciplines or departments as their main communities, but few referred to a strong institutional or departmental sense of a *teaching* culture. Recognition of the effects of long-standing assumptions, the slowness of cultural change, and a need to strengthen community attitudes towards teaching were common themes.

2.5.3 Studies of workplace learning

The studies in section 2.5.1 on community of practice led me to a further exploration of learning in workplace settings. Most writers in this category had not investigated tertiary institutions as sites of workplace learning for their own staff.

Since the early 1990s there have been many general studies relating to workplace learning. Examples include: Billett (1995, 1996, 1998a, 1998b, 2004) on socio-cultural theories of workplace learning; Boud (1998), Garrick (1998) and Boud and Garrick (1999) on informal learning and current issues in workplace learning; Evans, Hodkinson and Unwin, (2002) and Rainbird, Fuller and Munro (2004) on trends in the UK and workplace learning in context. Eraut has written about tacit knowledge in professional work (2000), learning community (2002) and informal workplace learning (2004). Beckett and Hager (2002) discussed a postmodern view of learning, practice and judgement, and Hager (2004) examined conceptions of learning related to work. Fuller, Hodkinson, Hodkinson, and Unwin (2005) revisited the notion of legitimate peripheral participation. Typical issues discussed in those studies included: the effects of changing work contexts; effects of culture, gender and the politics of equity; apprenticeship; experience, expertise and tacit knowledge; lifelong learning; individual vs. social learning; know-how and the development of practical judgement. Some examples particularly relevant to this study are discussed below.

Defining terms and recognising categories of workplace learning

Marsick and Watkins (1990, 2001) differentiated between formal, informal and incidental learning. They saw *formal* learning as classroom-based and highly structured, though not necessarily assessed or leading to qualifications; *informal* learning was not classroom-based, but intentional and learner-controlled; and *incidental* learning was a subset of informal, arising as a by-product of some other activity. Examples of informal learning included self-directed learning, networking, coaching, mentoring; incidental learning could arise from task accomplishment, interpersonal interaction, sensing the organisational culture, trial-and-error experimentation, or even during formal learning.

Eraut (2004) discussed *informal* learning in the workplace in similar terms, saying it provided a contrast to *formal* learning (which was highly structured and often led to qualifications), took place in a wider range of settings, and recognised the social significance of learning with and from other people. He also noted that informal learning was often invisible, taken for granted or not recognised: the resultant knowledge was either tacit or regarded as part of a person's capability, rather than learned. Discourse about learning was dominated by codified,⁹ propositional knowledge, and so people often found it difficult to describe expertise arising from informal learning. Hager (2004) considered that much writing on workplace learning had tended to take the notion of learning as unproblematic, shaped by people's understandings of learning in formal educational situations. As a result, views of learning as a product rather than process had distorted attempts at understanding, and tacit learning tended to be regarded with suspicion.

This study uses Marsick and Watkins' (1990) meanings for *formal*, *informal* and *incidental* learning in reporting the case studies.

⁹ Eraut (2000, pp. 113-4) referred to two parallel types of knowledge: *codified* knowledge: explicit, public, propositional knowledge, associated with formal learning and qualifications; and *personal* knowledge: personal codified knowledge plus procedural, process and experiential knowledge, both explicit and tacit, often associated with informal learning.

Apprenticeship and factors influencing workplace learning

Traditional apprenticeships for skilled tradespeople have involved three key dimensions: a contractual framework, socialisation into workplaces and roles, and associated formal and informal on- and off-job learning experiences. Lave (1996) challenged the conventional perception of apprenticeship as “impoverished simple non-creative task learning” (p. 154), arguing that situated learning was not inferior to the decontextualised learning that takes place in formal study. Billett (1995) supported apprentice-type learning as seen in trade training or the internship of novice doctors; but he acknowledged factors that could limit its efficacy, such as the reluctance of experts to provide mentoring or coaching, absence of expertise, and limited access to some workplace activities. Writers who have linked the notion of apprenticeship to professional occupations include Gonczi (2001), cited earlier, and Beckett and Hager (2002), see following subsection.

Billett (1998b) discussed factors to be taken account of in adult workplace learning, including findings that:

- Individuals’ construction of knowledge appears to be based on their idiosyncratic personal histories;
- Engagement in particular activities is likely to result in the construction of particular forms of knowledge;
- The types of activities that individuals engage, and the particular circumstances, influence learning and transfer (pp. 269-270).

Tennant (2000) identified skills and attitudes required for learning from experience in the workplace, including the ability to: analyse workplace experiences; learn from others; act without all the facts available; choose among multiple courses of action; learn about organisational culture; and understand the competing and varied interests in the shaping of one’s work or professional identity.

Where people in a professional occupation such as tertiary teaching are learning in a workplace setting, then an apprenticeship-type arrangement would be an appropriate form of support at an early stage in their new appointment, and experiential learning skills developed in previous workplaces may well be drawn upon.

Balancing informal and formal learning

Beckett and Hager (2002) discussed know-how, practice and practical judgement in the work of professionals. They argued that much academic writing in the past, by ignoring apprenticeship as a mode of adult learning, had rendered learning-by-doing “invisible” (p. 14). They proposed a model of vocational formation “in which well-supported mixtures of formal and informal learning contribute to the development of productive, postmodern practitioners” (p. 191).

Fuller and Unwin (2002) also recommended formal studies to complement informal workplace learning, citing Engestrom (1994) for support: “...most of everyday learning consists of conditioning, imitation and trial and error. Investigative deep level learning is relatively rare without instruction...” (Engestrom, 1994, p. 48). Fuller and Unwin identified five broad models of pedagogy for the workplace: transmission; competence-based learning and assessment; informal acquisition of tacit skills; learning through participation in a community of practice; and a model based on Engestrom’s activity theory.

These two studies thus complement earlier work (Baskett et al, 1992; Eraut, 1994; Cleminson and Bradford, 1996; Johnston, 1998) that recommended that both informal workplace learning and formal programmes were needed in the education of professionals.

Individual agency and power relations in workplaces

Eraut (2002) discussed *learning community* and *community of practice* as concepts for researching learning in workplace settings. Learning from other people and through overcoming the challenges posed by the work itself were inter-related, and depended on factors such as the frequency and nature of interpersonal encounters, and the nature and structure of work. In a dysfunctional community, the role of individual agency might be ignored. Rainbird, Fuller and Munro (2004) emphasised that: “In the workplace, the nature and focus of strategic decisions, power relations and the employment relationship are central to understanding the opportunities and constraints on learning” (p. 2). Rainbird, Munro and Holly (2004) acknowledged the value of social learning through participation in work, but critiqued Lave and Wenger’s theory of situated

learning for its lack of analysis of the power relationships that underpinned workplace practices.

Billett (2004) also drew attention to individual agency, arguing that participation in workplace learning depended on two related factors: the extent to which individuals had the opportunity to participate in activities and interact with co-workers, and the extent to which individuals chose to engage in the opportunities that were available. Measures to protect continuity of the workplace or the interests of particular groups often underpinned the structuring of both opportunities and barriers to learning.

Overall, studies of workplace learning or organisational learning contribute positively to developing an understanding of tertiary teachers who are learning to teach in institutional settings. The work of writers such as Beckett and Hager (2002) or Fuller and Unwin (2002) suggested that while informal workplace learning was important, it should be balanced by some more formal learning. Similar proposals had been reported in regard to education for professions (section 2.3.2, above). Communities of practice can be positive settings for workplace learning, providing opportunities for social learning and the acquisition of tacit knowledge. The effects of power structures and issues of individual agency, however, also need to be considered in relation to workplace learning.

2.5.4 Implications for this study

The ideas discussed in this section of the review, especially those relating to communities of practice and workplace learning, are relevant to understanding the learning of tertiary teachers, both new and more experienced. The informal learning of newer tertiary teachers could well be described as a form of unstructured professional apprenticeship. A tertiary teacher's 'apprenticeship' involves not only gaining knowledge of education and teaching, but also social enculturation, and the development of skilled practice and a workplace identity. The nature and influence of the groups in which tertiary teachers work need to be considered in relation to the literature on communities of practice (Wenger 1998), as well as the ways by which meanings and practices are transmitted, maintained and contributed to in their

workplaces. Related concepts to consider include cognitive apprenticeship (Farmer et al, 1992), and identity formation, trajectories and boundary-crossing (Wenger, 1998).

While the discourse of community of practice and workplace learning has been addressed in this fifth section of the literature review, only a few papers in the first four sections applied such concepts to the learning of tertiary teachers. Other terms related to workplace learning that rarely referred to in the earlier sections of this review include: authentic activity, enculturation, apprenticeship, socio-cultural practice, informal and incidental learning, know-how, practical judgement, and learning organisation. Some other terms referred to did arise in the literature of one or more of the earlier sections, such as self-directed and experiential learning, reflection, mentoring, competence, expertise, the culture of an academic department or institution, collegiality and isolation.

In the literature of this section I have recognised concepts that intuitively ‘make sense’ of many of my own experiences as a tertiary teacher and as an educational developer. I am surprised that some of these ideas have not been more widely taken up as a basis for examining the support given to tertiary teachers, especially newcomers to a community. Perhaps it is a matter of identifying and re-visiting tacit assumptions about ‘the way we do things here’ in tertiary institutions: these may not have been given high priority during a period of major changes and external pressures. I also note that a number of the publications that most interested me have appeared from about 2000 onwards, after this study began, suggesting a recent growth in awareness of such issues.

Community of practice is an important factor in workplace learning, and must be considered in any study of the informal learning of tertiary teachers. Tertiary teachers’ membership of multiple communities (such as institution, department, work group, discipline, or profession) is also an issue to consider, as they may find differing views on teaching within those communities.

2.6 Conclusions and research questions

In continuing the literature review since this study began I have had the opportunity to connect ideas from many different sources and perspectives. As Nelson (1987) said,

“Everything is deeply intertwined” (p. DM31). Many of the writers and researchers whose work I cited have focused on a particular area of interest, while I have had the luxury of moving in many directions, discovering and reflecting on ideas from different contexts and perspectives. As a learner I have been in ‘travelling’ mode – but eventually I have to stop and make sense of all these experiences. As a teacher I want to know what I will do when this journey is over: will I have made connections that will be useful in my own practice in courses for tertiary teachers, or useful to policy makers, departmental initiatives or educational development units in other New Zealand tertiary institutions? Will I have a fuller understanding of how people become tertiary teachers here?

This review has shown that a wide range of literature exists, yet, despite that plethora of material, there are knowledge gaps. A number of studies suggested that many tertiary teachers do not receive a substantial education for their teaching role, and that their teaching-related continuing professional development is also not extensive. Some factors identified as contributing to that situation included the perceived low status of teaching, compared with research and disciplinary expertise, in some institutions; and varying levels of commitment to teacher education and development found in some institutional cultures. Anecdotal evidence suggested that a similar situation might be found in New Zealand, but no study had investigated that at the time this research project began.

Other gaps in the literature included a lack of studies of other factors that might influence tertiary teacher development, especially those related to teachers’ more informal, on-the-job learning. Few researchers had applied the concepts of situated learning and community of practice (Wenger, 1998) to the workplace learning of tertiary teachers. Few had studied within one project the perceptions and experiences of teachers across different types of institution. Few had asked experienced tertiary teachers to look back and talk about how they became teachers. None had considered such factors in relation to the New Zealand context, and none had asked about the effects of other influences specific to New Zealand institutional contexts, such as social and structural changes since about 1990. Such factors contributed to the particular focus

of this study, and the identification of the following research problem, purpose and key questions.

Research problem:

There is a lack of literature reporting studies of people's development as tertiary teachers, especially in New Zealand institutions. This needs to be investigated, because it is important to me as a teacher that tertiary education in New Zealand be more fully researched to provide a sound base for a professional approach to teaching and learning.

Research purpose:

The intention of this study is to explore how people become tertiary teachers in New Zealand. To achieve that goal, there is a need to know more about how tertiary teacher education and development are provided for, and how some experienced tertiary teachers have progressed since their entry to the job. A key purpose of this thesis is therefore to describe and explain some processes by which people become or develop as tertiary teachers in New Zealand, in a range of different institutional contexts.

A further purpose is to produce findings that can contribute to future planning and provision of tertiary teacher education and development in communities of teaching practice. This research alone will not be sufficient for that purpose, and should be considered alongside other New Zealand projects, such as research into student outcomes, and research into the evaluation of teaching effectiveness or quality.

Research questions

Key question: **How do people become tertiary teachers in New Zealand?**

Sub-questions:

- A. What is teaching like in some typical tertiary institutions in New Zealand?
- B. What do some experienced tertiary teachers in selected departments in those institutions say about how they have developed as teachers?
- C. What provision do those institutions currently make for the teacher education and development of their academic staff?

Those research questions are the focus of the research approach, planning and implementation that are discussed in Chapter Three.

Chapter Three: Research Framework, Method and Process

This chapter addresses the research approach adopted in this study, and the way in which the research questions arising from the literature review have been dealt with through the research design and implementation.

The overall problem identified at the end of the literature review was that many tertiary teachers did not appear to receive substantial support for their educational development as teachers. Research questions were developed to explore factors that could illustrate or explain that situation, especially in relation to New Zealand tertiary teachers. Further consideration added the related questions shown here:

Key question: How do people become tertiary teachers in New Zealand?

Sub-questions:

A. What is teaching like in some typical tertiary institutions in New Zealand?

Related questions:

1. What do representative institutions' public statements and policies say about teaching and teachers?
2. What do some of their experienced tertiary teachers say about teaching?
3. What do their educational developers say about teaching?
4. What are some differences and similarities in perceptions of teaching found in those institutions?

B. What do some experienced tertiary teachers in those institutions say about how they have developed as teachers?

Related questions:

1. What have been their experiences of teacher education and development?
2. What other experiences do they perceive have contributed to their development of teaching knowledge, practice and identity?
3. What are their perceptions of working in a community of teaching practice?

C. What provisions do those institutions make for the teacher education and development of their academic staff?

Related questions

1. How do the policies and procedures of those institutions support or constrain staff in their development as teachers?
2. How do the educational development units in those institutions support or constrain staff in their development as teachers?

3. What do their educational developers say about supporting teacher education and development?
4. What are some influences in the contexts of those institutions that may encourage or inhibit teacher development?

Personal factors I brought to this inquiry need to be acknowledged here. Before embarking on the initial literature review I already had a field of interest in mind, arising from many years of working in educational development and tertiary teacher programmes. That field influenced the choice of literature to survey, which in turn influenced the identification of the research problem and questions. As Stake (1995, p. 49) has said, data gathering begins “before there is commitment to do the study: backgrounding, acquaintance with other cases, first impressions”. Erlandson, Harris, Skipper and Allen (1993, p. 60) also noted the influence of a researcher’s “value orientation... and preconceived notions about the topic and reasons for the study”.

My attitude to my own learning, the way I prefer to teach, and the ways I tend to deal with other people indicate a frame of mind or world-view that I would call mainly interpretive / constructivist. I like to take an approach that accepts different perspectives, that draws on a range of theorists or experiences to consider different sorts of issues, situations or problems, and that does not necessarily expect single, precise solutions. I enjoy exploring possibilities and seeing what connections I can make. I am concerned not just with understanding ideas but also with how I can apply them in my work, or share them with others for whom they may ‘make sense’ or be useful. Other words I could use to describe my approach would be pragmatic or eclectic. I recognise that intuition and reflection are important in my way of perceiving and understanding the world. This description of my position is thus compatible with that taken by

Erlandson et al. (1993):

... there is not a single objective reality but multiple realities of which the researcher must be aware. Extended research leads to a rich awareness of divergent realities rather than to convergence on a single reality (p. 11).

The following major sections of this chapter deal with:

- 3.1 Qualitative research
- 3.2 Case study research
- 3.3 Research design
- 3.4 Implementation

3.1 Qualitative research

To answer the main research question and sub-questions, a framework or paradigm was required that would look for descriptions and explanations relating to human situations and people's perceptions of and responses to some of those situations. Given the field of interest, the researcher's worldview, and the nature of the research questions, a qualitative, interpretive approach to the project was indicated and justifiable in terms of Denzin and Lincoln's (1998) description of qualitative research:

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. Qualitative research involves the studied use and collection of a variety of empirical materials... qualitative researchers deploy a wide range of interconnected methods, hoping always to get a better fix on the subject matter at hand (p. 3).

Qualitative research emphasises the process, meaning and understanding of the phenomena studied (Merriam, 1998). Some differences in terminology can be found in the literature. Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 105) referred to a qualitative research *paradigm*, defining a paradigm as "the basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigator"; they noted that the comparative utility of qualitative and quantitative methods and data was a completely separate issue. Bogdan and Biklen (1998, p. 32) discussed qualitative research as a *methodology*, which they defined as "the general logic and theoretical perspective for a research project". Tesch (1990, p. 43) suggested that *naturalistic enquiry* was a term parallel to the term qualitative research. Merriam (1998, p. 3-4) referred to research *orientations* or paradigms, identifying three basic orientations: positivist, interpretive and critical (as defined by Carr and Kemmis, 1986). Denzin and Lincoln (1998, p. 5) referred to qualitative research as a set of interpretive practices, with no distinct set of methods that were entirely its own. They identified 'constructivist-interpretivist' as one of four major interpretive paradigms that structure qualitative research, drawing on Schwandt's (1994) view of constructivism and interpretivism as qualitative approaches to human inquiry:

Proponents of these persuasions share the goal of understanding the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who

live in it... The constructivist or interpretivist believes that to understand this world of meaning one must interpret it (Schwandt, 1994, p. 118).¹

In terms of Merriam's three orientations, an interpretive approach, within an overall qualitative framework, best fitted both the researcher's frame of mind and the nature of the research questions being addressed. A positivist approach, working with prior hypotheses, controlled variables and quantitative data, would not have been appropriate to address the research questions posed in this study. There were too many possible variables, and not enough existing data about them, to support the development of an hypothesis for such an approach. Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 106) have critiqued the 'received view' of the positivist research paradigm, noting features such as: lack of contextual detail when studies are located in a laboratory; exclusion of meanings that people give to their actions; exclusion of discovery by the emphasis given to prior hypotheses; assumed independence and objectivity of an observer. Acknowledgement of those factors supported the decision that a positivist approach was not appropriate for this study. Similarly, while the research questions sought for explanations of situations found in educational institutions, the overall research intention was not based upon an ideological critique of power, privilege and oppression in educational practice: thus this study would not be described as critical research.

3.1.1 Characteristics of qualitative research

Characteristics of qualitative research have been discussed by a number of writers, such as Bogdan and Biklen (1998), Denzin and Lincoln (1998), Eisner (1998) and Merriam (1998). Major characteristics relevant to this study are addressed in the following paragraphs.

Qualitative studies are interpretive in character

Eisner (1998) saw the interpretive character of qualitative research as a major distinguishing feature, and noted 'interpretive' had two meanings in relation to research:

First, it means that inquirers try to account for what they have given an account of... in short, one meaning of interpretation pertains to the ability to explain why something is taking place...

¹ Schwandt (2000) further discussed a variety of approaches to achieving interpretive understanding, and identified two dimensions of *Verstehen*: on one level, the process by which all of us in everyday life interpret the meanings of our own actions and those of others with whom we interact; and on another level a method (peculiar to the social sciences) by which the researcher seeks to understand the primary process.

A second meaning of interpretation pertains to what the experience holds for those in the situation studied... (p. 35).

Stake (1994) discussed the interpretive process particularly in relation to case studies, the research method adopted in this study, using the term 'reflective' instead of interpretive:

The brain work ostensibly is observational, but more basically, reflective... In being ever reflective, the researcher is committed to pondering the impressions, deliberating recollections and records (p. 242).

Researchers are encouraged to include their own personal perspectives in the interpretation... The quality and utility of the [case study] research is not based on its reproducibility but on whether the meanings generated, by the researcher or the reader, are valued. (ibid., p. 135).

The overall intention of this study has been to seek out meanings, links, patterns and explanations, and so to produce a researcher's interpretation that will make sense to other readers, including the participants and others in similar contexts.

Naturalistic or field-focused research settings

The research questions in this study include matters related to the institutional contexts of tertiary teachers, and thus indicate the desirability of data gathering from participants in their own settings: "...qualitative researchers observe, interview, record, describe, interpret, and appraise settings as they are" (Eisner, 1998, p. 33). As well as gathering verbal data from participants, a field study enables their surroundings and some of their interactions to be observed, and comparisons to be made between different contexts. "Qualitative researchers go to the particular setting because they are concerned with *context*" (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 5, authors' emphasis).

Descriptive data and reporting

Most of the data required to answer the research questions of this study needed to be verbal, rather than numerical, and therefore derived from sources such as interviews, documents and observations. Thus descriptive data would be available both for analysis and to use in illustrating and substantiating the final reporting of the study (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 5). Merriam said "The product of a qualitative study is richly descriptive" (1998, p. 8), and noted factors that could be treated descriptively, such as:

the complexities of a situation, the influence of personalities, information from varied sources, differences of opinion, or changes influenced by the passage of time (ibid., p. 29). Purposive sampling can be used to identify interview participants likely to be sources of rich data: Tesch (1990, p. 44) noted that this practice is common in qualitative research.

Two factors closely related to the use of rich description are *attention to particulars* and *use of expressive language* (Eisner, 1998). In reporting this study, descriptions of specific examples and quotations from participants have been drawn from the data, in order to present some of the meaning, relevance or 'flavour' of situations, individuals or events.

Concern with process and meaning

Search for meaning is closely linked to the interpretive aspect of research. Qualitative researchers are concerned with process rather than simply with products or outcomes, and with participants' meanings as well as those of the researcher: "How do people negotiate meaning?... How do certain notions come to be taken as part of what we know as 'common sense'?" (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 6). "Qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality..." (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998, p. 8). Seeking participant perspectives was important in the search for meaning in this study. Data gathering through interviews enabled questioning to probe beyond initial responses, to seek explanations from participants of how and why things happened, how they reacted, what they felt, what they understood about situations. After interviewing, transcripts were returned to participants for comment, and draft case study chapters were sent to key informants at each site: this was done both to check that the meanings identified by the researcher were fair and clear to others, and to enable participants to add to or amend what they had contributed.

Self as a research instrument

The researcher's role in qualitative research becomes that of 'research instrument', especially at the data gathering stage through asking questions, listening, observing, probing and recording. "While the researcher may use a variety of instruments to gather data, the primary research instrument is the researcher" (Erlandson et al., 1993, p. 16). Subsequent analysis of data and interpretation of the findings involve "the researcher's

insight being the key instrument for analysis” (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 4). Eisner (1998, p. 5-6) has similarly referred to the researcher’s “sensibility and perceptivity” and ability “to see what counts”. The subjectivity of the researcher in a qualitative study therefore needs to be acknowledged, with personal insights being supported by evidence and reasons, and, in this study, by my use of the first person in writing the case studies, rather than adopting an apparently neutral stance using the third person.

Inductive approach to analysis

Whereas positivist researchers collect evidence to prove or disprove a prior hypothesis using deductive methods, “Qualitative researchers tend to analyze their data inductively... the abstractions are built as the particulars that have been gathered are grouped together” (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 6). “Qualitative researchers build towards theory from observations and intuitive understandings gained in the field” (Merriam, 1998, p. 7). Neuman (2000, p. 145) links induction to the use of grounded theory, saying that a qualitative researcher “begins with a research question and little else. Theory develops during the data collection process. This more inductive method means that theory is built from data or grounded in the data”.

Criteria for judging the quality of qualitative research

Criteria for judging qualitative research differ from those applied to quantitative research (validity, reliability, objectivity and statistical generalisability). Denzin and Lincoln (1998, p. 27) proposed *trustworthiness, credibility, transferability and confirmability* as criteria for constructivist/interpretive research. Eisner proposed different labels but similar ideas - *coherence, insight and instrumental utility* - saying that “in the end, what counts is a matter of judgement” (1998, p. 39).

Kvale (1996) noted three forms of generalisation: *naturalistic* (resting on personal experience); *statistical* (formal and explicit, based on random sampling); and *analytical* (involving reasoned judgements about the extent to which the findings from one study can be used as a guide to what might occur in another situation). By specifying supporting evidence and making arguments explicit, the researcher can allow readers to judge the soundness of the analytical generalisation claim.

The understanding of verification starts in the lived world and daily language where issues of reliable observations, of generalization from

one case to another, of valid arguments, are part of everyday interaction (Kvale, 1996, p. 231).

Analytical generalisability (Kvale, 1996) was identified as the main concern in this study, with credibility (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998) and coherence (Eisner, 1998) also being addressed. Provisions for testing those factors were included in the research planning, particularly through providing for participant and peer review at various stages of the process.

Both the overall qualitative framework / paradigm and the implications for practice associated with qualitative research characteristics, as presented above, support the approach that has been taken in this study. Analytical generalisability offers the potential for the researcher's conclusions to be of value to the participants and their institutions, and also to other people in similar contexts.

3.1.2 Qualitative research methods

This section addresses the selection of an appropriate research method to investigate the research questions of this study. Tesch (1990, p. 58) identified over 40 types (methods) of qualitative research, which she mapped under four broad headings:

- Characteristics of language (e.g. discourse analysis, symbolic interactionism)
- Discovery of regularities (e.g. grounded theory, phenomenography, action research, educational ethnography, qualitative evaluation)
- Comprehension of the meaning of text/action (e.g. phenomenology, life history, hermeneutics, case study)
- Reflection (e.g. educational connoisseurship, heuristic research).

Given the nature of the research questions in this study, seeking to explore and understand people's experiences and social contexts, I considered the third group more fully. Case study was selected as the most appropriate method to collect and analyse data that would address the research questions in this study. Tesch (1990, p. 69) noted that case study researchers could concentrate on a single case, or aggregate several individual cases in one research report: the latter approach has been used in this study. The rationale for this is explained in section 3.2.

3.2 Case Study Research

Many writers on qualitative research have referred to case study as a method commonly used for inquiries that relate to people's experiences in a range of social settings (in this study, teachers in tertiary institutions). The following discussion draws particularly on the work of Yin (1994); Stake (1994, 1995); and Merriam (1998). In a continuum of their positions on case study research, Yin (with no stated commitment to qualitative or quantitative purposes) would be at the more structured end; Merriam (qualitative) at the more open-ended, flexible end; and Stake in an intermediate position (but more qualitative than quantitative).

“A case study is an empirical study that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context” (Yin, 1994, p. 13). According to Yin, a case study inquiry copes with situations in which there are many variables of interest, and as a result relies on multiple sources of evidence. It is not, however, just a data collection tactic, but a comprehensive research strategy (ibid., p. 13). Stake (1994, p. 236) emphasises that a case study draws attention to what can be learned from the single case – the case being a ‘bounded system’; but he also notes that a researcher may be more interested in a ‘population of cases’ than in one individual case.

3.2.1 Types of case study:

Yin (1994) identified three types by their purposes: *exploratory*, *descriptive* and *explanatory*. Merriam (1998) referred to three types, again by their intent: *descriptive*, *interpretive* and *evaluative*. Stake (1994, p. 237) identified two major types: *intrinsic*, undertaken because one wants better understanding of a particular case – “...this case itself is of interest”; and *instrumental*, used when “a particular case is examined to provide insight into an issue or refinement of theory. The case is of secondary interest, it plays a supportive role, facilitating our understanding of something else” (ibid., p. 237). A third type discussed by Stake was *collective case study*, a study of “a number of cases jointly in order to inquire into the phenomenon, population or general condition... It is not the study of a collective but instrumental study extended to several cases” (ibid., p. 237).

The present study is both *instrumental / collective* (as defined by Stake) and *interpretive* (as defined by Merriam). It is instrumental and collective in that it investigates three

institutional cases as ways of illustrating and understanding the phenomenon of tertiary teacher development; and interpretive in its focus on “gathering information about the problem with the intent of analyzing, interpreting or theorizing” (Merriam, 1998, p. 38). At different stages of this study elements of Yin’s types also appeared – exploratory at the data gathering stage, descriptive and explanatory at the reporting stage.

Multiple-case study

The initial research questions indicated that several institutional sites were likely to be investigated. Stake’s (1994) definition of *collective* case study has already been noted above. Yin (1994) considered the evidence from multiple cases was often more compelling than that from a single case, and that a *multiple-case* study should use a replication research design (p. 45). Bogdan and Biklen (2003, p. 62) used the term *multi-case studies* when referring to researchers studying two or more subjects, settings or depositories of data. Ebbutt (1988) discussed *multi-site* case study, referring to large school projects in the UK where teams collected data in schools and wrote single-site case studies, which subsequently were used as the data for cross-site analysis and production of issues papers, reports or recommendations. While those writers have used different labels, it is clear that the study of several single-site cases within one larger project (as in the present study) is justifiable. I have used the term *multiple-case* to define this study, which studies three institutional cases and reports on them in a separate chapter for each.

3.2.2 Characteristics of case studies

Cases are *bounded*: they have clear limits to what is included or excluded (Merriam, 1998). In developing the design of this study, each institutional case was defined by bounds of time, location and participants.

“Qualitative case studies can be characterised as being particularistic, descriptive and heuristic” (Merriam, 1998, p. 29). *Particularistic* means they are focused on a particular situation, event or phenomenon (Merriam, 1998). “... the case, the activity, the event, are seen as unique as well as common. Understanding each one requires an understanding of other cases, activities, and events but also an understanding of each one’s uniqueness” (Stake, 1995, p. 44). The focus on three cases in this study meant the uniqueness of each was addressed, and that allowed later comparisons between them.

Descriptive refers to the end product, which is “thick” description, offering complete or rich details (Merriam, 1998). “Usually it will be important to seek out and present multiple perspectives of activities and issues, discovering and portraying the different views” (Stake, 1995, p. 134). The intention to use descriptive data and reporting in this study has already been noted in the earlier discussion of qualitative research.

Case studies are *heuristic* in that they illuminate the reader’s understanding of the phenomenon under study (Merriam, 1998). “Case study research shares the burden of clarifying descriptions and sophisticating interpretations... providing readers with good raw material for their own generalizing” (Stake, 1995, p. 102). Sharing the researcher’s findings and conclusions with others interested in tertiary teaching was a major intention of this study. It was therefore important to consider other readers when reporting the case studies and discussing their implications, including the potential for recommendations to transfer to other tertiary settings.

Case study reporting

Merriam noted some confusion of usage, in that “the process of conducting a case study is conflated with both the unit of study (the case) and the product of this type of investigation” (1998, p. 27). Erlandson et al. (1993, p. 64) considered case study to be the “reporting mode of choice” for naturalistic / qualitative inquiries, some advantages being that it: builds on readers’ tacit knowledge by presenting holistic and lifelike descriptions; provides readers with opportunity to probe for internal consistencies; provides “thick description” necessary for judgements of transferability; and includes contextual information grounded in the particular setting. While those factors provide guidelines for the content expected, Merriam (1998, p. 220) observed a lack of consensus on any standard format for reporting case study data. In this study, the research questions have been used to provide an overall framework, repeated so that the reporting of each case in a separate chapter follows a parallel structure.

3.2.3 Decision to use case study method

Case study was selected as an appropriate research method for the research questions this project set out to address, because they concerned tertiary teachers in their own complex, real-life contexts. Responses to the questions required data from multiple

sources to give multiple perspectives; the theoretical concept of community of practice was identified to consider in the later stages of interpretation. To respond adequately to the research questions it was necessary to investigate teaching and teachers in several different types of institution, and therefore a **multiple-case study** was to be used. This study would be interpretive and instrumental, carried out to facilitate greater understanding of how people become tertiary teachers in New Zealand situations.

Based on my knowledge of tertiary education in New Zealand, I decided to seek data from three institutions, a polytechnic, a wananga and a university, representing three of the four types within the sector (see Appendix A, *Legislative definition of tertiary institutions*). The fourth type, colleges of education, was not included in this study because their purposes and range of courses are quite limited compared with the other three. That decision indicated three cases, one per institutional site. The case at each site was *Becoming a tertiary teacher in this institution*. The bounds of each case were defined as: *the institution and its teachers, educational developer(s) and teaching-related public documents, during the period mid-2000 to mid-2001*. Strategies to gather data, with triangulation of data sources and data-gathering strategies, were to be replicated at each site. A multiple-case study enabled context-related interpretation when dealing with data relating to each individual case, as well as providing opportunities for subsequent cross-case discussion and further interpretation.

3.3 Research design

The overall process and data gathering strategies for this research project were planned at an early stage of the study, to be included in an application to the Massey University Human Ethics Committee (MUHEC). Ethical approval was needed to gain access to institutions, people and institutional documents at each site, with assurances that institutions' and participants' rights and confidentiality would be protected. While interview participants would become known to the researcher, and so would not be anonymous during the data gathering process, they would not be identified to readers in the reporting of the data.

I also kept in mind, however, that some elements might vary later in response to the situations encountered, as this was to be a qualitative inquiry. I found varying advice

on this matter in the literature. Yin (1994, p. 52) recommended limiting any changes, but Stake (1995) took a different position and suggested that in a qualitative study some variations were likely to occur: "Certain new issues will emerge. Case study work is often said to be 'progressively focused'..." (p. 133). Similar comments by Kvale (1996) have been noted above, and Erlandson et al. (1993) also refer to an interactive process, allowing for changes as a study proceeds.

For this project I followed Yin's structured approach to planning in the initial stages, because of the logistics involved in planning to carry out comparable studies at different and distant sites. Thus the main implementation strategies and data gathering instruments were pre-specified. My choice of semi-structured interviews, however, indicated there would be scope for consideration of 'emerging issues'. Some shift in emphasis did occur as the project proceeded, away from an initial focus on teachers' perceptions of good teaching (expertise), towards more emphasis on how people became teachers in tertiary contexts. This arose partly from my recognising that teachers' stories (in their interviews) of how they became teachers addressed an area that had rarely been reported in other research; and partly from the evolving influence of further literature on communities of practice and workplace learning published during the course of the study, after the initial doctoral research proposal. Increased attention to individuals' experiences and situations was also heightened by a decision not to use initial focus groups (see 3.4.5, below). I interpreted this shift as an example of Stake's 'progressive focusing'. No major change in research design or data gathering was involved: it was more a reprioritising or refining of the concepts attended to in the analysis and interpretation of the data. Table 2, following, summarises the effects of the shift.

Original proposal	Final thesis
Working title: <i>Tertiary teachers' perceptions of expertise in teaching</i>	Title: <i>Becoming a tertiary teacher: learning in communities of practice</i>
Research questions: 1. What are common perceptions of expertise and excellence held by tertiary teachers in a range of different institutional settings in NZ? 2. What influence does context have on those teachers' perceptions of teaching? 3. How do tertiary teachers develop expertise in teaching?	Research questions: <i>Original Qu. 3 became the main research question, rephrased as</i> How do people become tertiary teachers in NZ? <i>Other questions rephrased as:</i> A. What is teaching like in some typical institutions? B. What do some experienced teachers say about how they have developed...? C. What provisions do institutions make for teacher education and development?

Table 2: Shift of research emphasis in response to emerging issues

The following sections address the main decision-making steps involved in the research design and development of instruments.

3.3.1 Selection of data gathering strategies

To gather data about characteristics of teaching in different kinds of institutions, people's experiences in developing as teachers there, and staff developers' views on teacher support, strategies were needed that would gather data directly from people engaged in those activities. Yin (1994, p. 79) considers the main sources of evidence for case studies are documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant observations and physical artifacts; further sources include photographic sources and life histories. To respond to research questions relating to teachers' and educational developers' experiences and perceptions, I identified interviews and observations as the most likely sources of data, with related sources being focus groups and survey questionnaires. While teachers' life histories, in the form of narratives or journals, could have included more detail than was obtainable through interviews, I concluded that participants would find a request for such materials too demanding of their time, and did not seek such sources. To respond to research questions relating to institutional context and support for teaching and teacher development, documents detailing policies and procedures and interviews with educational developers were the most appropriate sources. While some personal views of institutional matters could be gained through interviews, documents would provide publicly available 'official'

versions for comparison. The following paragraphs consider in more detail some issues related to the data-gathering strategies identified here.

Interviews

Since the key research questions of this thesis were concerned with what people said about their own experiences in becoming tertiary teachers and about teaching in their institutions, individual interviews as described by Kvale (1996) were justified as a major strategy for this study. The approach adopted was based mainly on the work of Kvale (1996), using semi-structured individual interviews with teachers and educational developers. Such interviews offer opportunities for the researcher to conduct a “professional conversation” (ibid., p. 11), responding to what is emerging in a dialogue, exploring people’s ideas and experiences, and allowing the participants to contribute their own conceptions.

...a semi-structured interview: it has a sequence of themes to be covered, as well as suggested questions. Yet at the same time there is an openness to changes of sequence and forms of questions in order to follow up the answers given and the stories told by the subjects (Kvale, 1996, p. 124).

Kvale proposed two metaphors for the research interviewer (1996, p. 3-4), *traveller* and *miner*: my role in this study was mainly as traveller, hearing and reconstructing people’s stories, but partly as miner, digging for the background of situations.

Focus groups

I planned to start the data gathering with focus groups, in the expectation that some common issues might be identified by the participants relating to teaching practices and shared perceptions within an institution, which I could then investigate further in individual interviews. Kvale (1996, p. 101) noted that, while interaction among the participants in a focus group interview often led to spontaneous statements on the topic, the interviewer’s control might be limited and data collection might become “relatively chaotic” and difficult to analyse.

Questionnaire

A short survey questionnaire was identified for use at an early stage of this project, the purpose of which was to gain brief information from prospective respondents to assist in selecting those who would be invited to participate in individual interviews

(purposive sampling). Kvale (1996) suggested that when planning an interview study, the researcher should also ask whether other methods would be more appropriate for the topic and purpose. Questionnaires were suggested as more appropriate for larger samples of respondents than could be covered with time-consuming interviews, or when time available for administration, analysis and reporting was limited. The research questions of this project did not suggest a need to seek data from a large sample of respondents, but using a questionnaire to reduce some of the administration time in selecting interview participants was justified.

Observations

It was important to include some observations of the classroom teaching of people I interviewed, if possible, to respond to the research question about what teaching was like in tertiary institutions. The literature review showed that many studies of people's teaching had relied solely on their own accounts, given in interviews. Dingwall (1997) compared accounts, interviews and observations as methods (his term) of social research, and cited the influence on observational research of Webb and Webb (1975), who believed that deliberate and sustained personal observation should be part of the study of any social institution. Dingwall thought that observations avoided some of the difficulties of interviews, such as the control an interviewer exerts over what is talked about and what is counted as relevant, saying: "Where interviewers *construct* data, observers *find* it" (Dingwall, 1997, p. 60, author's emphasis). Observers still selected from the sensations they were exposed to in any setting, however, and might have some impact on that setting. Dingwall noted that interviews, seen as cheaper and quicker, had tended to replace participant observation in recent years, and cost and time were factors in my decision to use only a limited number of observations in this study. It would have been interesting to shadow each interview participant for several days of observation, to gain a wider sense of their practice and their interactions with students and colleagues; but such a proposal might have been considered too intrusive by the participants, and resources were not available for that form of data gathering.

Documentary research

To answer the research question about institutions' policies and procedures, examination of documents was necessary. Wellington (2000) noted that documents had multiple meanings, and could be read for both literal (content) and interpretive

meaning. Four key criteria he proposed for assessing the 'quality' of documents were authenticity, credibility, representativeness and meaning. (p. 114). He suggested that in addition to reading for the 'informational' content, the following issues be examined and underlying assumptions questioned: context or frame of reference; authorship; intended audiences; intentions and purposes; vested interests; genre, style and tone; and production and presentation. Since the main documents I envisaged examining would be institutional, many of those factors were relevant in this study.

To sum up, two major strategies were identified as appropriate for this study: semi-structured individual interviews and examination of institutional documents. Interviews with some experienced teachers and educational developers were focused on gathering a range of accounts of people's experiences and perceptions relating to the research questions. Institutional documents provided alternative perspectives, and background for each case study, as well as responding to specific research questions. Focus groups, observations and a questionnaire were identified as supplementary strategies. Focus groups were to be used to gain initial general impressions and contribute (along with the questionnaire) to the selection of interview participants. Observations of interviewed teachers in their own classes would be used to gather data relating to research questions about teaching, and also to compare what people said about their teaching with what they did in practice.

3.3.2 Identification of cases and participants:

To address the research questions of this particular study, it was important to identify tertiary education institutions that would be representative of the three types described in the legislation (as noted earlier in 3.2.3).

Identification of case sites

Erlandson et al. (1993) say that in case study research it is important to identify a site or sites that maximise the opportunity to engage with the problem: where entry is possible, where there is a high probability of a rich mix of people and processes that are relevant to the research questions, and where data quality and credibility can be reasonably assured by sampling and triangulation decisions within each case study. Another factor to be considered in this study was that each institution should offer

courses in a range of similar subject areas, which would be taken into account in the sampling plan for teacher interviews (see below).

Three sites were selected for invitation, one for each institutional case: university, polytechnic and wananga. The specific institutions were already familiar to me from professional contacts with their educational developers over a number of years, and contacts with staff attending conferences such as HERDSA. The university and polytechnic chosen were each broadly representative of their type in New Zealand. The wananga selected included the full range of subject areas identified for sampling of teachers (see following paragraph), unlike some other wananga at the time of the study. All three institutions had educational development units whose staff would be able to contribute relevant data, both documentary and through interviews. As formally recognised tertiary institutions in the New Zealand legislative context, they all had charters and policy documents that would be likely to contribute data to the project. I was thus able to identify sites I could be confident would be rich sources of data: a process of purposeful rather than random selection.

Identification of participants

To address the research questions relating to teachers, I needed to identify at each site experienced teachers from a range of typical subjects taught in tertiary institutions in NZ. To enable comparison between cases, the subject areas needed to be ones that would occur in each case, and therefore some more theoretical university disciplines such as mathematics, sciences and some humanities were excluded as unlikely to occur at all sites. Also, teaching in the sciences had already been extensively researched by some of the Australian phenomenographers (for example, Prosser et al, 1994), whereas studies of teaching in applied and affective areas had received less attention (Eidos, 1997). The subject areas chosen were therefore more applied or affective: design or fine arts, computing studies, communication-related studies, and engineering or related trades.

Sampling plan: In selecting individuals to approach within those subject areas, I needed to identify experienced teachers, who could talk about their teaching careers and development over a period of years. A total sample size of 12 teachers for interviewing was planned, based on one teacher per subject per institution. In the event that more

volunteers were available than needed from any subject area, people's responses in their survey questionnaires would be used to identify those who were likely to be sources of rich interview data in relation to becoming a teacher in their respective subject areas and institutions.

Educational developers were also required to be interviewed in each case, to address the research questions related to developers' views and practices. They were to be selected through an invitation letter written to the head of the Educational Development Unit at each site, inviting that person or a colleague to participate. A sample size of one developer per institution was planned.

With both teachers and developers, that would make a total of 15 interviews, which was a manageable number for this study. Kvale (1996, p. 102) observes that in current interview studies the number of interviews tends to be around 15 +/- 10, and links this to the time and resources available for an investigation.

3.3.3 Design of data gathering instruments

The selection of those specific sites, and of types of data sources and data gathering strategies, thus provided for triangulation of sources and strategies at each site. Data gathering instruments were therefore needed that would address the research questions and could be replicated at each site. This section addresses the development of the instruments for each strategy.

Focus group questions

A focus group meeting at each site, ideally with several staff from each of the identified subject areas, was planned. The meetings were intended to provide initial data relating to people's collective impressions of tertiary teaching, and teaching in their institutions, to generate ideas for further exploration in interviews, and to assist in selecting interview participants. Appendix B shows how the focus group questions were related to some of the research questions. Topics included characteristics of effective teachers (Ballantyne et al., 1999); views of teaching held in a department or subject area (Knight and Trowler, 2000); perceptions of stages from novice to expert (Dreyfus and Dreyfus, 1986); expertise and excellence in teaching (Dunkin, 1995); tacit knowledge and

informal learning (Marsick and Watkins, 1990; Ronkowski, 1993); and professional development (Boud, 1999).

The questions were pilot tested with a group at a Wellington tertiary institution. Despite wide canvassing for participants, it proved difficult to find a common time of day that suited teachers from a variety of departments. In the end a lunch-time meeting was held with five people who represented the four identified subject areas. The starter questions proved successful, and little input was needed from me once the group started responding to the questions with discussion. Questions A, B and D on the question sheet were discussed in some depth; the group confirmed that the remaining questions were clear but there was not time for full discussion. I made an audio recording of this pilot, and used that to test doing my own transcription. That took longer than expected, and so I sought funding for all later transcription work.

Only the pilot focus group was actually held, because group meetings at institutions did not eventuate (as explained in 3.4.1 below, p. 89), and so some of the topics to be discussed were transferred to the teacher questionnaire (see following). Several were also included in the teacher interview schedule, as I wished to gain individual as well as group responses.

Questionnaire items

A teacher questionnaire was developed, intended for people who had attended a focus group (to be distributed at the end of the meeting). It included a space where they could indicate whether they were willing to be interviewed. Responses in the questionnaires were intended to help identify which of the people willing to be interviewed were most likely to be sources of rich data. Information sought therefore included length of teaching experience, range of professional development undertaken, and the sorts of classes and subjects taught. Questions about gender and age were included, as such factors might contribute to sampling decisions when selecting a spread of people across an institution. The professional development activities listed in item 12 were based on a list (unpublished) used by Peter Seldin in a seminar at the *Improving Learning and Teaching Conference* held in Brisbane, July 1999. Tick boxes in that item were added by me.

The questionnaire was pilot-tested by two colleagues from my own institution, and minor changes were made to clarify some wording.

The original questionnaire did not include the open-ended items 13 to 17 that are in the final form used. Those were added later from the focus group questions, when a decision was made not to proceed with focus groups. Appendix C shows the final form used.

Semi-structured interview questions

I prepared two sets of guideline questions to use in the semi-structured interviews, one for the teachers, and one for the educational developers. Appendix D shows the teacher interview guide. Appendix E shows the educational developer interview guide. Each used a three-column format. The first column had 'starter' questions, developed to address aspects of the key research questions; the second column contained related areas for follow-up, depending on the extent and direction of the answers given to the first questions; the third column listed areas from the literature that I would listen for, and encourage if the participants raised them. Topics in the teacher questionnaire included those listed above for the focus group, which were transferred to the interview schedule; also perceptions of what is involved in teaching (Ramsden, 1992; Prosser et al., 1994; Pratt et al., 1998); reflection (Schon, 1983; Brookfield, 1995); professionalism and tertiary teaching as a profession (Eraut, 1994); participating in courses on teaching or in professional development (Andresen, 1995); community of practice (Wenger, 1998); differences between a prior occupation and becoming a teacher (Robson, 1998); identity as a teacher (Hamachek, 1999). Additional topics included in the educational developer questionnaire related to professional development (Brew, 1995; Webb, 1996c).

The interview questions were developed from the main research questions, to explore areas that individuals would have the capacity to comment on. Open-ended questions were planned, to enable people to respond in the light of their own experiences and interpretations, and leading or yes/no questions were avoided (Merriam, 1998). I pilot tested the basic questions with two colleagues from my own institution (one for the teacher interview and one for the developer interview): no changes were needed for clarity.

Teaching observation record sheets

In-class observations were planned, to gain a sample impression of the practice of each teacher interviewed, and also a sense of the physical surroundings and student population of their classes. I wanted to compare some examples of their actual practice (theory in practice) with what they said about it (espoused theory) in their interviews (Argyris and Schon, 1974).

I prepared record sheets to use when observing teaching sessions. The design of these forms was based partly on observation sheets I had used for many years when observing polytechnic teachers during their probation period, with spaces to write comments relating to specific headings; and partly on a tally sheet (Flanders, 1970). The original Flanders headings (intended for school classes) were modified to reflect my experience of types of activity likely to occur in a tertiary teaching session. Appendix F shows the observation sheets.

Other observations

As part of the scene-setting and background to each case study, I also planned to record my impressions of the general layout of each campus, and some personal impressions of the 'atmosphere' of departmental buildings, common facilities, classrooms, staff rooms, staff offices and so on. Care would be needed in using such data in the case study reporting, however, in order not to identify specific institutions.

Collection of institutional documents

It was necessary to seek copies of institutional documents relating or referring to teaching and support for teacher development, and permission to examine them and report on their contents. I particularly sought a copy of each institution's Charter, because that was a formal institutional agreement with the Minister of Education, as required by the *Education Amendment Act* 1990. That legislation provides that the Minister may set out matters in respect of which charters must specify goals and purposes, including "Standards of teaching and learning to be achieved at the institution" [Section 190 (2) (a)]. Other potentially relevant documents were identified through discussion with the educational developers of each institution, who provided me with such materials at each site.

3.3.4 Ethical issues

“In qualitative studies, ethical dilemmas are likely to emerge with regard to the collection of data and in the dissemination of findings. Overlaying both... is the researcher-participant relationship” (Merriam, 1998, p. 213). Research with human subjects must protect their rights, by including processes that will ensure that people give informed consent to their voluntary involvement in the research, and that they are not exposed to risks of harm that are greater than the gains they might derive (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998, p. 43).

The main ethical concerns to be addressed in this project related to protecting the rights of individual participants to informed consent and confidentiality. There was also a need to preserve the confidentiality of the institutions involved. Cultural concerns were noted, because I am Pakeha and one site I sought access to was Maori. To ensure these concerns were addressed, I applied for and received approval of the planned processes from the Massey University Human Ethics Committee (MUHEC). Appendix G includes a copy of the MUHEC letter approving the ethical procedures.

Informed consent

Interviewing and observations, data-gathering strategies proposed for this study, have potential for both risks and benefits to the informants (Merriam, 1998; Eisner, 1998). Questions asked may lead people to reflect on their successes, and they may enjoy sharing their knowledge and experiences; but questions may also trigger painful memories, cause embarrassment or make people feel their privacy has been threatened. The act of observing may itself bring about changes in the activity, rendering it atypical, or an observer may witness behaviour that creates its own ethical dilemmas, such as an act of abuse (Merriam, 1998, pp.214-5). In this study, while interview questions would be posed about people's practice, their ideas about their practice, and attitudes they were willing to share, these were considered not likely to cause embarrassment or trigger personal distress; there was no intention to labour any area people indicated they did not wish to talk about. Merriam suggests that public documents are less problematic, as they are open to others' scrutiny, and data are often aggregated (and therefore anonymous).

In this study, informed consent had to be sought from institutions for access to their premises, some of their staff, and some of their documents; from teachers and developers for their participation in interviews; and from teachers for a class to be observed. This was achieved through the development of a research information sheet, which was included with all letters requesting access to institutions and invitations to prospective individual participants, and through the use of individual consent forms. Appendix H contains samples of the information sheet, consent forms and letters.

Confidentiality and anonymity

Ethical issues relating to confidentiality and anonymity arise in relation to the analysis and dissemination of results. “Deciding what is important – what should or should not be attended to when collecting and analyzing data – is almost always up to the investigator” (Merriam, 1998, p. 216). Whereas data from a survey or experimental study are presented in aggregated form, the descriptive nature of a qualitative case study makes anonymity (during data gathering by interview) impossible, and confidentiality (in the later reporting) problematic: “At the local level, it is nearly impossible to protect the identity of either the case or the people involved” (ibid., p. 217).

Ensuring confidentiality for institutions and individuals is difficult in a country the size of New Zealand, with only 7 universities, 25 polytechnics and 3 wananga at the time that data were gathered. Some data have therefore not been used in the reporting because they might identify institutions or people within them, and some findings have been stated with no attribution to a person or their subject area. As explained later, however, the wananga has agreed that some details in its case study that might identify it are acceptable for inclusion in the thesis.

In this study the researcher’s intention and process to maintain confidentiality were stated in the research information sheet, invitation letters and consent forms (see Appendix H). Teacher questionnaires were to be distributed to their staff by HODs, and only teachers who chose to return a questionnaire and indicate their willingness to join a focus group or to be interviewed provided their names to the researcher. Developers who agreed to be interviewed also made their names known to the researcher.

Pakeha / Maori cultural concerns

Bishop and Glynn (1997, p. 67) have expressed concern that some people doing research on Maori are “disconnected” from Maori concerns, values and aspirations. It was necessary to take this into account when seeking access to the wananga site, and when gathering and analysing data from that site. This was addressed by asking in the initial letter to the CEO whether the wananga wished me to work with a Maori co-researcher nominated by the wananga: the response was that this was not required, but that my request to research had been referred to a wider staff hui before final approval. I endeavoured in the data gathering and reporting to acknowledge and value the distinctively Maori character of the wananga.

Conflict of interest

I had previously worked as an educational developer, and used my knowledge of people and institutions gained through that role when identifying institutions as potential cases for study. During the period of this study, however, I was no longer working as a developer, and had no formal working relationship with any of the selected institutions. The use of first person in reporting the case studies also recognises the background that I brought to this study.

There was potential for some of the teachers at the polytechnic and wananga to be also students of the Massey BEd(AdultEd) programme, of which I was the coordinator at the time of this study: I therefore ensured that no people who offered to participate were selected if they were currently enrolled in any papers I was teaching. This avoided any conflict between my teacher and researcher relationships with people.

Section 3.4, following, records how ethical considerations identified in this section were dealt with during the data gathering, analysis and reporting stages of this study.

3.4 Implementation

This section addresses the data gathering and analysis stages of the study, and the final reporting and quality checking processes.

3.4.1 Data gathering

The following paragraphs discuss the implementation of the various forms of data gathering. Appendix I presents a chronological summary of the whole project that shows the timing of key events, including the contacts and responses described below.

Access to institutional sites

I sent letters (see sample in Appendix H) to the CEOs of the three selected institutions seeking their permission to carry out research there. In each instance I received a positive reply, giving permission to proceed and identifying a contact person I could obtain further information from. No institution required me to seek further approval through its own ethics committee.

Access to developers and teachers

The contact people at each site confirmed the names of the name of the head or senior person of each EDU, and I sent letters (see sample in Appendix H) direct to them inviting them to participate in an interview, which all agreed to. The university developer asked that I do a joint interview that included a second person, as they worked closely together, and I agreed to that.

The contact people at the polytechnic and university gave me the names of HODs of the four identified departments. Those HODs were each sent a letter requesting them to distribute to experienced teachers copies of the research information sheet and my invitation to participate in an initial focus group at the end of the 1999 academic year (see HOD letter, information sheet and invitation letter in Appendix H). A response form and stamped addressed envelope were included with each invitation. Ten sets of materials were sent to HODs of communication departments, which contact people reported to be small, and 20 to each of the others - computing, design/art and engineering.

The contact person at the wananga campus passed on invitations and information sheets direct to four teachers, one in each target subject area, rather than my sending them through HODs, because departmental arrangements at the wananga were different from those of the other institutions. Invitations to wananga teachers were to be sent at the start of 2000, but by that time a decision had been made not to proceed with focus groups, and so their invitations referred to completing the questionnaire and indicating whether they were willing to be interviewed.

Once responses were received from developers and teachers indicating their willingness to participate, I made appointments directly with those individuals for interviews or teaching observations. All arrangements were made five to six weeks in advance and confirmed in writing, with telephone or email reminders shortly before each appointment. Each polytechnic and university teacher was interviewed once and observed in class once; each wananga teacher was interviewed once, but not observed because of difficulties explained below. One developer interview was conducted at each site. In all I spent six days at the university, spread over three visits: in June 2000, for all interviews, and September 2000 and August 2001 for teacher observations. Five days were spent at the polytechnic, spread over two visits: in June 2000 for all interviews, and September 2000 for teacher observations. Three days were spent at the wananga, spread over two visits: in August 2000 for all interviews, and August 2001 for teaching observations (which in the end did not occur, as explained below).

Focus groups

These were not used in the end, as responses to the initial invitations were low or nil from half the departments approached at both university and polytechnic, and there had also been difficulties in setting up the pilot focus group. I therefore decided, after discussion with my supervisors, to move directly to using questionnaires instead.

Questionnaire

Questionnaire responses thus became the first source of data from teacher participants. I posted questionnaires (see Appendix C) to all polytechnic and university teachers who had said they were willing to attend a focus group, and explained the change in approach. Extra questionnaires (plus research information sheets) were sent to HODs of departments where initial focus group responses had been low, with a request that they

be distributed to staff. Enough questionnaire responses were received from teachers at the university and polytechnic to identify interview participants from each of the target subject areas. In five departments (three university, two polytechnic) there was only one offer and so no choice. The situation was different at the wananga: it had a multi-campus structure with usually only one specialist in each subject area at any one campus. The campus that the wananga suggested I work with therefore produced just one participant for each subject area.

I received questionnaire responses from 23 people, 18 of whom indicated willingness to be interviewed. Appendix J indicates which respondents agreed or declined.

Coding of questionnaires: Teachers willing to be interviewed provided name and contact details at the end of their questionnaire: I added hand-written code numbers on their returned questionnaires, for use in collating results in a way that would not identify individuals. Numbers from 100 to 113 went to polytechnic responses, from 120 to 126 to university, and from 130 to 134 to wananga. (See Appendix J, collated questionnaire data.)

Interviews

To select teacher participants I used purposive sampling, based on data gained from the questionnaire responses. Appendix J has a tabulated summary of the questionnaire data that were used in selecting participants, including a table of responses to question 12, which asked about people's experience of forms of professional development. Where there was more than one person from a subject area willing to be interviewed at a site, I selected people who reported the most participation in studies and/or development relevant to tertiary teaching.

In conducting the interviews I used the prepared, semi-structured question sheets as a guide, and frequently found that once a person had started talking the conversation moved on naturally to areas I had listed to ask about later. All participants were willing to talk about their experiences and answer my questions: I did not encounter any resistance from those who had agreed I could visit them. Towards the end of each interview I checked back over the guide sheets and used follow-up questions for any matters that had not been addressed in the ebb and flow of conversation.

All participants agreed to their interviews being audio-taped, and signed consent forms to that effect (see sample in Appendix H). When making prior arrangements for the interviews, I asked people to allow a two-hour period: most interviews took just under 90 minutes. Most people preferred to be interviewed in their own offices, but one chose a corner in a staffroom at a time when most staff were away teaching. None asked for the tape to be stopped at any stage, but one asked for a part of the interview to be considered off the record.

Tapes were transcribed verbatim, by two transcribers who each signed confidentiality agreements (see sample in Appendix H). After the transcribing I reviewed each script while listening to the tape, and did minor editing to make the text more fluent for the participants to read when the scripts were returned to them for checking. In this process I followed the advice of Kvale (1996, p. 170) to imagine how the interviewees themselves would have wanted to formulate their statements in writing. I edited out “ums” and “ers” and some pauses, and repeated use of phrases such as “you know”, “sort of” or “I mean”, but the speakers’ original words largely remained. Decisions about such changes were made by me, not the transcribers, and when making changes I always kept in mind the tone, intention and content indicated by the original tape-recordings.

I later further condensed and rephrased some of the extracts selected for quotation in the three case study chapters that follow. In this I again followed Kvale’s advice:

... if the analysis is to be in a form that categorizes or condenses the general meaning of what is said, a certain amount of editing of the transcription may be desirable (1996, p. 170).

Each participant was sent a copy of their own edited transcript, with a request that they indicate any parts they wished to delete or change; they were also asked to add further comments if they wished. Most made no response, or only minor corrections of unclear passages. Just one made more substantial changes, making some parts of that transcript sound more ‘written’ rather than spoken.

Observations of teaching

I was able to carry out all the planned observations in the polytechnic and university, but none at the wananga. The interviews at the wananga were conducted late 2000, and arrangements made to return early in 2001, then later that year, for class observations. In the end none were completed at the wananga: in the interim one person had moved out of teaching into the wananga's EDU; one had left the wananga and moved to another city; one was teaching one-to-one and thought students would be uncomfortable with an observer present; and the fourth twice had to cancel arrangements, because of a class trip and a tangi (funeral). With the change in research focus mentioned earlier, however, the lack of these observations did not create a major gap, as most data on *becoming* a teacher came from the interview transcripts, which were completed for all participants.

Pre-observation meetings were held before each class observation. These took 15-20 minutes and were used to find out about the student group and class topic, and what the teacher intended to do. Most gave me a copy of any handout materials they were going to use, and showed me their planning notes.

In the observing process (see observation guide in Appendix F) I relied mainly on making notes of overall impressions during the class observations. I found (in the first two observations) that the tally sheet part of the forms was too constraining: it took time that I felt was better used in observing the classroom activity and interactions. This reaction reflects that noted by Stake (1995), who said of the on-site observer form used in another case study:

This form was not systematically used because several of the 10 case workers did not find the form compatible with their style of work. More particularly, they felt that such a form drew their attention too much away from what they should be seeing (p. 51).

I had asked teachers to identify sessions where they would have time afterwards for a follow-up discussion with me, but sometimes this did not happen as other commitments had since arisen. In three instances where that happened and I had specific queries, I telephoned people later for clarification.

Other observations

After my visits to each site I made brief notes on my impressions of the physical settings I had been in, for use in the case study reporting. Some aspects were factual, while others were more subjective, taking into account the ‘atmosphere’ or the interactions of people observed in such settings.

Documents

Materials that had been requested in my original letter to each institution were made readily available, and were provided to me by the educational developers. The types of documents varied depending on institutional practice, but major items such as charters and policies were available from all. Those materials have not been listed in the References to this thesis, as they would immediately identify the individual institutions by name. Details have, however, been made available to the supervisors in a supplementary reference list, to be destroyed with other confidential data after the conclusion of the project and thesis examination.

The types of documents that were provided and used for each institution’s case study are listed in Appendix K. Some titles are indicated as being pseudonyms, used in the case study chapters to avoid revealing the identity of the institutions.

3.4.2 Data analysis

Yin comments that, in case study research, “Unlike statistical analysis, there are few fixed formulas or cookbook recipes” (1994, p. 102). Two general analytical strategies he proposes are:

- (a) Relying on theoretical propositions: following those that led to the case study, with insights from the literature that led to the research questions, and
- (b) Developing a case description (ibid., pp. 103-4).

The researcher must show that the analysis relies on all the relevant evidence; addresses the most significant aspect of the case study; and brings his or her own prior, expert knowledge to the case study (ibid., p. 123-4).

My intention was to develop three case descriptions related to becoming a teacher, one for each institution, drawing on analyses of the triangulated data. Then those case

descriptions would be further interpreted through discussion of cross-case findings, particularly in relation to the theory of community of practice identified in the literature survey. Thus two stages of analysis and interpretation emerged: the first stage (like Yin's class b, above) produced the separate case descriptions in Chapters Four, Five and Six, and cross-case discussion in Chapter Seven; the second stage (like Yin's class a, above) produced further theoretical interpretation in Chapter Eight by relating the case study findings to the literature review.

The analysis of the raw data was carried out through the following processes:

Content analysis of institutional documents for each site

I identified and summarised data under headings that related to the main research questions, following Wellington's (2000) advice to read for both literal (content) and interpretive meaning. From the institutional documents I identified six initial themes that applied across all three sites and could be used in the case study reporting:

- General context and setting
- Teaching in that institution
- Supporting new teachers
- Staff / professional development (related to teaching)
- Qualifications for teaching
- Indications of institutional community of practice

Grounded theory analysis of themes and sub-themes in teacher interview transcripts

This was achieved through several steps, described below.

(a) I first read and re-read the 12 transcripts from the teacher interviews, to obtain a global view over the three cases, and identify major themes emerging from them. As well as looking for trends emerging from the data, I kept in mind the research questions and themes from the literature, in order to develop a "start list," as suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 58). At that initial stage I found eleven possible themes that could be seen in all three sites.

(b) Then I re-read the transcripts, focusing on those from one site at a time, identifying more closely material that was related to those themes. That led to the creation of a new document for each case: using copied data from the original transcripts I grouped

relevant material from each participant under the eleven initial theme headings. That copying/regrouping process removed my interview questions and some extraneous passages, and put the full focus on the clustered data gathered from participants.

(c) I re-read those new texts thoroughly, adding marginal colour coding as I identified sub-themes that emerged. After that reading I did some regrouping, as several of the early themes were better treated as sub-categories of other themes. I also noted quotations likely to be useful as illustrative examples of themes or sub-themes when writing the case studies. Sample pages from that stage of the analysis are included in Appendix L.

That stage of the analysis resulted in the following major themes across all cases; further sub-themes emerged, though not necessarily the same in every case.

- Teaching in this institution
- Entry into tertiary teaching
- Formal learning about teaching
- Informal learning about teaching
- Developing a sense of identity as a teacher
- Community of practice

That overall series of analytical steps reflected the *Ladder of Analytical Abstraction* developed by Carney (1990, cited in Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 92), which helped me in seeing a progressive pattern of searching for meanings.

I did not use a computer analysis programme such as NUDIST, as I preferred to deal with substantial passages and refer frequently to their original contexts – I did not want to lose a sense of the ‘bigger picture’. I also did not take the categorising or coding to a minute level of detail. Dey (1999) refers to the danger of “fragmenting data – of losing more meaning by isolating fragments of data from their immediate context than is gained by recontextualizing them for comparison through coding” (p. 257). The level of sub-categorising that I carried out would be described as partial coding, as defined by Dey (ibid., p. 258).

Grounded theory analysis of themes and sub-themes in staff developer transcripts

The same approach was used as in dealing with the teacher transcripts, identifying first major themes emerging across all three cases, and then sub-themes by individual case. Sample pages from the stage two analysis are included in Appendix M. Major themes that emerged from the staff developer interviews, across all cases, are shown below; further sub-themes emerged, though not necessarily the same in each separate case.

- Teaching in this institution
- Providing support for teachers / teaching
- Providing educational development
- Providing tertiary teaching qualifications
- Perception of communities of practice

Observations

From the teaching observations I developed vignettes describing one class for each teacher observed (see samples in Appendix N). Notes I made on the general context or setting at each site were reviewed in preparation for inclusion in the case study reporting. Some data have not been included in the case studies, however, because they might too readily identify the institutions.

3.4.3 Reporting the case studies

This section deals with factors addressed in the final writing up of the three cases, and subsequent discussion.

Structure

The three case studies (Chapters Four, Five and Six) were written using the research questions as the main section headings, and presenting findings by data source (and themes) as relevant to each question. The same structure was used in each chapter, in order to facilitate the cross-case discussion in Chapter Seven.

That final structuring of the chapters resulted in the following relationships between the analysed sets of data and the major chapter sections, shown in Table 3:

Case Study Chapter Sections	Data drawn from final stage of analysis for each source
Background and context	<i>Documents</i> <i>Observations</i>
What is teaching like in this institution?	<i>Documents</i> <i>From staff developer interview:</i> Teaching in this institution Perception of communities of practice <i>From teacher interviews:</i> Teaching in this institution Community of practice <i>Observations</i>
What do some experienced teachers say about how they have developed as teachers in this institution?	<i>From teacher interviews:</i> Entry into tertiary teaching Formal learning about teaching Informal learning about teaching Developing a sense of identity as a teacher
What provisions does the institution make for the teacher education and development of its academic staff?	<i>Documents</i> <i>From staff developer interview:</i> Providing support for teachers Providing educational development Providing teacher qualifications <i>From teacher interviews:</i> Suggestions for supporting new staff now
Becoming a teacher in this institution	<i>Conclusions drawn from all above</i>

Table 3: Structure of case study chapter sections

The case studies became quite lengthy, through the inclusion of supporting examples and quotations. Appendices O and P were therefore used to present vignettes describing some teachers' communities of practice, which were too long to include in the case study chapters.

Identification of participants

To preserve confidentiality, I have referred to the interviewed teachers and educational developers by pseudonyms, but identified teachers' subject areas when first introducing them in the case study chapters. The names were chosen by me and intended to be gender neutral. (Appendix J shows the names allocated to the teachers who were selected for interview.)

Researcher's voice

I have used the first rather than the third person to acknowledge that I have tried to be fair and ethical in gathering and analysing data, and in communicating the results, and that ultimately I take responsibility for the interpretations and conclusions presented. This practice is supported by writers such as Eisner (1998, p. 29 and p. 45) and Bogdan and Biklen (1998). The latter note a move to the use of "I" in scholarly writing, and say:

There are several reasons for this. One is the claim that the use of "I" is more honest and direct. . . . Another is that use of "the researcher" connotes an objectivity that does not really exist. Since individual people with particular points of view designed and carried out the research, that should be reflected in the writing (p. 191).

3.4.4 Quality checking

During the research process, checks for accuracy, coherence, credibility and analytical generalisability (transferability) were carried out through transcript checking, informant checks, and peer review of work-in-progress.

Transcript checking

I returned their own interview transcripts to all the participants for them to check, correct if needed, and add comments if they wished. No major changes were requested by anyone, and few additions were offered.

Informant checking of draft case descriptions

A complete draft of each case study was sent to a representative of its institution (to educational developers at the polytechnic and university, and to the research coordinator at the wananga). I asked that they comment on matters such as the accuracy of factual details, and their professional opinion of whether my interpretation and conclusions seemed a fair and coherent impression of the institution at the time of the data gathering. I also asked whether they thought any details made their institution or some individuals in it too easily identifiable, and if so to indicate matters that should be deleted or reworded. All representatives responded positively, with no requirements or suggestions for change. The wananga's chapter was referred by the informant to the CEO, because I had pointed out that mention of multiple campuses and the nature of the targeted student group might identify the wananga to readers, and asked if changes were

needed to remove those references: the response, however, confirmed that no changes were wanted.

Peer discussion of work-in-progress papers

I presented several work-in-progress papers at conferences for discussion by colleagues and peers. These produced general confirmation that my interpretations and discussion were consistent with others' experiences of becoming tertiary teachers or of being staff developers in tertiary institutions. Comments at NZARE and HERDSA presentations (Viskovic, 2001b, 2001a, 2002b, 2003) indicated that many of the findings discussed could be generalised to other NZ polytechnics and universities. Comments at the SCUTREA conference (Viskovic, 2002a) indicated that my observations made sense to colleagues from similar contexts in the UK. Comments at 2004 conferences (Viskovic, 2004a, 2004b, 2004c) provided positive responses from both tertiary teachers and educational developers to the final recommendations for building informal support for teacher development through their communities of practice.

3.4.5 Limitations affecting the study

The main limitations affecting this study were those inherent in qualitative research. Qualitative case studies are limited by the sensitivity and integrity of the researcher, who is the primary instrument of data gathering and analysis. Both the readers of case studies and the authors need to be aware of biases that can affect the final product (Merriam, 1998, p. 42).

Some biases that I acknowledge may have influenced the data gathering or the analysis of data include: a view that more people in universities need to be aware of and appreciate the strengths to be found in other institutions such as wananga and polytechnics; a preference for forms of teaching other than 'transmission'; mixed feelings about the impact of funding and systems changes in New Zealand institutions in the 1990s - some negative reactions to effects that might be described as managerialism or bureaucracy, but positive reactions towards increasing opportunities for more students to study and for staff to develop innovative programmes of study.

Other limitations of qualitative studies affecting this study relate to issues of internal validity or coherence, credibility, and analytical generalisability or transferability. Internal validity or coherence has been sought by triangulating data sources and

collection at each site, checking transcripts with participants, and seeking informant review of draft case study chapters. Credibility was sought through describing in detail how the study was conducted and the findings derived from the data. The extent to which the findings can be generalised to other situations has been tested by presenting work-in-progress papers to tertiary teachers and educational developers at tertiary education conferences, and will be further tested when subsequent journal articles are submitted for publication.

Sampling for teacher interviews

My professional judgement was involved in the selection of representative institutions and departments within them, and in the sampling of teachers with whom I sought interviews. The sample size of one person from each of four subject areas at each institution, and one developer per institution, was pre-planned and considered sufficient to gather a manageable range of interview data. The number of teachers available to select participants from was, however, dependent on the number of responses to my invitations. It was a limitation on the research that in many departments there were so few questionnaire respondents to select from. A further limitation to acknowledge is that volunteers form a select group of people, who tend to be more confident about or interested in the topic a researcher wishes to pursue. Nevertheless, all the participants interviewed were able to provide a range of ideas and information, reflecting both matters reported in the literature and some new perspectives, and quality checks did not produce comments that the findings were atypical in any of the cases. The decision to interview developers and experienced teachers arose from the original literature review: heads of department were therefore not included, although by the end of the project my growing interest in the influence of departments as communities of practice suggests that, if the project were starting again now, then those people should also be included.

Teacher observations

The use of only one class observation per teacher at the university and polytechnic, and failure to complete class observations at the wananga, would have been a more significant limitation if the original research focus on teachers' expertise had been maintained. The shift of research focus onto how people became teachers, however, meant that such observations contributed supplementary data, while the teacher and developer interviews provided the most important and relevant data.

Chapter Four: Becoming a Polytechnic Teacher

This chapter develops a case study of 'becoming a teacher in a polytechnic'. Findings from analysis of the data are presented in the following sections that address the main research question and three key sub-questions in relation to the polytechnic that was studied:

- 4.1 Background and context
- 4.2 What is teaching like in the polytechnic? (Sub-question one)
- 4.3 What do some experienced teachers say about how they have developed as teachers in the polytechnic? (Sub-question three)
- 4.4 What provision does the polytechnic make for the teacher education and development of its academic staff? (Sub-question two)
- 4.5 Discussion: becoming a teacher in the polytechnic (Main research question)

Data gathering took place during the period mid to late 2000: the picture presented in this case study is therefore a snapshot of that time, and does not necessarily represent the state of the polytechnic at other periods of time.

4.1 Background and context

The main source for this section was *Looking Ahead* (1999), a book prepared by management that described the current state of the polytechnic and its development plans for the period 1999-2009. The polytechnic had been established in the 1960s, replacing a former technical college. It was located in a city, and also served a provincial hinterland and a growing number of international students; in 1999/2000 about 80% of students came from the city. The polytechnic had a formal partnership agreement with the local Maori iwi (tribe), and involved representatives of industry and commerce in its programme advisory processes.

The major curriculum areas offered were: arts and design, building and construction, business and office, communications, community, computing, education, electrotechnology, engineering, food and hospitality, health, land-based, language and culture, performance, recreation and travel, and science. Qualifications offered ranged from trade certificates through to degrees - levels 2 to 7 on the National Qualifications

Framework (NQF).¹ The range of both subjects and qualifications was typical of many New Zealand polytechnics.

In 2000, enrolments were just over 5000 equivalent full-time students (EFTS), derived from nearly 18,000 actual students (full-time and part-time, domestic and international). There were nearly 700 full-time equivalent staff (60% teaching, 40% administrative/general), and the average class size was just over 16 students.

This polytechnic, like many others, had been affected by changes in the New Zealand tertiary education environment in the 1990-2000 period, as discussed in the New Zealand background section of the literature review. Effects in the polytechnic included new quality management systems (QMS), new programmes of study, increased student numbers and diversity, some new buildings, and an expectation of greater flexibility and responsiveness in order to compete in the tertiary sector. The growth of degrees had led to moves to establish a research culture in some departments. The use of information and communication technologies had also expanded, particularly for administrative use but also in some areas of the polytechnic's teaching.

Appendix N includes vignette descriptions of the polytechnic campus and some teaching spaces, recorded during visits for interviews and class observations.

4.2 What is teaching like in the polytechnic?

Data relating to characteristics of teaching were gathered from institutional documents, and semi-structured interviews with an educational developer and four experienced teachers. The following sections present findings from each source in turn.

4.2.1 Findings from institutional documents

The polytechnic's stated mission was "to provide continuing education in a wide range of applied, vocational and professional studies to postgraduate level". The *Mission Statement* (1997) referred several times, sometimes indirectly, to the importance of teaching and/or teachers. For example, the *Educational Purpose* section included:

¹ NQF levels for describing tertiary courses equate 1-3 to the last three years of schooling, 2-4 to trade qualifications, and 5-7 to the three years of university undergraduate studies. Many polytechnic certificates and diplomas are at levels 5 and 6.

- Standards: Provide educational programmes developed and taught to the highest possible quality standards.
- Staff: Ensure staff are qualified, sensitive to their own and other cultures and are provided with opportunities for personal, technical and professional development.

The *Values* section had implications for teachers in its general statements about seeking excellence, and being responsive, flexible and seeking creative solutions to change.

The *Goals* section also referred to the institution's approach to teaching :

- Educational Delivery: Ensure accessible, innovative and client-responsive teaching, learning, research and support which facilitates success for students and staff.

Much of the language of the *Mission Statement* was abstract and generalised, and I found the word *student(s)* used only six times throughout its two pages of educational purpose, values and goals statements. While it might be perceived as rhetorical, the *Mission Statement* did form part of the polytechnic's Charter, formally agreed with the Minister of Education, and its goals and purposes therefore had to be addressed by the institution. More specific policies and their implementation were detailed in other documents, discussed below and in other sections of this chapter.

Looking Ahead (1999) provided factual information about the institution, but also had a public relations function in presenting an attractive view of the institution to a wide range of stakeholders. Much of *Looking Ahead* emphasised the business-like nature of the polytechnic's approach to providing educational services, but its statements about teaching and support for learning were consistent with data from other sources. A chapter on *Educational Delivery* discussed the polytechnic's commitment to "quality educational provision for a diverse population". It said the institution's strengths lay in teaching knowledge and skills through "practical instruction, personal teaching, self-directed learning and effective learner group numbers" (*Looking Ahead*, p. 8.1). Current teaching practices across the institution as a whole were summed up thus:

[This polytechnic's] education delivery is characterised by successful, traditional models. Most teaching and learning is face to face and interactive. Full-time programmes are generally full-year, full day and most lead to a specific qualification. Much delivery is pre-employment, increasingly incorporating components of co-operative education in real workplace experience (ibid, p. 8.1)

The need for flexibility was signalled, with plans for increased development of modular learning packages: “digital convergence and the Internet hold great promise for open learning” (ibid, p. 8.2).

Looking Ahead said, “The Polytechnic recognises that its staff is both its greatest strength and highest cost...” (p. 12.3), but also signalled potential changes:

If flexibility in unit delivery, learning time and location are to be the demands of the learner [in future]... then methods of delivery, hours and places of work must become more flexible as well... (ibid, p. 12.3).

There were few references to *students* or *learners* in *Looking Ahead*. The short chapter devoted to students (*Student-friendly Services*, p. 9.1-9.2) focused not on educational programmes but on matters such as study support, learning resource centre, childcare, computer access, parking, counselling, and health care. Only in this section were they consistently referred to as students: *stakeholders*, *clients*, *customers* or *enrolments* were used elsewhere.

The *Academic Staff Members’ Collective Employment Agreement* presented a different perspective on teaching. Its schedules listed characteristics expected of basic and senior levels of staff, to be applied in identifying staff positions, during probation, and for career progression and promotion. Notable features of the schedules (see Appendix Q) were the level of detail, the inclusion of activities and attributes beyond those related to classroom teaching, and references to professional development and collegial work.

A Guide to Policies listed all current policies of the institution, outlined the contents of each, and indicated links between related areas. (The full versions were located on the institution’s Intranet, available to all staff.) A more general document relating to policies and procedures that affected all staff was the *Staff Handbook*, used to clarify the polytechnic’s expectations, especially for new staff members. It included:

- Culture values and focus on learning and teaching
- The Mission Statement’s values and goals
- Profile of the [polytechnic] staff person
- A list of integrated HR processes: recruitment, appointment, induction, orientation, probation, appraisal, promotion, job descriptions
- Learning opportunities for staff
- Code of Professional Practice

- Responsibilities of Employer and Employees
- A Declaration of Commitment to the polytechnic's goals and to achieving the staff profile (to be signed by staff member and Chief Executive).

The profile listed ten characteristics expected of all staff that were to be linked to people's job descriptions, appraisal and professional development. The full version of the first, which emphasised teaching and learning, is shown below, followed by the headings of the other nine.

- Culture values and focus on learning and teaching:
 - Staff at [the polytechnic] are expected to commit to the Charter, its values and particularly the student focus of the key strategies.
 - Effective teaching and learning are fundamental to the ongoing life of this institution.
 - All staff will be learners formally and informally and all staff will support the learning of others.
- Research
- IT literacy
- International focus
- Innovation, flexibility and continual learning
- Sustainability and environmental awareness
- Health and safety
- Disability awareness
- Bicultural awareness
- Student focus (*Staff Handbook*, p. 7-8).

The polytechnic had established policies and procedures for probation, appraisal, promotion and professional development to support the career development and teacher education of its academic staff, and it had a long-established Educational Development Unit (EDU). Such provisions indicated institutional support for teachers and teaching, and will be discussed further in section 4.4.1 of this chapter.

Community culture

Looking Ahead and the *Staff Handbook* were presented as documents written by management. References in the *Staff Handbook* to "culture values" could therefore be interpreted as a management view of a preferred culture for the institution. I found no explicit references in *Looking Ahead* and the *Staff Handbook* to "community of teaching practice" (Wenger, 1998); but cumulatively those documents did give a sense of teaching practices the institution wanted to maintain, such as the statement cited earlier: "most teaching and learning is face to face and interactive..." (*Looking Ahead*,

p. 8.1). The expectation that new teachers would sign a Declaration of Commitment to the polytechnic's goals also signalled an institutional interest in establishing a shared culture among its members.

There was an acknowledgement that, in such a large institution, the management of corporate communication, relationships and allegiance was important, and that faculties or schools could be seen as sub-groups within the wider organisation:

Internally, the staff of the Polytechnic can tend to identify themselves as faculty or school members before being corporate ones. Staff information and involvement at corporate level is encouraged through Intranet services, email broadcasts, occasional corporate staff meetings and regular unit staff meetings to encourage a sense of corporate citizenship... A conscious building and feeding of corporate identity, direction and unity is part of the learning institution culture to which the Polytechnic aspires (*Looking Ahead*, p. 16.1).

The *Staff Handbook* noted the importance of inducting new staff not only to the institution, but also to their faculty and school communities:

Staff will receive a global induction through HR and a faculty/division induction and well negotiated Personal and Professional Plan as part of probation. This will be done by each individual and will acknowledge faculty, school and [institution] goals and needs as well as individual aspirations (*Staff Handbook*, p. 9).

The *Collective Employment Agreement* provided a more detailed account of teaching practices that were considered to be accepted and desirable in the polytechnic. Given that both management and staff representatives had agreed to the principles and the wording, that document could be interpreted as a major contribution to building a community of teaching practice.

Overall, explicit discussion of a community culture was not a major feature of the documents I examined.

4.2.2 Findings from educational developer interview

I interviewed a senior educational developer, Gil. There were also three other educational developers in the polytechnic: the four are collectively referred to below as the educational development unit (EDU) because of their combined development *functions*, but restructuring had meant that a *physical centre* for the unit no longer

existed at the time of this study. Gil and two of the developers had academic appointments and were located in one of the polytechnic's teaching departments, and the fourth was located in the Human Resources (HR) department (with a part academic/part general appointment).

Gil held postgraduate qualifications, and had previously worked in Colleges of Education and as a university researcher. Four key themes about teaching in the polytechnic emerged from the interview: *Valuing teaching based on principles*; *Promoting student-focused teaching practice*; *Seeking evidence of teaching quality*; and *Linking teaching to institutional systems*.

Valuing teaching based on principles

Gil put considerable emphasis on encouraging teachers to think about their practice in terms of 'principles' of good teaching:

It comes back to understanding what teaching is all about and principles of good teaching... To me it is important for the teacher to be able to articulate what they are doing and particularly why.

Gil did not, however, spell out the principles espoused, or name specific theorists who had influenced the philosophy of EDU or its educational activities.

Promoting student-focused teaching practice

Gil emphasised the need for student-focused teaching, thus supporting statements made in *Looking Ahead*, and linked the teaching of vocational skills and values to student motivation and learning:

The best light I could turn on with tutors is around the idea of empowering learners...

I look at what we are trying to do with students, and that is to equip them to be in a particular workplace...

Seeking evidence of teaching quality

Gil referred several times to types of evidence of teaching quality, some personal to teachers (e.g. appraisal or promotion) and others more institutional (e.g. course evaluations). This concern to identify good teaching was consistent with Gil's emphasis on teaching principles (above), and systems (below).

There are a variety of student evaluations [of courses and teaching]. There are global ones through the Academic Manager... Then there is SGID, and the tutors' personal evaluation forms...

If people are not being asked to look at their classroom practice through the appraisal process then they are going to be missing half of what they are doing.

Applying for a promotion - the ASM / SASM / PASM² stages very definitely look at classroom practice.

Linking teaching to institutional systems

Gil referred to institution-wide systems on a number of occasions, and emphasised the establishment or improvement of systems related to teaching practice:

What I am going to be involved in very strongly is putting in place processes and systems to address classroom practice.

I get to hear when things aren't right and get called in to do something about it... I would like to see a system that looks across and identifies good practice, and puts a process in place for feedback on that as well.

A concern for principles, quality, evidence, and systems appeared consistent with Gil's institutional responsibility for academic staff development. Gil several times referred to 'delivery' when talking about teaching, adopting the managerial term used in *Looking Ahead*. Although Gil talked about other teachers being student-focused in their practice, little was said about the interpersonal aspects of EDU courses that Gil taught. My overall impression of Gil's approach to teaching in the polytechnic was therefore one of some remoteness, rather than engagement and enthusiasm for working with learners, of someone speaking more as a manager, planner and evaluator than as a teacher.

The concept of community of practice (Wenger, 1998) was not specifically referred to by Gil, but themes relating to aspects of community culture that emerged from the interview were: *Being a teacher in this polytechnic*; *Groups within the polytechnic community* and *Recognising external community links*.

² ASM: Academic Staff Member; SASM: Senior Academic Staff Member; PASM: Professional Academic Staff Member.

Being a teacher in this polytechnic

Gil saw 'being a teacher' as the critical factor that made a person a member of the polytechnic, and this had implications for institutional practices:

The thing that makes them different here from what they were in the work place is that they are a teacher here. So it's getting the institution to reflect that... and put in place a wall of support...

Groups within the polytechnic community

From a central position Gil was able to observe the institution as a whole, and groups within that whole. Gil referred to departments and programme teams where staff worked together on shared activities:

If you get some energetic people in there who are good teachers and they are concerned about the delivery of their programme they will create a lot of energy and there will be a lot of things happening.

Recognising external community links

Gil acknowledged that organisations outside the polytechnic expected the institution to prepare students to participate in their workplaces. That meant polytechnic teachers needed to think of themselves as role models from and for those communities:

We bring people in because their practice is AI in the field... And it's more than just a knowledge base - it's a whole way of being and working and communicating in the workplace...

The data overall suggested that Gil saw teaching across the institution as a whole as the main focus of interest for teaching-related staff development, with attention to links between systems (such as evaluations, appraisal and professional development) being perhaps more important than building links between people. 'Being a polytechnic teacher' meant that teachers became members of both the institution and groups within it (such as departments or programme teams).

4.2.3 Findings from the teacher interviews

Introduction to the people: Phil, teaching engineering, had been at the polytechnic just over ten years, had NZCE and a degree in mathematics, and had previously worked in electronics manufacturing and as a university technician. Ray, in computer studies, had

been in the polytechnic nearly 15 years, had previously been a scientific researcher for 10 years, and held a science degree and a polytechnic computing certificate. Kit, in communication studies, had been there just over five years, had a masters degree, was completing PhD studies, and had earlier spent several years as an associate university lecturer. Alex, in design, had been there seven years, had a degree in fine art, and had been a graphic designer for 17 years, including a period owning and running a design business.

The teachers had much to say about their approaches to teaching, and I regret that (as in the other two case studies) length limitations prevent me from sharing more of their comments. Key themes emerging from the teacher interview transcripts that related to their own teaching were: *Being focused on students*; *Using a variety of teaching strategies* and *Being well organised*. Themes that linked their teaching to the groups they worked with and the wider polytechnic culture were: *Complying with institutional requirements*; *Working with colleagues*; *Having a sense of community*; and *Perceiving that teaching is valued in the polytechnic*. In several of those latter themes both positive and negative examples emerged.

Being focused on students

A common aspect of focusing on students was *recognising student characteristics*, such as age, gender, ethnicity, full- or part-time status, or stage of progress, for example:

The first years, they want to be told what to do... Third years, you can almost ask them to go away and come back with the problem they want to solve. (Alex)

The women computing students who decide that is for them, they do really well... But the young men - they get distracted in a more "be responsible for yourself" kind of environment. (Ray)

Another aspect was *responding to the student 'mix' in class groups*, for example:

We do have a few part-time students still who are in work... They want to know why this happens in industry rather than just being told that this happens... They certainly contribute a maturity to the class... (Phil)

Several teachers talked of *responding to student needs*, for example:

What I try and do is establish a level with the student to figure out where they are at and what they need, and try and talk to them at that sort of one to one level, try and reach each student where they are. (Kit)

A further aspect of student focus that influenced people's teaching was *fostering a positive classroom climate*, for example:

What I am looking for is the classroom emotional environment, and the interaction I have with the students in and out of class... (Phil)

Two teachers also talked about their *awareness of teacher/student power relationships*, and how they had learned to modify their own behaviour, for example:

Just being aware, that you hold all the power over a student. Nobody told me that when I did my first few years. If they had, I might have been a lot more humble and maybe trodden on a few less toes. (Alex)

Such interpersonal factors in people's teaching seemed to be largely independent of the content of their subject areas, reflecting more their individual personalities and preferred styles of communication. All said they wanted to promote a positive, encouraging atmosphere in their classes, and believed that would contribute to effective learning.

Using a variety of teaching strategies

All the teachers talked about a range of different approaches they used, and their reasons for making different choices. A common reason was *using a strategy that reflected their student focus*, for example:

I like them to bring in what they already understand about the area, maybe some situations they have been in, and we have a discussion or debate. (Kit)

I don't enjoy teaching when I'm the person who is doing all the talking and they are not asking questions or contributing. That becomes quite a challenge where there are sometimes 60 or 70 students in a lecture room and it is a theory class. (Ray)

Teachers also talked of *dealing with course content*, though not as frequently as they talked about their interactions with students. The topic arose mainly in relation to the planning stages of their work, for example:

There is a danger of getting boring about it, and I have to keep reminding myself to update it [the content] a bit. (Ray)

There are some areas [of content] that you have to work as a group and I set them up with a structure... give them all roles... (Alex)

Only Kit mentioned *team teaching with a colleague* as a preferred strategy, and also talked of drawing in staff from outside the department (from the library and study skills centre). Alex was the only one who referred to *using other students as peer tutors* - "Peer support is great" - and saw this as a positive way to promote learning.

The teachers did not always separate their comments into neat categories. For example, Alex here integrates *content* enthusiasm, *student focus* and choice of *teaching strategy*:

I definitely try to fire up my students... The commitment of the passion [for design] is really important. I do sometimes go too fast for some people, so when we have done the demonstration I stop everything and then I wander around, helping those who haven't kept up. (Alex)

Teachers often talked about what 'we' do, suggesting that their teaching practices were in common use among colleagues. Most of the reasons given for choosing particular teaching strategies were practical ones, that took account of matters such as class size, making the content relevant, or managing the pace of progress. No-one commented on ideas from the literature on tertiary education as being the basis for a teaching decision. The data suggested that people had mainly learned in their classrooms, and from colleagues, 'what works' in practice. A later comment by Kit that the CAT courses confirmed and explained existing practice also supports that conclusion. All referred at some stage to the importance of enthusiasm and communication skills, which several linked to the example set by other teachers they considered to be good role models.

Being well organised

All the teachers commented on the need for organisation. *Planning and being prepared* for teaching was necessary, and again seen as something that 'we' not just 'I' do, for example:

Next semester we are hoping to try and get them to write on-line in a computer lab which would be a great bonus. We really want those sorts of things to be very practical and task focussed. (Kit)

Good teaching is seen to be displayed by people who arrive in a classroom well organised and keep the students focussed and attentive and on task for their session as much as they need to. (Ray)

Matters such as planning across classes had to be addressed with colleagues, for example:

Nowadays we will group all our students together for some classes and it's almost a lecture/tutorial sort of thing. So you could have 60 or 70 together and then they would be split up into groups of no more than 20 for labs, tutorials and other class work. (Phil)

Other aspects of being organised related to *meeting quality system requirements*, such as providing clear course information or moderating assessments, for example:

We are now required to publish before the course starts a weekly schedule of what is going to happen. When all the assessments will be and what their content and weighting will be... [but] the order you do things in and how you present them is pretty much up to the tutor. (Phil)

Three of those interviewed were programme leaders, and the fourth taught courses across several programmes, and so for all of them *communicating with colleagues* was an important aspect of being organised:

... keeping the communication going between the staff members who are teaching the various courses... (Ray)

Dealing with other colleagues is a professional issue - because I have to work in different faculties I have to be careful... (Kit)

Polytechnic teachers always did have to organise their own classroom activities, materials and assessments; but the interviews showed that planning, reporting and communication demands had increased during the 1990s and had had to be absorbed into people's workloads. The main reason was said to be the QMS requirements arising from the institution's greater autonomy since 1990.

Complying with institutional requirements

The teachers accepted that there were reasons for the required QMS processes, but also noted the associated institutional 'bureaucracy', for example:

The academic quality assurance, academic management side of things has become a major player in the polytech... (Phil)

... there is so much more admin requirement and accountability and the possibility of getting processes muddled or being mis-informed... (Ray)

Working with colleagues

The teachers associated themselves with smaller groups within the polytechnic, usually their department or a programme team. In some departments, *sharing ideas about teaching* occurred rarely, but in other groups there was more sustained contact, for example:

Everyone is basically too busy, no time. We all help each other if there is something that is not going well, [but] it is up to you, the person who's struggling, to sort of volunteer it and then people will help you out. (Alex)

Those sorts of things evolved in the team rather than individually... and often we just bounced ideas off each other... (Ray)

Thus, although three people referred frequently to the ways 'we' did things in a collegial group, there were also negative comments about effects of working in isolation.

A collegial activity that often drew teachers together around a common interest was *curriculum development*. But a proliferation of new programmes could also mean less awareness of what was going on, for some teachers; for example:

We work pretty closely with the other two programme leaders. We have a sense of the importance of keeping it focussed on that as a whole... (Kit)

We used to have only NZCE, and that didn't change for quite a long time so everyone knew exactly what was going on, but now we have got four programmes, all in their first year or two, and it's going from a very static situation to one that is multitudinously changing and complex. (Phil)

Alex offered examples of both communal and isolated work on curriculum development:

When we were developing a degree, all these principles came up and we had all these in-house arguments... whether you make specialists or generalists... outcomes and assessment criteria... (Alex)

And original course creation and I have simply made that up on my own. People just let me go, because it's a new area, nobody knows how to help you. (Alex)

The tea room and the social stuff comes in, but at that time [as a part-timer] I was only coming in and out to teach my classes, I wasn't always here. (Kit)

Having a sense of community

The teachers commented on a number of matters that I interpreted as a tacit 'sense of community' - or lack of it - in their context. Some of those factors or practices could affect the integration of new staff and part-timers into a department, for example:

Geographical isolation kills a lot of that. Our offices are all in such different places... Of course a lot of the tutors aren't full time... And then some of us are in research, and so you pass like ships in the night... (Alex)

More positive examples also emerged, often related to specific efforts to develop and maintain communication, for example:

One of the things that the staff ed people here are encouraging programme leaders to look at, is keeping the communication going between the staff members who are teaching the various courses... (Ray)

In Phil's department, the community view favoured a largely individual perspective:

Just speaking for our department, tutors are given a lot of autonomy really. Obviously you have to be in class... and all those formal requirements have to be met. But outside of that tutors arrange their affairs to suit themselves... (Phil)

Ray talked of a wider *external community* of computing teachers in other polytechnics who linked to moderate unit standards and maintain a national qualification:

Polytechnics traditionally are not competitive, they never have been. They have always collaborated well. The sharing of ideas that goes on works well... (Ray)

Another community beyond a person's department could be seen in the form of *staff development groups*. Opportunities to meet with other teachers in EDU activities were welcomed by Kit and Ray:

I try and go to all of those things [EDU seminars]. Because even if you get nothing out of it you get to talk to other people. (Kit)

Diploma [DipTT] students were brought together fairly regularly by our staff ed people at the time - for moral support and just bouncing ideas off where we were at and motivating each other... (Ray)

Perceiving that teaching is valued in the polytechnic

The teachers thought that good teaching was valued in the polytechnic, but also offered varying comments about evidence for that, and attitudes they observed:

When I first came there was a heavy emphasis from management on education as a discipline and there was an expectation that all the tutors would be educationalists... I don't get the feeling that the current administration has the same heavy focus on that... (Phil)

There is certainly a response, usually informal if not gossip, when a tutor's teaching qualities are not successful. (Alex)

The people who get promoted are demonstrably good teachers, so they have got proven evaluations and support from other staff... (Ray)

They run the EDU and the learning services area, and that's quite a big chunk of money... But my feeling is that the institution is focussed on bums on seats, first, and teaching is second. (Kit)

Ray reflected on what 'the polytechnic' saw as good teaching:

I think the only way we know what the institution thinks is through our [EDU] people, and they are certainly promoting variety and having a good rapport with a group of students, being organised, those sorts of things. (Ray)

The general perception was that good teaching mattered, but there were some reservations about defining what was valued, and to what extent. The comment about a change of emphasis over time was interesting: Phil had started in 1990, and so the changes observed might be linked to the effect of increasing administrative pressures since then. Alex's suggestion that teaching problems might be noticed more than good teaching could be linked to the staff developer's earlier comment about getting to hear if things weren't right. Two people saw the resourcing of EDU as evidence of the institution's valuing of teaching, though one also expressed some scepticism.

The ways people talked about their work as teachers showed that few had thought consciously about being 'in a community of practice' (Wenger, 1998) and none used that phrase: but examples noted above did indicate a tacit sense of commonly shared practices and attitudes, some associated with the wider institution and others with their departmental group or a programme team.

4.2.4 Findings from class observations

Each of the interviewed teachers nominated a class for me to attend, to observe a sample of their practice. Appendix N contains vignettes developed from my observation notes. The observations showed that the ways the participants talked about their

teaching strategies and student focus were generally consistent with what they actually did in their classrooms. Student numbers ranged from 10 to 19, confirming the statements in *Looking Ahead* about average class sizes. All the teachers were well prepared, with learning materials and activities that suited the content and level of their courses. They had been working with their classes since the beginning of the year, and the students' ease with them indicated a positive rapport had been developed. I did not sense that special efforts had been taken to make a good impression on me as a visitor. Only one gave a lecture-type presentation, while the other three ran their sessions in more varied ways, confirming *Looking Ahead* statements about interactive, face-to-face teaching being typical.

The comments above suggest these experienced teachers would be useful role models for newer staff members to observe in class. If new staff were to ask for explanations of why things were done a particular way or why other methods were not used, however, I believe that the answers would be largely pragmatic, rather than based on personally thought-out educational positions, or reference to books on tertiary teaching or research articles. That conclusion is based on both discussions with the teachers after the class observations, and impressions gained from their interviews. I note also that there was no polytechnic-wide initiative to encourage peer observation and feedback, for either new or more experienced staff.

4.2.5 Teaching in the polytechnic: Some initial conclusions

The policies and practices set out in the polytechnic's documents were typical of those developed in New Zealand polytechnics following the Education Amendment Act (1990).³ The polytechnic's main function was the provision of a variety of vocational and professional education programmes, and the institution's systems, academic programmes and teaching were all focused to that end.

The documents showed that the polytechnic 'said appropriate things' on paper about its mission, and its support for teaching and teachers. There was not a strong 'educational' tone in the some of the language, however: terms like 'delivery' and 'clients' suggested

³ I base that conclusion on comparison with my experiences from 1991 to 1999 as an Academic Board member and educational developer at another polytechnic, my regular work contacts with polytechnic staff developers throughout that period, and my involvement in several NZQA polytechnic degree panels.

a commercial focus on services or products. The managers who produced the documents appeared to have focused on the big picture of running a large organisation, and at times their concern for infrastructure and the QMS seemed to overshadow a view of people engaging in teaching and learning. References in *Looking Ahead* to future teaching trends making increased use of technology and part-time subject-expert teachers also gave a sense of rather impersonal transactions, and an acceptance that not all the polytechnic's teachers would be professional educators.

The educational developer's position on teaching seemed to be aligned with the polytechnic's organisational interests. This was reflected in a concern for developing the quality of teaching delivery by strengthening QMS links between areas such as appraisal, student course evaluations and professional development planning. Gil talked about the importance of polytechnic teachers as role models from the workplaces for which they were preparing students, and the importance of teaching based on educational principles. Such discussion was largely abstract, however, and gave little sense of the 'feel' of teaching and learning in polytechnic classes.

It was only when I came to talk with (and observe) some experienced teachers that a sense of engagement with and commitment to the polytechnic's students emerged more strongly. It was as though the intentions of the Charter and other documents came to life once people started talking about their students and their own work as teachers. Where the documents had declared the importance of teaching, the interviews showed that in practice the people doing the teaching were positive about their work. They were enthusiastic about their students and programmes, despite the busyness of having to teach a number of different classes and subjects every week. They accepted the formal expectations of the institution, and sought practical ways of coping with them.

Overall, teaching in the polytechnic appeared to be well organised and well resourced. Teachers were expected to be well-qualified and appropriately experienced in their content areas, but there was no similar expectation of teaching qualifications. Teaching spaces and facilities were appropriate to the vocational nature of the various programmes, and many were housed in modern, purpose-built buildings. Support services were available for the students. Most teaching still followed common polytechnic patterns from the past, being face-to-face in medium-sized groups. The

teachers I spoke with were concerned about their students and flexible in their approaches to making their subject content relevant to student needs and interests. Although *Looking Ahead* referred to increasing use of on-line teaching, none of them were involved in that yet.

Collectively, the data considered in this section indicated that the polytechnic could be interpreted as a broad 'community of teaching practice' (Wenger, 1998) although it was not explicitly described as such by the participants. 'Being a teacher' was the key factor that linked people who came from other occupations to teach in the polytechnic. Teaching there meant being a member of a large, diverse and diffuse community, and also being a member of one or more sub-communities, both internal and external.

For the teachers, the most immediate sense of teaching community was associated with their programme or department, where local variations of practice and attitudes could be observed, often tacitly accepted or assumed rather than stated explicitly. Examples of some differences that could affect teaching strategies and staff / staff or staff / student relationships in different communities could be seen in the contexts of the four people I interviewed. In the engineering and computing departments, most teachers were full-time, programmes ranged from NQF level 3 (trade) through to degrees, and there was a mix of part-time and full-time students. The computing department emphasised a high level of communication among staff, whereas in engineering there seemed to be less collaboration and more individualism. In the design department, programmes were only diploma or degree level, and most students were full-time, but many staff were part-time, making internal communication and administration more complicated. In communication studies, a small group of staff, some full-time, some part-time, taught supporting courses in qualifications offered by other departments, and so inter-departmental communication was important; it was the only department where team teaching was reported.

The different data sources used in this section thus provided a range of perspectives on teaching in the polytechnic: given that it was a large and diverse organisation, different views were to be expected. Overall, the data were complementary rather than competing: the documents showed that a policy framework to support teaching had been established; the educational developer's view emphasised that systems and quality

of teaching were matters of concern; the interviews with some teachers showed that they were actively engaged in working with students in ways that were likely to achieve the institutional goals.

4.3 What do some experienced teachers say about how they have developed as teachers in the polytechnic?

Now that the general setting of teaching in the polytechnic has been established, some people's experiences in that context can be examined more closely. All findings in this section are drawn from semi-structured interviews with the four teachers, Ray, Alex, Phil and Kit. I asked them to recall what had influenced them when they first joined the polytechnic and since, and how they thought they had developed over time as teachers.

4.3.1 Entry to teaching in the polytechnic

All four had come to the polytechnic with university degree qualifications in their subject areas, and relevant work experience. Unlike school teachers, none had received any pre-service teacher education. Only Ray had also studied at a polytechnic (part-time, in computing) and had a student's perspective of how that environment might differ from a university.

The major themes emerging from the teacher interview transcripts relating to their entry to teaching were: *Becoming interested in teaching*; *Starting in part-time teaching*; *Not knowing things* and *Being supported*.

Becoming interested in teaching

There were variations in people's prior level of interest in teaching. Phil and Alex came from 'school-teaching families', but Phil had never intended to be a teacher, whereas Alex had long seen it as a possibility. Kit had intended to be a secondary teacher, but at university had become a teaching assistant and then a lecturer. Ray had not thought about teaching until mid-career, and later changed from teaching science to teaching computing.

I replied to an advertisement and got a number of part-time jobs here [while still running a design business]... Then a full-time tutor left and the HOD shoulder-tapped me... (Alex)

I had a very good job [as a technician] at the university, which I really enjoyed... By that stage I had a family and a mortgage and the opportunity to teach here came up, on much better conditions... seemed like a good career move. (Phil)

I came out of university and did research work, then had ten years out of the workforce bringing up children. Then I was offered the opportunity of coming to Polytech, part-time, teaching science... I came into it mainly because a couple of friends seemed to be really enjoying it. (Ray)

Motivations to enter teaching thus varied, and coming to the polytechnic was a big step when it involved a change of direction away from a successful career in another occupation. The teachers recognised that what they brought from their prior working context was important, for example:

... if you don't know the world how can you make a value judgement on how to train students for it? (Alex)

Starting as a part-timer

Three people had begun at the polytechnic part-time, and only Phil was full-time from the start. Induction and probation processes had been in place, but they were only for full-time staff. Tutor training was available, but mandated only for full-timers and rarely taken up by part-timers. Those interviewed did not do any training until they became full-time – meaning a delay of several years for Alex and Ray.

I didn't have any formal induction, and I was never on probation. (Ray)

As a part-timer I got minimum instruction and no theory whatsoever. It was a case of "Do what you do best and off you go"... I don't think I even had an introductory afternoon. (Alex)

Not knowing things

While the teachers were appointed because of their content expertise, their early experiences in the polytechnic showed there were things they did not know about teaching, and several referred to making mistakes:

So I sort of stumbled through and yeah, I made lots of mistakes which were unnecessary, but all in all things went quite well. (Alex)

It was scary. I really did not know what teaching meant. (Ray)

I came in as a part-time tutor to start with and they said, right, here is the course. I didn't know what a unit standard was. (Kit)

Being supported

Most participants reported receiving positive support from colleagues, and picking things up from their peers, especially once they became full-time.

X coordinated a team of five of us teaching ten classes... So there was a lot of guidance. (Ray)

Once I became full-time obviously I went to the staff meetings, I went to the degree development meetings, all of those sorts of things. I started learning the language just off my peers. (Alex)

Then - really by osmosis I suppose - you find somebody that you could co-teach with and you talk to them, and then you go to meetings. (Kit)

Phil, who started full-time, took up tutor training sooner than the others, but made no comment on memories of induction, probation or other departmental support.

Several acknowledged there had been some difficulties in getting started, especially if they had been part-time, but all had found the job satisfying and stayed on, and three of the four remembered positive support from colleagues as they were getting established. Their experiences and comments show that the polytechnic allowed new teachers to move straight into teaching with minimum preparation, relying on the appointment process to identify people with subject expertise and some communication skills. If someone like Kit had prior teaching experience (as a university lecturer) that was a bonus, but not expected. A period of part-time service in effect served as an informal probation - but without the support mechanisms associated with probation for full-timers. It seems ironic that teachers educating students for vocational careers were themselves so little educated for the teaching aspect of their own new career – but that situation had existed for many years in polytechnics and its underlying assumptions did not seem to be challenged.

4.3.2 Formal learning about tertiary teaching

“Formal” learning is used here (and in the two following case studies) as defined by Marsick and Watkins (1990) to refer to learning through participation in organised activities such as EDU seminars and workshops, or courses leading to qualifications. The key themes emerging from the interviews that related to formal learning about

polytechnic teaching were: *Participating in organised courses or staff development*; *Gaining a tertiary teaching qualification*; and *Responding to participation in seminars and courses*.

Participating in organised courses or staff development

All had participated in some form of teacher training or development at some stage of their career in the polytechnic.

In your first two years there was six weeks per year compulsory tutor training. The first year I did the course as they suggested to me. (Phil)

I make a point of attending the visiting lecturers. So I keep in touch with little bits and pieces... (Alex)

I was straight into teaching [as a part-timer]. I did not do the CAT courses that are required for new tutors now... I did courses like TET [tutor effectiveness training] as part of my own development. (Ray)

Those comments suggest that the *timing* of participation is an issue to consider – how early in their teaching career teachers were able (or encouraged) to participate in basic training, whether they continued in later years, and how frequently they attended the shorter activities. Only Phil mentioned other people (such as a supervisor) suggesting training attendance. Another point to note is that Phil's six weeks at the regional Tutor Training Unit (TTU) were in two-week blocks released from regular teaching time, made possible because of relief staffing paid for under national provisions that ended in the early 1990s: those provisions had not applied to any of the others.

The teachers were expected to use some of their professional development time to keep up-to-date in their subject areas, or to gain higher qualifications (e.g. Kit's PhD studies). Thus competing demands could reduce the priority given to teaching-related professional development.

Gaining a tertiary teaching qualification

Only two of the four interviewed had gained a tertiary teaching qualification. Ray had completed the polytechnic's DipTT (part-time, two years, mainly self-directed study), and valued the experience. Kit had completed CAT (12 weeks, in block or part-time modules) and did not see it as comparable to the full-time secondary teacher training s/he had once considered. Phil chose not to complete the TTU certificate, "Partly

because I didn't find the tutor training particularly relevant or helpful." Alex did not complete all the CAT modules.

There was no indication that non-completion of TTU or CAT caused concern to these teachers, or that their supervisors pressed people to complete. Having taught for some years and gained experience that enabled them to perform adequately in the job, they became involved with other more immediate issues, such as dealing with students, developing curriculum, dealing with assessments, writing reports. If a new teaching concern arose it was likely to be solved by 'just-in time' training through attending an EDU seminar, or by seeking one-to-one help from an EDU member, or a colleague (see also 4.4.3, below).

Responding to participation in seminars and courses

All four teachers commented positively on their participation in EDU's occasional one-day seminars and workshops. In commenting on the more sustained tutor training courses they attended, Alex and Phil made negative comments, but Kit and Ray were more positive. Key issues they raised related to *valuing what was learned* and *making links to their own teaching*.

In my first or second full-time year I did a one-week CAT module... It was very school oriented and very patronising... What we got at the CAT course was basic learning theory - visual/audio/kinaesthetic. (Alex)

I didn't make the connection between that [educational theory] and what happened in the classroom... I didn't come out of TTU feeling that I was much better equipped than when I went in. (Phil)

But when I got into the [CAT] course... I didn't actually do anything different but I knew why I was doing things. It confirmed that I was on the right track. (Kit)

[Doing the diploma] made an enormous difference. That was a real journey and I still look back on it and think that I just got so much out of doing that process. (Ray)

The teachers thus offered mixed responses on the value of formal opportunities for learning about teaching. One-day activities, which people could choose to attend or not depending on the advertised topic and their other commitments, were commended, and they all continued to attend them occasionally. The old TTU and newer CAT programmes were less favoured: Alex and Phil had not completed them, and Phil

claimed that colleagues shared a perception that the teaching methods modelled in TTU courses did not transfer well to teaching in technical areas⁴. Kit had finished CAT, but felt it confirmed existing practice, rather than leading to new learning. Only Ray, who had completed the more substantial DipTT, was positive about gaining a tertiary teaching qualification.

Issues that stand out include the sporadic nature of people's participation in formal learning opportunities; the varying experiences and responses reported; and the tacit acceptance of a lack of structure and sequence in people's preparation for teaching. These teachers had all completed substantial qualifications in their subject areas, yet they accepted that no similar professional qualification was necessary to be a tertiary teacher. They knew that the institution provided courses and continuing professional development, yet three of the group expressed no sense that completing a coherent programme of study or gaining a qualification really mattered to their teaching practice or their career in the institution. One factor that could influence a decision not to seek a qualification might be the low level and small size of the polytechnic's CAT compared with their subject degrees. Another factor was departmental pressure to use professional development time for subject area updating or higher qualifications – particularly the latter, for those teaching in degrees.

4.3.3 Informal and incidental learning about tertiary teaching

Informal and incidental learning are used here (and in the following two case studies) as defined by Marsick and Watkins (1990, 2001). As they consider 'incidental' to be a subset of 'informal', I have not set out to categorise separately every example offered below. The key themes emerging from the teacher interview transcripts that related to informal ways of learning about teaching were: *Learning from personal experiences*; *Learning from role models*; *Learning from working with colleagues* and *Seeking individual help from EDU*.

⁴ From 1981-1986 the old TTU programme had included a two-week "Special Method" block, which placed new tutors with experienced teachers in their own subject area, to study issues related to "teaching this technical subject or skill". Those blocks disappeared after the TTU regionalisation in 1987, however, and so Phil and others appointed later missed that opportunity to gain 'pedagogical content knowledge'.

Learning from personal experiences

Some participants talked about *learning by trial and error* in the course of their teaching work, and linked that to possible effects on students:

I've certainly learnt a lot of the interpersonal skills tutors that have to have... Just noticing students' reactions and what's really going on... (Alex)

I quite liked being given the scope to learn it for myself, without too much detriment to the students I hope. (Kit)

Phil commented on having limited expectations of being able to learn to teach, and relying more on *being intuitive*:

There are techniques which you can adopt and practices which can be shown to be beneficial ... But, for me anyway, my teaching, it's an intuitive thing and springs out of who I am and can't be drastically modified really. (Phil)

Others referred to *reflecting on experience*:

When something doesn't work you have to fix it. And it forces you to be reflective because you have got to analyse what you are doing. (Alex)

Some commented on *responding to student feedback*, for example:

I ask them at the end... is there anything that you feel like I need to go back over with you? Then I mull it over a bit and see if there is a better way I could have taught it. (Kit)

Few offered memories of specific things they had learned from experience, or examples of changes made as a result of reflection, but all were clear that they had had to work things out for themselves as their classes proceeded.

Learning from role models

All mentioned role models, mainly teachers they had observed at school or university:

What I really got from all these people was that ability to communicate something they are passionate about. From xx I got the presentation style that I try to use... then various other tutors who I decided I would never want to be like. (Alex)

I have taught from instinct - based on what I have liked other people doing in the classroom... (Kit)

Phil remembered a very demanding school teacher who had impressed him, although other pupils had not liked the style. "I don't think I am like that, partly because I don't think it's appropriate for the kind of students we have got". Phil found it hard to analyse what had been successful for others: "When I think of the best teachers I have had in my life, they have all been doing just what they do".

Only two referred to role models within the polytechnic context: Ray, who had completed a computing qualification, and Kit, who said, "I love going to other people's classes because you see things they do."

The personal qualities of role models had particularly influenced people. There was some awareness that what had worked in a school or university setting would not necessarily apply in the polytechnic. The teachers were clear about practices or attitudes they would like to emulate (such as enthusiasm and ways of communicating), and those they judged should be avoided (such as behaviours that bored students or over-stressed them). I concluded that having good role models for ways of relating to students was important for these teachers, because they talked a great deal about the interpersonal aspects of their teaching.

Learning from working with colleagues

There were varied examples of learning with colleagues, and a number of different relationships involved, such as mentoring, being in a team, being in a curriculum development group, or being supervised; for example:

I did have a very good buddy/mentor colleague who had taught that course for a long time... (Ray)

One of my supervisors [at university] had gone through that TA training and she was really helpful with that sort of thing. She gave me one of those file boxes over there full of articles about tertiary teachers. (Kit)

When we were developing a degree... of course if it wasn't for that I wouldn't know half what I know now. (Alex)

The main things reported as learned from or with colleagues related to subject content, teaching techniques and assessment. While the examples given above are limited, this category of learning was ongoing through people's careers. Such learning was, however, sporadic and unplanned, largely reactive and depending on circumstances at

any given time. Phil made no specific comment about learning from colleagues, but talked rather of being in a department where autonomy and working independently were valued. None referred to changing practice as response to peer observations of their teaching.

Seeking help from EDU

Two people gave examples of seeking one-to-one support from the EDU staff that had contributed to their learning about teaching:

I had a class that put in a complaint and that was dealt with, with an SGID process [by EDU staff] which I found extraordinarily affirming and helpful, and I sort of went forward from there. (Ray)

I get more actually out of talking to [EDU staff] one on one... helping you figure out a step-by-step programme or just giving you an idea... (Kit)

Overall, Alex, Ray and Kit talked of a range of ways they learned informally, and a variety of things learned that way, from interpersonal skills to course planning to presentation style. Phil, who had a low opinion of the formal TTU courses, also said little about informal learning apart from referring to role models and depending on personal intuition. Words like *osmosis*, *instinct*, *intuition*, *noticing reactions*, *reflecting* suggest that the teachers' informal learning was rarely deliberate or planned, but became revealed through gradual changes of practice or attitudes adopted over a period of time. In several instances, reactions to things going wrong had led to changes, but people rarely recalled specific events.

Given the low participation in formal learning about teaching that three of these people reported, and earlier comments by all about coping when they first entered teaching, the data suggest that informal on-the-job learning had played a significant (but largely tacit and unacknowledged) part in the development of their teaching. Since the institution had not insisted early in their careers on a substantial involvement in teacher training, they could assume that they were expected to continue to learn on-the-job and that that was acceptable. That assumption would be reinforced by the attitudes of staff around them who had gone through similar processes and had no different expectations.

The growing busyness of polytechnic teachers through the 1990s meant that all the teachers had had to cope with new requirements as they were introduced. Examples affecting the interviewed teachers had included developing new programmes, new QMS requirements, and dealing with larger and more diverse student groups. Some of those changes had been gradual, others rapid. Learning by ‘adapting the next time the course is offered’ was a common reaction: a mixture of trial and error and finding out what colleagues were doing in similar circumstances. The cyclical nature of the teaching year provided an underlying pattern of events that could be expected, and I concluded that most of the experiential learning people referred to had been evolutionary rather than revolutionary.

4.3.4 Developing a sense of identity as a teacher

As people talked about their work and their attitudes to it, their views of themselves as teachers gradually emerged. Some found it difficult to answer the question, “What sort of teacher are you?” but responses to other questions indirectly provided insights.

For some, *being self-aware* emerged as they talked about their approach to what they did in class, for example:

When I first started I was quite intense as a teacher. It was a big deal, I took it pretty seriously and I was eager... That particular experience I don't think can last... but then intuitive and innate skills for teaching were learnt by that stage... (Phil)

[I think I am] a friendly teacher... I am consciously aware of whether people are on board or not. (Ray)

Other comments put an emphasis on *being enthusiastic* and *being knowledgeable* as important aspects of being a teacher, for example:

I try to let them know that I think what I am teaching is great and it's exciting, and they have got to think it's exciting too, because it is. (Alex)

I feel like I am very strong in the content side of things. I feel that in all the classes I teach I have got sufficient mastery of the subject matter. (Phil)

Some pondered on what *being a teacher* meant to them, and some questioned whether they even agreed with the label of ‘teacher’, for example:

Sure, teaching is a profession, but in a way what we are doing here is not really teaching. At school they do teaching. There is a lovely phrase, 'enablers of learning' - that's what it's all about. Tutoring or mentoring to me sound better terms than 'teaching'. (Alex)

I think some teachers here still see themselves as plumbers or electricians. They teach plumbing but they are plumbers not teachers... I do some engineering, but I feel like I am a teacher, I am conscious of that and it is part of my self image. (Phil)

Ray, who had completed the DipTT and had become a programme leader, was happy to stay teaching in lower level computing courses, and said:

I am much more of an educator than I am a computer person ... (Ray)

For one person, *being autonomous as a teacher* was important personally, but also seen as part of being a teacher in a particular department:

We have always had a lot of autonomy and that fosters ownership, people take responsibility for their entire career. It's good, I like it. (Phil)

The teachers' accounts suggested that many factors could influence what sort of teacher they became, and how they saw themselves as teachers. Their personalities, their expectations of what it meant to teach in a polytechnic, their enthusiasm for their subject, how they organised their work, how they related to students and colleagues, and how they perceived the demands of their context all contributed - the mix was different for each person. Analysis of the data (such as the way they talked about their students and how they went about their teaching) revealed that their 'teaching identity' had developed mainly through having to perform on-the-job. In-service courses that followed initial practice tended to complement or confirm that learning rather than introducing radical changes. Many of their beliefs about teaching and education were more tacit than explicit, and emerged as they talked about other matters. They were teachers because they were employed to teach in a polytechnic, not because they had professional teaching qualifications, as would be the case for schoolteachers.

While the staff developer had talked about the importance of educational principles, the interviewed teachers said little that suggested their view of themselves as teachers had a strong theoretical underpinning: that is hardly surprising when we consider most had not been exposed to substantial studies of education or teaching. Only Ray, as part of

the DipTT programme, had ever been asked to engage in sustained and systematic reflection and to spell out a personal educational philosophy.

4.3.5 Developing as teachers in the polytechnic: some initial conclusions

The teacher interviews revealed competing ideas. On the one hand they reflected people who were committed to their work as teachers in a polytechnic context, and positive about their students and the programmes they were involved with, despite having to operate within a number of institutional constraints. They communicated effectively, were enthusiastic about their subjects, and saw themselves as 'polytechnic teachers'. On the other hand it was evident that as individuals they all had followed varied routes in their teaching careers, and there was a lack of consistency in the ways they had been prepared for and supported in becoming teachers.

When starting off these teachers quickly had to learn to cope, especially in those part-time positions. Institutional induction and probation processes had had little effect for them. With respect to their more formal learning about teaching, despite the institution's provision of a minimal certificate qualification, it had been possible to bypass that, or join so late that habitual teaching practices had already been formed. Only one, out of personal interest, had progressed further to a diploma and had valued that educational experience. Time factors seemed to make occasional single-day sessions more attractive, but even those had to compete with making time for content updating. The data reveal that most of their learning about teaching had been informal and incidental, based largely on trial and error or role models. In reflecting on their own teaching practice, the most common areas of focus were students, classroom techniques and organisation.

The data raise the question of whether the staff interviewed, other than the one who had completed DipTT, had developed an integrated, educational perspective on their own teaching practice, or could articulate a personal philosophy of tertiary education. They had learned, mainly through experience, 'what worked' in teaching their subjects to the sorts of students usually found in their classes. Among colleagues, talk about teaching also tended to be pragmatic, about ways of getting things done, rather than reflecting on educational ideas, or discussing educational publications or research.

All had become established members of the polytechnic and of their departments and programme teams, and in those groups both collegiality and relative isolation could be experienced. Three of the four had progressed to become programme leaders, recognised by the institution as able to take on a wider role than just teaching their own student classes. They were thus in a position to influence other teachers in matters such as curriculum development and administration, and likely, as experienced staff, to be asked to help support new staff in their community – which had happened for the design and computing teachers. Attitudes and patterns of behaviour such as those outlined above were therefore likely to influence the information and processes they thought were important to pass on to newly appointed teachers.

4.4 What provision does the polytechnic make for the teacher education and development of its academic staff?

This section addresses the polytechnic's support for teacher education and development during the period of data collection for this case study. This section considers particularly the polytechnic's policies for teacher education and development, and how they are implemented. Most of the data for this section comes from the documents and educational developer interview, and less from the teacher interviews.

4.4.1 Findings from the documents

Details of policies relating to academics' probation, appraisal, promotion and professional development were supplied to me in printed booklets. Key provisions in the policies were matched by clauses in the *Academic Staff Members' Collective Employment Agreement*. The provisions fell into two main groups, discussed below: *general support for career development*, and more specific *teacher education and professional development*.

General career development support

Staff support was intended to start early: "Where possible staff will begin their employment prior to commencing duties in order to receive a thorough induction and orientation" (Staff Handbook, p. 9).

The *Probation* (1998) booklet said that new teachers in tenured full-time or proportional positions might be on probation for up to two years. During the process, regular reports were to be written by a probationer's Dean, using criteria aligned with those of the appraisal process. The first year was described as more developmental, the second year as more summative. Probation activities included teaching observations by the Dean, student evaluations, self-appraisal, and assessment by colleagues. Opportunities for the probationary teacher to observe others were offered. If significant concerns arose during probation, there were formal processes to be followed. Once an appointment was confirmed, the teacher would move into the regular appraisal system.

The *Annual Appraisal* (2000) booklet said that appraisal was mainly summative but included some formative (developmental) elements. The purposes were to: meet external audit requirements; provide constructive feedback to staff; support ongoing personal and professional development; address barriers to good performance; and achieve the polytechnic's goal of providing a quality student learning environment. The cyclical appraisal process included links to staff members' job descriptions and annual professional development plans, and the system had recently been revised to include mentors.

The *Promotion Pack* (2000), like the appraisal and probation materials, was very detailed. It contained a guidelines booklet for the current year, deadlines, criteria for the levels concerned (based on the *Collective Employment Agreement* schedules), and forms for self-evaluation, Dean's input, and peer verification.

While those processes, especially probation and appraisal, were linked to the institution's QMS reporting, they were also designed to provide regular self- and peer-feedback for teachers. It appeared that care had been taken in designing the processes so that they would not be perceived only as tools of management.

Teacher education and professional development

The *Staff Handbook* stated that a Personal and Professional Development Plan was to be negotiated annually by each staff member. The following range of learning opportunities for staff was listed (p. 10):

- Courses:

- (a) Mainstream, available to all staff at discounted rates
- (b) CAT and DipTT for teaching staff
- Seminars and workshops offered on a needs basis
- Online packages, some customised for staff, others from the Internet
- Mentoring and peer review
- Coaching and 1:1 tuition where appropriate
- Use of in-house expertise and colleagues for help, advice and support
- External expertise when required
- Support, advice and training programmes from HR's Staff Development Coordination Service.

The *Staff Handbook* acknowledged that most staff appointed as teachers did not have prior teacher training:

Academic staff will be required to attend CAT courses if they have not had previous appropriate training as an educator. This will be part of their Professional Development Plan (p. 9).

The *Collective Employment Agreement* section dealing with Training and Professional Development addressed teacher development in more detail. Key points were:

- **Reciprocal commitment:** employee obligation to maintain and enhance competencies, and employer obligation to ensure access to timely and appropriate training and development opportunities
- **Training:** tenured academics will receive up to 12 weeks⁵ recognised training in the practice of adult and tertiary education... appropriate training opportunities will be available pro rata to limited tenure staff.
- **Professional development:** full-time academic staff will have ten duty days per year for professional development activities...

The notion of professional development as an investment was stated in *Looking Ahead*:

As a learning institution we invest many thousands of dollars and hours into the ongoing professional development of our staff... (p. 12.3)

Looking Ahead also commented on expected future staffing patterns:

We foresee that the concept of tenure will change and that the proportion of tenured, full-time staff in the Polytechnic is likely to dilute. (p. 12.3)

If that change were to occur, then there would be implications for staff training since, at the time of the case study, teacher training was focused only on tenured, full-time staff.

⁵ This *entitlement* of up to 12 weeks was a change from the pre-1990 national tutor employment provision that *required* all new full-time tutors to complete 12 weeks of training, centrally funded.

The polytechnic was one of a number that provide tertiary teaching qualifications, for both their own staff and external participants, offering a *Certificate in Adult Teaching* (CAT) and a *Diploma in Tertiary Teaching* (DipTT). CAT was described as 40 credits at Level 4, which is very low for ‘professional’ education.⁶ Staff developing it had used the National Certificate in Adult Education and Training Level 4 as a benchmark. Classes were regularly offered in all CAT modules (an annual timetable was published), and completing the full qualification would enable staff to fulfil the 12 weeks of training referred to in the *Collective Employment Agreement*.

The DipTT was described as 120 credits at level 7. It specified eight curriculum areas and 12 broad learning outcomes, to be achieved through mainly individual, self-paced study. Outcomes included: “develop and articulate a philosophy of teaching and learning relevant to tertiary teaching” and “develop, describe and integrate a theoretical framework for understanding adult learning”. The curriculum was underpinned by the concepts of experiential learning, reflective education, capability education and action research.

The institutional documents made little reference to informal learning through teachers’ experiences on-the-job. There was some evidence, however, to suggest that the polytechnic did support and encourage staff in such learning. One example would be the *Staff Handbook* references to mentoring, peer review, coaching, and use of colleagues for help, advice and support (p. 10). The inclusion in the *Collective Employment Agreement* Schedules of: “Evaluate and reflect on own practice in order to identify directions and strategies for development” supported informal learning from experience as well as more formal learning initiatives. An *EDU poster* for staff notice boards included “help from colleagues” and “one-to-one support and advice through HR” as informal opportunities among a wider range of more formal offerings.

Overall, the policies and procedures provided for professional development to occur within a context that linked employment agreement / staff profile / job description / probation / professional development / appraisal / promotion. The provision of professional development could therefore be audited as part of the institution’s QMS, to

⁶ Levels 5, 6 and 7 are equivalent to 1st, 2nd and 3rd year university study, and 120 credits represent a full year of study time.

show that the polytechnic was addressing Charter goals relating to its staff. The implementation included resourcing of the EDU staff and activities, annual professional development release time for teachers, and funding for staff attending external conferences or enrolled in formal studies.

4.4.2 Findings from the educational developer interview

Most of the findings below come from the interview with Gil. The initial background information, however, was supplied by a second educational developer, because I found that Gil had left the polytechnic when I sought to ask further questions to clarify the status of the EDU.

Background:

In the period 1973 to about 1991 this polytechnic, like all the others, used the national Tutor Training Unit (and later a regionalised TTU) for the basic training of its full-time teaching staff. The TTU provided 12 weeks of training, in two- and four-week blocks, fully funded by the Department of Education (including travel costs and relief staffing). In the late 1970s the polytechnic established its own educational development unit (EDU), which was responsible for internal professional development that complemented the work of TTU. It was EDU staff who developed an internal DipTT to provide professional development for tutors who had completed the TTU certificate. The polytechnic's CAT was developed later, when the unit took on the work of initial training after the regional TTU closed.

In 1999 the EDU was restructured and dispersed: one developer was relocated in Human Resources (HR), and the other three in a teaching department. At the time of the case study interviews those four people were still collectively involved in organising a range of staff development activities for the polytechnic's teachers, providing support on request to individuals or groups of staff, teaching CAT modules, and supervising DipTT students. Where EDU is referred to throughout this case study, it relates to that group of people and the cluster of functions they were responsible for, but not to a physical centre.

The main themes to emerge from Gil's interview relating to teacher education and development were: *Supporting new teachers; Meeting specific needs and requests;*

Providing qualifications and pathways; and Recognising the divided focus of staff development.

Supporting new teachers in the polytechnic

Gil said most early-career support for new teachers came from their departmental colleagues, supervisor and Dean during probation, noting that such support could be variable:

It is interesting to see when they are supported, or how they are supported... If it is a good department and good school they will be supported well. If it is not then there can be some problems. (PD1)

The main form of EDU support for new teachers came through the first two modules of the CAT programme, which Gil thought most new teachers welcomed:

People that come in are right up to date with their field and their new challenge... is actually teaching, and they are very ready to learn. (PD1)

New teachers who recognised they were having difficulties could receive individual help from EDU staff if they asked for it:

A lot of the requests I get... simply lack of teaching experience and they require some ambulance type assistance at that level. (PD1)

Gil did not see EDU as playing a major role in teachers' early service in the polytechnic, except through the CAT programme. If staff did not attend CAT modules, they might have very little early contact with EDU, which did not have a formal part in the induction and orientation processes. EDU staff were not involved in observing and giving feedback to teachers during probation, unless invited to do so by a new teacher. That was the process established by the probation policy, and was not challenged in Gil's plans for improving systems.

Meeting specific needs and requests

Gil commented on the wide range of activities that EDU provided, to meet the needs of individuals or groups in the polytechnic. Most were at a level of dealing with practical issues, rather than broadening educational understanding of practice.

Assessment, moderation, programme redevelopment, types of resources, teaching methods - a very wide range.

...day to day classroom management - student feedback is focussed at that level and they realise they have to do something about that area.

Some people have done [school] teacher training... Some intuitively teach very well... Others need some very basic training. So any procedures we put in place have to address those different levels.

Gil noted that a key function of the EDU member located in HR was to help staff members to plan their individual development programmes, but any EDU member could be approached with a request for individual help.

Providing qualifications and pathways

Gil did not seem to have high expectations that all staff would complete a tertiary teaching qualification, but acknowledged that some could go further:

There is a requirement now when new staff are appointed that they do CAT 1A and 1B... [i.e. not the full CAT]

There is a progression from the certificate through to the diploma... or articulate into a degree ⁷ ... You have got to provide pathways...

I hope in fact that those who have done CAT / Diploma type courses will have a much better conception of what their teaching is about.

Recognising the divided focus of staff development

Polytechnic staff were expected to keep up to date in their subject areas, as well as developing their teaching skills, and Gil said this could create tension for staff when considering their priorities. The polytechnic's widespread use of part-time teachers was also noted, creating a development need that was not currently being met.

In some areas their expertise / knowledge area is changing so rapidly, and to keep up with that must be a major effort... Let alone on top of that we say we also want you to put more emphasis on your teaching.

... to get the people who have got the expertise, and the way we run our programmes, we are required to employ a number of part-time staff. There is a real professional development issue there and it becomes a resourcing issue.

Gil's systems emphasis emerged again when discussing staff development in relation to institutional purposes and accountability:

⁷ The polytechnic did not offer a degree in tertiary teaching, but staff were able to enrol, with cross-credits from DipTT, in the BEd(AdultEd) offered by a university.

Where does responsibility ultimately lie, for ensuring that not only is professional development offered but that tutors participate... Because you have got EDU, you have got Schools, you have got Faculties... Appraisal at the moment sits with HR, and it's through HR that we are trying to get the overall view of a professional development programme.

The main things Gil talked about in relation to teacher development related to meeting identified needs (of both institution and staff) and linking to institutional systems. Gil focused on the EDU's role in supporting more formal institutional initiatives, and said little about informal / experiential learning about teaching. It was clear that teachers could seek one-to-one support, for example to request immediate help if student feedback had identified problems, rather than waiting to join a timetabled seminar or workshop in the area of concern. Other informal learning was unlikely to come to the attention of EDU in any systematic way. It might be noted in teachers' professional development plans or appraisals, but those records were not seen by EDU staff. Little was said about Gil's own teaching in EDU seminars or CAT modules, or building rapport with staff attending EDU activities.

4.4.3 Findings from the teacher interviews

The teachers' comments on their own personal development were placed in section 4.3 above. Their more general comments on staff development for other people have been included below. I asked what they thought the polytechnic now did, or should do, to support teaching staff, recognising that some things had changed since they themselves had started. Some responses in this section expressed what the interviewed staff would want if they were starting off again, while other responses addressed what they currently did with new staff. The main themes that emerged were: *Dealing with practicalities; Asking for help; Seeking EDU help; Observing and trying things out; Joining a teaching course and Supporting continuing development*. Factors mentioned less frequently were *induction and probation*, and *being mentored*.

Dealing with practicalities was a common concern. As a programme leader, Alex frequently had to deal with new part-time staff, and said:

We show them the minimum administrative requirements... I always have a talk about the style we try to do things, attitudes - super friendly, super warm and fuzzy... I also go through the sort of things that will likely go wrong and how to react to them, and the sort of technicians we have - it's OK to say "I don't know, I will go and get someone"... (Alex)

Asking for help was an issue: although the teachers were willing to help, three noted that new staff would probably need to identify that they had a problem and ask for help:

Ask for contact with someone else who is teaching in the same area... if people approach me [as programme leader] I will make time, but I don't necessarily seek them out. (Ray)

Only Kit suggested a form of *mentoring* as a response to requests for help, and related it to the busyness of people in teaching departments:

It would be really good, I think, if they organised that from the top so that a new tutor would have somebody over there [in EDU] - one person they could go to and say "help". Because people in your own area are often just too busy... (Kit)

Seeking EDU help: All were aware that this was available. While Phil had been critical of tutor training courses, the individual support EDU offered was commended:

I know the Head of School is keen to see new staff make use of what's available and we are pretty quick to get their [EDU] help if problems occur... (Phil)

Observing and trying things out: While several people referred to trying things out, only Kit recommended that time be allocated for observing other teachers:

In a way you need to spend a term looking at other people teach - maybe having one class and then the rest of the time attending other classes and just see what other people do. Then try it out on the group you have got. (Kit)

Joining a teaching course: All recommended the CAT programme for new staff, including Phil, who had some personal reservations. Ray said "I would have been more confident if I could have attended early on". Alex noted that part-time staff were unlikely to attend. Kit saw it as confirming other learning about teaching.

One of the big issues that stops you from attending [CAT] is workload, you just don't get the time... I suggest it to them all, but part-timers don't want to go. (Alex)

And then follow it [observing other teachers] up with the CAT courses or something just to sort of certify it all. (Kit)

Only Ray specifically mentioned *induction and probation*:

I have found that process useful for ensuring that a new staff member is looked after and absorbed into the culture as easily as possible. (Ray)

Overall, only Kit suggested specific changes to support new teachers, with the idea of a low teaching load in the first term, more time for observing other teachers, and an allocated contact person or mentor from EDU. No-one referred to optimum timing for attending CAT courses, use of departmental mentors, or specific teaching or administrative matters that might need to be addressed early on. Three of the four suggested it was up to newly appointed teachers to ask for help, because existing staff were so busy. Yet, as shown in section 4.3, when they were just starting themselves these teachers had all experienced concerns about coping and being supported, and about learning from trial and error. This situation raises questions about the extent to which their current departmental communities were aware of the need to be pro-active in taking care of new members.

Supporting continuing development: Three teachers commented positively on the EDU's provision of seminars and workshops, and their relevance for more experienced teachers. For example, Ray said:

There is no excuse for our staff to feel like they have no support for professionally developing their teaching. There are courses advertised regularly, block courses during the breaks, or evening courses... (Ray)

On the other hand, Phil reported that EDU's continuing development opportunities were not widely taken up by some staff:

In our department the focus [of professional development] was usually squarely on the content rather than teaching development. (Phil)

To sum up, data from the teacher interviews show that there was general acceptance that the polytechnic's teacher development provisions were desirable, but their use by individual staff was very variable. Decisions to participate were generally made by individuals, but occasionally a department would suggest or require attendance. Several forms of support for new staff were discussed: most people accepted the status quo and made few suggestions for change or improvement. The educational developer had observed that there could be variations between departments in the quality of early support, and some of the teachers' comments appeared to support that conclusion.

4.4.4 Supporting teacher development: some initial conclusions

The polytechnic had clear policies and provisions for supporting staff in their careers and in their specific development as teachers. Induction and probation were central requirements but relied mainly on departments for their implementation, and so there could be local variations in the support given to new staff. There was recognition that, although newly appointed staff would be suitably qualified and experienced in their subject areas, they were unlikely to be qualified teachers. The CAT programme offered initial tertiary teacher education, but was a very small, low-level qualification to offer to people engaged in a professional occupation. Its completion was also stated as an expectation rather than a requirement. Although *Looking Ahead* recognised that tertiary teaching had become more demanding, with greater student diversity and more emphasis on student-centred teaching methods and online developments, the size and level of CAT had remained static. The advanced qualification, DipTT, did not appear to be taken up by large numbers of staff. Resourcing of professional development provisions for full-time tenured staff was a significant institutional commitment, but little provision was made for part-time staff. Although the latter were able to attend EDU courses and seminars if they wished, they were not required to complete any form of probation or introductory teaching qualification.

The picture of teacher development presented by the staff developer addressed the interests of both institution and individual staff, with some emphasis on quality systems matters. Gil confirmed that the documented processes for teacher support through probation, appraisal and professional development were in use. Concern was expressed at the lack of resources for training part-time teachers - but the status quo was accepted, with no suggestions for change. The main things that teachers asked EDU for were reported to be practical teaching matters.

Apart from the CAT modules, it appeared EDU had little regular contact with newly appointed teachers. Practices such as mentoring, or observation and feedback on teaching, that could have enhanced the probation process, were not commonly provided by EDU staff. In my experience as a staff developer, new teachers on probation who have difficulties may hesitate to admit concerns to a direct supervisor, whereas staff developers can be seen as more 'neutral' sources of assistance. The quality of observation and feedback from a Dean or departmental colleague is also very dependent

on those people's own levels of teaching expertise and educational knowledge. The stronger educational background of most educational developers and their awareness of a wide range of teaching practices across the institution could make EDU mentoring a valuable source of support in the probation process.

The data from the documents and the education developer indicated a number of implications for teacher development in the polytechnic. The cumulative effect of the scattering of the staff of a formerly cohesive educational unit; the placement of one of the staff developers in HR; the low emphasis on expecting staff to complete all modules of the CAT programme; the small size and low level of the CAT as a professional qualification; the language of 'delivery' and references to accountability and systems requirements; the lack of EDU involvement in the teacher probation process – all these did little to promote the idea of teaching-related development as a focal point of *educational* stimulus within the institution. Factors such as those had the potential to influence the polytechnic teaching community's view of the purpose and value of staff development, and could be linked to Phil's comment cited earlier, about seeing less "emphasis from management on education as a discipline" in recent times.

I gained the impression from the teachers, when I asked about forms of support for newer staff, that 'the way we do things here' had been accepted, largely unconsciously, as they had become socialised into institutional and departmental practices over the years since their own entry to the job. Despite comments about things that had concerned them when they were new, and work in the polytechnic now being more complex than when they started, the teachers offered few proposals that would lead to changes in supporting new staff, especially at departmental level. There was no evidence from their interviews that inducting and educating new staff was a major priority in their departments. Most did, however, confirm the value of the courses and individual support offered by EDU for teacher development, both initial and on-going.

4.5 Discussion: becoming a teacher in the polytechnic

What does this case study tell us about becoming a teacher in the polytechnic? Looking at the data, three major influences emerge.

- First, the polytechnic is a large institution, in New Zealand terms, organised through a mix of centralised systems and distributed faculties, departments and

programme teams. Its structure can be likened to Wenger's (1998) threefold pattern of individuals (teachers and other staff) within communities (programme teams and departments) within the wider organisation (polytechnic). The size and complexity mean that the requirements of organisational systems are likely to impose considerable demands on teachers over and above their individual classroom planning, teaching and assessment work. The polytechnic used a range of communication processes to foster an institutional culture.

- Second, the population of students joining the polytechnic has become increasingly diverse, with greater proportions of women, mature, international, Maori and Pacific students than in the past. Teachers are encouraged to use 'student-centred' teaching strategies to meet the varying learning needs of all the polytechnic's students. With increasing enrolments, some classes have increased in size in recent years, and some courses are using on-line technology. Thus approaches to teaching required in the polytechnic today may be very different from those experienced in the past when the teachers were students themselves.
- Third, people appointed as tenured teachers in the polytechnic are expected to have appropriate qualifications and successful experience in their subject or occupational area, and to continue to keep up to date through professional development after appointment. They are not expected to have completed pre-service teaching qualifications, but will be encouraged to complete some basic in-service courses on teaching while on probation, and to engage in occasional teaching-related professional development throughout their polytechnic careers. Part-timers usually will not experience formal induction or probation processes, and while participation in teacher education may be offered it would have to be achieved in their own time, not as part of their paid employment. For both full-time and part-time teachers, therefore, it can be inferred that much of their learning about teaching is gained informally, through doing the work of curriculum development and teaching in their departments and programme teams.

So what does this mean for someone joining the polytechnic today – how will a person become a member of that institution? Some things will be different from the experiences of the interviewed teachers, but many will be similar. A probable course of events for a newly appointed teacher is still likely to start in one of two ways, depending whether the appointment is part-time or full-time.

A full-timer will be encouraged, but not required, to start a week or two before classes commence, giving some time for induction and familiarisation. Induction will focus mainly on the department (for administrative matters) and programme team (for curriculum matters), and will lead her into a two-year probation programme. The *Staff Handbook* will introduce the polytechnic's main policies and procedures. She will be introduced to EDU and given details of upcoming CAT modules that should be attended: the extent to which she is encouraged to participate may depend on the attitudes held in her department. Soon she is likely to be immersed in a busy routine of class preparation, teaching, assessment, reporting, giving advice to students, and attending meetings. Someone will observe the teacher and give feedback as part of her probation, and there may be some opportunities to observe other teachers. Unless a mentor is assigned, it may take a while to work out who to ask questions about what – informal chat at morning tea may often be a source of help. Teachers from other departments, met at CAT courses, may prove to be allies with whom ideas and questions can be shared. Other staff will not be unwelcoming, but very busy and unlikely to offer help unless she asks for it. Once probation is completed (and perhaps CAT), a cycle of annual appraisals and professional development plans will encourage continuing growth. Pressure to keep up-to-date in content and/or engage in research may divert attention from further teacher education, except for an occasional EDU seminar topic that sounds inviting or useful – but our new teacher *may* be more interested than most in education, and decide to complete DipTT.

For the part-timer there will be a briefer induction. Administrative matters will be agreed, and paperwork completed for HR. Pay rates based on class-contact time will include an allowance for preparation and marking. There will be a visit to locate the teaching room(s) to be used, equipment and materials, department office, photocopying, library. Curriculum materials will be explained, and there may be lesson plans and assessments left by a previous teacher. There will be a quick overview of the sorts of students to expect, who to go to in the department for help, some mention of CAT – then “Off you go”. The new part-timer may come into a group that works as a team, or be able to stop off for coffee and talk with his colleagues before or after classes – but he may just come in to teach, then return immediately to a full-time job elsewhere. There will be little sense of being a full member of the teaching group or the polytechnic. But

his specialist skills or knowledge will be valued by the department, and if the job proves manageable he may stay for some years - and even become full-time.

Experiences that both full-timer and part-timer are likely to share are those that happen in the classroom. Once that door shuts, the new teacher is usually isolated from colleagues, dependent on his/her planning, enthusiasm, communication skills, and subject knowledge or vocational expertise to manage the job of motivating students and helping them to learn. In a practical setting there may also be machines to watch, safety rules to stress, materials to issue, and group work to supervise. Some things can be anticipated, but much will have to be worked out as things arise, learning on-the-job. The mix of students and the class sizes may be very different from those the teacher experienced as a student, years ago. It can feel overwhelming, especially with peak workloads such as end of semester marking. Another anxiety may be about what the students will say in the teacher's first course evaluations. But as the cycle of a year moves on, things seem to fall into place as classes get repeated, broader patterns can be seen, ideas from colleagues and CAT courses make more sense, and there is time to reflect on what worked and why, and start to be more relaxed - or more challenging - with students.

The findings discussed earlier suggest that those hypothetical descriptions are realistic and reasonable. People do gradually become full members of the teaching community, though not by following any one set pathway. The teachers I interviewed had met situations like those described, and stayed on, finding their work satisfying and worthwhile. But life in the polytechnic today is fuller and busier than when they started, suggesting that there is more to cope with, very quickly, for new staff today.

A question can be asked, whether tertiary teaching is sufficiently recognised and valued as a professional activity in the polytechnic. Some data suggest it is not, and that several factors are involved.

- There is general acceptance of a minimal level of tertiary teacher education, supported by the availability of a small, low-level initial certificate and no expectation of staff gaining a professional qualification or teacher registration.
- Some staff are reported to have made judgements about the nature and relevance of TTU or CAT courses and decided not to continue attending. That raises

questions about the content and modelling of good practice in courses offered by EDU. In concentrating on central/generic courses, EDU staff seem to have disregarded the notion of pedagogical content knowledge, which would encourage teachers to focus on the teaching of their own specialist subjects, and thus help to address issues of relevance and transfer of learning. There were no reports of departmental initiatives to fill that gap.

- Another factor relates to the time needed for attending initial teacher education and continuing professional development. Only Phil had had the benefit of relief staffing that enabled release from teaching to attend TTU. Since the old TTU scheme stopped, the replacement CAT courses had been run in non-teaching weeks or evenings to avoid reliever costs; and so attending them became an extra commitment in a teacher's duties over a year. When it comes to continuing development, teaching has to compete for priority and time with updating in people's content areas.
- Continual change over the period since most experienced teachers (and their managers) were appointed may have desensitised them to what it is like for new staff now. Some people appear so busy and immersed on their own responsibilities that, while supporting new colleagues should be seen as an important function, it is one they hope someone else, or EDU, will deal with. Opportunities for developing shared practice are therefore diminished.

A consequence of those factors is a continuing, and probably increasing, emphasis on informal, experiential learning about teaching. Since a reliance on informal workplace learning is likely to continue for teachers in the polytechnic, then ways of providing more support for such learning need to be considered. While the teachers did not explicitly label their departmental groups or teaching teams as 'communities of practice' (Wenger, 1998), Wenger notes that this is commonly so for such groups, and that other characteristics can identify tacit, organic communities of practice. The polytechnic teachers do work in groupings such as departments and programme teams, they do help new colleagues (though sometimes only if asked), they collaborate across departments at times, they learn on-the-job in a variety of ways, they share ideas and ways of doing things, they share a 'polytechnic perspective' on teaching. That means that the polytechnic's institutional context offers opportunities for existing groups to be to recognised and nurtured as communities of teaching practice - which in turn would

provide a vehicle for more explicitly supporting members' development as teachers, as well as maintaining and developing the polytechnic teaching community's practice.

Chapter Five: Becoming a Wananga Teacher

This chapter develops a case study of ‘becoming a teacher in a wananga’. Findings from analysis of the data are presented in the following sections that address the main research question and three key sub-questions as applied to the wananga context:

- 5.1 Background and context
- 5.2 What is teaching like in the wananga? (Sub-question one)
- 5.3 What do some experienced teachers say about how they have developed as teachers in the wananga? (Sub-question three)
- 5.4 What provisions does the wananga make for the teacher education and development of its academic staff? (Sub-question two)
- 5.5 Conclusion: becoming a teacher in the wananga (Main research question)

Sections 5.1, 5.2 and 5.4 are based on data gathered from institutional documents, interviews with the educational developer and four experienced teachers, and personal site observation; section 5.3 is based on data gathered from interviews with the four teachers. Selected extracts from the data are included in this chapter to illustrate key points.

Data relating to the wananga were gathered at one campus during the period late 2000 to mid 2001: the picture presented in this case is therefore a snapshot of that period of time, and does not necessarily represent the state of the wananga in other periods of time, or at other campuses. A glossary of Maori terms is provided in Appendix R.

5.1 Background and context

The wananga started out as a Maori private training establishment (PTE) in the 1980s, providing learning and employment opportunities for Maori who were unemployed, or had few job skills or qualifications. Early funding came from Training Opportunities (TOPS) and Maori Access (MAccess) schemes, and later from Skill New Zealand contracts. Since being formally constituted as a wananga (Maori tertiary institution) in 1994, it had grown considerably and had established campuses in several centres in the North Island. By 2000 most funding was EFTS-based, coming from the Ministry of Education (MOE) and student fees, as at polytechnics and universities. Traditional

Maori subjects such as carving, weaving and language were offered, as well as vocational courses that could lead students to employment opportunities. Most courses offered at the time of this study were certificates and diplomas, at NQF levels 2-6. In April 1999, following a claim from the three wananga, the Waitangi Tribunal (Waitangi Tribunal, 1999) recommended that the three wananga receive capital funding from the government to put them on an equal footing with other crown-funded tertiary institutions. (Funding settlements followed later, after the period of data gathering for this study.)

At the start of 2001 the campus I visited had 18 academic and 6 administrative staff, the latter including the campus manager. The directory in the *Tutor Handbook 2001* showed a total of about 130 academic (nearly all full-time) and 40 administrative staff across all campuses, plus 30 administrative staff (including 7 EDU staff) at head office. Some further description of the wananga campus is provided in Appendix N.

5.2 What is teaching like in the wananga?

This section develops a picture of the wananga's approach to teaching, as it appeared to an external Pakeha observer. Data drawn from institutional documents are used to indicate the wananga's policies and provisions, while data drawn from interviews indicate the perceptions of an educational developer and some experienced teaching staff of what it is like being a member of that community.

5.2.1 Findings from institutional documents

Teaching was the primary purpose of the wananga, focusing on the distinctive nature of its students as identified in this statement from the *Tutor Handbook* (p. 10):

The wananga serves a special target group of people in society. This target group is predominantly Maori and is over represented in the following groups:

- Those who have been failed by mainstream education
- Those who want a second chance in gaining an education
- Those who are long-term unemployed
- Those who represent the lower socio-economic groups in Aotearoa.

The wananga had been working with such students since its early days as a PTE. To meet their needs, the wananga promoted an encouraging and supportive approach in all its programmes, which was explained to students thus:

There are many differences between mainstream tertiary education and [this] wananga. The wananga programmes are generally very practical and the environment is Maori and supportive to new learners. Teaching methods are specifically geared to support the range of learning styles... Everyone here is treated as a person and an equal, not just a number... (*Prospectus*, page 3).

The wananga's *Charter* presented the institution's kaupapa (philosophical statement), which referred to holistic educational opportunities; a Maori cultural learning environment; providing support, encouragement and guidance to students; and encouraging staff to develop personally and professionally. The kaupapa was stated in both Maori and English; the rest of the *Charter* and all other documents provided were in English only, but incorporated commonly used Maori words such as *whanau*, *kaiako*, *tauirā*, *tikanga*, *te Reo* and *kaupapa* (see Glossary, Appendix R).

Some of the formal aims stated in the Charter sounded like those of other institutions, for example: "To advance knowledge and disseminate and maintain it through teaching and research". Other aims were distinctive to the wananga, for example: "To provide an education base of international quality and standard to Maori tradition and custom". The aims were to be achieved through excellence in teaching, appropriate forms of assessment, effective curriculum development and evaluation, consultation with staff and students, open entry criteria, and provision of alternative learning approaches and student support services. The overall focus was thus clearly on student learning and support. At the time of this case study all teaching was conducted in face-to-face classes in full-time programmes, with no provision for part-time or distance study.

Charter values statements referred to educational quality, equity, student learning, and employment. The wananga would encourage students to become independent learners, and provide flexible learning opportunities that were relevant to students' future careers. Values that related to the wananga's teachers included employing people with appropriate qualifications and social and cultural awareness, creating a cooperative working environment, and encouraging professional development.

The wananga provided a substantial *Tutor Handbook*, updated annually, which was a major source of data for this case study, and supported the wananga's claim that it promoted learning for its teachers as well as its students. There was a clear focus on

information and requirements relating to people's work as teachers in the wananga context, and all the formal academic quality policies and procedures were included. Some examples of provisions intended to implement Charter values include:

All curriculum developed by [the wananga] will be based on the unique tauira [students] centred education philosophies practised by [the wananga] and will take into account the following principles:

- The curriculum is developed for the benefit of the tauira
- The curriculum reflects industry training and community needs
- The curriculum will have a commitment to te reo Maori me ona tikanga... (*Tutor Handbook*, section 5.1)

[The wananga] has established a safe place to learn by providing a physical environment that celebrates the kaupapa on which [the wananga] is founded

[The wananga] acknowledges the learning needs of tauira by insisting on small class numbers

[The wananga] will continuously develop and trial new and innovative teaching and learning methods based on Matauranga Maori teaching and learning methodologies, with complementary global holistic approaches such as learning styles and accelerated learning models.

(*Tutor Handbook*, section 5.3)

While the classroom approaches to teaching described above were student-focused and designed to provide support and encouragement in a Maori whanau atmosphere, the curriculum documents were more conventional. Programmes were divided into units or modules described in terms of credits and levels, learning outcomes and performance criteria, in wording styled very like that of NQF unit standards. I concluded that this was a response to the need for NZ Qualifications Authority (NZQA) approval of the wananga's programmes, especially where some included unit standards or the parallel completion of National qualifications. The 'holistic' approach thus depended more on the teachers' approaches and skills, and the close class groups, than on innovative curriculum design.

Assessment practices aimed to promote and encourage success, using a criterion-referenced approach considered appropriate for Maori learners (and again reflecting NZQA practice). Students were told: "The wananga grading system reflects its view that there is no failure, only a 'yet to achieve' status" (*Prospectus*, page 3). The wananga also said that it "recognises the importance of professional judgement in the assessment of evidence against standards, and is committed to using trained and experienced staff in assessment roles." (*Tutor Handbook*, section 5.4) The wananga had

developed a distinctive process for moderation: Hui-a-Kaupapa (national meetings of all teaching staff, in their programme groups) were used to bring together staff from all campuses. These hui, three-day events held two or three times per year, enabled staff to moderate each others' assessments, and also provided for the sharing of resources and planning, and support for newer teachers.

Another distinctive activity used by the wananga was the designation of specific Self Directed Learning weeks in the academic year, when there were no formal classes and students were expected to use their time independently on projects and assignments. Tutors were therefore able to use those weeks for professional development and staff training, or marking and planning. Term holidays were planned to match those of schools, to assist students who had family responsibilities.

Teaching and academic quality were formally supported in the wananga through the work of the central EDU. At the time of data gathering, the EDU had seven staff – a manager, three academic staff and three support staff (*Tutor Handbook*, p. 14) whose functions included:

- monitor quality control and assurance procedures for programmes,
- develop and review the curriculum of all programmes,
- develop appropriate and relevant learning materials,
- administer NZQA accreditation processes and documentation,
- assist with the professional development of staff and staff training,
- actively encourage student-centred educational philosophies. (*Tutor Handbook*, p. 22)

The teaching staff were all referred to as Kaiako or tutors,¹ with no range of promotional grades distinguished. The Kaiako Job Description included:

- Practice the principles of Te Kaupapa of [the wananga] and the Charter
- Holistically support the Tikanga and Ahuatanga of [the wananga] and its programmes
- Acknowledge that students are the most important people in the wananga
- Assist in the recruitment of students
- Produce required lesson plans and resources at the start of each module, and state the methods of assessment
- Critically review the entire programme and review own progress...
- Maintain regular contact with industry sources, ITOs etc...

¹ The wananga's use of "tutor" for those holding professional teaching positions reflects the title of tutor that used to be common in polytechnics and is used in many PTEs: it is not comparable with the university use of "tutor" for a low-graded position.

- Prepare an annual professional development plan. (*Tutor Handbook*, p. 50-51)

The job description thus covered a wide range, from broader goals to quite specific actions. Performance measures (depending on the type of output) included self / peer / campus manager review, student evaluations, evidence of a standard being met, or evidence that correct procedures had been followed. The *Handbook* also addressed professional development policy and procedures (discussed further in 5.4, below), including the requirement that all tutors without teaching qualifications should enrol in and achieve the wananga's own Advanced Certificate in Tertiary Teaching (ACTT).

Overall, the documents showed that the wananga was explicit about its focus on the needs of students, and spelled out in some detail its philosophy and consequent expectations of the nature of teaching in the institution. The *Charter*, *Tutor Handbook*, and *Prospectus* presented a consistent picture. The policies and procedures seemed appropriate to support the institution's chosen focus, and also to meet the quality management system requirements of the MOE and NZQA.

A number of the policies set out in the documents were unique to this institution, derived from the kaupapa and Charter aims. They emphasised its special character as a wananga, run by Maori for Maori. Subsequent procedures, for example relating to open entry to programmes, focus on students and the nature of the wananga's teaching delivery, reflected that character and its implications for practice.

Policies relating to meeting the QMS requirements of NZQA, on the other hand, were similar to those of many other tertiary institutions. In considering the language of the *Charter*, *Tutor Handbook*, and *Prospectus*, I found little sense of a 'public relations' gloss intended to promote the institution to stakeholders such as potential employers or research investors. The main intended audiences were the wananga's staff and students, and NZQA.

I examined the documents for indications of 'community of practice' (Wenger, 1998). While that specific phrase was not used, the *Charter* emphasised the special character or kaupapa of the wananga as an institution. The *Tutor Handbook* reinforced what were

considered desirable common practices. The emphasis on student-centred teaching, and on education and development for staff as well as students, represented an institutional view that valued teaching. There was considerable emphasis on staff in the wananga being committed to the kaupapa or culture of the institution, and therefore committed to teaching students using teaching practices that were distinctive to that institution. Thus a sense of an institutional community culture was promoted.

5.2.2 Findings from educational developer interview

The educational developer I interviewed was Pakeha, but had been with the wananga since the late 1980s. Wyn had been closely involved in the development of the EDU and its teacher support functions, especially the learning styles and accelerated learning emphasis; but less involved in the more recent development of the wananga's Advanced Certificate in Tertiary Teaching (ACTT), some of which had been contracted out to a consultant. The interview discussed both Wyn's own work and that of EDU. The main themes that emerged from the interview relating to teaching were: *acknowledging the nature of wananga students, characteristics of wananga classes, and student-focused teaching*. Themes relating to commonly shared practices and attitudes were *the kaupapa of the wananga* and *being a tutor at the wananga*.

Acknowledging the nature of wananga students:

Wyn commented on the types of students targeted by the wananga's open entry policy, and its focus on those who were unemployed and unqualified:

We pick up those people who finished school as soon as they could and hardly ever have any qualifications. There is a big range in ages from 16/17 year olds to people in their 50s/60s. We are dealing with people who have very low self-esteem in relation to their ability to learn... often have quite negative attitudes towards teachers because they didn't enjoy their secondary education.

That identification of common attitudes found among the students was important, because it was seen as justifying the wananga's student-centred approach to teaching, which in turn influenced the professional development needed by staff.

Characteristics of wananga classes:

Wyn made further links from the nature of the student group to the structuring of programmes and classes in the wananga:

... the most comparable model is to behave like primary school teachers - they take on the responsibility to look after the whole person... Students attend for a 30-hour week, and they would be with the one tutor for 24 hours. They go to others for specialist subjects... The classes are very small, so they [tutors] have a great chance to become much more involved in the individual students.

Providing close support for students again had implications for professional development, as EDU needed to prepare and support staff who would have such sustained contact with their students.

Student-focused teaching:

Wyn had observed teaching and teachers at the wananga over many years. Wyn thought being responsive to and involved with students was critical for effective teaching there:

Our tutors can be very rich in the knowledge of what they are going to teach, but they actually have to be good teachers because if they don't teach, then the students just stop and they don't turn up...

The really good ones are fully involved with their students... Like xx, her involvement with her students is full and pretty intimate. She understands them and they understand her. Her role is, she plays the "Auntie" - so she gets that sort of Maori whaea respect.

Using 'learning styles' was encouraged as a way of being student-focused:

Tutors who have been here for a year or two, you will hear them talk about individual learning styles. I am not sure that they are always doing it - but they certainly have the language and the idea that they should be.

Overall, Wyn was very positive about the wananga's efforts to support students and staff, and spoke warmly about relationships developed with staff over the years. Wyn was enthusiastic about the concepts of learning styles, neuro-linguistic programming and accelerated learning, especially the latter – and especially their use in second language learning of Te Reo Maori. Wyn provided a list of references that had been used, but the titles focused on application rather than critique of the theories underlying such practices.

Wyn did not refer to 'community of practice', but did talk of the wananga's institutional culture of 'whanau' or 'family', which clearly implied a shared community culture. Several of Wyn's comments above indicated aspects of common practices and the 'look

and feel' of the wananga's approach to teaching. Particular themes that emerged relating to community of practice were *the kaupapa of the institution as a whole*; and *being a tutor at the wananga* (see following).

The kaupapa of the wananga as a whole

Within the wananga there is that basic kaupapa Maori, tikanga Maori ground on which everything else tries to grow. The really good tutors are well grounded in that, so they have a sense of their own place and their own security. They transmit that - partly they do it consciously - but a lot of it is unconscious.

[*How does a new tutor become a part of the culture of the wananga?*]

By the air you breath - it is very difficult to define but it is almost immediate - like when you turn up the first day you will be introduced to the karakia time, and people will come up and give you a hug and a kiss. Then you are into it and there will be people always looking after you. I can't remember an incident where anyone got left alone and isolated, because it's not the culture. It's not defined - it just happens.

The language of the *ground on which things grow*, the *air people breathe*, the *personal greeting with a hug*, suggests a sense of place that is important to Maori, and a physical and spiritual closeness between people. The language of *unconscious delivery*, *it's not the culture, it just happens* suggests that the culture of such a community is found as much in unspoken practices and tacit assumptions, as in the formal words of a Charter or QMS policies. The way Wyn spoke indicated that a sense of community existed, a feeling that people shared, that did not depend on policies for its existence.

Campus and subject-area sub-communities were also identified by Wyn. The former were more immediately visible, while the latter might physically come together only occasionally, mainly at the Hui a Kaupapa.

...a campus might only have 10 to 15 tutors, so when somebody arrives they are coming into a small group and, campus to campus, their whanau experience of being a tutor is very high, so support is supplied by a reliance on that rather than in a formal way.

Being a tutor at the wananga

Teaching at the wananga was perceived by Wyn as being different from teaching in a polytechnic or university, reflecting both the teaching practices the wananga promoted, and the attitudes of people who chose to work there.

Tutors adopt almost a vocational approach to their existence... the pay scales are behind what the polytechnic would be... If they didn't come on board with the kaupapa and the feeling that it was worthwhile doing, the system just wouldn't work...

Quite often the content knowledge people bring with them isn't great formal qualifications, it's mostly experience stuff. There is a perception in their minds of a change in status by becoming a tutor at the Wananga - "Now I've got a profession".

Overall, Wyn perceived that key community factors at the wananga included: working in a context with a Maori kaupapa and whanau atmosphere; acknowledging that the students were very important and that teaching methods must be student-centred; doing something that was needed, and not working just for money or a promotion; making do if resources were limited; and gaining some professional status as a tutor. Such factors all contributed to a distinctive set of values and attitudes Wyn associated with the wananga teaching community.

5.2.3 Findings from teacher interviews

Introduction to the people: Three of those interviewed were Maori: Ata, who was teaching the applied arts and crafts programme and had been with the wananga since its early days; Hau, who had taught computing there for five years; and Tai, who had taught engineering trade classes for several years until a recent move to the security programme. All their programmes were in the NQF level 2 to 4 range. Pat, who was Pakeha, was teaching literacy skills at lower levels (Pat was interviewed in lieu of a communication skills tutor). The names used in this section, as in the other case studies, are pseudonyms.²

When asked about their teaching, all the tutors talked a great deal about their students. Three main themes emerged: *Being student-focused, teaching in an integrated and flexible way, and being willing to change direction.* Themes relating to common practices or attitudes were *the wananga's kaupapa* and *teaching practices distinctive to the wananga.*

² The Maori names were chosen on the advice of a Maori colleague, to meet my request for names that were short and not gender-specific. Ata means *morning*, Hau means *wind*, and Tai means *tide*.

Being student-focused

Factors such as acknowledging students' needs and building students' confidence emerged strongly: tutors said those things needed to be addressed before getting too far into the content of a course, and thought they were essential to the wananga's approach.

You can't deal with the actual teaching until you have dealt with the personal problems. There's a lot of encouraging, and dealing with the baggage they bring with them, their anger, frustration... (Pat)

A lot of them are referrals, they've been sent from WINZ [Work and Income NZ], and they don't want to be here... For years they had been told they were dummies at school... (Tai)

Building students' confidence followed from the recognition of such needs:

I had to convince these people to see that they did have the ability to get there. They had the skills... I just needed to be sure that they trusted me enough to believe in themselves. (Ata)

I've seen the changes, you know, seen how they come off the streets, and they look as hard as nails, yet deep down, you know, there's heart and there's warmth, and there's a very active brain, all it wants is someone to take hold - "I believe in you, you can do this, let's give it a go". (Tai)

The tutors worked on confidence-building throughout their programmes, seeing it as a gradual process associated with the provision of personal support and structured learning activities that were likely to lead to success for the students. Being student-focused could also include adapting course content so that it related to local employment opportunities for the students.

Teaching in an integrated and flexible way

Because the tutors were with their class groups most of the week, they had more opportunities (and need) to vary activities and approaches than would a polytechnic or university teacher who had several conventional classes that each met only two hours a week. Certainly there were wananga and/or NQF units to be completed in order to achieve a qualification, but the pace of progress did not have to be constant throughout the year if more time was needed early on for building relationships and helping students to establish new patterns of learning.

I put a lot of energy and effort into ensuring that what students get is useful, practical, knowledgeable, worthwhile... I found some fun ways, innovative ways, to manage scenarios, to manage groups of people. And then I would spend other parts of the week on one-to-one. (Ata)

I place a lot of emphasis on rapport... When it came to the practical and more hands-on, they became more enthused and engaged. (Tai)

Students had individual work plans, so that I could vary the help and practice they got. Having the group together made it possible to provide lots of activities. Sometimes things get pushed aside... you need to be able to move with whatever's happening within the room. (Hau)

I make sure that I've got things written down and I plan every lesson, just the bones of it. Then I flesh it out when the student comes... I try and relate it to their course - I don't teach just isolated reading and spelling. (Pat)

As experienced teachers, they took a broad view of their teaching, and said little about dealing with specific details of content. They worked within the wananga's *achieved / not achieved* approach to assessment, and reported that they assessed a wide variety of evidence, such as practical activities, performance, oral presentations and participation in group projects, as well as written exercises. Small steps during a unit could be assessed, and that enabled them to give students frequent feedback on progress, which was important in developing their confidence – thus integrating personal development with learning specific content.

Although all had at some time attended workshops on accelerated learning, and Ata mentioned it in reference to language teaching, none specifically said they were using such methods. It was not clear whether accelerated learning was something they now took for granted in their practice, or if they actually did not use it as much as the staff developer hoped. A loss of opportunity for me to visit classes meant I could not follow up that issue by personal observation. Similarly, although all had completed a substantial amount of study towards tertiary teaching qualifications, they offered few 'theoretical' educational explanations for their practices and in-class decisions. The need to respond to what was going on daily seemed to focus their attention more on their relationships with the students. Several did comment, however, that they believed their studies had helped them to reflect on and understand their own practice better.

Being willing to change direction

One feature of teaching in the wananga was that several of the tutors had been asked to make changes in direction since joining the organisation, and had been willing to do so.

Ata had made the most changes, moving first from learning support to teaching Te Reo, and later into applied arts:

I was actually reluctant to leave [Te Reo]... but I was also willing to pick up the challenge again... to save a flagging course. (Ata)

Tai reported a similar change: when a Skill NZ funding contract for the engineering course ceased he was asked to move into the wananga's security programme - both areas drew on previous work experience. For Hau different changes had occurred: initially short periods of relieving in computing, tourism and the arts department; then five years teaching computing; then an invitation to join EDU and teach ACTT units:

They said, 'Well, you know, you are the most experienced...'
I compared the ACTT to what we had done on the BEd, and I had confidence in myself being able to deliver it. (Hau)

The need to ask staff to make such changes reflected the wananga's at times uncertain funding environment in the 1990s, and its rapid expansion. The ability of staff to respond as they did reflected both their goodwill towards an organisation whose aims they supported, and their earlier varied working careers that meant they were able to adapt to further change.

I asked the teachers about their perceptions of the wananga as a 'community of practice'. Their responses referred to the concepts of whanau and kaupapa (echoing the wananga documents and comments made by the educational developer). Some also talked of the effects on them of working in the wananga environment. The key themes that emerged from the transcripts relating to community were: *the wananga's kaupapa* and *teaching practices distinctive to the wananga* (see following).

The wananga's kaupapa

I like the philosophies that have been established, that wananga is open to all people, with the focus on manaakitanga, respect, and a caring and a sharing that is very typical of the Maori world... (Ata)

Each campus has its own peculiarities, has its own culture. Some are in more rural-based communities, and the students there, their motivation and desires are different to the urban-based. (Hau)

I think that the family atmosphere is really good. As a European it's been a bit hard becoming accepted in the group and I'm still sort of an

outsider for some things... [But] I've built up a credibility, and going around all the campuses, all the tutors know me. (Pat)

Ata noted, however, that not every tutor who came to the wananga felt able to stay and make a full commitment to its kaupapa and holistic approach to learning, especially if their lives had not been immersed in Maori ways:

But [some tutors] have been so divorced from the Reo and customs and traditions they are having difficulties... There are those who have remained with us for more than five years, others who could only stay five minutes... (Ata)

The tutors' perceptions of the wananga as a community thus related to its distinctively Maori character, which was actively fostered by the organisation. They thought it was important that people who became members of the community felt genuinely committed to its culture or kaupapa. While most staff and students were Maori, some were not, but they would still be members of the campus whanau. There was also recognition that different campuses or subject groups might have their own identities, as well as being part of the overall wananga community.

Teaching practices distinctive to the wananga

Major features of the wananga's teaching culture and practice that were discussed by the tutors (summarised here from comments cited earlier) were:

- The emphasis on 'student-centred' approaches to teaching, including use of accelerated learning methods to address individual learning styles;
- Support for students' personal development integrated with the subject content and skills of their academic programmes;
- The structuring of classes modelled on primary schooling, so that close-knit groups worked with a home-base tutor in each programme;
- Expectations of flexibility, both in daily classroom practice and in adapting to changes in the wananga's programme offerings;

One distinctive feature supporting teaching at the wananga was the *collaboration between staff in a subject area*, even though they were at different campuses. This could be achieved at the Hui-a-Kaupapa, or by other means in between meetings, for example:

The network that we've got is awesome. A lot of the kaiako who teach security, we keep in contact regularly, plus we have two hui a kaupapa every year... But if anyone's got any problems, we'll contact one another, we send faxes, send lesson plans, we teleconference... (Tai)

A further factor associated with teaching here was *making do with the available resources*: for example Ata's approach to the teaching space for the arts students:

This area we are in now was just one great big storage place. Through the holidays, my husband and I came in here and we fixed it all up. I really needed to create an atmosphere that I was going to be happy working in and that was going to be conducive for learning... (Ata)

Working with students, in the context of the wananga's kaupapa and the campus whanau, was the main focus for these tutors: the research and entrepreneurial activities that might occur at polytechnics or universities had little significance at the wananga at the time of this study. The issue of whether the wananga valued teaching really did not arise – the tutors took it for granted as the central function of the organisation, and saw that students, teachers and teaching were actively supported.

5.2.4 Teaching in the wananga: some initial conclusions

The *Charter*, *Tutor Handbook*, and *Prospectus* presented a picture of a growing organisation, established to meet the learning needs of a distinct population, unlike the wider populations targeted by polytechnics and universities. While anyone could enrol, the wananga's programmes (providing both traditional Maori subjects and vocational qualifications) were designed to support Maori learners, many of whom had not been well served by mainstream schooling and were reluctant to enter large tertiary institutions. Most classes were taught in English, but specialist courses such as Te Reo and bilingual primary teacher education used Maori. The wananga had grown from a small local organisation, and most of its expansion had been in provincial towns or rural areas rather than cities. Thus in a number of ways the wananga offered education that was complementary to rather than competing with mainstream tertiary institutions.

A distinctive Maori kaupapa or culture had been nurtured and sustained as the organisation grew, with a sense of whanau or family on each campus. As staff joined, initially in small numbers, they were absorbed into that culture, becoming part of its development. Some early battles for the existence of a Maori organisation in a provincial town, and later battles for official recognition and funding, had reinforced a sense of 'working together for what we believe in'.

The educational developer and the teachers who were interviewed confirmed that teaching practices in the wananga responded to the kaupapa and policies stated in the formal documents, and were focused on the targeted student group. Teaching practices in the wananga's programmes shared a number of distinctive common elements. These included: a frequently stated belief that the students were "the most important people"; the structuring of classes so that tutor and students stayed together throughout a full-time programme, enabling close attention to building rapport and fostering self-esteem; a focus on integrating personal development and affective learning with content knowledge and practical skills that would enhance employment opportunities; the promotion of accelerated learning methods and attention to individual learning styles; and 'making do' with limited physical resources in some programmes.

Another factor that made teaching in the wananga rather different from teaching in a polytechnic or university was a lower emphasis on subject-area qualifications when tutors were appointed. Until recently, many of the programmes had been at NQF levels 2 to 5, and so tutors' personal attributes and relevant work experience could outweigh a lack of high-level qualifications. Tutors' varied life experiences before joining the wananga were valued, and their successes in prior workplace settings meant they could be seen as positive role models for students who needed encouragement to set goals and try new activities. The levels of programmes were rising, however, with the development of more diplomas and some planned degrees, and so NZQA requirements were expected to lead to more emphasis in future on formal qualifications for new staff.

Another factor that could affect teaching in the wananga for some tutors had arisen as a result of changes in funding. If a programme lost funding at the end of a year, tutors could be asked to move onto another programme, teaching a different subject area that they also had experience in. Such changes had occurred for some of those interviewed, and reflected an institutional attitude of using people's wider skills and abilities – and also pragmatic problem-solving by drawing on people's goodwill towards the wananga.

As well as people having a sense of the wananga as a whole community, they were aware of campus and programme/department sub-communities. The multi-campus structure that had developed over time had advantages in taking wananga education to students in their home areas, with fairly small campuses and small classes in each place;

but it also created potential difficulties in maintaining cross-campus contacts between the tutors teaching the same programme in different places. Intra-campus community bonds could be seen in daily interactions such as morning karakia, use of the common facilities, local administrative functions, and a general sharing of concern for their own local students. In terms of community of *teaching* practice, all programmes espoused the wananga's student-centred values in their approach to teaching, and a focus on building confidence and self-esteem. The teaching of specific subject areas could be shared and discussed when programme tutors got together at the Hui a Kaupapa. Travelling to the Hui to meet colleagues from the whole wananga and from a subject group was intended to emphasise a sense of community-building - but also had the potential to show up some differences, for example between rural and urban campuses. As in much bigger institutions, 'managing corporate communications' in a growing, multi-campus organisation could in future become a concern for the wananga.

Overall, I concluded that teaching in the wananga had a number of distinguishing features, as discussed above, and that the people involved were very committed to contributing to achieving the wananga's goals and values in relation to Maori students, providing personal and educational support in a Maori cultural setting.

5.3 What do some experienced teachers say about how they have developed as teachers in the wananga?

All the findings in this section are drawn from the teacher interviews. This section considers tutors' experiences leading to and soon after entry to teaching at the wananga, their ongoing formal and informal learning about teaching, and their development of a sense of identity as teachers.

5.3.1 Entry to teaching in the wananga

In looking at factors that influenced people's entry to teaching in the wananga, I found the main themes that emerged from the transcripts were: *coming from a family that valued education; becoming interested in teaching; building on prior work and training experiences; coping as a new tutor; and being supported.*

Coming from a family that valued education

The three Maori tutors in particular talked of growing up in families with a positive attitude to education:

My maternal grandmother brought me up... Although she couldn't speak English, she was a forward thinking woman... she always kept in mind that no matter what you do in this life education was the key to your success... (Ata)

I always remember my father saying he wanted us to learn a trade when we were young. He said, "One day, you'll come back to that trade," and this is what actually happened. (Tai)

I think it came from my home environment, in that we were always encouraged to read a lot. So I was an avid reader... (Hau)

These tutors entered the wananga with long-held perceptions that education was important. Their personal successes in education, at school and/or later on, meant they had the potential to be positive role models for students at the wananga.

Becoming interested in teaching:

Two people had long been interested in teaching, while the other two had had no expectation of becoming a teacher until an opportunity arose later in their careers:

When I was at college I applied to be a kindergarten teacher [but could not play a musical instrument so was not accepted]. So there's always been some background there for me to look at teaching. (Hau)

Right from the time I was, I think, five, I wanted to be a teacher. (Pat)

I can remember one teacher, when I was at school, he was my idol... I used to watch him and think, 'I couldn't do that,' not knowing that years down the track I'd be in that sort of situation. (Tai)

I never imagined myself in a teaching role, professionally. (Ata)

The four people had come into contact with the wananga in varied ways. Ata, after working as the kaiako at the local Kohanga Reo, applied for a position in learning support at the PTE that later became the wananga. Hau heard about the wananga from a friend, and answered an advertisement for a relieving tutor for five weeks; after further relieving work, a full-time position as computing tutor was offered. Tai wanted to move back to the area to be nearer family, and applied for an advertised position in the engineering trades. Pat had worked as a primary teacher (trained part-time, through an in-service correspondence course in a Catholic school) but later left teaching because of

ill-health; after meeting the wananga manager at a craft fair Pat volunteered to help part-time with literacy support.

Thus the wananga gained staff who were able to meet its requirements at a particular time, and also offered them opportunities at times in their lives when they were looking for something new to do. That was important because salaries were not high and the wananga needed people who supported its ideals and wanted to help.

Building on prior work and training experiences

The Maori tutors had come from varied backgrounds, with a wide range of work experience. While none had degrees, all had received forms of formal training in previous occupations, and their experience and personal qualities were considered appropriate by the wananga for the programmes they would be teaching in. All three had moved away from their home area and iwi during their working lives – factors they might share with many wananga students. Pat had a rather different life story, having been a primary school teacher for 30 years.

Ata had grown up speaking both Maori and English, and had taken a pro-active approach to a variety of situations:

I decided, I don't just want to be an office junior, and I worked very hard and became New Zealand's first Maori bank officer...

[Later on] I learned another type of life, of caring for people who were mentally challenged... So I got onto some little committees and made these suggestions... and I was considered way out and rather radical... I instigated the Kohanga Reo here - that was in the early 80s, and things were very new. I was its Kaiako...

I was creating a lot of ceramic tableware at home - in going off into bigger markets, I developed a network on the way. (Ata)

Tai was a qualified marine engineer and had worked in a variety of engineering jobs; he had also worked in the army, the security industry, and the Department of Social Welfare, with the latter including a training component. Personal contacts, as well as engineering experience, proved useful:

I had been the liaison officer between the Department and ETSA [Education and Training Support Agency – now Skill NZ]. So I knew the system. I had a lot of colleagues who were working in PTEs, MAccess - they used to come to me for advice. (Tai)

Hau did clerical work for the Post Office, stopped to bring up a family, worked as a teacher aide while the children were at school, then took computer courses at a polytechnic, which led to newspaper work:

I picked up most of my experience with computers as a typesetter for one of the local newspapers... I came here with a lot of industry experience... (Hau)

Pat's primary teaching provided the grounding for literacy support work:

I have taught at all levels and I feel that's a big advantage, especially knowing how things are taught before... And I've always had a real empathy for those that are struggling. (Pat)

The subject areas the tutors were teaching in the wananga were thus related to their previous work, but in many instances also drew on their wider life experiences and their willingness to try a variety of things.

Coping as a new tutor

All the tutors remembered things that had been an effort to cope with, when they were starting out in the wananga. Examples related to matters such as finding resources, workload, developing a relationship with the students, and coping with a new subject. Ata had initially worked in learning support in the PTE, and only later moved into mainstream wananga programmes, first Te Reo and later applied arts.

Tai had to establish himself quickly with a group that was already part way through a programme when he started:

“Okay, here's your workshop, there's your equipment, there's your material, there's the students - go to it.” I came in April – and the students were already set in their ways from the previous tutor. (Tai)

Hau felt very new to the job, without any pre-service training, but knowing the initial subject content helped:

Luckily I had already worked with Wordperfect 5.1 in industry and was familiar with it. It was a brand new world to me. I had never stood in front of a group of people and actually tried to teach... Oh, it was nerve racking, but I was really keen... (Hau)

Pat was confident of basic teaching skills, and more concerned about managing workload and health problems:

I just worked individually with students who were struggling. And that gradually built up and built up. And now I'm full-time. (Pat)

Only Pat had initially been part-time; and only Hau had had the opportunity to try teaching as a reliever (full-time) before being appointed to a permanent position.

Being supported

I asked the tutors about their experiences of being supported as they got started. Hau said support was always there, and not just limited to people's initial experiences:

I've had really good support from other colleagues. And again, the whanau concept is very strong here. So, where there's a colleague in need then there's always someone there who can assist you in any way. (Hau)

Tai had felt isolated at times initially, in engineering, but since moving into the security programme had more colleagues on other campuses, and found there was more sharing and support among them:

I was the only person that was doing the trades, and I felt there was a disadvantage, because I had to actually go away from my particular place of learning to meet others [in an external moderation cluster]. (Tai)

Pat noticed the effect of being the sole tutor in a specialist area, but acknowledged being accepted and supported by the other staff:

Because I'm the only literacy tutor in the wananga, I guess it's been quite hard because I can't share a lot of things with anyone else... (Pat)

Overall, entry to teaching at the wananga had involved a combination of factors that came together for these people. People appointed as tutors in the main programmes had to be willing to move into a full-time position immediately, but would be working with one group of 12-15 students all week rather than a series of different class groups. Personal support from colleagues on the same campus was readily available and considered to be part of the kaupapa, and so generic teaching skills could be shared; but subject-area support was less immediate as specialist colleagues were usually located on other campuses. Because the number of tutors on any one campus was limited (usually 10-15), people came into a fairly small community or whanau, where common practices and values might be more readily apparent or communicated than in a large institution like a university.

5.3.2 Formal learning about teaching

All the tutors had been encouraged by the wananga to participate in both staff development and courses leading to tertiary teaching qualifications. The two key themes that emerged from the interview transcripts relating to formal learning about teaching were *gaining teaching qualifications* and *being enthusiastic about studying*.

Gaining teaching qualifications

Those interviewed had been appointed before the wananga developed its own ACTT, and so had been sent to a nearby polytechnic to gain CAT and CALT qualifications; after that, they had chosen to continue in the extramural DipTT and BEd(AdultEd) offered by another polytechnic. In 2001, when interviewed, they were just starting their final year of BEd(AdultEd) studies.

I achieved my CAT in 1994. The Wananga also sent me to the Language Institute, at xx University. All the Reo tutors went there. And now I'm doing the BEd papers. (Ata)

CAT was a requirement, a minimum qualification for all new tutors. I wanted to do it for myself as well. Later I also did the Diploma in Computer Education and Teacher's Diploma in Word Processing. (Hau)

My very first course when I came here was a three-day learning styles course. The next week I was starting a six-month CAT course. When I got back into that learning mode, I sort of progressed from there... (Tai)

Factors that had supported their participation included the part-time and block timetabling of the polytechnic courses they attended, which made participation manageable for people working full-time and studying part-time; the stair-cased progression between qualifications, which provided recognition at each stage; and the provision of financial support and weekly time release by the wananga. The BEd(AdultEd) programme, although extramural, was taught through study groups held at the wananga campus. Hau commented on that support being like what was offered in the wananga's own small classes: "I never, ever wanted to go to university. I couldn't think of anything worse than sitting in a lecture room full of hundreds of people". Tai also commented on a difference in approach that he observed: "On the trade side, we were taught *how* to do things, on the teaching side you learn *why* you do things."

Being enthusiastic about studying

All spoke positively about continuing their years of study through to the degree:

When you're one of 16 children - I left home at a very early age to go out and help my parents. So I thought, I'll catch up now... Both my wife and I are doing BEd... Now that our children are all grown up, we can make hay while the sun shines. (Tai)

And I became quite motivated when I got my daughter's reaction to my actually doing some kind of study that's similar to hers. So I want to finish BEd. (Hau)

It gave me such an eye opener to what was out there, because I hadn't done adult work before. It was really stimulating for me... I could choose what topics I wanted to do and apply it to what I was doing here. (Pat)

I'm loving this thing, because I'm going to get myself a degree. And I'm going to be dressed up in my kilt and my korowai - it's like a cloak of armour, I suppose. 'Now that I've got me degree!' you know, I can be anything I like. (Ata)

The tutors' level of participation in learning about teaching, with all four choosing to go beyond the wananga's minimum requirements right through to a degree, was a significant feature in the findings from the wananga. In a sense, they were themselves second chance learners: for people coming from occupations that had not led to degree-level qualifications, gaining a degree in tertiary teaching was a significant opportunity for personal achievement, as well as contributing to the work of the wananga. The enthusiasm they expressed for the challenge and stimulation of study, at a fairly late stage in their working careers, was quite unlike the way teachers in the other two case studies talked about qualifications for teaching. The recognition they would gain from completing a degree was an important motivation for them in the wananga context: they would be able to say to both colleagues and students that it was never too late to start studying and be successful.

5.3.3 Informal and incidental learning about teaching

The main themes that emerged relating to the tutors' informal and incidental learning about teaching were *learning from personal experience*, *learning from role models*, and *learning from working with colleagues*. Seeking individual help from EDU was not mentioned by any, possibly because involvement in courses had started at an early stage

in their careers for Hau, Tai and Pat. EDU had not existed when Ata started in the wananga, but Ata said colleagues had provided mentoring and informal support.

Learning from personal experience

I can teach in a clear way that students can understand, and step by step, rather than giving too much all at once. I guess a lot's come because I've struggled myself... I guess I can relate to how students are feeling. (Pat)

I've found out from my experiences actually not to become too personally involved... It was a big learning curve, because I tried to do too much for particular students. (Hau)

Experiential learning could thus relate to how the teaching was managed, especially for students who needed support and confidence-building, or to how personal relationships with students were managed. Both were important for the sorts of approaches and students the wananga encouraged. While ideas and experiences could be shared in staff development discussions, such skills ultimately depended on people finding out from experience what worked for them personally.

Learning from role models

Tai commented on several colleagues as positive role models, and Pat recalled working with a very expert teacher before starting formal training.

I had to give the students a quarter to half an hour, every morning, to let them express themselves, and then they became receptive to learning. ... I actually learnt that by watching another tutor, and I thought, good, I'm going to go back and I'll try that out. (Tai)

Tai reported positive memories of CAT tutors at the local polytechnic, but some of Ata and Hau's experiences there had not impressed them. It was noticeable that the tutors' most specific comments on the polytechnic courses related to the ways people taught, rather than to the course content.

I wasn't happy with the CAT course. I don't think it was the course itself. I think it was the presenters, because a lot of the heavy things came after lunch. The timing was wrong - and they wouldn't listen to suggestions... (Ata)

When I was doing the computer diploma, I compared tutors I was sitting in front of, to how I was tutoring, and I didn't like the comparison... It was just a part-time job, then they were out of there... There wasn't a lot of professionalism in their delivery. (Hau)

None had undertaken full-time study since leaving school, although they had all received on-job training in previous occupations. Compared with many polytechnic or university teachers, these tutors had therefore had little exposure to role models for tertiary teaching until their participation in polytechnic courses such as CAT. The wananga's deliberate effort to 'feel different from school' for its students was also likely to limit tutors' use of more formal practices they might remember from their own school days. At the stages in their careers that I interviewed them, they were able to critique the teaching of people they had observed, and analyse their value (or lack of it) as role models.

Learning from working with colleagues

Working with colleagues, whether on the same campus but teaching different subjects, or from different campuses but teaching in common subject areas, was frequently mentioned. Some contacts came from the Hui a Kaupapa, others from daily activities. Moderating unit standards also brought contacts with external colleagues for some.

I've learnt a lot through my peers, in cluster groups. When I was in the engineering field, they had one cluster group where we brain-stormed, we looked at ways and means, how we resolved different things. (Tai)

In the computing department we keep in touch with each other all the time... We share ideas and talk about what has worked and what hasn't worked. So that's a kind of buddy system... (Hau)

[*Do you get opportunities to observe other tutors teaching?*] Not really... What often happens is the other way around for me. Other tutors bring two or three different programmes in here, and I deliver part of the Tikanga Maori... So they see me in action. (Ata)

The wananga's whanau kaupapa on each campus, and its conscious efforts to promote cross-campus professional development, meant there was visible support for working with colleagues. The wananga's organisation of full-time class groups and the distances between campuses made it difficult to find opportunities to observe other wananga tutors teaching. On the other hand, the formal times in the wananga's yearly programme set aside for Hui a Kaupapa, and the comparatively small staff at each campus, did facilitate contacts outside class time.

For the tutors I interviewed, there had been many opportunities for learning with and from colleagues when attending CAT and BEd courses, as Ata commented: “When we go to different workshops ... it’s been good, being exposed to the ways in which other people do a lot of things”.

Thus even formal courses could be sources of informal learning through the sharing of participants’ practices and experiences, as well as discussing theoretical explanations for practices or ideas that people had originally learned by ‘trying things out’. Because the tutors had continued to study in courses about teaching while gaining years of practical experience in teaching, they found it difficult to isolate just what had been learned tacitly and experientially and what from more formal classes –various sources had been complementary and overlapping.

Overall, informal, experiential learning had been significant, though unquantifiable, for these tutors. In particular, many of the interpersonal skills needed in dealing with the groups of students the wananga targeted, while they could be discussed or role-played in courses, ultimately depended on relationships and finding out what worked with each new group of students. Common practices, such as assessing and moderating unit standards, were shared as and when they were required, and phone calls and emails between campuses were frequent methods of help among colleagues. The influence of role models varied, and the practices of teachers outside the wananga (whether school or tertiary) were not always relevant to the wananga’s approaches to teaching. The very experience of being in the wananga community itself also formed a background to their informal learning about teaching.

5.3.4 Developing a sense of identity as a teacher

When talking about “what sort of teacher I am” some of the tutors related their comments closely to teaching in the wananga context, while some reflected more broadly:

I’ve had to be a reflective tutor, because I’ve had to look at the way in which I deliver things, because not all people are the same, not all classes are the same... Being professional, to me, means giving the very best, being accountable, maintaining my own personal integrity in my work.
(Ata)

Far more experienced, of course. Not so earnest, not so keen to please. A lot more understanding of the students, and really emphasising building a positive relationship with the student before you actually teach them any content... Intuitively, sort of like baking a cake, I just do it. (Hau)

For the lot of the students I had to deal with, they saw an authority figure - where I think the kaupapa of the wananga is totally different. The emphasis is placed on the student, the student is the be all and end all. I often say to them, "Look, without you I would not have a job". (Tai)

It's all very individual... I don't ever do the same, say this is how I teach, because whatever the student brings, I work on what their needs are at the time, it's a very spontaneous kind of teaching... (Pat)

A common factor across those comments was people's identification of themselves as teachers in terms of their relationships with others, whether colleagues or students. Terms such as *intuitive* and *professional* were also used, echoing phrases used by teachers in the other case studies.

A further factor that emerged from some people's comments on their identity suggested *an holistic view of life*. I gained a strong impression, particularly from the two older Maori tutors, of people's life experiences contributing to the sort of person and teacher they were, and their teaching in the wananga being an integral part of their whole life.

People say it's important to separate out your professional life from your personal life. I do that. But there's still the thought, that what I do at work, I do naturally, because I do it at home all the time. They do overlap. (Ata)

An example of how a holistic viewpoint influenced a person's attitude to teaching emerged when Ata talked about the long-term achievements of these students:

I took this MAccess group to Woollongong in 1994, to the World Indigenous People's Hui on Education... I wanted to open another door for them... Of the 16 students I took with me, 10 have since graduated with degrees or as nurses or teachers. Now that's a really big percentage of one class. I didn't like that MAccess kaupapa - the targets were all wrong. Things mightn't happen just this year, during their learning... because I believed that the learning was going to take place in steps. (Ata)

Tai commented similarly, critiquing Skill New Zealand's expectations of second-chance students being safely ready for a work placement six weeks into an entry-level engineering trade course. Ata also challenged Skill NZ expectations of a fixed

percentage of students gaining work straight after a course, when many in a group had come from Workbridge, with more than just educational concerns to be addressed.

5.3.5 Developing as teachers in the wananga: some initial conclusions

All four tutors talked a great deal about their students and the satisfaction they gained personally from teaching in the wananga context. They accepted the wananga's 'student-centred' emphasis, and developing a repertoire of ways of working with their students had given focus to their own learning about teaching. They expressed few concerns about the subject content they were teaching, even when they were asked to change to a different programme.

As experienced teachers they found it difficult to separate what they had learned formally from courses and what they had learned through experience, but all had no doubt that their teaching knowledge, skills and attitudes had grown and changed over their years in the wananga. Pat, who was a trained primary teacher and still used many of those earlier skills, valued completing tertiary teaching courses for many insights gained. Ata talked of "taking it all in and giving it all back" and related teaching to a whole life story. Hau and Tai linked their teaching content to their own prior work experiences and to employment opportunities for students – but their overall approach to their students also drew heavily on their interpersonal skills.

All spoke positively about being supported by the people around them – the 'whanau experience' of personal and practical help, from the moment a person joined the wananga. They commended the exchanges of ideas at the Hui a Kaupapa. They enthused about the series of tertiary teaching courses they had attended, and took it for granted that the wananga would continue to require staff to gain tertiary teaching qualifications. For that reason they supported introduction of the ACTT for current new tutors, even though they had not experienced it themselves. All had contributed financially to their own external courses – the wananga subsidy did not pay full fees.

They were conscious, however, that once people went into their classrooms and workshops there were few opportunities for observing others teaching, or being observed and getting feedback. They noted that any mentoring they had experienced

had been informal and occasional, rather than supported by the wananga in a more structured way, and two suggested that the latter was desirable.

All the tutors took a reflective approach in their interviews, but my impression was that this was a personal way of thinking and reacting, rather than conscious ‘reflective practice’ as recommended in many adult education courses. This came through in their pondering about why things had come about, how they had thought about what to try next, how things came together in various ways. The holistic attitude I referred to earlier and the long-term perspective that some adopted seemed to be linked to this reflective approach, and gave a different ‘feel’ to some of the ways the tutors talked about teaching, compared with the teachers in the other case studies.

Why were these tutors so positive about the tertiary teaching courses they had engaged in over the years? They were working in a Maori context, which suggests that, from their perspective, contributing to the good of the group might be considered more significant than their individual, personal success. These tutors did believe their learning improved their teaching and was therefore of value to their students, their campus and the wananga. They also, however, expressed an awareness of personal achievement and some professional status in aiming to finish their degrees:

“I wanted to do it for myself as well.” (Hau)

“I’m loving this, because I’m going to get myself a degree.” (Ata)

“We can make hay while the sun shines.” (Tai)

“It gave me such an eye opener... it was really stimulating for me. (Pat)

Whereas some polytechnic and university teachers talked of wanting to pass on to their students their enthusiasm for the discipline, the interviews suggest the wananga tutors wanted rather to pass on their enthusiasm for learning - and for learning in a group with friends and colleagues for support. The specific subject matter they taught to their students did not appear to matter so much, it was more like a vehicle, albeit one that could lead to employment. And their own personal successes in learning (about tertiary teaching) made them into positive role models for their students and colleagues in the wananga – thus contributing to the good of the wananga community.

They took a long-term view in their expectations of student progress, and thought that processes such as developing rapport and confidence were as important as achieving

specific content/skill outcomes. In planning curricula, they focused on potential employment opportunities for their students: that could be interpreted as simply an instrumental purpose, but comments suggested they also saw employment for their students as having important personal development and social implications. They said little about feeling pressured to keep updating their own subject knowledge, perhaps because their programmes were at quite low levels where basic skills and content were less likely to change rapidly than in higher level courses. Most references to maintaining contacts with industry or employers related to keeping in touch with employment opportunities for their students. On the other hand, they had put considerable time and effort into completing tertiary teaching courses that kept them learning themselves, and confirmed their sense of being professional teachers.

Overall, the tutors had strong sense of the wananga community as a whole, and of their campus whanau and subject groups, as the context in which they had developed as teachers. They were conscious of the wananga's history, and the effects of changes over time in its status, size and structure and funding. They were, above all, conscious of their relationships with their students – supporting students was the reason for their being teachers in the wananga. As they said, people who did not support the wananga's aims and values did not stay long – but these people had stayed.

5.4 What provision does the wananga make for the teacher education and development of its academic staff?

Whereas the previous section addressed the experiences of some staff over varying periods leading up the time of this study, this next section examines in more detail the wananga's current provisions for teacher education and professional development in the 2000-2001 period.

5.4.1 Findings from documents

The *Charter kaupapa* said the wananga would be a good employer and “encourage staff to develop personally and professionally to their full potential”. Its employment statements referred to affirmative action, selection of appropriate staff, equitable treatment of staff, and an intention to “encourage all staff to take part in professional training courses, technical refresher and research programmes”.

The *Tutor Handbook* reproduced the QMS policies and procedures for appointment, induction, appraisal and professional development. The *Collective Employment Contract* was added as an appendix. The following paragraphs address firstly the more general employment-related provisions, and then the development provisions.

The *Staff Appointment* policy referred to the selection of staff who had appropriate qualifications in terms of skill, experience and academic achievement, and who would be committed to working within the special character of the wananga. The *Induction* policy provided for the development of induction packages and procedures to ensure new staff received a powhiri, and information and support. The *Collective Employment Contract* provided for a 12-month probationary period for tutors. The *Appraisal* policy set out a regular and ongoing “performance management system” that started once a person moved from probation to permanent employment. The appraisal procedures included:

- Staff will be appraised on a cyclical basis... There is one formal appraisal per year by the campus manager...
- A personal professional development plan will be negotiated for the ensuing year... (*Tutor Handbook*, section 6.5)
- Staff can choose to use self, peer, external and taura appraisal to add to a portfolio should the staff member wish to apply for a salary review.

Staff development policy statements in the *Tutor Handbook* (section 6.4) addressed both general and teaching-related development. Sample statements included:

[The wananga] will support and encourage participation in a variety of professional and personal development activities that provide benefits to the staff, the wananga, and learners.

All kaiako staff undertake learning styles training... Any training that is based on a learner-centred philosophy is encouraged.

Kaimahi [all staff] have access to learning and improving their skill and knowledge in te reo Maori and gaining a fuller understanding of tikanga Maori...

The policy distinguished between internal professional development (activities generated by the wananga) and external professional development (provided by other institutions, and usually leading to qualifications). Fees for external study could be reimbursed on successful completion, up to a stated maximum.

Qualifications for teaching

In 2000³ the institution had started offering tutors its own Advanced Certificate in Tertiary Teaching (ACTT), which had been approved by NZQA as a provider qualification. It was described as 120 credits at Level 5. “All kaiako with no formal teaching qualifications are required to enrol onto the one-year Advanced Certificate in Tertiary Teaching” (*Tutor Handbook*, Section 6.4).

The ACTT modules were all compulsory, with no electives. The practicum was worth 20 credits, and the other units 10 credits each. The programme was designed to be delivered in a series of units over a year: part-time classes were held on campus once a week, led by experienced tutors. It took a formal approach, with learning outcomes and performance criteria specified for each unit in a style like that of NZQA unit standards. Some topics were generic, and similar to those found in many polytechnic tertiary teaching certificates (e.g. teaching techniques, course planning, methods of assessment) although their delivery and assessment were intended to be in keeping with the wananga’s kaupapa. Other topics were more specific to the wananga, such as those addressing Te Reo (language) or Tikanga (customary practices). In 2001 an Advanced Diploma in Tertiary Teaching started (also NZQA-approved), adding a further 120 credits at Level 6. That programme had fewer but larger modules, and involved more project work and reflection.

The wananga’s development and provision of tertiary teaching qualifications for tutors working in a Maori context was unique, providing evidence of support for its staff and their work with students, and of the special character of teaching in that institution. The expectation that all new staff from 2000 onwards would complete the ACTT recognised that few tutors started with prior teaching experience, and that the demands of teaching in the wananga required substantial institutional support.

³ Before 2000, wananga tutors had been sent to a nearby polytechnic to gain CAT and further tertiary teaching certificates and diplomas, and some had started extramural study towards a BEd(AdultEd).

5.4.2 Findings from the educational developer interview

In this section I consider firstly forms of support offered for individual tutors, and then forms of support offered to groups of tutors.

Wyn discussed the wananga's policies and practices relating to individual support, especially for newer tutors. The main themes that emerged were: *formalities compared with actual practice*; *sources of individual support*; and *responding to concerns*.

Formalities compared with actual practice:

Wyn acknowledged that formal processes such as probation and appraisal were provided for, but suggested that in practice those things happened rather informally:

Theoretically they are appointed for the first year on probation and then they roll into ongoing things. But to be honest I have never seen anybody not make it through the probation period...

Staff appraisal is a bit ad hoc - there is an observation that is supposed to be done. [Appraisal] is more usually done through an interview with a campus manager.

Elsewhere Wyn had commented on the comparatively small numbers of staff at each campus (10-15) and the growth in the number of campuses in recent years. It is likely that very formal processes might have seemed inappropriate in earlier years among a small group of people at one location: but now that numbers were growing and formal systems were required, there seemed to be a lag in applying some of the processes more fully. In a context such as the wananga's there could well be some tension between the desire for a friendly whanau atmosphere and the need to implement formal QMS procedures.

Sources of individual support:

Wyn confirmed the multiple roles of the EDU, with responsibilities for curriculum development and monitoring as well as staff development support.

Each programme has an EDU advisor... So if a brand new tutor comes on board she might say "I don't know quite where to start - what am I supposed to do?" We can say "Contact xx in [subject area] - he's been with us two or three years, he'll show you." So there is cross-campus sharing and things like that, but it is not particularly well structured... If they have problems and they ask we give them help, but there is no formal system.

Wyn noted, however, that tutors often turned to local colleagues first for help:

Because of the whanau structure that we are embedded in, they are more likely to talk initially to the people who they are with, other tutors on their campus...

The multi-campus structure of the wananga influenced the ways individual support could be made available. A tutor's immediate colleagues on a campus were likely to be the first contacts, but they would not usually be in the same subject area, and so their teaching advice would be at a more general level. Contact with a subject-area colleague at another campus usually meant phone or email contacts, except when the wider Hui-a-Kaupapa brought people together. EDU staff were also distant, at the main campus, though they did travel around regularly. It was generally up to a tutor to identify a concern and ask for help: there was no regular provision of structured individual support from either a local mentor or an EDU advisor.

Responding to concerns:

Some concerns might come directly from tutors asking for help:

I think the most obvious things, the ones we get most asking for, are how to plan and how to assess... Often what they are looking for is some guideline format to follow... We usually give them some examples and say 'Pick one of those...'

Some concerns might come from other sources:

We get some student complaints, we also get the most obvious thing, which is students walking – not staying. So if you are experiencing a dwindling class and there aren't any good reasons, you need to have a look at that... Generally what happens is the campus manager will be concerned... and then someone like myself is brought in.

That comment confirmed that EDU work could include dealing with concerns referred by a manager rather than a tutor, but resulting in specific support for that tutor. I note that such a situation could lead to an EDU person being perceived as associated more with management than with provision of individual support, with potential for some tension between those roles.

Moving on to continuing professional development activities provided by the EDU for groups of tutors, the main themes that emerged from Wyn's interview were:

Acknowledging tutors' needs for development; ways of providing staff development; qualifications in tertiary teaching; and issues related to size and location.

Acknowledging tutors' needs for development

The wananga generally, and the EDU in particular, recognised that few tutors had previous teaching experience when first appointed:

We have generally appointed people who are content rich... Then we run straight into the problem that most of them don't know how to teach.

Wyn thought both new and more established tutors were generally very open to the teacher education and development opportunities offered:

They believe that they should be better tutors, that they should be improving, that they should be student centred and trying to cater for everybody, even although they have got some of the hardest tertiary students in the block... So if we can give them some professional development, they are really quite grateful and we don't have much difficulty getting people into that.

Wyn commented that sometimes older tutors thought they should be treated with respect because of their age, and were reluctant to change their more formal ways of teaching, even though "time and time again with our students it doesn't work, they just drift away". That could be seen as an example of a conflict between a more traditional, formal Maori approach to teaching and the more informal, student-centred approach adopted by the wananga. It had been recognised as an issue, however, and the developer reported that newer staff at the time of the case study were aware of and accepted the need to develop new teaching skills.

Ways of providing staff development:

Learning styles and student-centred teaching were specifically mentioned in wananga policies, and Wyn emphasised them in early activities offered to new tutors:

Our [initial] professional development for tutors is aimed at a student-centred, learning styles or accelerated learning approach. Largely because learning styles makes people concentrate more on the individual...

Wyn also referred to the Hui a Kaupapa, used to bring all staff to the main campus for moderation and provide opportunities for wider staff development:

So all the tutors [of a subject] will get together, they will share ideas, we will do internal moderation, we will talk about external moderation. They can plan and make modifications to their programme...

Wyn confirmed that tutors could propose different forms of development to meet their individual interests or needs, and that funding was available for travel or course fees. A recent development weekend for the carving tutors was cited as an example of internal provision for a specific group. Another example of the way staff development could be used, either internally or externally, was to improve tutors' own subject qualifications.

Wyn noted there was a need to improve the follow-up after some workshops:

We send everyone off on the learning styles things, but there is no follow up, because of the cost... Then about five weeks later you may still find yourself talking and chalking, and you haven't done things that you were going to do, because a certain degree of continuity is lost.

The emphasis on learning styles and accelerated learning, mentioned both here and earlier, was a feature Wyn particularly associated with the wananga, though no rationale or critique was offered. Their approach could be seen as a way of showing students that classes in the wananga were different from the secondary school classes that many of them had failed in. The approach was very different from the schooling that most staff members themselves had experienced and so emphasised to them, too, that the wananga did things differently. References to some 'talking and chalking', however, suggested that more 'traditional' methods could still be seen, and that changing one's teaching style was probably more difficult for older staff members.

Qualifications in tertiary teaching

Wyn talked of the fairly new ACTT (the first classes had started in 2000) as something separate from the other EDU development activities, in being more structured and sustained, and formally assessed. "There is a formal expectation that all tutors would do that as a minimum, if they haven't got an equivalent qualification".

Regular time in the teaching week was set aside for ACTT on all campuses, while students were out in work placements or doing self-directed learning activities. The wananga's approach to the structuring of their students' learning thus also made it possible to facilitate participation in teacher education by all staff, in a way that might

not be so feasible in a larger institution with varying timetable patterns in different departments.

Issues related to size and location:

The multi-campus structure affected the ways by which staff development and ACTT classes could be organised. The rapid growth in the overall size of the organisation had influenced what was offered, and how it might be organised.

The EDU at the beginning of the year used to do a travelling circus going around and giving people ideas... When we were small it was easy... But our tutorial staff now is about 130 and they are spread out over a long way... We bring support across campuses now by Hui a Kaupapa.

One of the things I see as a danger at the moment is that we have had a big growth... Campuses are employing tutors and if we have this centralised kaupapa of how teaching should be done, that has got to get out. The ACTT certainly is the model of the way to do that.

Wyn reported that the numbers enrolled in ACTT were high at each campus at the time of this interview, as there was a 'catch-up' to include existing as well as new staff; but thereafter the need to provide for smaller numbers of new staff joining a campus each year could become a concern. Where campuses were close, neighbouring ones could combine to share an ACTT class group; and where they were more isolated they might invite tutors from nearby PTEs to join to increase participant numbers.

Wyn noted that people teaching the ACTT classes needed to be good role models for the wananga's student-centred approach: that could be a concern at some smaller, more isolated campuses, where fewer appropriately qualified teachers might be available to choose from. Thus using the ACTT (a central/generic programme, with localised delivery) to develop teaching practice across the whole wananga still had delivery issues to resolve at the time of this study.

Overall, Wyn's view of initial and ongoing teacher development in the wananga reflected the perspective of a person who had been associated with the organisation for many years, and 'had a stake' in developing and maintaining processes. Much of the wananga's promotion of accelerated learning and learning styles had originated with Wyn, who made no reference to other educational theories associated with teaching in the wananga or with its teaching qualifications. Wyn's descriptions of the wananga's

students confirmed that the target groups identified in the Charter were indeed those coming to the wananga. In turn, helping tutors to work with those groups justified considerable emphasis on, and resourcing of, teacher education and professional development. Wyn was aware that a balance was needed between formal systems and more informal whanau ways of doing things, and that some matters needed attention, such as how the probation and appraisal systems were being applied. I would agree with Wyn's judgement that the wananga's rapid growth had been a factor contributing to such concerns.

Wyn acknowledged that, despite the influence of ongoing professional development on tutors who had been at the wananga for many years, learning from experience was also a considerable factor:

What you watch with them is a huge development in skills. If you look at [xx and xx] say six or seven years ago, their teaching skills now are very much higher and more focussed, they have a wider range of strategies. I think they follow probably a quite common pattern of growth/plateau, growth/plateau...

I concluded that the wide range of roles and responsibilities of the EDU, especially the mixing of support and monitoring roles, could potentially affect the way EDU staff members' relationships with other tutors were perceived. An example would be Wyn's comment that a formative observations of teaching had been interpreted, though not intended, as part being of formal appraisals. That is an issue I have heard raised in other staff developer forums, with no obvious resolution: much seems to depend on the extent to which any unit like the EDU is associated with central management or human resources or academic development, in a given community. Given the expansion in the number of wananga campuses, EDU (located at 'head office') might increasingly become identified with central management: conscious effort may be needed to maintain the development and personal support dimensions of its work with tutors.

5.4.3 Findings from teacher interviews

The teachers' comments on their own personal development were addressed above in section 5.3. That section showed that they had been strongly encouraged to learn more about teaching and gain qualifications, during their service at the wananga. Their more general comments about teacher development for other people have been placed in this

present section. I asked them about what the wananga did, or should do, to support tutors now, recognising that some things had changed since they themselves had started. Two main themes emerged from their comments: *reflecting on current practice* and *suggestions for new tutors*.

Reflecting on current practice

Hau, who had recently moved into EDU and been involved with developing an induction package, had thought a lot about support for new staff:

I visited all the campuses and asked what experienced tutors would like to see included in an induction package. The most common thing was to assist in planning, understanding a unit standard, being able to fit their knowledge into a programme, and being able to deliver that to students. The other feedback was, having a support person, an experienced tutor working alongside you, as your mentor... (Hau)

Pat, who had been formally trained as a primary school teacher and was familiar with systems outside the wananga, offered comments from a different perspective. Pat was conscious that sometimes literacy students went back to classes taught by untrained new tutors. That mattered, as it affected the follow-up available to the student. Pat observed that at some campuses away from the main centre new staff seemed to be "... thrown in at the deep end. They've got to find their own resources. They've got to just flounder and try and keep their head above water." Growing support networks for tutors were commended, however:

They are building up a network on all the campuses and it's really good that they're getting these things into place. So they've come a long way in a short time. (Pat)

Asked whether new staff had mentors, Ata said it happened, but not formally, and offered a recent personal example of working with a new art tutor.

Thus there was recognition that immediate support for new tutors was available, but with room for further development. Some practical matters included identifying the need for early help with planning, and for a buddy or mentor to help to address immediate needs until attendance at ACTT courses could provide a more structured introduction to adult learning and teaching.

Suggestions for new tutors

Most people focused on practical forms of help with programme planning and delivery, but Tai also talked about the importance of developing rapport with students. Tai's idea for observation and feedback also linked with Hau's comments (above) about using mentors.

The advice I would give any one would be, get to know their students - you've got to get them on board - you've got to move first... (Tai)

If anything, I would like to see more peer observation and feedback here, because it's been very limited. (Tai)

Become familiar with the programmes, with sourcing equipment and resources, become familiar with the orientation of the Wananga. Get to know the other staff quickly - who's who and who can help... (Ata)

I think it's vital that professional development is ongoing, that it doesn't just happen at the beginning... I think people really need something basic to start with, before they actually teach. (Pat)

Hau recommended local polytechnic CAT courses for people who started at the wananga after the beginning of a year, and therefore had missed the start of the ACTT series of modules:

I would really advise them to sign up for CAT. Because that's local and available, it's there, thirty minutes away from us, and repeated through the year.

Overall, the experienced tutors took it for granted that new tutors would be offered support and expected to attend courses, as they had been. That would explain their focus on immediate practical help, rather than the need for, or content of, teacher education courses. Despite the wananga's good intentions, however, there still appeared to be scope for more structured early assistance, for example through mentoring that would include observation and feedback on a new tutor's teaching.

5.4.4 Supporting teacher development: Some initial conclusions

Recognising that teaching and student support were the main functions of the wananga, the organisation had made a substantial commitment to providing in-service teacher education and professional development. As well as developing internal staff development, in the 1990s it had started sending staff to a local polytechnic's tertiary teaching courses. Teachers accepted that newly appointed staff were required to

complete such qualifications, and from 2000 the wananga's own ACTT became the required minimum: defined as level 5, 120-credit, it went well beyond the level 4, 40-credit CAT offered by the polytechnic described in the previous case study. The wananga's certificate and diploma incorporated many elements very similar to those of polytechnic tertiary certificates and diplomas, but with additional modules addressing Maori issues and with an overarching focus on teaching Maori learners. The emphasis on student-centred learning and accelerated learning was applied in the content and teaching of the modules, but that was not unique – I am aware that some polytechnics' tertiary teaching courses also include such approaches. While ACTT had been developed by the EDU, and was taught by an EDU tutor on the case study campus, it was not clear that other campuses all had staff adequately qualified and prepared to do that teaching.

The wananga met the costs (especially travel) involved in running Hui a Kaupapa two or three times a year; it continued to offer accelerated learning workshops at the start of every year; it funded other internal courses and workshops; and it subsidised fees for tutors attending external courses, whether for teaching or for qualifications or updating in their subject areas. The resourcing of the EDU was further evidence of the wananga's support for teaching, across a wide range of functions. EDU advisers allocated to specific subject areas helped tutors with curriculum development and teaching concerns, but also had QMS monitoring roles.

I saw potential for some tension between the EDU's support and monitoring roles, which might increase if the numbers of campuses and tutors continued to grow. Some data suggested that the wananga's probation and appraisal processes were either not substantial, or not fully implemented. As each involved aspects of both support and monitoring, there would be an opportunity, when planning for improvements, to consider ways of resolving possible conflicts – perhaps allocating adviser/support aspects to some EDU people, and monitoring aspects to different EDU people.

Data also suggested that a new tutor who started during the year might not be able to join ACTT classes till the following year, and might have to rely on the Tutor Handbook and campus colleagues for initial support until the next Hui a Kaupapa was held. That situation suggests that expansion of the induction and probation processes to

include mentors should be considered. If mentoring, as suggested in some interviews, were to be adopted, staff development workshops could be used to train experienced tutors to be campus-based mentors. They could then support other tutors through more fully developed probation and later appraisal processes, thus dispersing some of the EDU workload, contributing to their own campus whanau culture, and helping to build and maintain the wananga's community of teaching practice.

5.5 Discussion: Becoming a teacher in the wananga

What does this case study tell us about becoming a teacher in the wananga? Looking at the data, three important influences emerge. The first is the background context of the wananga's Maori kaupapa and tikanga, and its growth from a PTE into a multi-campus institution. The second is the wananga's focus on students, especially those from an identified target group, and on student-centred teaching. The third is the level of commitment to supporting teacher education and professional development for people appointed to be tutors in the wananga.

A number of features contribute to making the wananga a distinctive teaching community. The distributed campuses, each housing the staff and students of only about 10-12 programmes, often in buildings not originally designed for education, would be one example. The educational pattern of having only full-time programmes, each based with one tutor in a home room (or a cluster of rooms and tutors for a multi-year programme) would be another. The personal interactions associated with the wananga as a Maori community, typified by morning karakia and the Hui a Kaupapa gatherings, would be further examples. Compared with a polytechnic's, the programme range was limited, but designed to meet the needs of the students (mainly from provincial towns and rural areas), through offering both Maori cultural subjects and employment-related curricula. Student-centred teaching can be found in other tertiary institutions and PTEs, but the wananga's specific emphasis on accelerated learning and learning styles is less common. Within the institution tutors are conscious of being members of multiple groups: their local campus group of staff, their subject area colleagues (spread across campuses) and the wananga as a whole.

How would a new tutor coming into the wananga become a member of that community of practice, and develop as a teacher? Just as the experienced teachers I interviewed were not able to remember precisely when and how they learned many of the teaching practices and attitudes they had acquired over the years, so it is not possible to predict exactly what will happen to any one new tutor. Nevertheless, a number of general expectations can be stated.

A new tutor is appointed with relevant work experience (and perhaps qualifications), strong interpersonal skills, a willingness and desire to support 'second-chance' students, and a commitment to working within the culture of a Maori institution. She will immediately be immersed in the busy life of the campus, but will also be welcomed and helped by her immediate colleagues. She will attend an accelerated learning styles workshop, then an induction process will initiate her into the language and activities associated with things like lesson plans, NQF units, and standards-based assessment. She will be given the *Tutor Handbook*, which includes teaching tips, and the EDU may put her in touch with tutors teaching her subject area on other campuses. Then she will find herself working full-time with a student group, four days a week. If she has no previous teaching or training experience, then she will have to work out many things on-the-job, as situations arise, especially ways of developing rapport with her students. She may remember role models from her schooldays or workplace training, but those settings might not have demonstrated the wananga's student-centred approach. She may have few opportunities to see others teaching, or to be observed and given feedback. A distinctive part of the week will be the fifth day, when campus staff spend half a day extending their knowledge of Te Reo Maori and tikanga, and half a day studying the wananga's ACTT modules.

As the first year moves on, the tutor will attend two or three Hui a Kaupapa at the main campus, meeting colleagues from other campuses who teach the same programme as hers, and sharing moderation, advice, ideas and resources. After a year's probation her teaching will be appraised by the campus manager, and a professional development plan will be agreed, leading into an annual cycle. Improving or updating her subject area qualifications would be an option, or she could go on to the wananga's DipTT, and later might complete an external degree in tertiary teaching.

If she gained a sense of achievement from working with students at the wananga she would stay on, becoming an established member of the campus whanau and contributing to the life and culture of the wananga. Over time she would learn more about the wananga as a community of teaching practice, and what sort of teacher she was becoming. That learning, much of it informal and tacit, would come from sources such as trial and error, reflecting on experience, colleagues' shared ideas, and participating in courses. While the courses on tertiary teaching would increase her understanding of theories of adult learning and teaching, it is likely that she would continue to make many teaching decisions intuitively or pragmatically, in response to a growing understanding of her students' individual and group needs and interests.

The findings discussed in earlier sections of this chapter suggest that that hypothetical description is realistic and reasonable. The experienced tutors I talked with had gone through similar processes over a period of years in the wananga teaching community. New tutors would be surrounded by people who wanted to maintain and develop their common practices (both consciously and unconsciously), and who would initiate new members into practices and attitudes they believed were valued in and would sustain that community. Assumptions about the ways things are done at the wananga would be passed on in various ways by many people. The tutors and educational developer whom I interviewed were committed to the wananga's emphasis on providing a safe, supportive, Maori environment in which second-chance learners would have opportunities to develop self-confidence and succeed. The wananga also had policies and processes to support the community's work in more formal ways. As an outside observer I perceived considerable consistency between the formal institutional values and provisions and the more personal attitudes and values of teachers in the wananga community. I also saw that the teachers were aware of belonging to multiple, overlapping groups – the institution as a whole, their subject groups of colleagues, and the staff at their local campus – which could be cultivated as communities of practice (Wenger, 1998).

Chapter Six: University Case Study

This chapter develops a case study of ‘becoming a teacher in a university’. Findings from analysis of the data are presented in the following sections that address the main research question and three key sub-questions in relation to the university that was studied:

- 6.1 Background and context
- 6.2 What is teaching like in the university? (Sub-question one)
- 6.3 What do some experienced teachers say about how they have developed as teachers in the university? (Sub-question three)
- 6.4 What provisions does the university make for the teacher education and development of its academic staff? (Sub-question two)
- 6.5 Discussion: becoming a teacher in the university (Main research question)

Data gathering took place during the period mid 2000 to early 2001: the picture presented in this case study is therefore a snapshot of that time, and may not represent the state of the university at other periods of time.

6.1 Background and context

The university was of seven in New Zealand in 2000. It had seven faculties, 45 departments, about 950 academic staff and nearly 500 general staff. Details of its campus and history are not included here, as they would identify the institution. The foreword to *Teachers Talk* (1999) referred to the university’s “environment dominated by questions about capital charges, research funding, EFTS funding, quality validation, entrance qualification and so on” (p. 2), and noted that the changes were not peculiar to this university or to New Zealand. Thus many factors had been similar to those experienced by other New Zealand tertiary providers, including increased public expectations that universities would prepare students for vocational careers and meet the needs of employers. University programmes were externally approved by a sub-committee of the NZ Vice-Chancellors Committee rather than by NZQA, and reviewed by the independent Academic Audit Unit.

Like other New Zealand universities, this was both a teaching and a research institution:

Our fundamental reason for being students is to learn, and for being staff is to teach, to inform teaching by our research and to facilitate teaching by means of the services we provide. If we did not teach at this university we would not be here” (*Teachers Talk*, p. 2).

There had been an increased focus on teaching since late 1998 (*ibid*, p. 3), with initiatives including the establishment of a Teaching and Learning Committee (as a committee of the Academic Board), and a review of the Educational Development Unit (EDU). Some effects of those changes were starting to show during the period of data gathering for the case study.

6.2 What is teaching like in the university?

The findings in this section are based on data gathered from institutional documents, interviews with two educational developers and four experienced teachers, and observations of the site and selected classes.

6.2.1 Findings from institutional documents

The university’s *Charter* opened by saying, “Universities advance knowledge by research, and maintain and disseminate it by teaching”. Then came a statement of five characteristics of universities, drawn from the Education Amendment Act 1990 (see Appendix A). Subsequent major *Charter* sections were headed: Teaching, Research and Scholarship; Academic Freedom; Social Responsibility; Equality; Staff; Students; Environment; Resource Use; Entrepreneurial Activities.

References to teaching and teachers in the *Charter* said that the University would:

- Provide the best possible resources and teaching to enhance the intellectual development of its students;
- Observe in recruiting academic staff that teaching is inseparable from research;
- [Maintain] The freedom of the institution and its staff to teach and assess students in the manner the institution and staff think proper;
- Be a “good employer”;
- Provide programmes of instruction in teaching, and staff development programmes.

The university thus established formally that teaching and teachers needed to be resourced and supported. The *Charter* said the university would provide courses in a wide range of disciplines, to standards equivalent to those of other New Zealand and overseas universities. It would consult with occupational, user and community groups, and foster flexibility so that courses and research programmes would be responsive to changes in the economy, society, technology and student interests.

Vision and Goals (1999) presented two major visions:

- First, to send out graduates with trained and educated minds, to serve as a source of intellectual energy to the New Zealand community.
- Second, to be a premier research university, internationally known for the excellence of its contributions to knowledge, its excellent courses, teaching and graduates... (p. 5).

A specific objective in *Vision and Goals* referred to: “develop and strengthen high-quality teaching and learning in a collaborative and supportive environment” (p. 16).

Current strategies linked to that objective were:

- Assist new staff to develop effective teaching and assessment practices
- Foster collegial support for and peer review of teaching
- Provide effective means by which teaching practice is informed by relevant educational research, scholarship and innovation (ibid, p. 16)

Proposed strategies linked to that objective included:

- Monitor teaching performance by a range of appropriate methods
- Provide incentives for staff to develop their teaching and recognise and reward excellence in teaching
- Engage mainly in campus-based teaching and learning, but encourage provision of more flexible learning opportunities...
- Improve policy and procedures for study and conference leave to reinforce the development of curricula and good teaching practice (ibid, p. 16)

Teaching-related strategies found under other goals and objectives also referred to: adequate resourcing of courses to ensure high quality teaching; recruitment and retention of high quality academic staff; induction of new staff to the institution; development of policies and procedures relating to staff performance; and resourcing of staff development programmes that “respond to identified University goals and staff needs”.

The *Teaching and Learning Committee Plan 2000* identified particular strategies in *Vision and Goals* to address, and mechanisms for achieving them. For example:

Strategy: Establish policy and procedures to identify and reward good teaching
Mechanisms:

Promote teaching profiles for promotion...

Establish awards for teaching

Produce *Teachers Talk*

Provide grants for teaching conference attendance

Identify mechanisms for the co-dependence of teaching and research

Strategy: Ensure that new staff are actively supported in their teaching roles

Mechanisms:

Develop a protocol in relation to teaching to guide departments in the appointment of new staff

Develop procedures to ensure new staff receive support and guidance to introduce them to the ways of teaching at the university

Establish a programme of systematic and required training for new teachers

Thus a teaching culture or community of practice (Wenger, 1998) was being promoted. At the time of my visits in June and September 2000, some of those mechanisms had already been implemented, specifically the teaching awards, conference grants, and the publication of the first edition of *Teachers Talk* (1999).

The *Collective Employment Agreement* for academic staff, unlike the agreements of the polytechnic and wananga, did not detail the teaching role or duties of staff, saying only that: “members of staff will undertake teaching, examining and research... as well as assisting generally in the work of the department...” and referring to the potential for “a limited amount of professional work and public service outside the university”.

Teachers Talk presented a very different perspective on teaching in the university from those documents introduced so far. It presented 35 short articles by academics about examples of their own teaching approaches, providing a more immediate connection with the sorts of things that happened in the teacher / student / discipline interaction, and a sense of an active teaching community. The committee had invited contributions from academics known to be doing varied and interesting things in their teaching, so that their ideas and practices could be shared more widely. The results were attractively presented, and covered a wide range of subject areas and teaching approaches. The overall impression was of teachers enthusiastic about their subject matter and about

seeking ways of making learning more interesting, accessible and participatory for their students. *Teachers Talk* provided a view of actual teaching practices, rather than policies about teaching, and also a view of the sorts of student groups people were working with. While it could be said to be an overview of ‘good practice’ in the university, however, it was not necessarily a collection of typical university-wide practices.

Further statements about teaching in the university were found in documents relating to the EDU. (See section 6.4.1, below.)

The overall impression given by the formal documents such as the *Charter, Vision and Goals* and *Teaching and Learning Committee Plan 2000* was one of formality and neutrality. By formality I mean that statements focused on policy and strategy, and by neutrality I mean that little was said that would distinguish this from several other New Zealand universities. The writers seemed anxious to show that this university met national and international standards, but that approach did little to convey a sense of a distinctive community constituted by this university. Even though *Vision and Goals* had a section headed “To foster and promote a distinctive University identity and spirit,” the only identifying characteristics made explicit in the whole 48-page book were the date of the university’s establishment, its location, the names of some illustrious graduates, and the name of the local iwi with whom the university had a partnership.¹ Most other statements could have been applied to any New Zealand university, and indeed only references to the Treaty of Waitangi limited the context to New Zealand.

Many statements thus appeared rhetorical, rather than descriptions of what the culture of the institution, and especially teaching in the institution, ‘felt like’ to its staff and students. The *Educational Development Unit Plan 2000* raised more specific matters such as collegial relationships, teaching as a public activity, and “practices embedded in local, national and international discourses”, but did not discuss them in detail. The recent issuing of draft promotion criteria for university-wide discussion did indicate

¹ In the more recent (2003) rewriting of all tertiary institutions’ charters, the Tertiary Education Commission required more individual profiles that would distinguish institutions from one another.

some potential for all members of the university community to be involved in the formulation of new policy.

Teachers Talk, on the other hand, presented materials written by teachers that were less formal and more specific to the culture of this university, suggesting that it is in the day-to-day activities of its members that more of a sense of community emerges. In introducing the first edition (late 1999) of *Teachers Talk*, the Pro-Vice-Chancellor (Academic) [PVC(A)] said:

Teaching in this university, as in many, has been taken for granted, as “that activity which everyone does”... In reviewing our strategies for achieving excellent teaching, many of us have reflected on our own experiences as beginning academics. Assessment of our potential as lecturers (the word is used advisedly) would seem to have been primarily on the basis of our achievement as researchers... It was assumed that if we could lecture we could teach. For an educational institution such an attitude is, to put it kindly, bizarre. Yet that was our tradition.

To some extent we “got away with it” because for a long time our students were people like us: school leavers who came to university directly from the upper echelons of their schools... In most cases they were full-time students... were paid a bursary and had few financial worries. We could relate to these students without great difficulty. Frequently that is no longer the case. Many students are not like that at all. They enter university by a great diversity of pathways. They have varied life experiences, varied skills and varied intellectual backgrounds. Some are taking a “second chance” at education... Some have family responsibilities... A large number have financial worries... Our teaching strategies must adapt to accommodate this heterogeneous student body.

I have quoted that passage at length, because it captured many of the assumptions that underpinned traditional practices and attitudes to teaching still found in the university, as well implications for changes in teaching that the institution was facing. *Teachers Talk* also confirmed that my data gathering was taking place during a period of transition for the university, soon after the start of an increased focus on teaching development.

Overall, the documentary data showed that the teaching role of the university was formally acknowledged, and that from 1999 onwards strategies were being developed to encourage teacher development and give more recognition to excellent teachers. The stated need for such new strategies was also evidence, however, that for many years

teaching had been “taken for granted”. The *Charter* referred to “Observe in recruiting academic staff that teaching is inseparable from research,” but implied that a person’s disciplinary research was the main focus. There were no mechanisms to encourage academics to undertake research into their own teaching, or to ensure that their teaching would be informed by others’ research into learning and teaching. The institution could be interpreted as an overall community of practice (Wenger, 1998), with its staff sharing common goals and interests, but the documents also indicated that subgroups with variations of practice and attitudes were likely to be found within that community.

6.2.2 Findings from educational developers’ interview

Two educational developers, Jo and Dani, asked to be interviewed together. Jo had been director of the EDU for a number of years, while Dani had been in EDU for a shorter time. They led off the session by providing me with the documents referred to above and in section 6.4.1, and discussing the institutional background to them. Key themes relating to teaching in the university that emerged from this interview were: *Observing varied attitudes to teaching; focus on the discipline; student engagement; and community cultures.*

Observing varied attitudes to teaching: The developers commented on a range of attitudes to teaching that they observed among academics in the university. They also confirmed that some changes were starting to occur, for example:

The Vice Chancellor has said very positive things about teaching and the importance of teaching, and relating to students and supporting students... [Until recently] there was no real public face to teaching in the university. (Jo)

They thought the wider culture of the university was slow to change and that many staff still did not particularly value teaching, or see it as a professional activity, though the new Teaching and Learning Committee provided a forum for ideas.

I think for us that the culture of the institution and the attitude towards teaching is probably the biggest problem... (Dani)

I would like to see a future where teaching was a public activity people could be proud of... where there is a professional code of practice that is openly and actively debated. (Jo)

Other comments offered examples of views that could be found among academics in the university, with some attitudes depending on the ways people defined teaching, and others influenced by institutional pressures:

We asked, “What is teaching?” in a survey. Most said, “Giving a lecture,” and then dried up. (Jo)

There is a sort of antipathy to the notion of ‘teaching’ that they associate with schools. (Dani)

For many academics, the teaching that they value is at the cognitively challenged higher levels. They see the introductory, stage one level as being some sort of mechanistic instrumental operation... (Jo)

I sense younger staff are more open to the sort of changes that are happening institutionally, and I think they have got a greater awareness that good teaching involves reflecting on teaching... (Dani)

Focus on the discipline: The developers observed that for most staff their discipline had first priority, and that factor coloured academics’ approaches to teaching:

I think that we have good teachers who define themselves in terms of helping people enter into and function well in their discipline... (Jo)

And being a good teacher in that sense means being an expert in your discipline... (Dani)

Student engagement: this was identifiable as a distinct theme, but was also influenced by aspects of the two previous themes. Again the developers saw a range of positions taken by teachers, with generally more emphasis on student engagement with the subject or discipline, rather than interpersonal teacher / student interaction:

I think for a university it is not particularly helpful to talk about a student-centred approach - we are not here to develop the student as a person, which other sectors might be concerned with... (Jo)

... some departments in which much more student-centred, interactive teaching is being worked on... Other departments where it’s very much an individual enterprise and a transmission model. (Dani)

Dani added this comment later, when returning the checked interview transcript:

The ‘hot issue’ with student diversity is international students, I think because they are so visible and can cause teaching difficulties. There doesn’t seem to be great awareness of other forms of diversity, or of the needs of Maori / Pacific island students.

Community cultures

The concept of 'community of practice' (Wenger, 1998) was not referred to specifically by Dani and Jo, but related ideas emerging from their interview indicated groups with distinct cultures within the university, especially in disciplines and departments.

Aspects of institution-wide practice could come lower in some teachers's priorities:

I think virtually all academics on this campus identify themselves as disciplinarians first... That's where the whole focus of their work is, in being recognised as an expert in that discipline... Now the university is requiring institutional allegiance to itself... so we want them to do teaching portfolios, to do quality assurance systems, but that is not really their major interest. (Jo)

Departments here have a life of their own. They have a history. New people tend to arrive in ones and twos, and get absorbed into that existing culture... (Jo)

Overall, the picture of teaching in the university that emerged from the developers was a mixed one. There were academics who gave one-way lectures to large undergraduate classes, and others, often newer staff or those with smaller classes, who might teach in more interactive ways. There were staff who saw the purpose of university teaching as inducting students into their disciplines, and staff who saw 'real' teaching as occurring in their engagement with post-graduate students rather than first-years. Research and teaching were parallel requirements for academics, but many staff saw research in their discipline as their primary focus, with teaching as a secondary activity. The developers themselves understood a wide range of approaches to teaching and learning, and were well-informed about educational research that would be relevant and appropriate in a university, but reported that only limited numbers of staff came to them for ideas, discussion, advice or help. They confirmed that the research that was valued in the university was disciplinary: it could be used to inform teachers' course content, but academics rarely did research into teaching and learning that could inform their approach to teaching.

Their comments on common factors - such as teachers giving priority to research rather than teaching, instrumental attitudes to undergraduate teaching, use of formal lecturing rather than more interactive approaches, and the continued existence of large classes - suggested that most teaching in the institution was still following 'traditional' university

patterns. They perceived that teaching had little standing in the university as a *profession*. Although they welcomed the positive approaches to teaching and learning appearing in recent new policies, the developers were aware that translating those into widespread change in departments and among individual academics was likely to be slow.

6.2.3 Findings from teacher interviews

Introduction to the people: Chris, in Fine Arts, had been at the university for 15 years, Glen, in Engineering, had been here for 19 years, and Jan, in Computer Science, had been here for 20 years. Those three had all moved from post-graduate research and university tutoring into full academic positions in their disciplines. Andy, in Communication Studies, had been at the university for 13 years, and was the only one to have spent a substantial period in another (related) occupation. They had much to say about their approaches to teaching, and as in the other case studies I regret that length limitations prevent me from sharing more of their comments. Key themes emerging from the interview transcripts that related to their own teaching were: *engagement with students; inspiring and challenging students; relating coursework to employment; acknowledging institutional pressures; and talking about specific teaching techniques*. Themes relating to commonly held practices and attitudes were *ways of recognising good teaching; issues causing concern; departmental valuing of teaching; and collegiality and professionalism*.

Engagement with students

In some instances teachers talked of considerable personal interaction with their students, especially those in programmes with smaller classes such as communication and fine arts. In other instances they talked more of engaging their students with the course content or their discipline.

For Chris, personal involvement with students was an important aspect of teaching in fine art:

I believe I have empathy with my students and I think that comes through in my attitude towards them and the amount of time I spend with them. I am prepared to be patient, open and to listen and to provoke and to challenge my students... I know them really well, not just as students, but I have a sense of other parts of their lives also. (Chris)

Andy, working with students in a post-graduate diploma, similarly referred to awareness of student issues outside the learning / teaching relationship. Andy also taught in some bigger undergraduate papers, and emphasised the importance of lecturers being readily available to students:

There are some staff who resent working with students - whereas most of us, I hope, operate an open door policy. To me the students come first, and research and other things have to be attended to at weekends and over the summer. (Andy)

Glen's main contacts with students were more course-related, but also included an advisory role for students in one year of a degree programme.

Jan talked of trying to make lectures, as well as tutorials and labs, more interactive as an important aspect of getting students engaged with the subject. Jan also commented on the need to gain an understanding of students whose background and abilities might be very different from their lecturers'.

It's quite hard to make it interactive in a very large stage one class, but it is very straightforward to do so in a third year class... (Jan)

Inspiring and challenging students

The two teachers who talked most about wanting to inspire and challenge their students were those in the smaller programmes, in closer contact with their students:

I am enthusiastic about what I teach and the outcomes of my students' learning... I hope I impart this passion, as it has been an aspect of my whole life... I want my students to be challenging themselves all the time. (Chris)

That is what teaching comes down to in the end - awakening the interest and making people get excited about a subject. (Andy)

Relating coursework to employment

Three of the teachers talked about how their courses related to future employment opportunities, and were conscious that this was a concern for many students. The workplace could also be a source of projects to make coursework more relevant and interesting, and influenced the syllabus in some courses, but not all.

I see my job as preparing them to begin their careers... knowing that there will be on-going refinement and honing of their skills... I want them to be thinking [practitioners]... (Andy)

Some students come to computer science just because they think it's an interesting subject, but I think the majority of them are looking to see where they're going to end up in employment. (Jan)

A friend sat in on a few of my lectures, and commented on how I talk a lot about 'how this is used'... He said that was very different to lectures in Arts. (Glen)

Acknowledging institutional pressures

Some factors that had influenced most of the teachers related to institutional changes over recent years. In particular they cited increased class sizes, time pressures, and student expectations.

Class sizes

The higher staff student ratio really does start to tell eventually. (Jan)

In [named paper], you've got 420 and you split them into three classes. You could easily justify splitting them into much smaller classes and have more interaction and do a better job of teaching. But that's not the way this faculty does things. (Glen)

Student expectations

Apart from class sizes or things like that, I think that students have much higher expectations – they are now very concerned consumers... (Andy)

I think some of them expect they should pass because they've paid their money. (Jan)

Time issues

The amount of time I have for each person has been reduced in recent years as the school has increased student numbers without increasing the staff. (Chris)

Internal assessment has produced a much greater [time] pressure on both students and staff. (Jan)

Pressure to balance teaching and research

If a starting academic was spending lots of time on teaching and little time on research, you would tell them, for the students and the department that's great, but for them - it won't advance their career. (Jan)

All the teachers had coped with such pressures in their own practice, and were anxious that what they considered good teaching practice not be adversely affected. Although the PVC(A) in *Teachers Talk* had talked about the wider mix of students (such as age range, socio-economic background, more women and Maori) coming to university,

dealing with such diversity did not seem to be an issue for these teachers, although larger classes had had an impact.

Talking about specific teaching techniques

The teachers each talked at some length about how they approached their teaching. Common topics included: lecturing, use of handouts and in-class exercises, out-of-class activities, group discussion, teaching less tangible topics, approaches to assessment.

Where large classes were involved the teachers accepted that lecturing was expected by their departments and the institution, but said they tried to provide variety and interaction, not mere transmission of information. Usually they had considerable freedom in choosing their approach, but Glen felt constrained at times by departmental practice.

I think lecturing is about communicating... you can be flexible with the material, you can respond... I think intuition is absolutely crucial, you have to be able to recognise different audience dynamics. (Andy)

I think the important thing is to get a feel for making it clear which things are important and which aren't... Give lots of examples, practical and realistic examples if possible... (Jan)

This year, I'm teaching a paper on xxx. And I'm constrained, because there's three streams to it, and different lecturers take each stream. And you all have to do exactly the same. (Glen)

Glen and Jan, who did the most lecturing to large classes, both used handouts of partial notes in their lectures, with gaps for students to fill in key details or diagrams. Glen included other activities during lectures, based on research findings reported by Ramsden.

I'll do a bit of theory and then we'll do some examples... and we'll discuss various ways people handled the example. I'm trying to get them thinking about how to do it, and I'm trying to expose any misconceptions they might have... There's more interaction, they get involved. (Glen)

All expected their students to be engaged in learning activities between classes, and not just with reading-type assignments. Jan referred to computer labs, and other examples included assignments, field work and projects:

We now do all our teaching in the mornings... From 12.30pm each day they are expected to be out 'doing it' ... One of the first things I did here was introduce what we call field trips... (Andy)

The course involves students writing proposals of the type of work they will pursue... [the aim is] a balance between allowing a student to be highly experimental but also giving them some clear guidelines ... (Chris)

Andy and Chris reflected on ways they taught subject areas where exact skills and specific content were not necessarily the main focus, for example:

I am often able to introduce a student to a new way of thinking about their practice by inviting them to view and discuss another student's work, regardless of studio designation or level of study. (Chris)

My job is to raise ethical dilemmas and issues that they will have to confront as [practitioners] and I am not going to give the answers. I will give them possible frameworks for thinking about issues... (Andy)

Group discussion was mentioned by all the teachers at some stage. In larger classes some discussion would take place in multiple tutorials, designed but not necessarily led by the lecturer. For Andy and Chris discussion was major part of their own teaching:

Class meetings are conducted with everyone taking part, and to give critical feed back to each other [on their individual projects or artworks] may take a couple of hours... (Chris)

I don't like to have anything other than as much discussion as possible and will direct it very much at the issues. (Andy)

The teachers said little about common forms of assessment such as essays, tests and examinations – there seemed to be an acceptance that these were in regular use, especially for large classes. Several talked about other approaches they were using, such as open book tests, or team examination of end-of-year art portfolios. One example linked assessment to a restructured curriculum approach:

We have integrated the two specialist papers around generic areas... with equal weight in terms of assessment. They cannot complete the course without being competent in both. (Andy)

The overall impression I gained was of enthusiastic teachers, interested in their students and in making their teaching interactive, and concerned to make their subject matter stimulating and relevant. The most individual approaches to teaching were those

described in fine art and communication, where classes were smaller and content more open to interpretation and variation. The work of the engineering lecturer varied: some lectures had to fit departmental expectations of ‘transmission’, while other classes could be treated more independently. That person was the only one who referred to using research literature as a basis for practice. The teachers said little about how their own research related to the content of courses, although all were engaged in some form of research or consultancy in their specialist areas.

In reflecting on their own attitudes and approaches, at times the teachers compared themselves with colleagues, or with departmental expectations, or with their perceptions of practice elsewhere in the university. In several instances they criticised what they perceived as other people’s more ‘traditional’ practices or attitudes, which suggests that this group was not necessarily typical of teachers across the university. That was very likely, since these people were enthusiastic enough about their teaching to volunteer to be interviewed about it.

I asked the teachers to comment on what might be considered to be community views of, or attitudes towards, teaching. They did not use the phrase ‘community of practice’ but the following examples indicate common concerns and attitudes that they associated with either the wider institutional community or their departmental groups.

Ways of recognising good teaching

All mentioned promotion and three mentioned course surveys as institutional vehicles by which good teaching might be acknowledged. Only one mentioned the newer teaching awards as a possible incentive for improvement.

Course Surveys

I guess one of the reasons that many people have changed their teaching is course ratings and so on. (Jan)

It’s not good [in this faculty] to have a poor course rating. But it’s also not good to have a really good course rating. Because then people start muttering about spoon-feeding and entertainment... (Glen)

Promotion

Ten years ago you’d have to say [the university] didn’t value teaching at all even though it paid lip service to it. (Jan)

As far as this university is concerned, research is the major focus, and that's what will get you promoted. (Glen)

Teaching awards

... at least the University is talking about recognising good teachers and we have now got an award... [But] I think there is a fair degree of scepticism or even cynicism with outstanding teaching awards... (Andy)

Those comments suggest that, while the interviewed teachers valued teaching and knew there were university policies to promote teaching, they also believed that attitudes to teaching across the university as a whole would be slow to change. Several perceived that research was valued more highly than teaching in promotion processes.

Institutional issues causing concern

The teachers said little that suggested quality assurance processes had impacted on their teaching practices; but two raised concerns about accountability, suggesting a lack of institution-wide attention to the quality of teaching.

We are talking about very large classes where the standard of the student varies hugely and the motivation varies hugely. Somehow you have got to deal with all of that, in a system where there have not been formal requirements to achieve a certain level of preparation for teaching. (Andy)

If this university started paying attention to its failure rate and its dropout rate, that might rock the boat a bit... And maybe if universities here [as in Australia] started being a bit more worried about it, then there would be more focus on teaching... (Glen)

Departmental valuing of teaching

Chris and Jan commented positively about attitudes to teaching in their departments:

I believe that teaching is hugely valued at this art school and forms the basis of what we do ... There is an appreciation of excellence in teaching, and this forms the foundation of the school. (Chris)

All the lecturers meet and discuss the marks in all the studios. This gives us a measure of teaching outcome and an opportunity to be reflective of each others' teaching approaches... (Chris)

The people in this department who are [good teachers]... one of the important things is that they care about their students and about that part of their job. (Jan)

Glen was more critical of attitudes to teaching among departmental colleagues:

I think of myself as a professional teacher... But most of my colleagues would probably see themselves as professional engineers... There's a belief that anyone who can do research can teach, so it's nothing special. (Glen)

In this department we don't talk about teaching. That may sound cynical, but a lot of the talk is about content. Do you teach 'A' or do you teach 'B'? It's not to do with how you teach 'A' or 'B'. (Glen)

Chris observed that departmental differences in teaching approach emerged in EDU seminar discussions:

The idea of allowing students such learning freedom at stage one level was foreign to some of the other lecturers. My approach to teaching the project was uncomfortably open and seen to be challenging their approaches to teaching and learning in their disciplines. (Chris)

External communities and professionalism

Most of the teachers mentioned external communities or bodies they related to, which complemented their university work (both teaching and research). Networking with colleagues at conferences was important to all of them, and other examples included professional practice and liaison with employers:

I think of my art practice as a professional activity. You need to be sufficiently well established to have your work collected and written about... To be part of that community of ideas... (Chris)

When I arrived here, I used to say I had two masters. An obligation to the University for the quality of the programme... but I was also answerable to industry, in that my students had to be employable... (Andy)

For Glen there was a strong engineering profession, but little recognition of teaching itself as 'professional'. Jan did not have an identifiable professional body, although there were conferences focusing on computing and education:

Computer science really isn't a profession yet, it's too young... We don't have any of this stuff about industry looking at our course and saying whether it conforms to some requirement. (Jan)

How did these teachers, overall, see their community or communities of practice? The institution itself was acknowledged in terms that indicated an overarching community of practice (for example, quality assurance expectations, or standards set for promotion, or general perceptions about 'traditional' university teaching). In terms of teaching, common attitudes and practices in a person's immediate department and discipline had

considerable influence, set against a background of assumptions about the way the wider university operated. The strongest sense of being in a *teaching* community of practice came from the area of fine art, and the weakest from engineering. Course surveys and personal reflection were the most common indicators of teaching effectiveness, with research rather than teaching being the main factor recognised in the promotions process. External communities, such as professional bodies or employers, varied, but were more likely to influence content rather than teaching methods.

6.2.4 Findings from class observations

Each of the interviewed teachers nominated a class for me to attend, to observe a sample of their practice. Appendix N contains vignettes developed from my observation notes.

The observations showed that the ways the participants talked about their teaching (espoused theory) were consistent with the ways they taught in their respective sessions (theory in practice). I did not observe anything that contradicted what I had been told in interviews. Chris was working with individual 4th year art students, asking them to reflect on and explain their approach and progress, and giving feedback on their artworks. Andy gave an undergraduate lecture on mass communications, well-structured and interesting, with opportunities for questions. Jan gave a lecture that was lively and well-paced, with considerable student interaction, and handout notes to be completed in class from well-prepared computer projections; materials and messages were also available from a class website. Glen also gave a lecture, with students working through examples individually and in pairs before wider class discussion of the examples. Thus in three out of four sessions I observed a form of lecture, with provision for interaction. Two of the four classes were considerably bigger than any I saw at the polytechnic.

6.2.5 Teaching in the university: Some initial conclusions

Looking at the combined effect of the data from the documents, the educational developers, and a small number of the university's teachers, what picture of teaching in the university emerged?

From the *Charter* came a sense of tradition and continuity, suggested by comparing the university's standards of research and teaching with those of other universities. From *Vision and Goals* came indications of more detailed planning to achieve the Charter's intentions, with references to the university's "community, including the international network of scholars", and a desire to "foster and promote a distinctive university identity". From the *Teaching and Learning Committee Plan* came further strategies to achieve the goal of "excellence in teaching and learning to a standard befitting an international research university". Thus teaching in the university was repeatedly linked with research and international standards in many of the formal statements. From *Teachers Talk* came a different perspective of teaching in the university, written by teachers about examples of their own practice: the content of this document was therefore closer to the material discussed by the developers and teachers who were interviewed.

From the educational developers came some elaboration of the background of attitudes to teaching in the university. In their opinion, teaching had not had a high profile in the university culture, despite the intentions stated in the Charter, and they thought widespread changes would be slow to take effect. As people working to support and promote teaching as a professional activity, they welcomed the formation of the first Teaching and Learning Committee. They noted that research had long been favoured over teaching in promotion procedures; that teaching was not widely valued as a professional activity in the university; that for many staff research in their discipline was their main focus; and that many defined 'teaching' as lecturing or as inducting students into their discipline. They also noted that instrumental attitudes to undergraduate teaching were common, especially where classes were large. Such observations ran counter to some of the claims and intentions in some documents, but explained why strategies for developing teaching (as in *Vision and Goals* and the *Teaching and Learning Committee Plan*) were needed. The developers were also aware, however, of examples of excellent teaching around the university, such as those reported in *Teachers Talk*.

From the interviews with some of the university's teachers came a further contribution to the picture. Those I spoke with had been teaching in this university for many years. All taught both undergraduate and post-graduate students. The developers had talked of

many university teachers being very focused on their research and their discipline, and some seeing 'real' teaching as only what happened at post-graduate levels. But the people I interviewed said they found teaching an important and satisfying part of their work at all levels, and talked more about how they interacted with their students than about their discipline or the content of their courses. That suggested they had much in common with the writers in *Teachers Talk* - which is understandable, since I had asked for people who were 'experienced, and interested in teaching' to volunteer to be interviewed. They perceived that research counted for more than teaching in promotions - but did not say that promotion issues had affected their personal attitudes to teaching. That suggests their positive attitudes towards teaching were based on intrinsic rather than extrinsic factors. They also said little about how their own research practice related to their teaching: the art lecturer was an exception here, taking a more holistic position. While one of the developers had suggested that students' personal development was not really a university concern, all the teachers spoke at some point of being aware of matters affecting students' personal lives: the art lecturer took a stronger position on this than the others.

The data suggested that being 'student-focused' was a common factor for those teachers. The art lecturer talked of art practice and teaching being closely interlinked, and of how important teaching was to all staff in that department. The communications lecturer talked of 'students coming first' in term time, and research being fitted into weekends and the summer months. The engineering lecturer talked of using student activities within lectures to clarify misconceptions and engage them in learning, and the frustration of having to give a 'traditional' lecture sometimes. The computer science lecturer was using a variety of approaches to help students to understand and apply their learning. The 'one-way transmission lecture' conventionally associated with universities was rarely part of the repertoire of these teachers, though they did teach in lecture halls - and also in tutorials, laboratories, studios, workshops or field trips. Most courses still had final examinations, but these teachers were using a variety of other methods for internal assessments. While they commented on the effects of increased student numbers, and noted receiving student feedback through course surveys, they said much less about the impact of institutional quality system requirements than the polytechnic teachers had. That suggests they might have assimilated changes into their existing practice, rather than altering practice and priorities to accommodate imposed

requirements. They were conscious that their students were interested in how their courses might link with later employment prospects, but only in engineering and communication studies did employers and professional bodies have much influence on course content or standard-setting. They did not talk about comparing their standards with those of teachers in other universities, although two commented on their practices being influenced by ideas gained from Australian colleagues.

What is the university like as a community of *teaching* practice? It is a place where teaching is acknowledged as a major function, both formally and by the people working there, but where many see research as an even more important function. It is such a large institution that teachers tend to associate themselves more with the local community of practice of their department and discipline rather than the system of the university at large. Such a sense of community was largely tacit, implied by other statements about practice and attitudes, rather than explicitly stated. Because the university is so large, it is also difficult to generalise too much about its teaching from so few interviews. The university documents say, however, that it sets out to be comparable with other universities, thus inviting some assumptions that its teaching practices would be like those often described in the literature on university teaching.

While the *Charter* and *Vision and Goals* talked abstractly of intentions relating to excellent teaching, the teachers themselves talked of the students and courses they were currently engaged with. It appeared that many staff in the university did still teach by lecturing to large classes; but it was also clear from the interviews and *Teachers Talk* that a number were using interactive approaches to lecturing, as well as a wide variety of other teaching methods. What also emerged, however, was that teaching was not a common topic of conversation among staff, and that assumptions persisted that academics would “pick up” teaching skills somehow, basically relying on their subject knowledge and communication skills, and their past experiences of being students themselves.

6.3 What do some experienced teachers say about how they have developed as teachers in the university?

All findings in this section are drawn from the teacher interviews. The teachers were asked to talk about what had influenced them when they first joined the university, and how they thought they had developed as teachers.

6.3.1 Entry to teaching in the university

Three key themes emerged from the interviews: *entry route into university teaching*, *support from colleagues* and *support from EDU*.

Entry route into university teaching

Chris did some part-time tutoring after completing MFA at another New Zealand university. A period of overseas travel on an Arts Council Grant and two Artist-in-Residence positions in New Zealand schools followed. After a one-year contract in an Australian university, Chris came to the present position in 1985, and had since risen from lecturer to Head of Studio. Chris said a range of teaching experiences and strong support from a number of people along the way had contributed to the decision to become a university teacher.

Andy, in Communication Studies, spent a year after leaving school as a VSA teacher in the Pacific, then completed a degree and post-graduate diploma in New Zealand, then worked in the communications industry for 18 years. That work included some training of cadets, and some guest lecturing at a university, but: “Basically my preparation in terms of teaching was very limited at the point I arrived here in February 1987”.

Jan, in Computer Science, had followed a path that led more directly to university teaching, but involved a change of discipline. Jan was doing post-doctoral research in physics, but physics jobs were few, so an advertised position in the new area of computing science was attractive. “Doing that [conversion to a new subject] was probably better for me, because you end up teaching things that you might not otherwise need to know as part of your research...”

For Glen, in Engineering, success at school had led to university, and success there had led to PhD studies, and then on into a lecturing position.

When I was doing my PhD, I liked the autonomy of the lifestyle. I'd worked in industry as well... so I knew what a nine to five job was. I also did a bit of tutoring... I quite liked that, and I liked students, too. So I got the idea of becoming an academic. (Glen)

While one might expect most academics' paths to follow a traditional sequence from post-graduate studies into university research and teaching, those stories show that it can be less direct, especially for teachers in more applied discipline areas where industrial or professional experience are desirable. All four teachers had post-graduate qualifications, though not all held doctorates; for the communication studies lecturer, industry experience was more relevant. The change of discipline reported by Jan was unusual, but echoed that of the polytechnic computing lecturer in the same era. Unlike teachers in the polytechnic and wananga, most of whom had not studied in those types of institutions, these teachers had all been students themselves in a university, and had expectations of what teaching and learning in such an institution would be like. That experience could be seen as a form of 'observational' apprenticeship and introduction to the context, though not to specific principles and techniques of teaching.

Support from colleagues

Positive *support from colleagues* was particularly commented on by Chris, although examples mainly related to positions held before joining this university, for example:

Xx had been my supervisor. We began co-teaching some classes and that was really helpful ...

[In Australia] I was fortunate to work with two people who supported my interests and encouraged me... (Chris)

The other three people had more negative memories of *lack of early support* from colleagues. Andy, appointed to lead a very small department, had had to cope alone:

My predecessor left about a one-page memo which gave no indication of what was being taught and how. Basically I had a month to put together three papers with no knowledge of what had gone before... (Andy)

Jan said little directly about support, but referred to an assumption that most people knew what lecturing was like "in those days":

Certainly when I started off you just did your thing and nobody came and saw what you did, and it either worked or it didn't, I suspect... The expectation of how people taught was probably fairly consistent... (Jan)

Glen had also experienced lack of support:

I suppose at university level you become a teacher almost by accident. I don't think anyone consciously helps you. When I started here, in 1981, there weren't even induction courses. It was a case of, "Here's a syllabus, off you go, your lectures are these times". (Glen)

The comparative lack of support reported by three had varying causes: for Andy, the small size of the department and lack of immediate colleagues; for Glen and Jan, assumptions about coping with teaching that were taken for granted in their departments, and which echoed the words of the PVC(A) in the introduction to *Teachers Talk*. On the other hand, for Chris collegial support had been strong in a series of positions, associated with interactive and collaborative ways of teaching art.

Support from EDU

All the teachers had started before the current EDU programmes had been developed: the unit did exist, but the availability of teaching advice was perhaps less well known.

Chris was not aware of EDU when first appointed, but later became a regular user and a contributor to some of their seminars. Jan had no contact with EDU during the early years of teaching at the university, and was not sure how much initial courses on teaching would have helped:

I've thought before about whether or not having a course to go to would be useful... I don't really think that doing it in a structured way like that would have been useful to me, back in those days. (Jan)

Andy was aware of EDU early on, but made little use of it then. Andy acknowledged that its current programme was very different, and elsewhere in the interview strongly recommended EDU courses for current new staff.

I did attend one course - I think it was a day - offered by our EDU in that February, but it was pretty limited in those days. (Andy)

Glen reported talking with EDU staff, as well as going to seminars:

I discovered EDU quite soon. At that stage, EDU were much smaller... but I somehow found them. And I remember talking to [Jo] on occasions about the sort of things that had come up and problems I had had. (Glen)

EDU sessions designed for new staff thus had little impact for these teachers in the 1980s, and when they later made contact with EDU it was on their own initiative rather

than something their department recommended. Their later experiences, however, meant they were positive about the value of EDU's current offerings for new staff.

6.3.2 Formal learning about tertiary teaching

“Formal” learning is used here to refer to participation in organised activities such as EDU seminars, workshops, conferences, or courses leading to qualifications. The key theme to emerge related to patterns of attendance and participation.

Varied patterns of attendance and participation

Chris had attended a number of EDU seminars over the years, on topics such as assessment and group processes, and commented on “being encouraged to keep a teaching journal, which helped me to reflect on my teaching and how to make any changes I wanted”. Jan used to go to three or four EDU courses a year, but less often recently. Jan thought short courses and seminars were useful because “you don't get too overloaded with information, you've got some context of what you're already doing, what will work for you and what won't”.

Only Glen had gone as far as seeking qualifications, and over the last ten years had completed a BA in Education, EDU's teaching and assessment seminar series, and a masters paper in higher education.

That's when I started to build up a theoretical background... They've made me feel more secure, in that some of the things that I've done from the beginning because they felt okay, actually do make sense in terms of what we now know about learning... (Glen)

Andy said less about attending EDU courses (but commended them for new staff now), but reported relying on a regular conference for continued learning:

I think I am still learning. I go away most years to a conference of [specialism] educators in Australia. I would seldom come back from there without some new ideas about how we might teach some things. (Andy)

The teachers all said what they had learned from courses and seminars had been relevant, useful and timely, but only Glen specifically referred to adopting and applying theoretical ideas gained there. EDU sessions were generally seen as an opportunity to

share and discuss ideas, but no-one talked of being ‘inspired’ or ‘challenged’ by them (as they had talked about their intentions for their own students).

6.3.3 Informal and incidental learning about teaching

Key themes that emerged from the transcripts relating to people’s informal and incidental learning were: *learning from experience*; *learning from ideas shared by colleagues*; and *learning from role models*. For these teachers such learning had been significant, and so a number of quotations are included as examples.

Learning from experience:

I believe intuition is a result of many years of experiences in teaching... Every year I write a review of my teaching for all the courses I teach. (Chris)

That first year was a steep learning curve... I now see teaching as being essentially two things - inspiration and nurturing - so that the way I teach now is very different. (Andy)

Every year I sit down with focus groups of the students and listen to whatever they might say about the course surveys.... So we try to improve what we are doing and pick up on ideas... (Andy)

I have learnt is that it is okay not to know everything... And I don’t have to appear to be in control all the time.... (Glen)

I don’t think a lot of teachers sit down and think ‘how do students learn and hence how should I teach this?’ More often, you try something, and it either works or it doesn’t, or you try what worked for someone else. You give it a go, rather than it being grounded in any great pedagogical theory. (Jan)

Learning from ideas shared by or with colleagues:

That was one of the good things about doing [EDU seminars], that there were people from all different faculties. And they had a programme whereby you sat in on other people’s lectures. That influenced me in a lot of very subtle ways. (Glen)

I have the opportunity to discuss anything with my colleagues. I work closely with two people... and often I co-teach with them. (Chris)

A colleague in Australia [gave me this idea]... And you think, why the hell didn’t I think of that sooner? (Andy)

People mention things they are doing, innovative things, and you think, that's worth a go... I think that sharing good practice is an effective thing... As a department we've decided that we probably will start going to each others' lectures as a matter of course. (Jan)

Role models

One of my early team teaching experiences was with X... X was very clear how to engage students in conversations about their work... (Chris)

When you're a student, you see people teach, some very badly and some very well, and I don't think we should underestimate the amount we learn from that. Of course at the time you're probably not reflecting on that. (Jan)

I certainly don't remember any of my lecturers... I certainly didn't have anyone in mind as a role model when I started. (Glen)

What makes Professor X a good teacher? He isn't a showman... But there is a chemistry there, an ability to communicate, a sense of humour, interesting material. He is absolutely superb - he was the best teacher I ever had. (Andy)

Overall, the teachers had much more to say about practices and ideas that had developed informally than about matters they had learned more formally from seminars and courses. The extracts above show most of that learning was contextual, and much was gradual, shaped by a series of events or adjustments over the years – the cyclical repetition of classes facilitated that. Ideas from colleagues were taken up, but practices based on role models from the past were less frequently cited. There was evidence of reflecting on how things had eventuated, why things had worked or not worked, and increasing confidence in their own judgement of situations.

6.3.4 Developing a sense of identity as a teacher

As people talked about their work and their attitudes to it, their views of themselves as teachers also emerged. They reflected on their roles, on performing, on inspiring students, on the complications of linking educational theory and practice, and on whether students thought they were effective.

I feel that there are a number of different roles I have with my students as the year progresses. I am the person who listens to their initial ideas, then helps them form those ideas into a system of working, who helps them to learn the techniques to make the work, then critiques the work, then helps the student improve the work, and ultimately judges the work and gives it a grade. (Chris)

I think students will forgive a lot in a teacher in terms of perhaps not being perfect, if the teacher is really interested in what they're teaching and communicates that interest and enthusiasm... And it's draining - teaching is really quite draining because you are in a sense performing. You can't have an off day... (Andy)

I'm certainly not the best teacher in the world but I'm well above average I would say. I enjoy it and honestly I'd have to say I think I'm effective. I think the students respond to my style. (Jan).

I see the role of the teacher as being much more complicated now than I would have seen it in the beginning... I think I've become a lot more understanding of students... (Glen)

Taken in conjunction with the previous extracts about informal learning, the data here suggest that these teachers did see their development as a continuing process, and reflecting on their own learning was associated with awareness of their identity or role as a teacher. While only Glen referred to being a professional teacher, all talked about being a teacher as an important part of their total job as an academic.

6.3.5 Developing as teachers in the university: some initial conclusions

The experiences described by the four teachers illustrated or confirmed a number of the comments made by the educational developers, and by the PVC(A) in the introduction to *Teachers Talk*. They had been appointed to their positions because of their qualifications, disciplinary knowledge and experience. They had come into an institution where it was assumed that people knew what university teaching was like from their own experiences as students; and that people would pick up, on-the-job, how teaching was done in their department. There were no requirements for them to go to courses or seminars on teaching, to be 'on probation' or be mentored in an organised way, or to be observed and given feedback. But they rarely complained about not having been 'looked after' better – the data suggest they accepted that was how things were and settled into the ways things happened in their departmental communities. One could also say that they went into their jobs with few expectations of anything different – but also before the pressures of the 1990s impacted on student numbers and diversity.

In talking about how their teaching developed, they referred to improving and refining what they did over the years, learning from experience and responding to reflection and

some student feedback, with few references to specific ideas or techniques learned from EDU seminars or from the literature of higher education. In relation to learning from role models and other people, the data indicated that ideas from departmental colleagues, people they met at EDU sessions, and people met at conferences had generally more impact than role models remembered from their own student days. Only the art teacher referred to co-teaching with colleagues as a source of learning. None referred to promotion or awards as having had an influence on their approach to their teaching, but they did talk of things they enjoyed doing, suggesting that intrinsic motivation was significant. The data also suggest that much of what they did was bound up with the ways they related to and communicated with their students – aspects of teaching that tended to draw on personality, self-confidence, enthusiasm and communication skills, rather than more formal learning about principles of teaching.

For three of the teachers, there was a sense of working in departments where teaching was valued and talked about, though they were aware this might be less common in some other parts of the university. The fourth was critical of the more traditional attitudes they perceived in their department, where large classes and a strong emphasis on research prevailed. For that fourth person, learning about teaching and education had been a personal journey (through study for a degree), and had led to the introduction of interactive teaching practices quite different from those of most colleagues. All talked of continuing to develop and modify the ways they approached the content and teaching of their courses, which I would interpret as continuing informal learning, and they found this stimulating and satisfying. None suggested that learning to deal with quality assurance matters had been a burden or an intrusion – their focus remained on their students and courses. Having more students in their classes, however, was a factor they had had to adapt to in managing their time.

Overall, the data suggest these teachers had learned about university teaching by doing it, and when opportunities arose they attended EDU seminars that were relevant to them at the time. Participating in such sessions had resulted in some confirmation or extension of practices they had already adopted, and opportunities to share ideas with others. As a result they recommended EDU support for new teachers. They welcomed recent university moves to promote teacher development, and accepted that more support was desirable for new staff joining the university now, rather than leaving them

to their own devices (as they had been treated). They did not link the need for more teacher development to issues such as learning to coping with more diverse students and the university's quality systems – it was more a general sense that development was a good thing.

6.4 What provision does the university make for the teacher education and development of its academic staff?

This section considers in more detail the university's policies and provisions for teacher development. Most of the data for this section come from the documents and the educational developers' interview, and less from the teacher interviews.

6.4.1 Findings from documents

To introduce this section I draw again on the PVC(A)'s introduction to *Teachers Talk*:

Just being left to “get on with it” is no longer adequate for any of us, be we novice teachers or old hands. As individuals we need to see learning how to teach as another facet of life-long learning. At an institutional level, training, support and on-going professional development are vital if we are to be excellent teachers (p. 2).

While the university had documents relating to goals and strategies for supporting teaching development, and to the educational development unit (EDU), there were few documents available that related to other aspects of career development for university academics such as induction or appraisal.

General career development support

At the time of my visits in 2000-2001, the university had no published institution-wide policies for the appointment, induction, probation or regular performance appraisal of academic staff. The main formal regulations at that time dealt with academic rather than personnel matters, as detailed in the annual University Calendar. Practices therefore depended on commonly held institutional conventions, with the potential for departmental or faculty variations. Typical of such conventions would be the practice of appointing staff on the basis of their research record and assuming that they would be able to teach by communicating their disciplinary knowledge and enthusiasm. As the educational developers said, newly appointed academics came into a department that

had a history, and became absorbed into the practices of the department – and later in their careers they were likely to continue those practices for the next new arrivals.

A draft document on promotion criteria for academic staff was being circulated for discussion in mid-2000. The broad areas of interest to be considered in assessing the merit of an applicant for promotion were teaching; scholarship, research and creative work; university service; professional service; and academic leadership. Promotion from lecturer to senior lecturer was proposed to depend primarily on a high level of achievement in teaching *and* scholarship and research. Promotion to higher levels expected continued evidence of effective teaching, but generally would give increasing attention to research contribution.

Thus, although the PVC(A) had said, “We are operating in an environment where we need to make ‘transparent’ matters which we have long taken for granted” (*Teachers Talk*, p. 2), a number of the human resources processes that could affect the career development of staff in the university were not documented or transparent at the time of this case study.

Professional development and teacher education support

The university had a long-established educational development unit (EDU) that supported teaching development and some educational research. In June 2000 EDU had a director and three full-time academic staff, plus other secretarial and technical support staff, with plans for a further academic appointment to support technological developments such as e-learning.

I was provided with *Educational Development Unit Plan 2000* and the year’s *EDU Brochure*. Those showed that EDU was responding to strategies from *Vision and Goals* and the *Teaching and Learning Committee Plan 2000* that fell within the unit’s area of responsibility. I was also given a copy of *Report on the Review of EDU (1999)*. Key statements from *Vision and Goals* and the *Teaching and Learning Committee Plan* have already been summarised in section 6.2.1 above.

The *Collective Employment Agreement* stated briefly that: “The employer will provide induction programmes in which new employees are expected to participate” and “The

employer undertakes to provide staff development programmes in which the employee may participate”. Study leave was also provided for, and linked to the expectation of a “steady output of publications or other relevant material demonstrating capacity for academic life”.

The *Educational Development Unit Plan 2000* said that its mission was “To affirm teaching throughout the university community as a scholarly and professional activity directed towards enhancing opportunities for effective student learning” (p. 1). The plan said the EDU sought to model good practice; respect learners, learning and the community of learners; establish collegial relationships with university teachers; and recognise that for academics teaching was part of a whole with research.

EDU promoted teaching as “a public activity open to review, involving practices embedded in local, national and international discourses” (*EDU Plan 2000*, p. 1). EDU’s work was to “take a developmental rather than a short term, expedient approach; counter an instrumental approach to teaching and learning; and address the educational implications of decisions in the university” (ibid, p. 1).

The *EDU Plan 2000* set out nine key functions for EDU that had been adopted by the Vice-Chancellor’s Executive Committee following a review of EDU. These included: provision of academic advice and information on teaching and learning, and advice on related policies; conduct of research and contribution to courses on teaching and learning in higher education; liaison with other university services and departments, and other staff development providers; encouragement and support for academic staff in the use of information and educational technology; and encouragement of the university’s commitment to partnership with Maori. The specific planning that followed set out four goals to aim for (some of which would be long term):

- All university teachers participate in appropriate, continuing teacher education;
- Current educational research and scholarship underpin teaching in the university;
- University policy is grounded in evidence and appropriate educational principles;
- Comprehensive evaluation systems are used to monitor and improve teaching in the university.

The *EDU Brochure* detailed the range of specific courses and resources offered, such as:

- Consulting (with individuals and groups)
- Support for lecturers (e.g. observation and feedback, reviews)
- Courses on teaching (core workshops, a more extended seminar series, and one-off events)
- Contacts with new academic staff
- Information (e.g. practical guides, reports, library books)
- Research (with individuals or academic departments)
- Other (e.g. departmental contact people, lunchtime talks, special interest groups, email list groups, and a webpage)
- Administrative support for course reviews and student feedback processes

The *Brochure* explained EDU's network of Contacts in departments: they were academic staff members who were interested in teaching development, and served as a conduit between their departments and EDU, for example by helping EDU to contact and welcome new staff.

Most EDU support for teachers and teaching took place in seminar / workshop or individual support contexts, rather than through offering qualification courses in tertiary teaching. Typical topics for such activities (listed in the *EDU Brochure*) included: course design, lecturing, getting feedback, assessment, small groups, supervision, classroom management, developing a teaching portfolio, getting published, using Powerpoint, information technology topics, and writing proposals.

While no formal qualification in tertiary teaching was directly offered by this university, academic staff were able to undertake a two-paper Postgraduate Certificate in Tertiary Teaching, or a four-paper Postgraduate Diploma, awarded by another university. The four papers addressed learning theory and practice in tertiary teaching; critical reflection on literature and personal theories; an introduction to qualitative research; and a special topic project. Study groups and workshops were available on-campus, coordinated by EDU staff, with on-line links to students at the parent university.

Specific initiatives by the Teaching and Learning Committee were *Teaching Awards* (twelve annually), *Teaching Conference Grants* (six annually) and *Teaching Development Grants*, all very recently added to the university's strategies for recognising and encouraging the development of teaching quality. While the teaching awards could be seen as mainly extrinsic recognition of past achievements, the

conference and development grants offered more intrinsic and developmental value for the recipients.

Collectively, the documents provided evidence that specific actions were planned and implemented by EDU and the Teaching and Learning Committee to enable and encourage academic staff to be supported in improving their teaching, whether at a novice or more experienced level. There were no institutional requirements, however, that new staff attend any EDU sessions, or complete any minimum number of courses introducing them to teaching and/or the university, let alone complete a qualification. Nor was there any statement about complementary teaching support activities expected of departments. EDU depended on HR or departmental contacts to notify them of new appointments, so that new staff could be contacted individually and encouraged to take advantage of EDU services. There was no provision that linked an annual appraisal done in departments (if such appraisal occurred) with on-going professional development planning, and no regular provision for departments to inform EDU of teacher development work they might be planning. Engaging in any EDU activity, or seeking help, was largely an individual rather than community responsibility.

The language of the *EDU Plan 2000* placed the work of EDU in a scholarly context, with statements such as “Current educational research and scholarship underpin teaching in the university”. As with the documents discussed in 6.2.1 above, however, much of the language of the *EDU Plan* was formal and intentional. The introduction to *Teachers Talk* pointed out that many older academics had joined the university at a time when attitudes to teaching were different. A question arises, therefore, about how well the *EDU Plan*’s first goal, “All university teachers participate in appropriate, continuing teacher education” would actually be received by staff across the university. Given the size of EDU’s staffing, one could also question whether the resourcing of EDU would enable such a goal to be widely implemented in the institution, and what complementary activity might be needed from departments. On the other hand, the plan did refer to a developmental rather than short-term approach, and so EDU could be expected to work towards those intentions over a number of years.

Overall, the university lacked a system of integrated policies and procedures to link induction, appraisal, promotion, professional development planning and teaching

qualifications for its academics. Resourcing of the EDU, the Teaching and Learning Committee's awards and grants, and production of *Teachers Talk* indicated that practical efforts were being made to influence attitudes to the valuing of teaching. The *EDU Plan* and *EDU Brochure* showed that the unit shared many functions with comparable units in the polytechnic and wananga in the two previous case studies, such as supporting teacher development through seminars, workshops and advice, and fostering collegiality. A noticeable omission was the provision of an introductory qualification in tertiary teaching that all or most staff might be expected to complete. On the other hand, the EDU's engagement in research into teaching and learning was not matched by similar research provisions in the wananga or polytechnic EDUs. The university context of EDU also led to explicit statements being made about matters such as the relationship between teaching and research, and "national and international discourses," which were of less concern to the EDUs in the other institutions.

6.4.2 Findings from educational developers' interview

The developers confirmed that the activities and services detailed in the *EDU Brochure* were offered regularly. They hoped the recent establishment of the Teaching and Learning Committee would promote changing attitudes to teacher development in the university, leading to more participation, especially in the early stages of academics' careers. Such changes were slow to appear, however: "I think there is more public statement, but it hasn't yet shown up in large numbers" (Jo).

Most EDU activities were carried out by the EDU staff themselves, with occasional presentations and workshops by academics from teaching departments. Although the *EDU Brochure* referred to departmental contact people, Dani and Jo did not mention them, and Jo thought EDU functions should remain centralised so that participants would mix with colleagues from across the university. "The notion of having a staff developer, for example, attached to a group of staff like a client base - I don't think that's helpful at all" (Jo).

The key themes to emerge from the interview were: *Supporting new teachers; Working with individuals, Working with departments; Perceived remedial role of EDU; and Qualifications in tertiary teaching.*

Supporting new teachers:

The EDU staff provided regular sessions for newer academics, but found that their attendance and participation were not assured:

This year we are trying to offer a repeat of the [basic] programme more often, three times a year. We hope to get that embedded as something new staff will come to. Part of this is a publicity problem. (Jo)

We also find there is a problem with people who are willing and want to come, but... departmental meetings or other things crop up. I don't think we are very high on the priority list... (Dani)

The developers reported that not all newly appointed teachers would necessarily make contact with EDU, or if they did it might not be till some time after their appointment. EDU staff could publicise the increased availability of courses and seminars, but could do little to change departmental attitudes about priorities. More of EDU's work was involved with established teachers, but again attendance and participation tended to be sporadic.

Working with individuals

Jo and Dani said the people most likely to come to EDU were those particularly interested in or committed to improving their teaching. Even they attended only occasionally, not following a regular path or sequence. A lack of systematic professional development planning and the competing demands of research also affected participation.

We don't have an institution-wide performance review or appraisal system yet in which people can actually identify what their professional development needs are for the next year. (Dani)

I am starting to see young new staff, who came in with a lot of enthusiasm for their teaching, and they attended a lot of EDU courses... Then they realise that, if they are going to be rewarded in the institution, they have got to focus on their research and publications. (Dani)

I see people getting interested in their teaching and they go through a big burst of teaching development. Then they disappear off the horizon for a while... Then they pop back - but it's not a nicely defined developmental process. (Jo)

Working with departments

While most EDU participation was initiated by individuals who joined advertised seminars or workshops, departmental groups were also catered for on request:

Where a department has a clear idea of something it wants to do, perhaps course design, and it comes to us and says we want your help to facilitate it - then to work in that way I think is very effective. (Jo)

Sometimes we get invited into departments because individuals have come to things here and said, "Oh, we want to do that at home - come and do it with a bigger group". (Dani)

Perceived remedial role

Two related concerns for the developers were that some staff in the university had a negative perception of EDU's role as mainly 'corrective', and that some departments thought that dealing with teaching problems could be passed over entirely to EDU:

We see a few people who might have been advised to come and see EDU. Or who acknowledge that they are struggling themselves and they are seeking help. But they would be the minority. (Dani)

There is a perception quite strongly held amongst a lot of people in the campus that we exist to fix poor performers. Some departments say to someone, "Go to EDU," and then they wash their hands of the whole issue. They don't see that development as a teacher is something that requires collegial support as well. (Jo)

EDU's published materials did not encourage such views, but Dani commented that until larger numbers of staff had more frequent contacts with EDU staff, and experienced for themselves the nature of the support and feedback that were available, such attitudes might be slow to change.

Qualifications in university teaching

The developers acknowledged that very small numbers of staff undertook the formal qualifications available (PGCertTT and PGDipTT), and did not think all staff should be required to do so.

EDU is building a series of layers of a programme, so that you have the one-off survival skills, then a more reflective programme that goes over a longer period of time. Then on top we have the Postgrad Cert. (Dani)

I wouldn't like to see any particular instrumentalist approach - saying everyone should do a particular course. I don't actually think that it is

necessary for everyone to do, for example, a Postgrad Certificate... I think everyone should do a bit of basic stuff. (Jo)

Overall, it appeared that to date a fairly low proportion of the teaching staff had come to EDU over the years, interested in learning about and improving their teaching; and even fewer engaged in the formal qualifications. Departmental activities and priorities often diverted staff from attending EDU sessions; there were no systematic links between student feedback, appraisal, and professional development planning; and there were no university policies for induction, probation or appraisal that might link up with EDU provisions. That situation reflected traditional attitudes that people did not really need to learn about university teaching. EDU's rather peripheral position, lacking the status of a full academic department, may have contributed to the way it was perceived in the university. A further factor might be the university's emphasis on academic freedom and autonomy – a hint of that can be seen in Jo's hesitation to *require* staff to take any particular course. Such freedom implies associated responsibilities, however, which it seems many staff had treated rather lightly in relation to their professional development for teaching. The impact of departmental attitudes also needs to be acknowledged, as lack of encouragement within that community would also influence staff participation in teaching development.

6.4.3 Findings from teacher interviews

The teachers' comments on their own personal development were placed in section 6.3 above. More general comments about development for other people, however, have been placed here.

I asked them what, as experienced teachers, they thought should be done in the university to support new teaching staff, and to support continuing teachers development. Their responses reflected both things currently being provided, and things they thought should be added. The main themes that emerged related to *Departmental support for new staff*; *EDU support for new staff*; *EDU's programme for continuing development* and *Departmental/institutional attitudes*. While none of them had attended programmes for new staff, all had attended EDU seminars at various times, so that some of their comments on continuing development drew on personal experiences.

Departmental support for new teachers

Every staff member usually has a mentor in our [departmental] system... So there's a bit of reflection occurs there... I know our current HOD makes a point of going to new people's lectures, and gives them explicit feedback... (Jan)

I would like to put a lot more emphasis on teacher development, and I am glad that the University is working toward teacher profiles... (Andy)

I think that it would be good for them to be in the situation where they were able to co-teach with somebody with experience. (Chris)

I think they need an interested, experienced academic as a mentor, who has their best interests at heart, and can make suggestions, and who they can go to if they're having difficulty. Someone they feel safe about going to see. (Glen)

I think it would also help if the department academics were interested in each other's teaching and talked about it as a normal course of events. (Glen)

Those existing and suggested practices all offered positive ideas for supporting new academics, but no department was reported as using all or even most of them. A combination of the mentoring, observation and feedback, developing a teaching profile, and co-teaching suggested by these teachers had the potential to provide a strong collegial basis for supporting new staff within a department, and would complement the work of EDU. There would also be spin-offs for all staff if there were generally more talk about teaching in a department.

EDU support for new teachers

All four recommended early contact with EDU for new teachers:

If you gave them something right at the beginning it could be quite short, just the mechanics. I know at some universities, courses are compulsory. (Jan)

... people get appointed, they are not trained, they are not forced to train, and that's an issue... I have been strongly encouraging [new staff] to go to EDU courses. (Andy)

I would direct them to EDU courses, which can be revealing and help to remove any sense of isolation in teaching. (Chris)

And then, I think, the ‘getting started’ sort of sessions, introductions and context and things like that, that everybody should do, right at the beginning. (Glen)

For the first three, it was clear from other comments that their views on the value of EDU were common in their departments, but for the fourth this commendation of EDU was more personal. The language of *compulsory at some places, not forced to train, encouraged, direct to, should do* gave further emphasis to the suggestions. While they had talked earlier of support offered within departments, none suggested that the centralised EDU should be replaced with more department-focused development. One commented that not everything offered at some EDU sessions was relevant for teaching in all disciplines, but thought that discipline-specific courses would not be feasible because the numbers of new staff in a department were usually low in any one year.

EDU’s programme for continuing development

All the teachers commented positively on this:

I think it’s important that you can go to EDU courses when you feel you have the time and when the topic’s of interest... and to get ideas of what other people are doing. (Jan)

EDU’s programme is good. They’ve got this seminar series - maybe after a member of staff’s been teaching for a couple of years, they might do something like that to get a bit more of a background. (Glen)

I think EDU has improved a lot over recent years and that is not because people show more willingness than ever before. I think the University itself has given it a much higher priority and there are committees that are going to ensure that teaching gets much more attention. (Andy)

All four continued to attend EDU seminars themselves, as well as recommending continuing participation for others. Glen was the only person to recommend more substantial studies, saying: “...and having to take courses and study university teaching would help to establish it [teaching] as having a body of knowledge”.

Departmental/institutional attitudes.

None of the teachers mentioned departmental teaching development initiatives. There were mixed responses about general attitudes to continuing development of teaching, but several perceived a disregard and lack of interest in many parts of the university.

The teachers talked of activities and changed attitudes they would like to see, and some commented on other people's possible reasons for not participating.

There has been no incentive to demonstrate that you are a good teacher, or to go to courses and do things in your own time to try and improve - apart from your own satisfaction. I think it is a legacy of a climate, a culture, that it's beneath people to do that sort of thing... (Andy)

I think the most important thing is an acceptance that teaching is a good thing to do, and that we value good teaching. That's a university-wide thing, because you can't just do it at a departmental level... (Glen)

Some [don't attend EDU] because they are so obsessed with their research... Some possibly worry that 'I'll expose my incompetence'. And maybe a few people don't think courses are going to help them. I think most of the ones who don't [attend], just don't think about it. (Jan)

The data suggest that, even though the institution was now saying more about valuing teaching and supporting development than it had when these teachers started out, teachers perceived that little had changed. While new staff might be exposed to expectations of ongoing development, many older staff did not see professional development for teaching as a priority. If older staff had not experienced much in the way of initial teaching development, and consequently did not see continuing development as necessary or desirable, then attitudes in a teacher's immediate departmental community might be slow to change. In such a setting, individuals might seek help from colleagues or EDU only when a specific problem or issue became a trigger point, rather than as part of a developmental process. That situation was reinforced by perceptions that teaching was not accepted as a profession; that 'training' for teaching was 'beneath' academics working in a university; and that *how* to teach, rather than *what* to teach, was rarely a topic of conversation. Thus, although the people I talked to were in favour of teacher development, and had some criticisms of current attitudes and provision, issues of how to bring about significant changes of attitude and practice in a large, diverse institution were yet to be addressed.

6.4.4 Supporting teacher development: some initial conclusions

The university did not have a strong institutional tradition of supporting initial teacher development for newer academics, or teaching-related continuing development for more experienced academics; and academic staff did not have a strongly established pattern of participation in educational development. EDU had existed since 1969, and

the university's *Charter* said that teaching was important, but it was only in 1999 that more specific measures had been introduced to promote teacher development. As well as a lack of policies that might encourage, or even require, more individual participation in organised development, there was a lack of departmental traditions of support, such as mentoring. On one hand, an HOD could not require a new staff member to go to EDU for advice or seminars; on the other hand EDU reported some departments referring staff members to EDU for help, but offering no collegial support to complement EDU's work.

The Teaching and Learning Committee's awards and grants to foster excellent teaching were a public gesture to members of the university community, but limited in their scope: it was not clear, so early in their history, how much impact they might have on attitudes and practices. The promotions patterns of the past were widely perceived as having favoured research over teaching; and while teaching effectiveness was made more explicit in the new draft promotion criteria, research still seemed to count more at the higher levels. There was no system of linking appraisals and professional development planning within a department, let alone linking departmental planning to EDU's.

The teachers I interviewed commended EDU's efforts to provide and promote professional development, and made few suggestions for changes or additions to its programme; EDU's seminars and advice services were sufficient for them, and none said they wanted a more substantial programme. They made suggestions for supporting new staff within departments, such as mentoring and observation/feedback processes. For more experienced staff they were less specific: they seemed more concerned about institutional attitudes to development than about departmental opportunities. They looked for wider acceptance of teaching as a topic for discussion, and for it to be considered a profession and therefore 'respectable' to seek continuing education for.

One could conclude from what the developers and teachers said that most university teachers wanted their students to learn to think and act like historians or engineers, like physicists or sociologists, in preparation for joining those disciplines or professions; but few academics had seriously considered the wider implications of 'learning to think

like teachers' as members of the higher education teaching *profession*. That conclusion would not be unique to this university, and becomes an issue to consider in this study.

6.5 Discussion: becoming a teacher in the university

What does this case study tell us about becoming a teacher in the university? Looking at the data, two major contextual influences emerge:

- *The wider context*: the university is a large, long-established institution (in NZ terms), with a history of comparing its values and standards against those of other universities. While it is a teaching institution, research is a very important part of its role, and a major source of status and reputation for both staff and the institution. Research is also a source of funding. Only in recent years has the university developed policies to promote teacher development and contribute to building a culture of valuing teaching. Factors influencing that change of emphasis on teaching have been mainly reactive rather than proactive: to show that quality assurance processes have been instituted; to respond to pressures created by higher student numbers; and to respond to the needs of an increasingly diverse student population. Ways of indicating increased support for teaching have included the establishment of a Teaching and Learning Committee, annual teaching awards and grants, and a review of the EDU. The organisation as a whole can be interpreted as a broad community of practice (Wenger, 1998), encompassing smaller departmental community groups within it.
- *The departmental context*, a teacher's more immediate community, is also important. It is here that routine practices and assumptions become established and are observed by and passed on to new members. If there is a departmental tradition of emphasising research over teaching in the promotions, of allocating larger undergraduate classes to those with lower research commitments, and little staffroom conversation about teaching, then teaching is not likely to be perceived as highly valued. If little support is given to newly appointed staff in developing their teaching, and they are left to learn largely by trial and error, that is likely to compound the situation. On the other hand, if there is a departmental tradition of talking about students and teaching in staffroom discussions, of encouragement to attend EDU seminars or educational conferences, and of recognising teaching experience as well as research in promotions, then teaching is perceived to be

more valued. If mentoring, co-teaching, observing colleagues and giving feedback, or researching one's teaching to report in conferences or journals are also to be found in a department, they add further weight to an impression that teaching matters and that a proactive community of practice exists.

Thus a new academic is likely to encounter mixed messages: many (not all) long-standing academics have accepted, or taken for granted, institutional and departmental assumptions that university teaching is less important than research; but the institution is now saying that teaching is valued, and that initial and continuing professional development for teaching is important and expected of all staff. The university has not gone so far as to say that all new academics should gain a minimum teaching qualification, nor that its EDU should offer such a programme. Perhaps the notion of autonomy of individual academics is still too strong for such a proposal to be brought forward, perhaps the resourcing implications are too great. Some individuals think university teaching should be considered as a profession, with consequent professional education implications, but that notion has to compete with strong existing attachments and prior commitments to people's subject disciplines. The data suggest that those among present staff who most value and enjoy their teaching, and occasionally seek further development, do so for intrinsic reasons of professional pride and personal satisfaction, and for the sake of their students, not because of institutional policies.

The role of the EDU and people's perceptions of its place in the university are further factors to consider. EDU appeared to be the key vehicle and focus for teacher development in the university. The developers talked of scholarship and educational research underpinning their approach to their work, yet most teachers came to EDU only for short occasional bursts of advice or seminar attendance. The developers talked of some people's perceptions that EDU existed to "fix" poor performers and of the difficulty of changing such attitudes. Teachers who knew more about EDU spoke positively about its staff and their work: but at the time of this study the developers said increased course offerings and more publicity had done little to change overall participation. The developers expected change to be slow and gradual, and the data I gathered in 2000 showed little to indicate otherwise. The developers believed, however, that teacher development should be a collaborative concern, supported in and by departments and not left to EDU working mainly with individuals. As shown by the

experience of the engineering teacher, lone enthusiasts were not able to have much influence on departmental attitudes or practices. That suggests an institutional need to find ways for EDU to increase its existing work with departmental communities (or groups within departments). The Teaching and Learning Committee might therefore need to spell out more clearly the role departments should play in initial and continuing teacher development. The developers could also look to an external community of other university staff developers for support and ideas, through HERDSA and the Association of Staff Developers in Universities of New Zealand (ASDUNZ).

What is likely to happen for someone joining the university community as a teacher today? Some situations will be similar to the experiences of the interviewed teachers, but others will be different. As in the polytechnic case study, people may enter with varying types of status: teaching assistant, part-time contract lecturer, full-time lecturer; some may come direct from post-graduate research, and others after a period working in professional or industrial organisations. They will usually have post-graduate qualifications, but few will have had teacher education unless they come from school teaching.

One person may start out as a Teaching Assistant (TA) while he is a post-graduate student, and the department may encourage him to attend EDU's sessions for TAs. The lecturers responsible for the labs and tutorials are likely to give weekly briefings on content and approach, so this will extend his knowledge of some teaching matters. Being more aware of teaching may encourage him to observe what teachers are doing in the papers he is studying himself, and to view the university as a 'working' as well as a studying environment. However, his introduction to teaching is not likely to be as closely supervised as his preparation to be a researcher in his discipline, and some activities, such as assessment, may not be part of his assistant role. If appointed later to a lecturing position, he will then experience a change of status in becoming a full staff member.

From this point onwards his experiences will be more like those of most new academics. He will find there is an institutional expectation that he will attend some EDU sessions for new teachers – the developers hope that Human Resources or a departmental contact person will put him in touch with them. He will meet other expectations based on the

traditions of his department and its community attitudes to teaching and research, and may be mentored by a colleague willing to offer support. His own level of interest in learning about teaching will be a factor, as will advice from others about prioritising his teaching and research commitments. Even though he may attend courses and get ideas from observing and talking with colleagues, ultimately he will have to work out his own style when interacting with students in class, and will learn from experience. He will gradually move into a cycle of trying out and modifying his practice over a series of courses and years, responding to his own reflective processes and to student feedback on his courses and teaching.

Another person may come straight from post-graduate studies, and from another university, not necessarily in NZ. The experience of coming to a new institution may be a major change, and for people like her EDU offers additional sessions to introduce the university's context. There may be some 'culture shock' if the attitudes among staff in her department are unlike those she has been used to elsewhere. Once the initial hurdles are over, however, her progress towards becoming a teacher in the department will probably follow a pattern similar to that described above, depending on the attitudes and priorities in her department.

For a third new appointee, who may arrive after working in a non-academic context for some years, again there will be some 'culture shock' in adapting to the university context and systems. Andy, above, talked about this when coming from an outside industry, and found that institutional processes, rather than teaching, were what took most time to adapt to. This person may be more likely than the others to find some tension or discontinuity between his former and new roles, and a need to clarify to what extent external bodies can influence curriculum content and the standards set for his students. Having been away from university for longer than the others, he may also find that approaches to teaching have changed, and that role models from his own student days may be less relevant than he expected. As with the other new academics, however, once he is settled in, the main influences on his teaching will come from experiential learning, modified by the attitudes of colleagues, and the extent to which his department values teaching and encourages participation in developmental processes.

Overall, the data suggest that informal, experiential learning about teaching is likely to remain the main form for teachers in the university for some time to come. While there are some changing attitudes at the policy-making level of the institution, long-established patterns among staff in departmental and disciplinary communities seem slower to move. That conclusion also takes into account the competing emphasis on research in the university context, unlike the situation in the polytechnic and wananga case studies. The university teachers I talked to were positive about their teaching, and about EDU and teacher development, but did not necessarily see themselves as typical – and only one of them had sought to go further and gain an educational qualification. The developers themselves did not think a qualification in tertiary teaching was necessary for all or should be compulsory, although they wanted to see teaching respected as a scholarly activity. That therefore suggests that new ways of providing support for teachers' informal learning about teaching in their departments or other work communities need to be considered.

Chapter Seven: Integration of Case Study Findings

This chapter brings together key findings from the three case studies, so that comparable issues can be considered together. The structure follows the main headings previously used in the case studies, and in each section identifies first the main similarities that emerge, and then the main differences.

7.1 The contexts of the three institutions

Similarities:

All three institutions were part of the wider New Zealand tertiary education landscape, as defined by the Education Amendment Act 1990, and subject to Ministry of Education policies and funding. All had formal Charters and quality management systems, with policies and procedures related to supporting teaching and learning. Their Charters stated that teaching, and support for teachers and learners, were important functions. All acknowledged that funding regimes and increasing student numbers and diversity had had a significant impact on their teaching and programme offerings in recent years.

Differences:

The polytechnic had about 5000 EFTS (generated by about 18,000 full-time and part-time students); a mid-city location; a vocational/professional focus in its mix of national and local qualifications (NQF levels 4 to 7, including some degrees); and a mix of full-time and part-time teaching staff. The staff-student ratio was 1:16. The polytechnic had been constituted from an earlier technical high school in the 1960s, and programme growth in recent years had been mainly in the area of diplomas and degrees, rather than trade courses.

The wananga had about 200 full-time students at the case study campus; a provincial town location; a vocational and Maori/second chance focus in its qualifications (mainly at NQF levels 2-6); and most teaching staff were full-time. The staff-student ratio was 1:12. Most staff were Maori; many students were Maori, but some were Pakeha, Asian or from Pacific nations. The wananga was the newest institution in this research study, formally recognised in 1994, and had grown from a PTE established in the early 1980s.

It saw its Kaupapa Maori approach to education as a complementary alternative to mainstream tertiary education.

The university had about 11,000 EFTS (generated from about 12,000 students); a city location; a wide educational/professional focus in its qualifications (undergraduate and postgraduate degrees); and most teaching staff were full-time, engaged in research as well as teaching. The staff/student ratio was 1:18. The university was the oldest institution in this research study (over 100 years); it offered higher education with a research base, and was very aware of its legislated role as ‘critic and conscience of society’.

Each institution thus had a distinctive character and was focused on meeting the needs and interests of a sector within the New Zealand tertiary education system. Charter statements emphasised their identities as being typical of ‘a university’, ‘a polytechnic’ or ‘a wananga’. Factors contributing to differences included size, location, types and levels of programme offered, support facilities, student and staff population, past history and future aspirations. The wananga’s focus was mainly on Maori and second-chance learners, whereas the polytechnic and university drew students from a wider range of NZ society (in both ethnic and socio-economic terms); the latter two were also enrolling international students. There were immediately visible differences between their campuses, and less visible differences in people’s perceptions of the characteristics that contributed to an institutional community. Some differences in institutional structures and systems influenced the sorts of sub-communities to which people belonged, such as disciplines, faculties, departments, programme teams or campus whanau.

7.2 Characteristics of teaching in the three institutions

Similarities:

At all three sites, formal policy statements about teaching emphasised student learning. The teachers I met were enthusiastic about helping students to engage with their subject areas and to become more independent learners. Their repertoires of teaching strategies seemed to be based more on their personal qualities, experience and intuition, however, than the effects of teacher education or professional development. They made few

references to the influence of promotion or teaching awards on their own progress as teachers - my impression was that they stayed in the job because they enjoyed teaching, found it intrinsically satisfying, and liked working with their students.

Teachers of art and design from the three institutions seemed to have the most in common in their approaches to teaching, with small classes and a strong focus on students' individual projects and progress. Teachers in engineering and computing commonly linked student work to what happened 'in the real world'. Communication studies at the university and polytechnic tended to be complementary to other programmes rather than being a student's 'major', so their teachers were more likely to stress interdisciplinary links. At the wananga, the literacy tutor worked mainly with single students, and similarly made links to their main course of study.

Differences:

Differences seen in teachers' attitudes or practices, such as perceptions or expectations of 'the way people teach in this institution' or 'the way people teach this subject' suggest the existence of tacit, organic 'communities of practice' (Wenger, 1998). They also reflected personal characteristics, such as their communication style and enthusiasm.

Teachers at the polytechnic seemed very busy, and had to be well-organised to meet quality system requirements as well as their teaching duties. Those teaching in degree programmes were doing research as well as teaching. Small to moderate class sizes enabled staff to get to know their students well at all levels of a programme. Courses at the polytechnic were often influenced by employer/industry expectations of what would be taught (expressed through national qualifications or local advisory groups), and so teachers' previous work experience and continuing work contacts were valued as contributing to their teaching. A distinctive feature was the use of part-time teachers, particularly in specialist subject areas: this had been common for many years and was expected to continue. Full-timers saw their programme team or department as their most immediate practitioner group, a 'community of practice', but part-timers could feel isolated and not fully members of such groups.

The wananga focused on teaching and supporting students in a Maori environment. A distinctive pattern of small, full-time classes that stayed with their (full-time) tutor in a home-room for most of the week, meant that teachers built up a close rapport with, and commitment to, their students. The emphasis on the wananga's Maori kaupapa, on whanau, and on building self-esteem and basic skills for second-chance learners influenced teachers' choice of teaching strategies and treatment of content. The rapid recent growth of the wananga also called for staff to be flexible and adaptable, if courses had to be discontinued and new ones started up. While the classroom 'delivery' of courses was student-focused and intended to create a whanau atmosphere, the overall curriculum structures were conventional, influenced by the need for Ministry of Education funding and NZQA approval and accreditation of curriculum documents.

At the university, large classes and lectures were common (and considered traditional), although interactive teaching approaches were incorporated by the teachers I interviewed and were advocated by the educational developers. Students moved from class to class, studying many different subjects, especially in undergraduate courses, and so there was often less opportunity for teachers to get to know them until they reached smaller classes at higher levels of study. The teachers spoke positively about their teaching and students, but some perceived that colleagues gave more priority to research. The university's long-standing emphasis on research had only recently been tempered by statements about valuing teaching and improving teaching quality.

While all the institutions stated that teaching quality was important, approaches to evaluating this differed. Student feedback forms were in common use at the university, but little else was evident apart from five-yearly programme reviews. An annual appraisal interview with a manager was the usual process at the wananga. The polytechnic appraisal process called for documented input from students, self, peers and manager as well as an annual interview; course reviews were also conducted regularly. Recognition of teaching through promotion also varied. At the university, research was widely perceived as having the most influence on promotion. At the polytechnic, promotion emphasised teaching quality, plus administration and research if relevant. The wananga had no promotion system and no clear pathway for recognition - but everyone believed that 'teaching mattered'. The polytechnic and the wananga provided

detailed descriptors of the work expected of their teachers, but there was no such information in the university.

Although I talked with teachers in similar subject areas across the three institutions, there was little overlap between the institutions' programmes in related subject/discipline areas; and the qualifications and prior work experiences of teachers in any given subject area, gained before coming into teaching, had also varied considerably. In some instances this was because of differences in level of programme (for example, trade, technician and professional degree, in the engineering group); in others there was a content difference (for example, between design and fine arts). None of the teachers belonged to the same external professional bodies or went to the same specialist subject conferences, and the employment communities (or job levels) their students were likely to enter also varied. Staff from different institutions were more likely to meet at an education conference such as HERDSA than at a specialist discipline conference; and polytechnic and university staff attended conferences more often than did wananga staff.

7.3 Developing as a teacher in the three institutions

Similarities:

Some strong similarities in 'becoming a teacher' appeared across the three case studies, because teachers at all sites had developed most of their current expertise and understanding of teaching through informal and incidental experiential learning. Much of that knowledge was tacit, and they often found it difficult to pin down what had been learned, or when. Common sources of experiential learning were trial and error, learning from 'doing the work', learning from role models, and learning through collaboration with colleagues in their department or programme. Many spoke of feelings of 'having to cope' in the early days of teaching; then they talked more of reacting intuitively and reflecting on what they were doing, as they had become more established.

For staff at all institutions, there had been lack of substantial involvement in tertiary teacher education early in their teaching careers. While the teachers were positive about staff development they had engaged in later, it was often perceived as confirming or extending what had first been learned experientially. The teachers were quite pragmatic

about doing things they had found worked well for them and their students. They linked their practice only rarely to things they had read about in books, sometimes to ideas from staff development sessions, quite often to colleagues' or role models' practice – but most often they had worked things out themselves as they went along, making gradual changes over the years. While some changes related to starting new courses or updating curriculum content, others had been made in response to student needs and interests.

Differences:

A range of differences emerged, some typical of what happened at a particular institution, others specific to individuals. People's prior qualifications, work experience, and other life experiences before entering teaching had influenced their motivation, expectations and interpretation of their experiences in the new job. Most university staff had moved from post-graduate research into university teaching, but not all. Polytechnic staff were more likely to have worked for some years in another occupation or profession before going into teaching (related to that occupation) as a second career. Many wananga staff had worked in a number of occupations, before later deciding to make a social contribution to Maori by working at the wananga.

Some differences related to whether people had entered tertiary teaching in part-time or full-time positions. Consequences of part-time entry (especially at the polytechnic) included varying levels of exposure to processes such as induction, probation and initial in-service teacher education, and a sense of isolation. By contrast, the kaupapa of the wananga meant that, while pay rates were lower than at a polytechnic, teachers starting there were well supported at a personal level by their colleagues. The smaller numbers on each campus also facilitated collegiality – particularly for the teachers I interviewed, who had started many years ago when the wananga was smaller.

Other differences related to the extent to which individuals participated in teacher education courses and professional development activities provided by their institutions, and these tended to follow different institutional patterns. At the university, all of those interviewed had attended occasional internal seminars; none had completed a sustained course of study on tertiary teaching, although one had done a degree in education. At the polytechnic, training/development was again internal: two teachers

had done parts of the recommended (but no longer required) basic TTU or CAT courses; one had completed CAT; the fourth had completed DipTT through self-directed study. All continued to attend occasional seminars. At the wananga, all the interviewed staff had participated in a range of external courses on teaching, culminating in recent study towards a degree; more recently appointed tutors had to complete an internal teaching qualification. All tutors also participated in regular cross-campus hui, bringing staff together for moderation and professional development.

Some differences related to the culture of the teaching group a teacher joined, most often their department or a programme team, and to the attitudes and values that had grown up in those groups. For example, the polytechnic communication studies teacher joined a small but collaborative department and found people to team teach with, as did the university arts lecturer. On the other hand the university communication studies lecturer had had to work alone to develop course materials straight after appointment, and only in later years did additional appointments lead to a small departmental group forming. In both the polytechnic and university engineering departments the culture was for most people to teach in comparative isolation. In the wananga, the local campus group was strongly supportive at a personal level. Wananga tutors sharing the same subject area felt they also belonged to their subject group, even though those colleagues were spread across campuses - while they met face-to-face only a few times each year, they communicated regularly by other means between those meetings.

I would argue that groupings like those were all examples of ‘communities of practice’ as discussed by Wenger (1998, 2000). Collaborative and physically close groups may be seen as having a stronger or more positive sense of community - but in other groups members’ acceptance that working less collaboratively is the norm also indicates shared attitudes and common practice. Vignettes of some of the teachers’ communities of practice, in Appendices O and P, illustrate some of the differences alluded to here.

7.4 Provision of teacher education and development

Similarities:

All the institutions had Charter statements about supporting staff/professional development, and policies and procedures for implementing such development. All had some form of central Educational Development Unit, which offered staff development

sessions and individual consultancy/support. Other EDU functions varied between institutions, however.

One strong similarity was that all the institutions acknowledged that most teaching staff would be appointed on the basis of their qualifications and work (or research) experience, and would generally not have done any tertiary teacher education. There was tacit acceptance that this was usual, and that people who knew their subject and had good communication skills should be able to teach. That situation was most firmly embedded in the university, where a long history of 'established practice' and emphasis on engaging in research were significant influences. While the situation was accepted in the polytechnic, there was also an understanding that in-service 'tutor training' was important, even though provision and participation appeared to have dwindled in recent years. The wananga also appointed mainly unqualified teachers, but being newer and smaller was in a better position to respond differently: there was no long history of established practice, staff numbers (in 2000-2001) were such that extensive support could be resourced, and a strong focus on student needs gave priority to providing teacher development and qualifications.

In the area of staff development seminars and workshops, there was considerable similarity in the topics most commonly offered and requested from EDUs at all sites, such as assessment, course planning, using specific teaching techniques, managing groups, and so on. Most teachers at the polytechnic and university thought attending occasional seminars (if an advertised topic was seen as relevant) was preferable to committing to a more formal course of study. Teachers from all institutions referred positively to the availability of their EDU's staff for individual consultation, or to work with a group on a specific concern.

All institutions also funded staff to participate in external development activities, such as further study and conferences. Most teachers (especially at the polytechnic and university) appeared to use it for upgrading their subject qualifications or updating their professional knowledge, however, rather than for teaching development.

Differences:

There were some marked differences in the extent of support for staff development provided by each institution, as indicated by the staffing levels in Table 4, following.

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Number of EFT teaching staff</i>	<i>Number of EDU staff</i>	<i>Key functions of central EDU</i>
Wananga	130 Most full-time. Spread over several campuses.	4 developers 3 general staff (clerical and technical)	National staff development hui Individual support Multi-campus support Curriculum development Academic QMS monitoring ACTT & DipTT courses
Polytechnic	450 Mixed full-time and part-time. One campus.	4 developers 2 general staff	Staff development seminars Individual consultancy Departmental consultancy CAT and DipTT courses SGID, some evaluations
University	900 Most full-time but some part-time. One campus.	5 developers (4 plus 1 TBA) 3 general staff	Induction courses Staff development seminars Individual consultancy Departmental consultancy Some research Student evaluation of teaching PGCert and PGDip

Table 4: Comparison of EDU staffing and functions by institution

Table 4 indicates some disparities in the developer/teaching staff ratios at the three institutions. Some differences can be accounted for by the developers' reports that at the university and polytechnic many staff rarely or never used their EDUs. The wananga appeared to be making a proportionately greater investment than the others in teacher education and related forms of teaching support: its EDU staff had some extra functions, such as curriculum development support and monitoring, but they also reported more sustained developmental contact with most tutors, continuing beyond the early stages of their careers. The multi-campus structure of the wananga also created extra demands in terms of supporting scattered tutors in any given subject area. The university's comparatively low EDU staffing did raise questions about its ability to respond to a growing demand for services, if the university really meant its statements about increased attention to teacher development and teaching quality. The polytechnic

EDU work was focused on full-time staff, and support for part-timers was not resourced.

There were differences in the institutions' systems for supporting teachers' career development through induction, probation, appraisal and promotion, and in the links made between such processes and staff development. The allocation of responsibilities between HR, HODs and EDU for such processes was not the same in all institutions. The university had the fewest policies and procedures in place for such matters, while the polytechnic had the most fully developed system.

Another area of difference lay in the professional development sessions and tertiary teaching qualifications offered by each institution. The wananga had recently developed its own 120-credit, level 5 Certificate and 120-credit, level 6 Diploma. All new staff were required to work towards at least the former, attending weekly classes provided on campus. The polytechnic had a 40-credit, level 4 Certificate which new staff were expected to study through block or evening courses, though it was clear that some did not complete; and an optional 120-credit, level 7 Diploma, available through self-directed study. Staff not wanting formal qualifications could attend occasional seminars and workshops. The university offered introductory workshops for new academics, and ongoing professional development seminars. It also facilitated study of a Postgraduate Certificate and Postgraduate Diploma¹ but numbers participating were reported to be low. Thus both expectations of participation and levels/types of offering differed considerably. The formal qualifications offered by the university and wananga seemed appropriate in content and level for their contexts; but the polytechnic's basic certificate was probably too small and low-level to be attractive to staff who already held substantial subject/professional qualifications. A further concern about the polytechnic provision related to the lack of teacher education for part-time teachers: they were welcome to attend CAT modules, but few did so because they were not paid for attending training or staff meetings.

A final area of difference was in the level of participation of teachers in EDU activities and their use of EDU facilities such as consultancy. At the wananga the developer

¹ At the time of data-gathering for this study, those were another university's qualifications; since then the university has had its own similar qualifications approved.

reported that most staff did participate and were grateful for the opportunities. That reflected people's awareness of their own need for help, since teaching at the wananga could be very demanding, and also the situation that some lacked any formal qualifications (not just in teaching). At the polytechnic and university there were larger numbers who rarely came to EDU staff or activities unless a problem arose: for them, qualifications were not an issue, and their professional development was focused on their discipline rather than teaching. The smaller numbers of regular EDU users there (including most of the interviewed teachers) generally spoke positively of EDU offerings. The participation levels did, however, reflect widespread attitudes that teacher development was not very necessary or important in the polytechnic or university, especially the latter.

In all three institutions' policies and practices there was potential for tension between accountability and responsibility in attitudes towards teacher education and professional development, especially in the two larger institutions. There is a risk that, in an era of managerialism, institutional provision could be seen as 'lip service', using the resourcing of EDU facilities and staff as evidence that teaching and teacher development were valued. Linking participation in development to individuals' appraisals (as proposed in the polytechnic and practised in the wananga) might suggest complying with an institutional quality system, rather than promoting a culture of improvement and innovation, motivated by professional values. Focusing on EDUs working with individual teachers could also divert attention from seeing teaching and teacher development as a community responsibility, especially in departmental communities of practice.

7.5 Summing up: becoming a tertiary teacher in a community of practice

This review of the case studies suggests that the contexts or communities in which people teach, and where they become tertiary teachers through the experience of teaching, are very important. Although the teachers were all dealing with tertiary students, there were significant differences that related to both their wider institutional contexts and their more immediate working communities. They still retained individual personal characteristics as teachers, but as they had become assimilated into the ways of their communities (at levels such as institution, department, programme team, campus) they had absorbed perceptions and expectations of 'what it is like to teach here'. The

ways by which that assimilation process happened varied, in response to different contexts. Teachers also had to integrate the influences of external communities, such as their profession, occupation or discipline, which might overlap their teaching communities.

The data showed that teachers appreciated efforts their communities (both at institutional level and local departmental level) made to help them become full members, and noticed the effects where there was less support. Thus the polytechnic computing lecturer had positive memories of the shared planning and buddy support of early experiences in teaching, thought that the institution's induction and probation were critical processes in supporting current newcomers, and saw the department as having a positive focus on teaching. The university engineering lecturer, on the other hand, recalled little support when starting, still saw little help offered by colleagues to new staff, and perceived that both the department and the institution valued research more than teaching.

The use of grounded theory analysis for identifying themes that emerged from the teacher interview transcripts at each site had the effect of decontextualising some aspects of each individual's account of their teaching. In particular it lost the overall impression of each one's work within a departmental community. A somewhat different view emerges if data from one teacher at a time are collated, as shown in Appendices O and P. Appendix O has four vignettes of departmental communities drawn from one case study (the polytechnic), showing the sorts of differences that can arise within one institution. Appendix P has three vignettes of the art/design teachers' communities, one for each institution, showing that, even though they taught in similar subject areas, once again very different communities of practice surrounded them.

The findings from each case study led to a conclusion that most of the teachers' learning about teaching had been experiential, acquired through their work in their immediate communities of practice, and that they had rarely gained this in an orderly, structured way. Most had had to move very quickly into full participation in the work of their community/communities – there was very little time spent on the periphery, as their inbound trajectories quickly immersed them in the full demands of practice. Many felt they had been 'thrown in at the deep end' when they started, and had had to identify

for themselves what help they needed to ask for. Thus the process of becoming a tertiary teacher was very unlike the more formal education and more gradual work initiation most had experienced in their discipline area or previous occupations. Certainly their new teaching positions depended on their continuing to use their prior occupational or disciplinary expertise as the content of their teaching (and doing some border-crossing to maintain links with colleagues in those areas); but becoming a teacher and developing a teaching identity also involved a change of direction into a new domain of practice, associated with developing new expertise.

There was widespread acceptance in the polytechnic and university communities that new tertiary teachers would pick up most of their teaching skills and knowledge on-the-job, with some help from colleagues and some exposure (not necessarily soon after appointment) to tutor training courses or new lecturer workshops. It was not publicly acknowledged that this was a loose way of ensuring newcomers were effectively inducted into a community (whether at institutional or more local level) nor that this could have long-term consequences for others in the communities. It also did not set up clear expectations of continued learning through sharing the practice and experiences of both newer and more established staff members. While the wananga put more emphasis on early staff participation in tutor education, there was also much informal learning going on in people's campus and subject groups long after their first year of teaching.

In all three institutions, planning for educational development tended to be central, but people's most immediate support came from their local groups such as a department, programme team or campus whanau. I did not hear of any such local group that had both a clear vision of itself as a teaching community of practice (Wenger, 1998) and a systematic process for integrating new members into the ways of that community, and for continuing to maintain and develop community practices. Things tended to happen, sporadically, piecemeal, without long-term planning or being part of a formal process, and it was generally up to the new staff member to put the pieces together. People appointed to be teachers were already experienced learners, as evidenced by their prior success academically and/or in occupational settings: but frequently that prior learning had been more structured and more extended over time. Expecting them to be immediately functional in a new profession was a big demand – and it seems ironic that this expectation came from educational institutions.

Chapter Eight: Discussion of the case study findings in relation to issues identified in the literature review

In this chapter, findings from the case studies are discussed and related to issues raised in the literature review. The chapter is structured into the following sections:

- 8.1 The case studies in the context of New Zealand tertiary education
- 8.2 Perspectives on tertiary teaching found in the case studies
- 8.3 Educational development, teaching qualifications and professional education
- 8.4 Expertise, workplace learning and community of practice
- 8.5 Summing up: factors influencing the process of becoming a tertiary teacher in New Zealand

8.1 The case studies in the context of New Zealand tertiary education

Many factors observed in the three case studies either illustrated or had been influenced by issues identified in the overview of New Zealand material in the literature review. Statements in the institutions' Charters about their character, objectives and management reflected the requirements of the Education Amendment Act 1990. References to preparing students for employment through vocational qualifications responded to government intentions that linked tertiary education to the economy (for example, Ministry of Education, 1998). Teachers and developers talked about dealing with growing student numbers and diversity at a local level, thus making more human the national statistics of the Ministry of Education (2001). Comments made by the university's PVC(A), lecturers and developers about the effects of government policies, including changes in the funding and student make-up of the university, reflected trends and concerns that had been discussed by Butterworth and Tarling (1994) and Olssen and Matthews (1997). The polytechnic's range of programmes and the structuring of its teaching delivery were very like those of other city polytechnics described by Dougherty (1999). The wananga's growth and very different educational focus were part of the recent development of several wananga based on Maori values, as described by Mead (1999) - but its management and programme structures were more conventional, responding to NZQA accreditation and approval requirements in order to access Ministry of Education funding. The choice of the three specific institutions

therefore proved to be justified, in terms of their being 'reasonably typical examples' of such institutions in the New Zealand tertiary sector.

The Charters of all three institutions recognised the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi, and promoted equal educational opportunities. Other polytechnic and university documents (*Looking Ahead, Vision and Goals*) referred to developing partnerships with the local iwi, and initiatives to address Maori under-representation. The general tenor of the documents and staff interviews, however, indicated that Maori students at the university and polytechnic, while offered some recognition and support, would be absorbed into the mainstream teaching activities of most departments and programmes. That being the case, the intention of the wananga to provide a strongly Maori-focused alternative to mainstream tertiary education was well justified. The wananga's kaupapa Maori and different approaches to teaching, especially the use of small close-knit class groups, were more directly responsive to Maori ways of learning, as identified in studies such as Metge (1984), Pere (1994) or Benton and Benton (1995). In particular the wananga was concerned about the needs of those who had not done well in mainstream schooling, which had been recognised and discussed by Jefferies (1997). The wananga's approach demonstrated many of the factors advocated by Skill New Zealand - Pukenga Aotearoa (2001), such as being a responsive organisation, valuing and developing positive rapport with learners, and appointing tutors who would be good role models for Maori.

While New Zealand legislation, funding regimes and socio-economic factors provided some local constraints for tertiary education providers, much of the teaching in the case study institutions, especially the university and polytechnic, was not unlike that found in universities and further education institutions elsewhere in the English-speaking world, especially Australia and the UK. It is therefore possible to draw comparisons between some findings from the case studies and the wider literature, as discussed in the following sections.

8.2 Perspectives on tertiary teaching found in the case studies

Few teachers talked about their work in ways that showed they were familiar with the literature on teaching and learning in tertiary/higher education (TLHE), but many of their attitudes and the practices they described did reflect matters addressed in the

literature. They were certainly familiar with a wide range of commonly used teaching and assessment techniques. It appeared, however, that many concepts and practices came from shared ideas that had become 'common sense', rather than coming from people's reading of original journal articles or books. The university engineering lecturer did cite the influence of Ramsden (1992), but believed that few colleagues were aware of or influenced by such studies. The wananga developer referred to the literature of accelerated learning, but other teachers there did not. While the wananga teachers were completing formal studies of teaching that had exposed them to a wider range of literature than the other teachers I interviewed, they talked more about their students and context rather than their formal knowledge or its sources. The polytechnic developer talked of 'principles' but gave no specific sources. The polytechnic communication lecturer referred to a 'box of articles' passed on by a former colleague and mentor. Overall there was very little evidence of widespread discourse based on *codified* knowledge (as defined by Eraut, 2000) of tertiary teaching, and also little evidence that such knowledge formed a substantial part of people's *personal* knowledge.

One factor in the neglect of published research into teaching and learning by polytechnic and wananga teachers may be that many studies were perceived as very university-oriented and therefore perhaps not relevant in other contexts: but that explanation cannot hold for the university teachers. While much of the university-based research had focused on intellectual development (for example, Trigwell and Prosser, 1996), courses at all three institutions also included applied skills and affective learning or personal development, which had received less research attention (Eidos, 1997). An important factor that emerged from the case studies was that few teachers (especially those in the university and polytechnic) had completed formal courses in tertiary teaching that might have exposed them to wider sources of ideas. Most of the less formal EDU seminars people attended did not include formal reading, although facilitators might present 'digested' ideas from the research for discussion. Interviews with the developers indicated they were more aware of the TLHE literature than were the teachers, but even the university developers made only passing references to using ideas from the literature in their work. Comments from polytechnic teachers about EDU courses reflecting a 'school-teaching' approach indicated that some developers coming from non-tertiary backgrounds might not be fully familiar with the tertiary education

literature. The wananga's emphasis on a Maori kaupapa and its adoption of a 'primary school model' for home group teaching suggest that the 'university' and 'discipline' emphasis of much of the research literature might not appear a comfortable 'fit' to transfer to a wananga environment.

Two major orientations to teaching, knowledge transmission and learning facilitation, were mentioned frequently in both institutional documents and interviews, but again without specific reference to their discussion in the literature (for example, Gow and Kember, 1993, or Biggs, 1999). There was general acceptance that 'facilitating learning' was considered desirable and preferred, and that teaching should be more than just transmission of information. Teachers in all the case studies talked about the importance of establishing rapport with their students, and indeed some (for example, the university art lecturer) talked of relationships with students that developed over several years of a degree course and could last beyond graduation. Nevertheless, the long-standing practice of appointing teachers on the basis of their research and disciplinary or professional knowledge (Beaty, 1998), with no requirement that they engage in any teacher education workshops or seminars (let alone full courses), suggested that 'teaching as transmission' had indeed been accepted in the past, and still influenced institutional assumptions and decisions. That was particularly so at the university. Similarly, the polytechnic's willingness to go on employing substantial numbers of part-time teachers, while making no provision for their teacher development, implied an acceptance of at least some transmission-style teaching based on their content knowledge.

A lack of formal understandings about teaching and educational theory seemed to make some of the more intuitive explanations of teaching attractive to some of the teachers. Examples such as Fox's (1983) four metaphors (despite their lack of a rigorous research base) seemed more relevant and meaningful than the phenomenographers' hierarchies of conceptions of teaching, especially for those teaching in practical and affective subject areas. Pratt et al.'s (1998) five perspectives (which have a stronger research base) 'made sense', especially to the polytechnic and wananga teachers. The teachers had not read Pratt¹ or Fox themselves, but the descriptions appealed to them as 'non-

¹ Some of the teachers completed Pratt's Teaching Perspectives Inventory after their interviews, and reported that they found it useful to have a fresh way of looking at their own teaching.

technical' ways of describing approaches to teaching that they adopted or saw around them.

Where I was able to both interview and observe teachers, I concluded that their teaching in class was fluent and competent, and that their stated teaching intentions and actions in class were consistent, reflecting Argyris and Schon's (1974) notion of consistency between 'espoused theory' and 'theory in practice'. That would contradict findings in the literature (for example, Pettigrove, 1992, or Murray and MacDonald, 1997) that teachers had low expectations of developing teaching expertise, or that their beliefs about their teaching role did not always appear to match their intentions and actions. In selecting teachers to interview from those who volunteered, however, I had looked for substantial experience, evidence of engaging in teaching courses or professional development, and thoughtful statements about teaching in their questionnaires. Thus those interviewed were not necessarily typical of other staff, and the comments of the university and polytechnic developers suggested that inconsistencies like those above were indeed to be found among some other teachers. Some writers (for example, Martin and Ramsden, 1992; Gow and Kember, 1993; Murray and MacDonald, 1997, Gibbs, 1995a) have suggested that teachers' intention/practice inconsistencies could be addressed through staff development that focused on altering teachers' conceptions and encouraging reflection on practice. Others, such as Kane et al. (2002) and Sandretto et al. (2002) suggested that there be more focus on ways of making the tacit explicit and sharing the teaching expertise of experienced staff with those more recently appointed. The staff development provisions in the three institutions at the time of this study had not, however, taken up such approaches in a systematic or widespread way.

In talking of how they had learned about teaching, several teachers echoed Allan's (1996) reference to new staff being 'flung in at the deep end' when they started. Many referred to role models from the past, some saying they tended to teach as they had been taught (as found by Willcoxson, 1998; and Ballantyne et al., 1999), and others saying they tried to avoid the approaches of teachers who had not impressed them. Many of those in the university and polytechnic, who had not completed much formal study of teaching, talked of knowing from experience what worked, but not why, thus echoing Burrough-Lang's (1996) references to lecturers' idiosyncratic, intuitively-based knowledge. On the other hand, a wananga tutor said that engaging in degree-level

study of tertiary teaching had helped him understand the 'whys' as well as the 'hows' of teaching. The developers in all institutions perceived that many teachers, while strong in content knowledge, often had limited knowledge of theories of learning and strategies of teaching (as found by Ballantyne et al., 1999, in their study of university teachers).

A desire for positive engagement with students and personal enthusiasm for both students and subject content emerged strongly from the interviews at all sites. This reflected the conclusion of Ballantyne et al. that "the motivation to improve teaching is personal and intrinsic, arising from an enthusiasm for a subject and a desire to see students learn and grow" (ibid., p. 237). Similarly Trow's (1993, p. 20) reference to teaching as a transaction, a process, and "an emotional and intellectual connection between teacher and learner" was consistent with the way most teachers in the case studies talked about their involvement with their students. While Pettigrove (1992) found university teachers saw themselves primarily as communicators of subject content and assessors of students' responses, the teachers I met (at all sites) saw their relationship with students quite differently, and were very aware of their students' interests, concerns and progress. The developers indicated that some university teachers were like those Pettigrove described; at the polytechnic and wananga, however, a stronger institutional focus on teaching and smaller class sizes more directly supported and encouraged student-centred teaching. Many of the teachers talked also of responding intuitively to situations and people, echoing Eisner's (1994, p. 155) view of teaching as an art, "not dominated by prescriptions or routines but influenced by qualities and contingencies that are unpredicted".

A commonly-shared view of teaching across the case studies that emerges so far in this discussion (irrespective of the types and levels of courses taught in different institutions) emphasises positive relationships between teachers, students and content, as depicted in the relational model of teaching and learning developed by Hall and Kidman (2004). Ballantyne et al. (1999) similarly noted love of discipline, valuing students and making learning possible as key characteristics of effective teachers. Other factors influencing teaching also arose in the case studies, however, such as the impact of institutional systems. Some findings in the case studies echoed Codd's (1997) identification of two broad conceptions of teaching in New Zealand tertiary institutions:

technocratic-reductionist and professional-contextualist. A mix of the two could be seen in all three institutions, with the former more likely to appear in institutional policy and procedure documents and the latter more likely to appear in what the teachers and developers said about their teaching approaches. But the edges became blurred, because Charter documents also included rhetorical statements of intention using terms like those of the second conception; and some of the things teachers and developers said about their work related to efficiency and compliance, derived from the first conception, as well as to reflection, integrity and professionalism from the second.

The teachers generally got on with the job of teaching, rarely making their assumptions about teaching explicit to other people. Several reported that teaching was not often a subject of discussion among colleagues – or if it was, the focus was more often on what was taught rather than how. They reflected perceptively on their own teaching in their interviews, but did not give themselves any of the ‘labels’ that can be found in the literature. Nevertheless, the five pedagogic identities that Malcolm and Zukas (2000b) drew from their broad literature review could all be seen at times in the case studies. The ‘educator as reflective practitioner,’ for example, was promoted as a concept by the polytechnic and university developers in courses and seminars, and referred to in institutional documents; wananga teachers also talked of engaging in reflection. Teachers’ interview comments about doing things in class intuitively indicated ‘reflection in practice’, and talking about changes they had made in their teaching indicated ‘reflection on practice’. The ‘educator as critical practitioner’, taking a wider view of society and change, was less common: the university communication lecturer and the wananga applied arts tutor would be the strongest examples. ‘Educator as situated learner within a community of practice’ applied to all, and will be discussed further in 8.4 below. ‘Educator as psycho-diagnostician and facilitator of learning’ seemed to be partly true – facilitation of learning was evident in teachers’ approaches to working with students, but it appeared that much of their ‘diagnosis’ of student needs was intuitive rather than based explicitly on educational psychology. Finally, ‘educator as assurer of organisational quality and efficiency, deliverer of service to agreed or imposed standards’ was a view that could be taken from the institutional documents, and was present to some extent in every teacher’s practice: stronger in the polytechnic, weaker in the university and wananga.

When teachers and developers were asked whether excellence in teaching was valued and recognised in their institutions, differing patterns of response emerged. Polytechnic teachers thought that their institution did value teaching, and that evidence of this could be seen in the promotion system, and in the resourcing of the EDU to support teacher development. On the other hand, university teachers and developers thought their institution had not valued teaching until recently: that view was supported by the emphasis on research in promotions, by a lack of attention to teaching development, and by some perception of 'lip service' in the recent introduction of excellent teacher awards. The situation at the wananga was rather different, in that people did believe the wananga valued and supported teaching, but they accepted that their 'reward' was largely intrinsic, coming from personal satisfaction in their successes with students: there was no promotion or excellence award system in place. Studies in the literature that attempted to identify the characteristics of excellent teachers tended to focus on award-winning teachers, and concluded that awards were generally most successful in institutions where teaching already had a high profile (Dunkin and Precians, 1992; Andrews et al., 1997). Ramsden et al.'s (1995) major report for Australian universities linked the recognition of good teaching to wider institutional values and support systems, saying that promoting good teaching was as important as promoting good teachers, as did Gibbs (1995b). While awards were not a major focus in the case study institutions, teachers there had clear perceptions of both whether and how their institution valued teaching.

The issue of whether tertiary teaching was a profession (as discussed by Downie, 1990) did not appear to be of major concern to the teachers or their institutions. The case studies found a range of perspectives on tertiary teaching as a professional activity. Institutional Charters referred to 'professional standards' or used related terms, such as 'integrity, respect and responsiveness' (polytechnic), 'highest ethical standards' (wananga), or 'social responsibility and intellectual independence' (university). The university developers offered the fullest discussion in this area, and associated the recognition of teaching as a professional activity with moves to raise the profile of teaching in the institution. Asked about the concept of profession and 'being professional', most teachers did not see tertiary teaching as a formally constituted profession comparable with engineering or law, some relating this to the lack of a formal body with required qualifications for registration and stated ethical standards.

They did, however, express a sense of 'behaving professionally' and ethically in their contexts. For the wananga tutors, who did not come from professional backgrounds, a teaching appointment in itself was seen as conferring some status in society.

Overall, teaching as described in the institutional documents and in the accounts of the teachers and developers reflected many of the ideas discussed in the literature review, some of which have been indicated above. There were variations, particularly where teaching was described as more facilitative and less transmissive than some of the literature suggested. Such differences, however, may relate to the selection of teachers for interview in the case studies, because comments by developers suggested that there were other teachers in their institutions whose practices and attitudes were less facilitative and flexible. Findings in the literature that many tertiary teachers had acquired little formal knowledge of theories of learning and teaching were consistent with the overall picture that emerged from the case studies, though exceptions must be acknowledged (such as the university engineering lecturer, the polytechnic computing teacher, and the wananga tutors). Nevertheless, formal knowledge did not form a major part of those teachers' discourse in the interviews, nor was it reported as having much part in their workplace conversations with colleagues. Much of the research on post-school learning and teaching had related to university contexts: differences appearing in the wananga or polytechnic reflected their different institutional contexts and smaller class sizes, both of which encouraged more teacher/student interaction. The decision to focus this research project on teachers in applied programmes or subjects also meant that some of them may have had a wider range of learning objectives to address with students than did the teachers of more theoretical subjects reported in some of the literature on university teaching.

8.3 Educational development and tertiary teaching qualifications

This section discusses the role of the educational development units in the three institutions, the provisions made by the institutions for the teacher education and development of their staff as professional teachers, and the informal learning that teachers also acquired. The term 'teacher education' is used to refer to provisions that may lead to qualifications, and 'development' for less formal but still institutionally organised initial and continuing professional development activities and services.

Educational development units and the work of developers

The EDUs were focused more on supporting teachers' practice than on providing for theoretical studies of tertiary education. The developers took a largely pragmatic stance, seeing their main functions as helping teachers to meet the expressed or perceived needs of their institution, thus adopting a role that was more 'domesticating' than 'emancipating' (as defined by Land, 2001). EDU work as seen in the case studies was thus very like that described in much of the literature, which also focused on activities and services (for example, Brew, 1995; Kahn and Baume, 2004). Johnston and Adams' (1996) account of the work of an Australian university EDU could well have been written about the EDUs of the university and polytechnic. Gosling (1996) had identified four broad areas of activity likely to be found in many EDUs: the first two, improvement in teaching and professional development of academic staff were to be found in all the case study EDUs; but the other two, contributing to organisational and policy development and student learning development, were not. Two further areas identified by Gosling (2001) as growing in importance – informed debate about learning, teaching and the goals of higher education, and promotion of the scholarship of teaching and research into higher education – had not emerged to any great extent in the case study EDUs. The university developers were aware of those trends, but believed that the issues had yet to 'take hold' in their institution. Once again, most of the literature came from university contexts, but many of the generic, practical ideas presented there were applicable or adaptable for polytechnic and wananga contexts as well.² The wananga, however, with its special focus on supporting staff and students within a Maori kaupapa, would find very little published that directly addressed tertiary teacher development for Maori institutions.

In each of the institutions, EDU functions and facilities were centrally located rather than dispersed among departments. The polytechnic and university EDUs offered a mix of mainly central generic courses, workshops and seminars, doing some decentralised work only if requested by departments or programme teams. The wananga's central EDU staff had developed a mix of local and central strategies for meeting the needs of tutors dispersed around several campuses. The central location of the EDUs was typical

² I have myself used ideas from university-based staff development books in polytechnic development activities, and there are anecdotal reports of other polytechnic developers doing the same.

of units established elsewhere, especially in universities, as discussed in the literature (for example, Hicks, 1999). Their provision of broad topics of common interest (such as assessment or group leadership or course planning), offered in the form of courses and seminars for individuals to join, also reflected patterns reported by Hicks (*ibid.*). Such forms of provision had, however, been challenged by writers such as Gibbs (1996), Jenkins (1996), and Knight and Trowler (2001). They believed that central courses tended to be too generic and reached only scattered individual teachers; instead they argued for more departmental and disciplinary approaches, in order to reach more teachers and link development to their immediate teaching and research communities. Rowland (2001) also argued for more links between EDUs and education faculties. The pros and cons of central vs. local and generic vs. disciplinary dimensions of development had not been widely discussed in the case study institutions, although one university developer explicitly disagreed with the concept of having dispersed developers attached to specific departments.

Just as the literature review revealed a limited number of articles and books that had discussed theories of educational development or critiqued different philosophical approaches to development, so I found little depth of discussion or awareness of such matters within the EDUs. Indeed, teachers in 'regular' programmes leading to qualifications for students were more likely to have to think through the philosophy of their programmes, to be stated in curriculum documents, than were the developers. Developers' work that focused on single seminars and workshops, or case-by-case consultancies that responded to needs identified by others, did not call for formal curriculum statements: only courses leading to certificates or diplomas had been documented to go through institutional approval processes. No EDU in the case studies seemed to have an explicitly stated philosophy, other than intentions like 'promoting good teaching, supporting educational development and responding to staff needs', to bind together its planning and activities. Ronkowski (1993) had suggested that treating teaching as a form of scholarship, as proposed by Boyer (1990), offered a way to change the attitudes and expectations that had supported a neglect of teaching in the past. Only the university developers referred to the scholarship of teaching, but they had not yet used the concept as a basis for significantly changing the content or approach of EDU's seminars or workshops.

The polytechnic developer talked of promoting teaching based on educational principles, but did not identify the principles and seemed more interested in systems for linking processes such as appraisal and development planning. The wananga developer was interested in ideas such as accelerated learning and learning styles, considering them to be accessible and useful for teachers working with second chance learners, and in tune with a Maori worldview. Only at the university did I encounter a more sustained discussion of educational ideas with the developers, but even there the concerns were mainly to do with raising the profile of teaching and teacher development in the institution, not with an underlying philosophy of development. The developers did critique past (and continuing) practices and attitudes to teaching in the wider university, expressing a desire to be part of any emerging discussion of issues in higher education. Their *EDU Plan 2000* spoke of teaching as a scholarly and professional activity, and a desire to counter an instrumental approach to teaching and learning – what Rowland (2001) had called “surface learning about teaching” – but to what extent that could be achieved through a programme consisting largely of seminars and workshops was not clear. The recent formation of a university-wide Teaching and Learning Committee suggested there was potential for wider discussion in future. Overall, however, there was little evidence of challenge to the ways educational development might be organised, or the principles on which it was based, in any of the institutions.

The service, domesticating function of EDUs (Land, 2001) thus dominated in the three institutions, reinforced by their central functions and location and the pragmatic expectations of institutional management. None of the units at the time of this study had the status of an academic department: such status might have strengthened their being perceived by the rest of an institution as offering educational leadership. The challenge raised by Malcolm and Zukas (2000a), that some EDUs in the UK were too training-oriented rather than coming from an educational tradition, did not apply in the case study EDUs, but references to ‘training’ did occur in some teacher interviews.

Many of the developers had come into EDU work from disciplines other than education, a trend found also in the literature review (for example, Fraser, 2001; Stefani, 1999, 2004). The interviewed polytechnic developer and one other had come from secondary teaching, and two had come from other disciplines. The interviewed wananga developer had a background in counselling, while the others had come from

school or wananga teaching. One of the two university developers interviewed came from another discipline but had been in EDU for over 15 years, and the other had come from teaching, via teachers college lecturing and PhD studies in higher education; other staff in the same unit came from disciplines other than education. Only the university developers had engaged in any research into aspects of tertiary education, resulting in conference papers and journal articles. In many ways, the developers' development approaches echoed the teaching approaches of the teachers: they had learned to 'do development' on-the-job, and were continuing to do things that worked for them and their 'students', trying out ideas passed on by colleagues, and adapting over time as institutional needs changed. While they would see themselves as intending to model good practice (Candy, 1996) most of their development sessions took the form of discussions and seminars, with few opportunities to demonstrate the techniques that other staff might need in contexts such as large lectures, laboratories, studios or field work. For such topics the developers were more likely to call on other practitioners or guest speakers to share their stories of practice – but 'practice' for such contexts was rarely demonstrated unless people went to observe actual student classes.

Provision of educational development

As indicated above, the EDUs provided a range of central seminars and workshops, mainly on generic topics expected to be of interest to most teaching staff. At the polytechnic and university these were spread through the year, with published timetables, and led by a mix of EDU staff, other experienced teachers from the institution, and some external guest speakers. Teachers said they appreciated being able to pick and choose the sessions they attended, depending on interest and time availability, indicating that there was little pattern or sequence involved in their participation. Developers indicated that some staff were regulars (the 'educational developer's delight' described by Pettigrove, 1992) while others rarely or never attended. At the wananga there were some different patterns, reflecting the use of national hui and the stronger emphasis on staff completing formal courses. At all institutions staff could also negotiate funding to attend external staff development opportunities, although those activities were more likely to be used for subject updating.

Qualifications for tertiary teaching

Courses leading to formal qualifications in tertiary teaching were provided by each of the institutions through their EDUs, which was again typical of patterns reported in the literature (Andresen, 1995; Robson et al., 1995; Baume and Baume, 1996; Bailey and Robson, 2002). Comparing the content, structure and size of courses offered with those discussed in the literature, the greatest similarities would be found between the university's Post-graduate Certificate and Diploma and those of other universities. The wananga's Certificate (ACTT) was similar in size and some of its more generic teaching content to a CertEd(FE) in the UK, but differed in its specialist Maori-oriented papers.³ The polytechnic's Diploma was similar in length, but its very open, self-directed curriculum was unlike the structured objectives that the Further Education National Training organisation (FENTO) required to be met in the CertEd(FE). The polytechnic's small CAT was closely linked to the NZ National Certificate in Adult Education and Training Level 4; it had counterparts in other New Zealand polytechnics, but not in examples reported in international journals. Overall, the literature supported the idea of institutions providing such in-service qualifications, incorporating content and structure relevant for their own teaching staff and contexts (Brew and Barrie, 1999; Stefani and Elton, 2002). One feature noted in the UK that was not found in NZ, however, was the linking of institutional courses to accreditation by bodies such as SEDA, the ILT or FENTO.

The low numbers of staff completing tertiary teaching qualifications in the polytechnic and university (as reported by their developers) were also typical of patterns reported overseas (for example, Andresen, 1995) and patterns in other NZ institutions.⁴ Lack of time to participate in staff development was commented on by some of the case study teachers and also reported internationally (Johnston, 1996a). Another factor influencing participation rates might be a loss of self-esteem felt by academics from other disciplines when they became 'beginners' again to study teaching and learning, as observed by Andresen (1995). The higher participation rate reported at the wananga, because of the institutional requirement placed on staff, was more comparable with

³ The BEd(AdultEd) that the interviewed wananga teachers were completing was unique in New Zealand, but comparable to similar degrees in Australia and the UK. It was originally developed by a polytechnic EDU, but following a merger was now being delivered by a university.

⁴ I base that conclusion on anecdotal evidence from professional conversations with many NZ educational developers over the last 20 years.

recent patterns in FE in the UK, where government regulations require teachers to complete one of the FENTO qualifications (Department for Education and Employment, 2000). Thus disciplinary and institutional cultures, and national regulatory systems, are major influences on patterns of provision and participation.

Teachers' preparation for tertiary teaching as a professional activity

The discussion above shows *in-service* education and development for tertiary teachers to be well-established, in the case study institutions and elsewhere in New Zealand and overseas. No significant *pre-service* professional education for *tertiary* teaching has been available, however, for staff in New Zealand institutions.⁵ The literature indicated that was so for most university teachers internationally (Ramsden et al., 1995; Johnston, 1998), although pre-service courses have been available for some FE teachers in the UK and TAFE teachers in Australia (Bailey and Robson, 2002; Hall and Are, 1991). That is very different from the situation found in other professions such as law, medicine or engineering, which require members to complete pre-service qualifications (usually full-time and university-based) as well as in-service continuing professional development (Baskett et al., 1992; Eraut, 1994). While tertiary teachers are likely to have pre-service qualifications in their subject areas, their professional *teaching* skills and attitudes are developed largely in-service, through self-directed learning, reflection and interactions with other people, with considerable emphasis on practical learning. Such learning processes have been observed by Baskett and Marsick (1992) to be common in the informal learning of other professionals *after* their initial formal programmes.

The case studies showed that most tertiary teachers complete multiple phases of professional or occupational learning. Preparation for their discipline or first occupation is likely to involve a considerable amount of formal learning associated with *codified* knowledge (explicit, public, propositional knowledge, associated with qualifications), as well as informal workplace learning associated with *personal* knowledge (procedural, process and experiential knowledge, both explicit and tacit).⁶ Preparation for tertiary teaching, on the other hand, involves mainly informal workplace learning,

⁵ Short block courses and seminars are often offered to new staff before the start of a teaching year by institutions, but they are not comparable to the more substantial pre-service education or training that is offered to prospective school teachers.

with fewer opportunities for formal learning and much less likelihood of completing a qualification. Some possible patterns are summarised in Table 5, following.

Learning for trade-type occupation	Learning for technical or professional occupation	Learning for research occupation
<i>In-service workplace learning as apprentice</i>	Pre-service formal qualification	Pre-service initial university degree(s)
Block release for theory components, leading to Trade Cert. or Nat. Cert.	<i>Workplace learning after appointment, on-going</i>	<i>Research skills learned through doing research (also via PhD)</i>
<i>On-going workplace learning as tradesperson</i>	Continuing professional development	<i>Conference attendance Collaboration with peers</i>
When people who have completed one of the sequences above move to one of the areas below – eg from trade or professional to polytechnic or wananga, or from professional or research to university – learning starts again for the new occupation in teaching.		
Learning to teach in the wananga	Learning to teach in the polytechnic	Learning to teach in the university
<i>Learning by teaching, initial & on-going through career</i>	<i>Learning by teaching, initial & on-going through career</i>	<i>Learning by teaching, initial & on-going through career</i>
Initial in-service study in weekly classes, for CertTT. Cross-campus hui for CPD. Option of DipTT or BEd.	CAT course, in modules. Occasional CPD seminars. Option of DipTT or BEd.	Introductory workshops. Occasional CPD seminars. Option of PGCert/DipHE.

Key: Plain type: mainly formal learning; *Italics: mainly informal/incidental learning.*

Table 5: Common occupational sequences of learning

Most of the university and polytechnic teachers were members of professional bodies associated with their disciplines, and it was evident that this was so for staff other than those interviewed. While keeping up to date with one's discipline or occupation was important, especially to the polytechnic and university teachers, no particular concerns were expressed about tension between their professional role as teacher and their previous occupational role - unlike the tensions for some FE teachers discussed by Robson (1998, 2000, 2002). Nevertheless some polytechnic teachers indicated that, because keeping vocational content up-to-date was important for maintaining their credibility as teachers, that often took precedence over teaching-related development when they made decisions about their use of professional development time. University lecturers suggested that, for many of their colleagues, time for research in the discipline was definitely given more priority than teaching development time. One could argue

⁶ References here to codified and personal knowledge follow their usage by Eraut (2000).

that ignoring teaching-related professional development would detract from a person's professionalism as a teacher - but the developers believed that many university staff saw themselves first as disciplinarians and researchers, not as teachers. Such attitudes, which diminished the value of professional education and development for teaching, echoed the positions discussed by writers such as Sotto (1996) and Weimer (1997).

Informal learning as part of becoming a tertiary teacher

Much of the informal learning (including incidental) referred to by the teachers was difficult for them to 'pin down' or make explicit, reflecting Eraut's (2000) comment about the difficulty of investigating tacit learning. Several teachers mentioned being mentored at some stage or having had a buddy to turn to, and some had been through a form of probation; but none had experienced such processes in the context of a structured cognitive apprenticeship as described by Farmer et al. (1992), LeGrand Brandt et al. (1993) or Bonk and Kim (1998). Cognitive apprenticeship as a means of sharing the knowledge of experts, in a social learning context, has much to offer organisations that rely heavily on informal learning for their staff, yet was not used or reported to have been considered in departments or EDUs of the three case study institutions. Schon's (1983 and 1987) concepts of reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action were, however, referred to by several teachers and by the developers, and had become embedded in a number of the EDU seminars and courses offered – and also in some of the teachers' own courses.

None of the educational development activities or teacher education courses offered in the case study institutions appeared to have been designed to articulate with the informal learning that teachers were also likely to engage in. There was no indication that the patterns adopted for professional education in other areas had been considered when their tertiary teacher qualifications were being designed, and so the sorts of integrated processes and structures recommended by writers such as Eraut (1994), Gonczi (2001) or Beckett and Hager (2002) had not been acknowledged. Even though the wananga required all staff to complete a basic certificate, its delivery in a fixed yearly sequence of units did not appear to be designed to make links with the teachers' informal learning, or integrated with the hui kaupapa gatherings. The polytechnic and university qualifications were so optional that it was up to individual staff members to timetable and integrate their own learning sequences. Yet Gonczi's proposal of "some

form of apprenticeship” as a preparation for professional practice (2001, p. 2), or Beckett and Hager’s “well-supported mixtures of formal and informal learning” (2002, p. 191) would make sense for the teachers in the case studies – and in other similar tertiary institutions. The case studies show that the teachers had all been able to experience a mix of process learning from experience and some propositional learning from courses and workshops – but we could hardly say they had experienced an articulated or integrated system, nor was there evidence that their institutions had seriously considered what might be a desirable balance between their formal and experiential learning. That suggests there may be scope for a professional body for New Zealand’s tertiary teachers (like the ILT in the UK) to provide leadership, and perhaps establish some principles in consultation with their members.

Overall, Johnston’s (1998) conclusion that most academics undertook no formal preparation for their professional role (as lecturers), and few engaged in formal professional learning opportunities related to teaching, was applicable to teachers at the university and polytechnic (as reported by the developers). Only at the wananga was that less so, at the time of the case study, with all newly-appointed teachers expected to complete a basic teaching qualification and all expected to participate in regular developmental hui. Ronkowski’s (1993) description of university teachers as ‘bricoleurs’ or ‘do-it-yourselfers’, who developed their teaching over the years by trial and error, often in isolation, rang true for many staff at the polytechnic and university. There was therefore considerable scope for rethinking the approaches taken to promote and develop teaching as a professional activity in those institutions.

8.4 Expertise, workplace learning and communities of practice

This area is one that has increasingly interested me as the study has progressed, because it led to fresh ways of viewing teacher development. As shown in the literature review, few researchers have previously considered tertiary teacher development in terms of the characteristics of workplace learning, and only a few (for example, Knight and Trowler, 2000; Trowler and Knight, 2000) have considered teachers’ contexts in terms of communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

Developing expertise through workplace learning

Expertise was not reported as a common topic of discussion by the teachers and developers. On several occasions in the interviews teachers, although experienced, resisted calling themselves 'expert'. If the Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) expert stage descriptors or Glaser and Chi's (1988) characteristics of expertise were introduced, however, teachers commented that such views of 'expert' did relate to ways of thinking and acting that they had not previously made explicit. The Dreyfus model of stages of skill acquisition, which was intended to be related to experiential rather than more formal learning, fitted well with teachers' perceptions of their gradual development of teaching skills and knowledge over time.

Teachers' accounts of working things out for themselves, such as dealing with new curriculum development or responding to classroom situations, were consistent with research showing that expertise is constructed through problem-solving (for example, Billett, 1996). Their use of ideas and practices gained from role models and working with colleagues was also consistent with studies showing that workplace expertise is socially and culturally constructed and transferred (*ibid.*). When experienced teachers talked about their areas of expertise it became clear that they drew on multiple domains: the domain of their subject or discipline in which they had prior research or occupational expertise; and the domain of their expertise in teaching, which included aspects of personal expertise such as communication. The first had been critical to their initial appointment to a teaching position, confirming observations made in the literature (for example, Beaty, 1998; Robson, 1998, 2002). That literature has also noted a common assumption that people who have expert knowledge of their discipline or occupation will be able to teach (or 'transmit') it. Other research suggests, however, that that assumption is unwarranted, since expertise is domain-specific (Glaser and Chi, 1988; Billett, 1996). When newly appointed tertiary teachers move into their new area of work they will initially be novices and only gradually develop expertise in teaching. Some learning about teaching may well have been gained through past experiences of observing while being taught, but analysing what it means to 'do teaching' requires more than such observations as a base. Know-how and practical judgement also have to be developed – and that takes time, as they are forms of process knowledge developed through practice (Beckett and Hager, 2002).

It was often the teachers' enthusiasm, interpersonal skills and 'liking people' that had helped to carry them as 'untrained teachers' through their early encounters with student classes. Such social aspects of their work demonstrated the personal and interpersonal aspects of teacher expertise discussed by Hamachek (1999). Teachers who talked of having to be organised and flexible reflected further characteristics that Hamachek had identified as typical of teacher expertise. Personal attributes and interpersonal skills (such as communication) that people had developed in other contexts may transfer quite readily to contribute to their teaching, rather than being seen as forms of specialist expertise identified only with a prior work situation. The domain-specific knowledge of a discipline or the specific skills of a profession, however, do not directly transfer into constructing an educational curriculum or knowing how to help a student come to understand something an expert practitioner has for years taken for granted. Such specialist aspects are a matter of pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) but none of the interviewed teachers referred to that concept.

Another area of transfer of expertise that may be involved, when people first move into teaching positions, relates to experiential learning. Tennant (2000) identified a range of skills and attitudes required for learning from experience in the workplace, which I argue could transfer from learning about work in other workplaces to learning about work in a teaching organisation. That would help to explain the willingness of new tertiary teachers to enter the new field of tertiary education, confident in their ability to learn and adapt in a new environment - even though they knew they lacked pre-service teaching qualifications (all sites), and that in-service teacher development would probably not be substantial (in the polytechnic and university). If that is so, then such a conclusion could be generalised to apply to tertiary teachers in other institutions.

Some teachers talked of having to cope virtually alone when they were part-timers and not fully part of a departmental community, or in their solo classroom practice, or when they reported individual trial and error efforts. Such situations echo the comparative isolation of some tertiary teachers that has been discussed in the literature (for example, Massy and Wilger, 1994; Kraft, 2000). Other forms of isolation for the teachers may have arisen from factors that Billett (1995) has noted as likely to limit the effectiveness of workplace learning, such as a lack of suitable mentors or limited access to some

activities. Similar issues were raised by Eraut (2002) and Rainbird et al. (2004), relating to the role of individual agency in workplace learning. Thus individual learning may have to replace social learning, in situations where workplace collaboration is limited or not possible (for example, in university departments with little team teaching); or where workplace structures limit opportunities for learning (for example, no reduction in teaching hours during a probationary period, in all the case study institutions); or where the frequency and nature of interpersonal encounters are limited (for example, in the polytechnic engineering department). Limited opportunities for part-timers are particularly important to address, because such people frequently progress to full-time positions.

Looking at the case studies, it is clear that most propositional or codified knowledge (Eraut, 2000) held by teachers, gained through formal learning, was associated with their discipline or prior profession (giving them qualifications and contributing to the subject content of their teaching). Few of the teachers seemed to have a strong body of explicit codified knowledge about tertiary teaching or education. Teachers' process knowledge was associated with both their subject area and their teaching practice (the latter mainly tacit, gained through informal experiential learning). There was no evidence that in any of the institutions there had been discussion of what minimum propositional teaching knowledge might be desirable, or how that might be balanced against and integrated with teachers' informal process learning (as noted earlier in relation to professional qualifications).

Situated learning

What I have referred to as informal and incidental workplace learning, in the case studies, can also be called 'situated learning', a process of learning to perform by engaging in activity "in and with the world" (Lave and Wenger, 1991, p. 33). Looking at what the teachers and developers said, it was evident that situated learning was indeed going on, though not necessarily labelled as such by members of an institution or work group. People had gained most of their *teaching* knowledge and skills over time through informal, situated learning in their departments, programme teams and classes. Examples of on-going learning in and through the work of communities of practice can be seen in the polytechnic design lecturer's account of changes in content and teaching strategies as the department developed a new degree; or the university art

lecturer's explanation of the shared reflective process associated with assessing students' end-of-year portfolios; or the wananga applied arts lecturer's comment about other staff observing how she taught tikanga Maori. Such development, sharing and continuation of common practices also illustrate Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept of legitimate peripheral participation, by which all members of the community are learning from each other, both old-timers and newcomers.

After many years in their jobs, the experienced teachers I interviewed were performing with considerable levels of expertise - but that expertise was mostly tacit or taken for granted. Considering the fairly small amount of time and attention they said had been given to more formal learning about teaching, it was reasonable to infer that the extent of their situated learning had therefore been considerable. All said, for example, that they used a wider range of teaching strategies than when they started and were comfortable with deciding intuitively how to proceed in class situations. Recognition of what they had learned through experience or from colleagues in their community of practice had sometimes been made explicit or clarified when they attended later professional development sessions, confirming what they had worked out in practice.

The social context is a vital factor in situated learning, and examples of this emerged at various levels in all the case studies: the close involvement of two university art lecturers who chose to team-teach; the polytechnic communications lecturer boundary-crossing to work with staff in other departments' programmes; a course supervisor coordinating a group of part-time polytechnic tutors; a design department curriculum development team; groups that came together for mutual support while doing the polytechnic's DipTT; and also the different social effects of belonging to more dispersed and fragmented groups, such as the polytechnic and university engineering departments.

Community of practice

Looking at the case studies, the institutions themselves can be seen as organisations that sustain interconnected communities (Wenger, 1998), and there is evidence from documents and the interviews of multiple communities of practice within them (as shown by examples in the vignettes in Appendices O and P). The institutional documents referred to formal groupings such as faculties or departments, which had the

potential to become or to include more organic, local communities of practice. Thus the engineering and computing departments within one institution could have different ways of going about their work, as well as sharing some characteristics typical of the whole institution's culture. The teachers and developers also talked of less formal groups or communities, such as those around a particular programme or subject, sometimes within a department and sometimes across departments, which could bring people together. The actual phrase 'community of practice' was not being used, but people talked of examples of working relationships that I interpreted as examples of community of practice, and if I introduced the term during an interview they said it 'made sense' to them. Much of the case study evidence was indirect, inferred from people's comments about colleagues, about settling into the ways of their particular community, and about gaining experience in that setting over the years. Institutional documents' statements about values and practices considered desirable or typical also constituted part of a 'community discourse'.

As well as emphasising the social context of situated learning in organisations, Wenger (1998) also stressed the importance of learning and community development over time - a tacit sense of the history associated with a community of practice that has evolved and is still evolving. That aspect of community also emerged in all the case studies, seen in examples such as the university developer's comment that departments have a life of their own, a history, which newcomers get absorbed into; or the wananga arts tutor's awareness of being part of the developing community since its early days as a PTE.

Participation is vital to learning in a community of practice, for the individuals, their immediate communities, and the wider organisation (Wenger, 1998). Teachers in the three institutions were all engaged in doing the sort of teaching commonly expected in their particular context. In that sense they were engaged in a collective form of work associated with their organisational community. The actual form of their classroom teaching, however, was rarely directly shared with colleagues. If much of a teacher's work is done by individuals in classrooms, rarely observed or assisted by other teachers, then what is shared is likely to be *accounts* of what people do in class rather than the actual activities. That is consistent with Wenger's notion of practices in a community evolving as shared histories of learning. Some practices might not become part of a community's practice, depending on individuals' willingness to share their experiences

or to listen to others and try out new ideas. Sharing of practices is not just a way for newcomers to learn, but also refines, improves and continues practice for all members.

The case studies each presented a brief snapshot of communities that had been, and were still being, shaped over time, with considerable continuity of teaching practices and attitudes towards students within each institution. Discontinuities also occurred. One example was the introduction of an in-house qualification for tutors when the wananga grew rapidly and recognised the need for a Maori-focused teaching qualification that could be provided for all staff, instead of sending them out to do the more generic qualification offered by a nearby polytechnic. Other examples included the development of a quality management system at the polytechnic in the 1990s in response to legislative changes, and the impact of that as reported by staff; or the formation of a Teaching and Learning Committee at the university at the behest of a new Vice-Chancellor, although that had not yet led to significant changes in attitude at departmental levels. Other changes occurred at the level of local communities, such as the reported restructuring of the papers in the communication studies programme at the university to put more emphasis on applied activities and fieldwork.

The case studies were based on data gathered from some individuals (developers and experienced teachers) and from some of their organisations' documents. From the data it can be inferred that individuals did indeed see themselves as members of communities of practice, and that the institutions were made up of interconnected communities. Members of some communities of practice had a strong sense of their community and their identity within it, while others belonged to less tightly formed communities and had a weaker sense of attachment. Distinctive characteristics of the teachers' various communities of practice could be identified, as shown by the vignettes in Appendices O and P. There can be seen examples of mutual engagement, a sense of joint enterprise, and people developing their repertoire, styles and discourses – all aspects seen by Wenger as critical to the development and continuation of a community of practice. Those are not, however, the words that people in those communities would use themselves: just as much practice is tacit, so much of the awareness of community is also tacit, rather than made explicit among members.

The vignettes in Appendices O and P suggest that each community of teachers shared a number of distinctive practices and attitudes, which their members would recognise as typical – yet some aspects of people’s individual work barely appeared in the vignettes. People could share with colleagues the overall teaching approach of the curriculum that they planned together, or a collective understanding of the content and assessment approaches of a programme, or a belief in the importance of developing students’ self-esteem. Once a teacher was in the lecture theatre, classroom, laboratory or studio, however, then personal, individual factors came into play in their engagement with their students, such as their enthusiasm, their specialist subject knowledge, their pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987), their organising skills, their own interpersonal skills and ways of relating to people. Thus individual agency (Hamachek, 1999; Eraut, 2002) needs to be acknowledged, as well as organisational factors, social relations and history, when considering how people work and learn in a teaching community of practice.

Other factors associated with Wenger’s concept of community of practice included collegiality, reciprocity, trajectories, boundary processes (border-crossing), and the shaping of identity. The developers and most teachers perceived teaching as a collegial activity, with common programme-related goals and shared professional values: yet some groups were reported to be very interactive and sharing, while teachers in other contexts were operating in comparative isolation. Reports that newcomers had to ask for help and that part-timers were not fully integrated into departmental work did not suggest a pro-active approach to building up shared practice in some communities. As the university developers said, departmental communities developed their own traditions over the years, and in some collegiality and reciprocity tended to focus around the discipline rather than teaching (noted also in studies of academic cultures, such as Austin, 1990; Blunden, 1996; Becher and Trowler, 2002). If teaching was not particularly valued, a high level of expertise in teaching was not expected, and expertise in the discipline was seen as the source of status and reputation, then community practices were unlikely to support a major focus on teaching or sharing teaching skills with newcomers. On the other hand, teaching expertise was explicitly valued in the wananga, and ‘generic’ student-centred teaching was a common focus. Colleagues at a campus were highly likely to help each other regardless of subject area, and to see

value in sharing their solutions to the difficulties of supporting students who had a range of social and learning needs.

In all the case studies, people's perceptions of having developed an identity as a teacher were linked to their participation in their communities. Teachers had adapted to, and been assimilated into, their communities of practice over the years, and thus were able to describe themselves as 'a university computer science lecturer' or 'a wananga computer skills tutor' or 'a polytechnic computer studies academic staff member'. None used the term 'trajectory' to describe their entry to or movement within an institution or department, but people's descriptions of progress from part-time to full-time work could be seen as examples of following a trajectory. Formal aspects of learning to teach had been achieved through group classes for the wananga teachers, who had participated in the same courses together over several years. Formal learning about teaching in the polytechnic and university, however, was seen as a largely individual activity. Staff planning for professional development was usually done between an individual and his or her HOD, rather than negotiated with (let alone carried out in) a teacher's immediate community. There was therefore little evidence in the case studies of Wenger's notion of colleagues in a community negotiating a learning agenda together. Opportunities for learning through border-crossing (again, teachers did not use that term themselves) did arise when people moved between communities of practice, in situations such as: inter-disciplinary teaching; involvement of EDU staff in local projects; keeping in contact with colleagues in external communities; participation as departmental representatives on institutional committees; or individuals from several departments joining others at central EDU seminars.

The general impression gained from the case studies was that an *explicit* sense of community of practice (Wenger, 1998) was not widespread among most of the people interviewed. Where it did emerge, it was seen as a positive force, for example as described by the university art lecturer at departmental level, or the wananga teachers in relation to their wider institutional community. On the other hand, some departmental communities could be perceived as diffuse or fragmented (Brown and Duguid, 1993), perhaps even insular or defensive (Wenger, 2000), and staff there were less likely to take up learning opportunities together. For example, in the polytechnic engineering community there was an acceptance that teachers were free to do preparation and

marking off-campus when not required on-campus for classes, meetings and administration. They expected 'tutor training' to be done by EDU (but staff could opt out), and if teaching problems arose they would also be referred to EDU, further reducing departmental engagement in teacher development. Thus teaching-related contacts between people in that community, with opportunities to share or advance practice and ideas about teaching, appeared limited. In the university the engineering lecturer, who became very interested in teaching, went outside the departmental community to study education and make links with the EDU staff. That person remained part of the community of practice in terms of participating in the degree delivery; but the innovative teaching ideas gained from boundary-crossing had not been adopted in the departmental community. That situation reflected Gibbs' (1996) comments on the difficulty of spreading ideas from a central EDU via isolated individuals into departmental practice, and the observation of Rainbird et al. (1994) that not all workplaces were consensual or offered equal learning opportunities for all.

Comments by several of the polytechnic and university teachers about feeling isolated at some stages of their teaching careers can be related not only to a low 'sense of community' around them, but also to other factors noted in the literature, such the need for change in the culture of an institution before attitudes to teaching were likely to change (Massy and Wilger, 1994; Hutchings, 1994; Trowler and Knight, 2000). While many such studies have suggested that changes in culture were needed, however, only a few proposed ways of achieving such change. Knight and Trowler (2001) did so by applying Wenger's ideas to departmental CPD, referring to learning as "situated and contexted... located in the daily operations of activity systems or communities of practice" (p. 147). Focusing on departments means that factors such as existing shared interests (in the discipline and in teaching) and established social relations can be acknowledged and used to support moves to achieve local change, unlike the large-scale approaches that might be needed for institution-wide initiatives. It is here that work of Wenger et al. (2002) on the 'cultivation' of organic communities of practice becomes relevant, offering ways of thinking about the elements of a community of practice and its processes, including the learning of its members.

Long-standing attitudes and values had an impact on people's perceptions of the 'teaching culture' of their department and of their organisation, especially in the two

older institutions. There were differences, though, in the views of the teachers. For example, at the university, the engineering lecturer felt that teaching was not valued, either in the department or institutionally; but the other three teachers thought that teaching was certainly valued in their departments, though less in the wider organisation. That suggests the departmental focus of much of the literature was significant, and that differences at that level should be recognised and existing strengths built upon, for example by taking the approaches suggested by Knight and Trowler (2000, 2001). The situation was different in the polytechnic and wananga, whose primary purpose had always been teaching, and where less concern was expressed about 'the teaching culture'. There were suggestions, however, that growing pressure to offer degrees and engage in research might be changing the culture of the polytechnic, and that the valuing of teaching there might be dwindling. The wananga, being newer, was still building its teaching culture, but had a strong sense of history and 'mission' to underpin that development, and being 'student-focused' meant teaching was to be both seen and treated as important.

8.5 Summing up: becoming a tertiary teacher in New Zealand

The case studies provided examples of ideas, practices and attitudes found in some NZ institutions that strongly supported what had been reported in the wider literature; and findings from the literature helped to explain or interpret some of the case study findings. There were also differences, which generally could be related to the effects of particular institutional or local contexts or communities.

The case studies also showed that becoming a tertiary teacher involved much more informal and incidental learning, gained through engaging in people's work, than formal learning, gained through attendance at workshops or passing courses. That meant that the communities of practice in which such informal learning happened were very significant. Most teachers in the case studies (who it should be acknowledged were drawn from a group of interested volunteers) could be interpreted as identifying their department or a group within it as their main community of *teaching* practice, while also recognising the larger institutional community – and other communities within and beyond it – that they interacted with. Some key communities and influences are represented in Fig. 2, following.

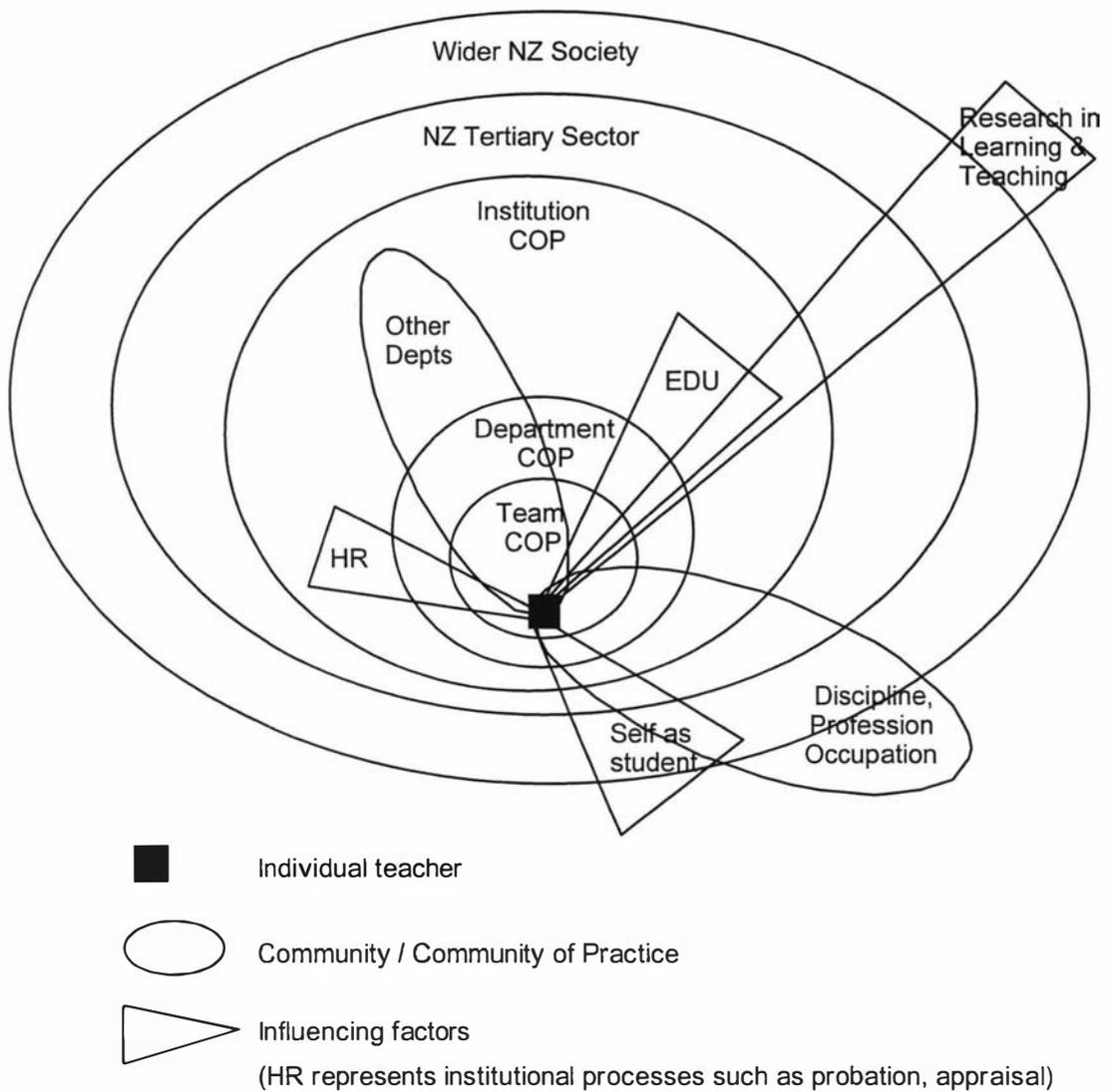


Fig. 2: Model of a tertiary teacher's communities of practice

The case studies provided only snapshots of the three institutions, based on some of their documentation and interviews with a few staff at each site, in the period mid-2000 to early 2001. It is possible, however, to draw two general conclusions. Firstly (based on the case study findings), that the three institutions studied will continue to rely on in-service development to support their staff in becoming tertiary teachers, and that most people who become tertiary teachers (except those in the wananga) will not complete substantial formal qualifications in tertiary teaching. Secondly (based on the case studies, the NZ literature, and feedback responses to work-in-progress conference papers on this research project), that a comparable situation could be found in a similar study of other NZ tertiary institutions. Thus the case studies provide support for references in the *Tertiary Education Strategy* (published a year after the data gathering)

to a need for increased provider investment in “recruitment, retention and professional development” (Ministry of Education, 2002, p. 25), in order to meet students’ “high expectations of teaching quality” by 2007 (ibid., p. 26).

The literature of community of practice, situated learning and workplace learning has introduced some new perspectives or ways of viewing the case study findings. The following chapter gives further consideration to the concept of becoming a tertiary teacher within a community of practice, and potential of that concept to provide a framework for supporting teacher development in New Zealand institutions.

Chapter Nine: Conclusions and Recommendations

9.1 Conclusions

The key research question this thesis set out to answer was “How do people become tertiary teachers in New Zealand?” Sub-questions asked what teaching was like in some institutions, what some experienced teachers there said about their own development, and what provisions their institutions made to support teacher education and development. The findings of the case studies showed that most people became teachers through mainly informal learning, gaining tacit process knowledge through their work and from colleagues. Few of the teachers had substantial codified knowledge, gained through formal study, about tertiary teaching or education. The case studies also showed that each of three institutions had a distinctive overall culture that included attitudes towards students and approaches to teaching that were distinctive to the institution, as well as some that were typical of practices described in the international literature. The institutions made provision for supporting teacher development through processes such as induction, probation, courses on teaching, staff development seminars, appraisal, and sometimes awards for excellence. While policies for such support tended to be centrally planned and resourced, however, people’s teaching work was focused in their immediate communities of practice, in a department or programme team or campus whanau. It became clear that individuals within any one institution could receive different levels and types of support for their teacher development, depending on the sub-culture of their departmental community within the overall institutional culture. That was particularly so in the polytechnic and university, whereas the experience of the wananga showed that more substantial and consistent support for teaching was possible. Thus context was an important influence on people’s informal learning.

Since the mid 1980s, when the first of the teachers interviewed in the case studies started teaching, many books, articles and conference papers have presented research results and scholarly writing on aspects of teaching and learning in tertiary education. Yet over that same period there have been few changes reported in the ways that tertiary teachers have been prepared for their work as teachers in the case study polytechnic and university, despite considerable changes in their student populations

and stakeholder expectations. By comparison, the wananga, a smaller and newer institution, focused on the needs of a particular student population and driven by different cultural imperatives, has given more attention and resourcing to teacher development. All the institutions said in their Charters that teaching was important and valued; but the weight of established practice and attitudes seemed to make change slow in the two older and larger institutions. Does this matter if programmes are being 'delivered', staff seem to be coping, and quality management systems are in place?

I argue that it does matter, and that organisations established to promote learning need to be concerned about advancing the learning of their staff as well as their students. Looking at what the teachers in the case studies said about how they had developed over the years, it appears that their institutions have expected a great deal of them personally. It has been assumed by the managers appointing them that, provided they had disciplinary or professional qualifications and experience, they could learn about teaching as they proceeded, after their appointment. That assumption seems to have been based partly on an expectation that expertise is transferable from discipline to teaching practice, and partly on an institutional conception of 'teaching as transmission'. The PVC(Academic) of the university in the study suggested the latter assumption had been inherited with traditions formed when universities were much smaller and taught an elite group of academically able students. Similar situations and attitudes relating to tertiary teacher appointments have been reported in the literature (e.g. Beaty, 1998, p. 100; Knight, 2002, p. 37), and so are not unique to New Zealand. Today, however, students come from much more diverse backgrounds than in the past, student numbers in tertiary institutions have increased, public funding is limited, and stakeholder expectations are high: therefore institutional expectations of teachers are also changing.

The two larger and older institutions in the case studies do not appear to have used the research mentioned above as a source of new ideas for teacher development, or if they have, then little appears to have changed as result. New teachers there are still appointed on the basis of their subject expertise, minimal required involvement in teacher development follows, and no major changes in the content or structure of EDU offerings were reported. The wananga similarly appoints mainly untrained teachers, but by contrast had put considerable resourcing into the external teacher education of staff

appointed in the 1990s, into implementing a teaching qualification that all newer (post-2000) staff are required to complete, and into offering both national hui and local campus support. Nevertheless, little impact of external research was reported there either: apart from references to accelerated learning, most of the wananga's decisions seemed to have been pragmatic responses to evolving local situations (plus the external requirements of the MOE and NZQA), within a framework of tikanga Maori.

An alternative approach to in-service teacher development, from a fresh perspective, is therefore worth considering, particularly with respect to the polytechnic and university. The three case studies show that there are considerable contextual differences between the institutions, and so contextual solutions are indicated, not 'one grand plan' for all. Such a conclusion echoes Boud's (1999, p.5) comment that, "We should not expect to now find a single all-encompassing approach or one which does not respect the unique features of each context." The case studies also suggest that the university and polytechnic are unlikely to adopt revolutionary change to their long-established practices and attitudes; therefore recommending drastic moves to overthrow the status quo is not a sensible option. One way of looking at the situation differently is to reframe or re-visualise tertiary teachers' work and learning, by drawing on Wenger's (1998, 2000) work on situated learning, community of practice and social learning systems. The discussion in Chapter Eight shows that such a perspective is possible, although it has not been explicitly adopted to date by any of the case study institutions. Taking such an approach would mean that institutions could initiate change by working with 'what is already there' (which is considered good adult learning practice), because teachers are already learning informally through working in their collegial groupings. Factors associated with Wenger's concept of community of practice could then be used to develop ways of more fully supporting teachers' shared learning in their working communities of practice.

These major conclusions emerge:

- People become tertiary teachers mainly through the informal and incidental learning that happens when they are working in communities of teaching practice.
- The strongest communities of teaching practice are found in departments or smaller within-department groupings; institutions are overarching communities of practice that support local communities within them (such as departments).

- Institutions support some aspects of teacher development through centrally planned institution-to-individual relationships, such as induction, probation, appraisal and promotion.
- Institutions provide some formal, in-service, teacher development and education through courses and seminars offered by their central EDUs.
- EDUs currently make little direct contribution to teachers' local communities of practice, because much of their work is done with individual teachers, and through central activities and courses.
- Most teachers have a low theoretical understanding of tertiary teaching and education, and no formal qualification in tertiary teaching.
- Most tertiary teachers in New Zealand do not engage in pre-service teacher education, and this is unlikely to change significantly.
- Changes in factors such as student population (increased numbers and diversity), funding and stakeholder expectations since about 1990 have created challenges for institutions and teachers that are different from those of the past.

9.2 Recommendations

Given the changes in tertiary education in NZ, it is timely to consider what measures might strengthen institutions' efforts to provide teacher education and development for their teachers, and what measures might encourage those teachers to take more professional responsibility for their own continuing teacher development. Requiring all tertiary teachers to complete qualifications in teaching (following the example set by the wananga) would involve revolutionary change, but may happen in future if government policies and funding change. For now, starting from the status quo and working towards evolutionary change at the level of informal teacher development is likely to be more acceptable and 'workable', particularly in larger institutions such as polytechnics and universities.

The case study findings support an overall recommendation that tertiary teacher development be focused on strengthening the informal learning that goes on in teachers' communities of practice. Institutions should not, however, rely on people's local communities of practice to be solely responsible for all the teaching-related learning

that their members need, nor abandon existing EDU seminars and formal courses: it is important to recognise that the institution as a whole and individual staff members also have professional responsibilities towards teacher development. Identifying *institution*, *communities*, and *individuals* as foci for recommendations means that Wenger's (1998) work on learning in organisations can be applied in framing the recommendations.

Wenger (1998) described three different levels and types of responsibilities for learning in organisations. At level one, the organisation is responsible for cultivating and sustaining communities of practice. At level two, communities are responsible for refining their practice and ensuring new generations of members. At level three, individuals are responsible for engaging in and contributing to the practice of their communities. Recommendations made below for tertiary institutions have been designed to link all three levels in an integrated framework. Key relationships between the different levels of that framework are summarised in Fig. 3, following.

Institutional Community of Practice	Local Community of Practice	Individual teacher
Climate / culture that values teaching.	Promote explicit sense of community of practice, mutual engagement.	Develop identity as a teacher within the institution and COP. Recognise personal strengths
Policies established for teacher development and support.	Implement institutional policies and processes such as induction.	Participate in institutional and community processes.
Framework of processes e.g. induction, probation, linked CPD planning and appraisal, promotion.	Cognitive apprenticeship for newcomers. Community planning and support for CPD.	Learn about the systems and values of the community. Plan professional development.
Resourcing of EDU to support (a) communities developing their teaching & (b) formal courses.	Promote community activities that share teaching practice, make tacit knowledge explicit. Eg mentoring, team building, portfolio development, peer observation & feedback.	Learn through doing the work, from role models, from trial & error, collegial problem solving, team teaching, reflection...
Resourcing of local community development, eg leadership training, team building.	border-crossing with other communities.	Recognise informal, tacit learning. Participate in formal courses to complement informal learning.

Fig. 3: Recommended framework for supporting tertiary teacher development in a community of teaching practice

Figure 3 shows a teacher as being embedded within an immediate local community of practice, which in turn is embedded in the community of practice of the wider institution. Strands of related activities, based on the recommendations, run across each level, building a network of interactions. Individual teachers do not lose their identity, but the local community of practice is seen as central in supporting teaching and teachers. The framework thus provides for Wenger's "mutual engagement, sense of joint enterprise, and people developing their repertoire, styles and discourses".

In the following sections, when referring to local communities of practice (as distinct from a whole-institution wider community of practice), I suggest that a department, or a team focused around the delivery of a specific programme of study, would be the most commonly perceived immediate or local work-group for most tertiary teachers. That does not preclude other groups being recognised by their members as communities of practice in some contexts, such as a whanau group of tutors at a wananga campus, interest-groups within a department, or an inter-departmental group associated with a multi-disciplinary programme.

9.2.1 Recommendations for institutions

The parent organisation, whether polytechnic, wananga or university, can be seen as an over-arching community, whose culture, policies and practices provide a framework for sub-communities within it. Wenger sees organisations as being responsible for cultivating or shepherding existing communities of practice within them.

It is recommended that institutions:

- Continue to foster an institutional climate or culture that values teaching and learning, recognises and rewards teacher expertise/excellence, and supports continuing professional development.
- Promote institution-wide policies for teacher development and support, implemented through a mix of central and local community initiatives, with scope for local flexibility. It is important to have policies, so that responsibilities are made clear for all parties and progress reports are expected.
- Develop planning and feedback links between processes such as induction, probation, professional development, appraisal, and promotion and other ways of

recognising of good teaching. Thus expectations are documented, resources can be planned, and achievements are recorded.

- Encourage ‘cognitive apprenticeship’ relationships between new and more experienced teachers, with mutual responsibilities for providing and participating in workplace learning opportunities during a probationary period.
- Refocus EDUs to give more attention and support to communities of teachers rather than to comparatively small numbers of individual teachers.
- Adequately resource EDUs to support teacher development through:
 - Increased EDU support to local communities (e.g. departments or programme teams), through functions such as seminars on teaching in a discipline, consultancy, training mentors and leaders, and participation by EDU staff in local teaching development projects.
 - EDU research into teaching, and dissemination and sharing of good practice between communities in the organisation (brokerage and border crossing);
 - Continued and expanded central provision of formal courses on tertiary teaching and learning, so that staff can gain a qualification in tertiary education that balances their informal learning and provides a level of professional status appropriate to their institutional context.
- Budget for teacher activities that support both community and individual development, for example:
 - reduced workload for new teachers, to provide time for initial teaching courses and for shadowing, observing and planning with experienced teachers;
 - time allowances for staff mentoring others, whether newcomers or more established community members;
 - time allowances for team meetings for community-building, and for development activities such as peer observation and feedback, peer evaluation, portfolio development and reflection;
 - time allowances for *part-time* staff to attend departmental meetings and initial courses on teaching, and so engage more fully in their community of practice.

9.2.2 Recommendations for local communities of teaching practice

A local community is a sub-group with common interests *within* the larger institution. It is an organic group (but may also be recognised as a formal structure, if it is a

department or school), whose members have some sense of belonging and of an ongoing history. The focus of a community of *teaching* practice arises from its members' engaging together in doing the work of teaching and related planning and administrative activities. Their ways of interacting and sharing their working knowledge will vary: some communities may be socially closer than others, some may have different ways of collaborating, some may already have a strong focus on teaching, others may have been focused on members' disciplinary interests. A local community's development may be influenced by changes in the requirements or expectations of the wider institution, or by a change in the balance of old-timers and newcomers in the group. My concern here is with the ways by which communities of practice can support their members in becoming effective teachers, and maintaining and passing on good teaching practice.

It is recommended that communities of teaching practice:

- Develop a conscious 'sense of community' through reflection, discussions and story-telling that make explicit, and challenge, the community's tacit assumptions about teaching, and record the evolution of its shared attitudes and practices.
- Coordinate the induction of new staff to their immediate community of practice and implement the institution's probationary processes. (With time the teacher is likely to become a member of other, overlapping communities.)
- Facilitate opportunities for new members to shadow experienced teachers, observe them teaching, team teach with them, and talk about their practice, to make tacit expertise more explicit.
- Provide mentoring and peer observation / feedback / evaluation for both newer and mid-career members of the community, so that learning is seen as ongoing and shared.
- Encourage members to maintain course and teaching portfolios, which may be used for collaborative reflection, as well as personal professional development, appraisal or promotion.
- Encourage border-crossing, through the involvement of members with other communities of practice, both inside and outside the institution, and sharing of learning that members bring back with them.

- Organise activities that bring members together to focus on teaching, such as curriculum development, development of resources, or sharing members' experiences and learning from conferences or external studies.
- Not rely on newcomers' attendance at EDU formal courses to be their only learning about teaching. Communities need to recognise that tacit, informal, situated learning will over time have a greater impact on teachers' attitudes and practices.

9.2.3 Recommendations for individual teachers

Both the case studies and the literature suggest that many teachers experience considerable isolation in their work. This may relate to divergent areas of work and specialisms within a group, personal factors, institutional structures - or a mix of such matters. The case studies and literature also show that communities vary in their levels of support for and engagement with individuals. Teachers therefore need to bring a sense of individual agency and professional responsibility to their work and an awareness that, while they will be working with and learning with and from colleagues, they will also be developing individual identities as teachers.

It is recommended that individual teachers:

- Recognise that becoming a teacher is a new venture and that developing expertise in the new domain of teaching will not be immediate: they need to allocate time for learning new ideas and skills.
- Identify the personal strengths they bring with them to their teaching work and to the community:
 - Content knowledge, experience and qualifications
 - Enthusiasm and passion – for their subject, for their students
 - Interpersonal and personal skills, especially in communication
 - Self-efficacy - confidence in their ability to cope and survive, to plan and control what they are doing
 - Success in 'learning about work' in previous workplace settings
- Recognise that much of their learning about teaching will be informal and tacit, and take opportunities to make this explicit: for example, take action to learn through 'doing the work'; identify problems and ask for help; emulate positive

role models; collaborate with colleagues to try out new things; reflect consciously, through keeping a log or journal.

- Participate actively in the institution's induction and probation processes, in order to learn how the institution and its systems function, what values and attitudes are commonly held, how people communicate, what other communities matter.
- Engage actively with colleagues, thus becoming a member of the community of practice and contributing to its continuation.
- Complement informal learning about teaching by seeking more formal knowledge, which can be gained through courses, conferences, seminars and the literature on learning and teaching in tertiary education.
- Treat learning as a normal part of the professional role as teacher, and therefore plan for professional development related to teaching, not just subject content.

9.2.4 Implementation of recommendations

Some key issues to consider in implementing those recommendations include:

- The need to encourage departmental or programme groups to see themselves explicitly, not just tacitly, as communities of *teaching* practice.
- The need to encourage such communities of practice to address the problems of how to maintain, improve, share and pass on their collective professional knowledge about teaching among established members, as well as inducting and supporting new members.
- The need for leadership, particularly from heads of departments, who have an important role in encouraging and supporting both existing and developing communities of practice, as shown by Knight and Trowler (2000, 2001).
- The clear allocation of responsibilities for different aspects of teacher development across the three levels of individual teacher, local community of practice, and the larger institutional community.
- The need to see new practices and changes in culture as part of an evolving and continuing process, with an expectation of continuing revision and adjustment as different communities work out their ways of doing things.
- Consideration of ways of introducing changes so that they are not seen as top-down, management-heavy impositions.

The following sections (9.3 and 9.4) discuss factors that might promote or challenge such developments in the case study institutions or other similar institutions.

9.3 Advantages of adopting a community of practice approach to tertiary teacher development

Situated learning in a community of practice is of value to both individuals and organisations because it is part of people's real work and therefore can be seen to be relevant. Informal learning in the workplace already happens, and should be strengthened if participation in work is reconceptualised and recognised as both a source and a form of learning, collaborative and individual, located in a community of practice. Much learning in and about tertiary teaching emerges from dealing with the problems and issues that arise in the course of work; once shared with colleagues it becomes part of the tacit knowledge held by that community.

Communities of teaching practice already exist in tertiary institutions, in the form of work groups such as departments, or programme teams, and 'organic' communities where members have found common interests. Communities where people are already associated and working together are well placed build on what already exists, and to negotiate and support members' deliberate planning for development, as well as their more informal learning. Support for individuals can be close to people's immediate needs in a community group, instead of being seen as a remote responsibility of the larger organisation.

'Apprenticeship' is a workplace concept relating to the induction and training of new members that can usefully be applied to situated learning in a community of practice. It implies that 'old-timers' and those with more expertise have a responsibility to contribute to the development of newcomers, and to continuity and development of practice. While the term has trade associations for some people, writers such as Gonczi (2001) and Beckett and Hager (2002) link apprenticeship to professional practice. The concept of cognitive apprenticeship is also useful, in providing a structure of support for newcomers in professional work settings. Such processes encourage more expert or experienced members of a community to make explicit for newcomers knowledge that is normally held tacitly about how to perform in the real world.

Professional values and attitudes are likely to develop more strongly where a community takes responsibility for the collaborative work of its members, instead of seeing teaching as a process carried out by isolated individuals. If a community of teaching practice sees itself as engaged in a professional endeavour, then a concern and desire for continuing professional development is likely to follow, rather than CPD requirements being seen as imposed by the wider institution. Not all learning will be undertaken as deliberate professional development, however: solving work problems, sharing solutions and working together all need to be recognised as tacit forms of learning. Most teachers belong to several overlapping communities, both within and outside their institution. People's participation in and movement between such communities also contributes to learning: 'border activity' not only stimulates a need for individual learning, but is a vehicle for passing knowledge between communities.

While Wenger's (1998, 2000) concept of community of practice is used here to support a framework for teacher development in institutional communities, other writers also support a departmental/disciplinary focus for educational development. Writers such as Gibbs (1996), Jenkins (1996), Hicks (1999), Stefani and Elton (2002) and Shulman (2004) all argue that staff development focused on teachers' disciplinary groups (communities) has advantages, through building on existing areas of shared interest or practice. Much planning and budgeting is also done in departmental groups. Trowler and Knight (2000) have shown that measures can be adopted (including pro-active leadership) that put conscious effort into acknowledging the departmental community's teaching values and the role of members in sharing and developing their practice.

The need to promote the idea of recognising the informal learning that goes on in communities of practice, and to provide support for such groups, indicates an important role for EDUs. At present many EDU activities mainly reach individual teachers who attend central, generic (decontextualised) courses and seminars, or who seek advice from EDU staff. There is potential, however, for EDU resources to be focused more activities with communities instead of individuals. Thus they would contribute to distributed teacher development through providing consultation, liaison, training and courses with departments (or other communities of practice). EDU staff would also be able to act as 'border brokers' between communities with similar interests.

Overall, the idea of learning through work, and doing so in the context of a collegial community of teachers, is relevant for the staff of tertiary teaching institutions. The case studies show that many aspects are already in place, but often not recognised, and not integrated for greater cumulative effect. Where existing communities of practice are flourishing and proactive, they should be recognised as early adopters and opinion leaders: how institutions might spread their ideas and practices to other communities would depend on their particular organisational contexts.

9.4 Challenges of adopting a community of practice approach to tertiary teacher development

While the positive aspects of a community of practice offer hope for change and development, possible difficulties should also be acknowledged. For example, there are hints in the case studies that not all teachers' communities of practice are warm and friendly, cooperative and collegial (as observed elsewhere by Brown and Duguid, 1993, and Wenger, 2000). Traditional management patterns may not support the collegiality, reciprocity and negotiating that are part of the social learning systems that Wenger envisages, and may sustain power inequalities that affect group relationships.

Not all communities or their individual members consciously think about continuity and development of practice from past to future. This is more likely to be so where a sense of community is loose and tacit, or perhaps diffused through people's membership of multiple communities in a large organisation. Not all old-timers see it as their responsibility to induct, support, train, coach or mentor newcomers in a community of practice, particularly if such responsibilities are not an allocated part of a person's work in a hierarchical organisation.

In some workplaces collaboration may be limited or not possible, and workplace structures may also limit opportunities for learning. The case study institutions, for example, made no provision for newly appointed teachers to have a reduced workload, or release from teaching time to attend introductory courses; and they did not pay part-time staff to attend training or staff meetings. The efficacy of a community of practice may be limited by an absence of expertise, as might be seen in teachers with a limited range of teaching strategies, or too much focus on course content. If such outcomes

represent the accepted practices and attitudes in a community, then low levels of expertise in teaching may be self-perpetuating unless some change or intervention occurs – such as increased support from EDU or from a pro-active head of department. Learning from other people also depends on interpersonal encounters: the isolation of some teachers has been noted, in both the literature and the case studies, and is a factor to consider here. Few teachers in the case studies had engaged in team teaching or had regular opportunities to observe others teaching.

If a community of practice does not already value teaching expertise, and teaching is seen as a concern of the individual rather than the group, then recommending that the community should give increased attention to members' learning about teaching involves a significant change in the culture. Such change is likely to be resisted if it perceived as imposed by management. Communities of practice do evolve and develop over time, however, and so the current status of any given community need not be assumed to be rigidly fixed.

9.5 Further research

Taking account of what has emerged in the literature on workplace learning and tacit knowledge since about 2000, proposals that would build on this present study include:

- A follow-up study of the experiences of recently appointed teachers in New Zealand tertiary institutions, with a more longitudinal research design, to complement the findings of this thesis project.
- A study of group leadership, focusing particularly on interviews with heads of department in tertiary institutions.
- Case studies of effective departments or programme teams as communities of teaching practice.
- An action research project with a group that has several new members, looking at how existing practices are passed on to newcomers, and how new practices are developed and adopted.
- A study that examines more explicitly the influence of books, articles and conference papers as sources of ideas, beliefs and practices for tertiary teachers, and how such ideas are shared and passed on within communities.

- An edited collection of narratives, gathering individuals' reflections on the concept of community of practice, and their perceptions of a common community of teaching practice they all belong to.
- An area that is urgently in need of research is an investigation into the effects on teaching of Performance Based Research Funding (PBRF). The introduction of PBRF in 2003 in NZ tertiary institutions, especially universities, has led to significant change in the funding of research. PBRF was not a factor at the time of data collection for this study, but anecdotal reports suggest it is now putting increased emphasis on research development and achievements, at the expense of the perceived status of teaching.

9.6 Summing up

'Situated learning in a community of practice' (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998, 2000) has proved relevant as a way of interpreting and explaining the informal workplace learning that teachers in the case studies had experienced in their various contexts. After spending many years involved with an educational development unit, and with formal courses for tertiary teachers, and in the light of the initial literature review, I earlier thought this thesis might end by focusing on formal teaching qualifications. As the analysis has progressed, however, and as I have become familiar with the growing literature relating to community of practice and workplace learning, I have come to conclude that stronger and more explicit support for teacher's informal learning is more important – and is achievable. Applying the concept of community of practice to teachers' communities therefore provided the basis for the recommendations above.

Although the recommendations were developed from consideration of three specific case studies, they are presented as general statements that can be applied in different ways to suit different institutional contexts. That means the key ideas can be transferred to institutions other than those in the case studies. The concept of community of teaching practice is not, of course, unique to the case study institutions. What is new is the proposal that it be used as the theoretical basis for institutions to shape a system or framework of mutual responsibilities, in order to provide integrated support for tertiary teachers' development - especially the informal aspects of their workplace learning. Details of implementation would have to be worked out in different institutional

contexts and communities to suit their ways of doing things. As Knight and Trowler (2000, p. 69) have said:

Desirable change is most likely to be achieved in collective and collaborative ways, which means that change processes are contingent and contextualised, and that outcomes are unpredictable and fuzzy.

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Appendix A

Extract from Education Amendment Act (1990)

1990, No. 60

Education Amendment

33

“(4) In recommending to the Governor-General under subsection (2) of this section that a body should be established as a college of education, a polytechnic, a university, or a wananga, the Minister shall take into account—

“(a) That universities have all the following characteristics and other tertiary institutions have one or more of those characteristics:

“(i) They are primarily concerned with more advanced learning, the principal aim being to develop intellectual independence:

“(ii) Their research and teaching are closely interdependent and most of their teaching is done by people who are active in advancing knowledge:

“(iii) They meet international standards of research and teaching:

“(iv) They are a repository of knowledge and expertise:

“(v) They accept a role as critic and conscience of society; and

“(b) That—

“(i) A college of education is characterised by teaching and research required for the pre-school, compulsory and post-compulsory sectors of education, and for associated social and educational service roles:

“(ii) A polytechnic is characterised by a wide diversity of continuing education, including vocational training, that contributes to the maintenance, advancement, and dissemination of knowledge and expertise and promotes community learning, and by research, particularly applied and technological research, that aids development:

“(iii) A university is characterised by a wide diversity of teaching and research, especially at a higher level, that maintains, advances, disseminates, and assists the application of, knowledge, develops intellectual independence, and promotes community learning:

“(iv) A wananga is characterised by teaching and research that maintains, advances, and disseminates knowledge and develops intellectual independence, and assists the application of knowledge regarding ahuatanga Maori (Maori tradition) according to tikanga Maori (Maori custom).

Appendix B

Development of focus group questions in relation to the main research questions

Note: These questions were planned at an early stage in 1999, before community of practice emerged from the interviews and on-going literature review as a major interest.

In the end only a pilot focus group was held, as responses from potential participants at distant institutions were too low for groups to proceed. The questions below were therefore used in extending the questionnaire sent to potential interview participants, and in the interview schedules.

Research questions identified from the literature review	Related focus group questions
<p>1. What is teaching like in some typical tertiary institutions in New Zealand? <i>Related questions:</i> What do representative institutions' public statements and policies say about teaching and teachers?</p> <p>What do some experienced tertiary teachers say about teaching in their contexts?</p> <p>What are some differences and similarities in perceptions of teaching found in the communities of practice to which tertiary teachers belong?</p>	<p><i>Not addressed in focus group planning</i></p> <p>A. If I ask you to describe some characteristics of effective tertiary teachers you know or have known, what sorts of things come to mind? What was special or distinctive about the best tertiary teachers you have known?</p> <p>B. What sorts of things are considered "good teaching" in your institution / department? Is there common agreement on these? Are they taken for granted, eg in appraisal? Do you think good teaching may be different in different subject areas, eg in the contexts of engineering or computing or language or design classes?</p>

Table continued overleaf

<p>2. What do some experienced tertiary teachers in those institutions say about how they have developed as teachers? <i>Related questions:</i> What have been their experiences of teacher education and development? What other experiences have contributed to their development of teaching knowledge and practice? What are their perceptions of working in a community of teaching practice? <i>(This issue emerged from interviews and later literature)</i></p>	<p><i>Most of this will come from individual interviews</i></p> <p>C. Do you think you see different stages that tertiary teachers pass through as they progress in their teaching careers? Do they seem to move from “novice” to “expert”? What sorts of activities or attitudes would indicate teachers were at various stages?</p> <p>How much do you think expertise in teaching matters, compared with knowledge of your subject matter, or skill in your occupation / profession, or advancing your research?</p> <p><i>Not addressed in focus group planning</i></p>
<p>C. What provisions do those institutions currently make for the teacher education and development of their academic staff? <i>Related questions</i> How do the policies and procedures of those institutions support or constrain staff in their development as teachers? How do the educational development units and/or staff developers of those institutions support or constrain staff in their development as teachers? (Questions E and F relate also to research question 2, above.) What are some influences in the contexts of those institutions that may encourage or inhibit teacher development?</p>	<p><i>Not addressed in focus group planning</i></p> <p>D. How much do you think professional development can do to improve the teaching skills or expertise of tertiary teachers? What other things help people to develop expertise as tertiary teachers?</p> <p>E. How much do you think comes from ideas or activities people learn specifically in professional development, or teacher education courses, or from publications about teaching or education?</p> <p>F. How much do you think comes from tacit knowledge or habits that people “pick up” during their teaching experiences - from observing colleagues, or conversations, or things they read, or trial-and-error in classes?</p> <p><i>Not addressed in focus group planning</i></p>

Appendix C**Survey questionnaire 2, after decision not to proceed with initial focus groups***Massey letterhead***Research Project: Tertiary Teachers' Perceptions of Expertise in Teaching****Researcher: Alison Viskovic, PhD student, Massey University****Survey Questionnaire**

I am a senior lecturer at Massey University at Wellington, where I am Programme Leader of the BEd programme for tertiary teachers and do academic development work. I am also a registered PhD student of Massey University, carrying out research into tertiary teachers' perceptions of expertise in teaching. My planned research procedure has been approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, and I have permission from your own institution to carry out research involving its staff members.

The overall research focus is on people's ideas about what counts as "good teaching", and how those ideas relate to their development as teachers. This questionnaire is being used instead of the focus group meetings earlier proposed, to gain an initial overview of the background of some experienced teachers in several different types of tertiary institution in New Zealand, and some of their perceptions about teaching. Material gained from the questionnaire will be used in planning for semi-structured, individual interviews to be used in the next stage of the research.

While the questionnaire asks for some personal information, the data from all participants will be collated and reported in summary form only, so that no person or their institution will be able to be identified in the final thesis or any articles I write. The survey forms will be stored safely, and destroyed at the end of the project. Contact details are requested only for the purposes of providing participants with a summary of the collated survey information, and follow-up contact with people willing to participate in an interview at a later date.

Your completion and return of this survey will be taken as your consent for me to use the data supplied for the stated research purposes. If you have any queries, please don't hesitate to get in touch with me or my supervisor - see contact details below.

I hope you will agree to take some time to fill in the form, as it is part of a series of different ways of gathering related data. Thank you very much for your participation and contribution.

Please return the survey to me in the stamped addressed envelope provided,

by Monday 28 February 2000.

Researcher: Alison Viskovic
 Phone: 04 - 801 2794, ext. 8713
 Fax: 04 - 801 2697
 Email: A.R.Viskovic@massey.ac.nz

Supervisor: Dr Janet Davies
 Phone: 06 - 351 3364
 Fax: 06 - 351 3385
 Email: J.R.Davies@massey.ac.nz

Research Project: Tertiary Teachers' Perceptions of Expertise in Teaching

Please tick the appropriate box after each question, or write your answer in the space provided. The term "tertiary teacher" is intended to include any lecturers, tutors, trainers or adult educators working with learners in post-school contexts.

1. Respondent Code Number:..... *(to be filled in by researcher)*

2. Which age group (below) are you in?

20 - 29 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
30 - 39 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
40 - 49 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
50 - 59 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
60 years and over	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. What is your gender?

Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
------	--------------------------	--------	--------------------------

4. Which ethnic group do you mainly identify with?
(If you wish to identify your origin in more detail, there is space to write that in)

Pakeha / European	<input type="checkbox"/>
Maori	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pacific Island	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (please specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. How long have you been involved in tertiary teaching?

2 - 4 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
5 - 10 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
Over 10 years	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

6. What is your current employment status as a tertiary teacher, or teacher of adults?

Full-time, tenured	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Full-time, untenured or limited tenure contract	<input type="checkbox"/>
Part-time or pro rata	<input type="checkbox"/>
Voluntary	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other, please specify	<input type="checkbox"/>
.....	

7. What type of institution do you currently teach in?

- University
- Polytechnic
- Wananga

8. Please list courses/papers you taught in 1999, and tick the relevant boxes:

<i>Course title</i> <i>Theory</i>	<i>Mainly</i> <i>Practical</i>	<i>Mainly</i> <i>Theory/Practical</i>	<i>Mixed</i>
.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

9. In your teaching subject area, please list (a) your qualifications; (b) your work experience:

- (a)
- (b)
-

10. Please tick any of the following types of formal qualifications for teaching that you hold, (bearing in mind that actual names of qualifications may vary from those given):

- DipTeach or BEd for early childhood or school teaching
- Certificate in Adult Teaching (short "CAT" course)
- Certificate in Tertiary Teaching (1 year FT equivalent)
- Diploma in Adult Learning and Teaching (2 year ")
- Bachelor of Education for tertiary teachers (3 year ")
- PostGrad Certificate in Higher Education (2-paper)
- PostGrad Diploma in Higher Education (4-paper)
- Other or incomplete qualification (please specify below)

.....

11. Do you belong to any societies or associations concerned with tertiary teaching?

- Yes
- No
- If yes, please specify below:

.....

12. Below are listed some approaches to education and professional development commonly used to help people develop skills and knowledge related to tertiary teaching.

Please tick boxes in:

Column A for any of these methods you have already experienced;

Column B for those that are effective for you or suit your learning style;

Column C for any you do not enjoy or do not find effective.

	A. Experienced	B. Effective for you	C. Not preferred
a. Attending induction workshops	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Attending seminars or short courses	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Getting feedback on observed teaching	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Being mentored by a colleague	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. Developing a teaching portfolio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. Reading literature on learning and teaching	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g. Completing a tertiary teaching qualification	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h. Doing an action research project in teaching	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
i. Using systematic reflective practice	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
j. Using an innovative teaching grant	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
k. Using study leave to focus on teaching	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
l. Responding to formal student feedback	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
m. Other, please specify:			
.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please use the spaces below the following open questions to reflect on the issues raised - your responses need not be direct answers to the questions.

I am interested in your initial reactions and ideas – these topics will be explored in more detail with the people who take part in interviews.

Feel free to leave any area blank if you prefer not to respond.

13. What is your overall impression of organised professional development for teaching?

14. Item 12 looked at some examples of professional development. However, people also gain knowledge or skills from less formal experiences. Please reflect on aspects of your teaching practice you may have learnt in other ways, and give some examples.

15. If I ask you to describe some characteristics of effective tertiary teachers you know or have known, what sorts of things come to mind? It may help if you think about what is distinctive about the best tertiary teachers you have known (as a student or colleague).

16. From the list you gave in response to Qu. 8, please name one course you particularly enjoy teaching, and describe the sorts of things you think are examples of “good teaching” in it.

17. Please reflect briefly on ways your institution shows that it values its staff’s expertise in **teaching** (ie not subject knowledge, occupational skills or research activities).

18. Are you willing to be involved in stage two of this research project? This will involve a smaller number of people, who will be asked to participate in individual interviews with the researcher, to be arranged at a time and place to suit you.
Yes No

19. Would you like to receive a summary of the collated survey results?
Yes No

If “Yes” to either of the last two questions, please provide your contact details below:

Name:

Address:.....

.....

Email: Day Phone:

Thank you very much for taking the time to fill in this survey.

Semi-structured interviews with individual teachers - Starter questions

Main Questions	Follow-up and extension of main questions	<i>Areas to listen for, prompt where appropriate or raise later on - NOT unique to these boxes, may well overlap others</i>
<p>1. <i>Introduction - after greeting, explaining session, getting consent form signed, permission to tape, etc</i></p> <p>I'd like you to tell me what sort of (tertiary) teacher you think you are</p>	<p><i>Pratt's questions on beliefs, eg:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Do you have a particular conviction or set of beliefs that are important to your teaching now? * Can you think of a motto or metaphor that guides you in your teaching? 	<p>Listen for links to Pratt's five perspectives, or Prosser and Trigwell conceptions of teaching, or similar from literature, eg Ramsden's three (transmission, organising student activity, making learning possible). Listen also for links to conceptions of learning.</p>
<p>2. <i>Developing expertise</i></p> <p>Would you tell me the story of how you developed into the teacher you are today</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * If you were starting out again, what would you like to be different in the way you were helped to develop as a tertiary teacher? * How has becoming a tertiary teacher been similar to / different from becoming (learning to be) an engineer / designer / computer person / communicator (as appropriate to individual)? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * What sorts of experience helped you most? * What hindered? * What or who helped you, or who did you see as a model? * Do you think you went through different stages of development as you became more skilled and confident? * <i>If yes to above</i>, can you remember examples of attitudes or activities you associate with particular stages of your development? How could you tell when you had moved on? * How have you changed as a teacher over the years? * What advice would you offer to a beginning teacher? 	<p><i>Stages in developing expertise</i></p> <p>Listen for links to ideas on novice and expert, eg</p> <p>Dreyfus novice to expert model: <i>Novice</i> - follow rules, little situational perception <i>Adv. Beginner</i> - action based on guidelines for separate aspects of situations <i>Competent</i> - conscious planning, routines, longer-term goals, coping with crowdedness <i>Proficient</i> - see situations holistically, less laboured decision-making <i>Expert</i> - intuitive grasp of situations, deep tacit understanding, analytic approach used only for novel situations or when problems occur. In later analysis look also for links to Chi's indicators of expert performance</p> <p><i>Pratt's Perspectives?</i></p>

Main Questions	Follow-up and extension of main questions	<i>Areas to listen for, prompt where appropriate or raise later on - NOT unique to these boxes, may well overlap others</i>
<p>3. <i>Thinking about practice</i></p> <p>* Please choose one of your favourite courses / papers and talk through how you taught it last time - and how you plan to teach it next time around.</p>	<p>* Do some things stay much the same each time you teach this paper / course? Examples? Why?</p> <p>* Do some things tend to change each time you teach this paper / course? Examples? Why?</p> <p>* What are the most difficult aspects, and how do you deal with them?</p> <p>* Next time I visit, could I look at some of your planning and teaching materials for this course; and could I sit in on one or two teaching sessions in this or other courses, to get the feel of your students and the sorts of things you do with them?</p> <p><i>Pratt's questions on Intentions, eg:</i> What are you trying to accomplish with your teaching? How do you know when you are successful with your teaching? Who are the difficult or challenging learners? How do you handle those situations?</p>	<p>Listen for references to prescriptions or learning outcomes, considering students, selecting / sequencing content, choosing teaching strategies and resources, assessment, feedback to students, evaluation, etc...</p> <p>Listen for rule-following / identifying and making choices / considering consequences / problem-solving strategies / intuition / reflection on feelings / reflection on assumptions, tacit knowledge...</p> <p>Listen again for links to Pratt's five perspectives, or Prosser and Trigwell conceptions of teaching, or similar from literature, eg Ramsden's three (transmission, organising student activity, making learning possible).</p>

Main Questions	Follow-up and extension of main questions	<i>Areas to listen for, prompt where appropriate or raise later on - NOT unique to these boxes, may well overlap others</i>
<p>4. <i>Critical incidents and reflection:</i></p> <p>* What would be a critical incident for you, in a teaching situation? Can you describe two or three examples and how you reacted to them? For each, would you do similar things if that incident occurred again?</p>	<p>*What influenced you in dealing with that situation?</p> <p>* Where do you think your responses to such incidents come from?</p> <p>* What is your reaction to the idea of the reflective practitioner?</p> <p>* Is reflection something you associate with “good teaching” or “being professional”? > why, or why not?</p> <p>*For you, is reflection something that happens more during or after teaching? (<i>or both?</i>)</p> <p>* <i>Intuition, reflection, professionalism:</i> what are your reactions to the use of those words in association with tertiary teaching?</p>	<p>Listen for comments on reflection-<u>in</u>-action and reflection-<u>on</u>-action, and whether linked to intuition / experience / expertise / professionalism</p> <p>Listen for ideas or activities learned from professional development, or teacher education courses, or books or journals about teaching or education.</p> <p>Listen for ideas or habits “picked up” during teaching experiences - from observing colleagues, or from conversations, or from being a student experiencing others’ teaching</p> <p>Listen for rule-following / identifying and making choices / considering consequences / problem-solving strategies / intuition / reflection on feelings / reflection on assumptions, tacit knowledge...</p>

Main Questions	Follow-up and extension of main questions	<i>Areas to listen for, prompt where appropriate or raise later on - NOT unique to these boxes, may well overlap others</i>
<p><i>5. Professional development</i></p> <p>Linking back to your story about how you developed as a teacher, can we talk a bit more about your ideas on professional development for teaching:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * What is your attitude now towards professional development for teaching? * What would make you decide to undertake some PD focused on teaching rather than your subject / discipline area? * Do you think participating in PD has influenced what you think of as “good teaching”? If so, in what ways? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * What aspects of teaching do you think professional development is most likely to help with? * What has helped you most in becoming a teacher - is that what you would recommend to others? * If you were asked to support a new colleague, what forms of help would you recommend? * What sort(s) of professional development would you most like to take up now, assuming money and time were not problems? Why / why not? * Why do you think some teachers are keen to participate in professional development for teaching while others rarely do so? 	<p>Listen for relationships <i>both ways</i> between professional development and their teaching - eg:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Do they seek professional development because they value good teaching and think PD will improve it? - Have their beliefs about what constitutes “good teaching” been influenced by participating in professional development? <p>Listen for suggestions of informal situated learning in the workplace, community of practice (teaching-focused) in a group / dept / institution.</p> <p>Listen for dept-focused professional development as well as individual development, linking community of practice to more organised activities, not just informal learning in the situation.</p> <p>Awareness of self as a learner?</p>

Main Questions	Follow-up and extension of main questions	<i>Areas to listen for, prompt where appropriate or raise later on - NOT unique to these boxes, may well overlap others</i>
<p>6. <i>Context questions:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * We've been using the term "professional" in relation to development - how much do you think of tertiary teaching as a profession? * What do you think is "good teaching" in your department or institution? * How does a newly appointed tertiary teacher become part of the "culture" of your department or institution? * Does your <i>department</i> support the development of good teaching? If yes, how does it do this? * Does your <i>institution</i> support the development of good teaching? If yes, how does it do this? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * What do you see as attributes of a profession, and how does tertiary teaching "sit" with those? * Does it matter whether people see tertiary teaching as a profession? Are there implications for entry, initial training, on-going development, professional responsibilities, ethics? * Have things you have done changed or influenced "good teaching" practice in your subject or department? Examples? * How do tertiary teachers learn about teaching "on the job" in your department or institution? What induction was available to help you into the job? * Are there subject areas or dept or institutional practices that help or hinder development of good teaching? * Are there differences between subject team / wider dept / whole institution in support or focus? 	<p>Listen again for suggestions of situated learning in the workplace, community of practice (teaching-focused) in a group / department / institution.</p> <p>Link to ideas about professions, to link to education for professions (Eraut et al)</p> <p>Link later to the institutional documentation for comparison between policies, practice and perceptions.</p>

Appendix E

Semi-structured interviews with educational developers - Starter questions

Main Questions	Follow-up and extension of main questions	<i>Areas to listen for, prompt where appropriate or raise later on - NOT unique to these boxes, may well overlap others</i>
<p>1. Introduction - after greeting, explaining session, getting consent form signed, permission to tape, etc</p> <p>What do you think is considered “good teaching” in this institution?</p>	<p>* If you think of people in this institution who are considered really good teachers, what is distinctive about their teaching behaviours?</p> <p>* What proportion of those “good teachers” might have been involved at some time in your professional development activities or support?</p> <p>* How have the ones who did not participate in PD developed their teaching skills/knowledge/values?</p>	<p>Listen for links to Pratt’s five perspectives, or Prosser and Trigwell conceptions of teaching, or similar from literature, eg Ramsden’s three (transmission, organising student activity, making learning possible).</p> <p>Listen also for links to conceptions of learning.</p> <p>Listen for situated learning, communities of practice.</p>

<p><i>2. Developing expertise</i></p> <p>What is your overall approach to supporting the development of good teaching in this institution?</p> <p>How does that reflect institutional policy?</p> <p>How are you supported by the institution to do this work?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * What sort of balance is there between providing institution-wide seminars and courses, and providing departmental or individualised support? * Does the institution assume that most tertiary teachers develop informally through situated learning in a community of practice? Or that professional development is the responsibility of individual staff members? What are the implications of such assumptions? * What sorts of stages do you see people going through as they develop into experienced teachers? * If you perceive stages, how would they influence the sorts of professional development opportunities you might aim to provide? 	<p>Listen for links to education for professions, situated learning, professional development policies, self-directed learning, etc.</p>
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Main Questions	Follow-up and extension of main questions	<i>Areas to listen for, prompt where appropriate or raise later on - NOT unique to these boxes, may well overlap others</i>
<p><i>3. Thinking about practice</i></p> <p>What aspects of their own teaching practice are likely to stimulate staff to come to you for professional development?</p> <p>What departmental or institutional expectations or values are likely to encourage staff to come to you for professional development?</p>	<p>What are you trying to accomplish through professional development?</p> <p>How do you know when you are successful with your professional development?</p> <p>Who are the difficult or challenging staff members?</p> <p>How do you handle situations where students or HODs complain and suggest you should help specific staff members improve their teaching?</p>	<p>Listen for references to course planning, prescriptions or learning outcomes, considering students, selecting / sequencing content, choosing teaching strategies and resources, group management, assessment, feedback to students, evaluation, etc...</p> <p>Listen for modelling / rule-following / identifying and making choices / considering consequences / problem-solving strategies / intuition / reflection on feelings / reflection on assumptions, tacit knowledge...</p> <p>Listen for links to Pratt's five perspectives, or Prosser and Trigwell conceptions of teaching, or Ramsden's three (transmission, organising student activity, making learning possible).</p> <p>Listen for ideas about different sorts of teacher education / professional development for people at different stages in their careers.</p>

Main Questions	Follow-up and extension of main questions	<i>Areas to listen for, prompt where appropriate or raise later on - NOT unique to these boxes, may well overlap others</i>
<p><i>4. Critical incidents and reflection:</i></p> <p>Where has your own expertise as a professional developer come from, how has your own learning developed?</p> <p>What might be a critical incident for you in a professional development situation? Can you describe two or three examples and how you reacted to them? For each, would you do similar things if that incident occurred again?</p> <p>What is your attitude to the notion of the <i>reflective practitioner</i> for tertiary teachers?</p>	<p>*What influenced you in dealing with that situation?</p> <p>* Where do you think your responses to such incidents come from?</p> <p>* Is reflection something you associate with “good teaching”? being professional? intuition? > why, or why not?</p> <p>What about <i>critical</i> reflection? (challenging assumptions etc)</p>	<p>Listen for situated learning from experience, community of practice of staff developers. Listen for ideas or activities learned from professional development, or teacher education courses, or books or journals about teaching or education.</p> <p>Listen for rule-following / identifying and making choices / considering consequences / problem-solving strategies / intuition / reflection on feelings / reflection on assumptions, tacit knowledge...</p> <p>Listen for comments on reflection-<u>in</u>-action and reflection-<u>on</u>-action, and whether linked to intuition / experience / expertise / professionalism</p>

Main Questions	Follow-up and extension of main questions	<i>Areas to listen for, prompt where appropriate or raise later on - NOT unique to these boxes, may well overlap others</i>
<p><i>5. Professional development</i></p> <p>What sort(s) of professional development would you most like to introduce or expand or change in this institution, assuming money and time were not problems? Why?</p> <p>Thinking about staff you have worked with over the years, can you talk about any relationships you may see between people's values and beliefs about "good teaching" and their participation in professional development?</p> <p>Can you tell me about any examples of departments or groups of staff who consciously work together to develop their teaching?</p>	<p>* What aspects of teaching do you think professional development is most likely to influence?</p> <p>* Why do you think some teachers are keen to participate in professional development for teaching while others rarely do so?</p> <p>* <i>eg</i> Do they seek professional development because they value good teaching and think PD will improve it?</p> <p>* <i>or</i> Have their beliefs about what constitutes "good teaching" been influenced by participating in professional development?</p> <p>* To what extent have such groups sought help from staff development, or "done their own thing"?</p>	<p>Listen to links to education for professions (eg Eraut et al), and to teaching as a form of scholarship (Boyer, Glassick). Listen for links to moves towards accreditation of university teachers - UK, Australia. Balance of formal / informal development?</p> <p>ie. Listen for relationships <i>both ways</i> between professional development and their teaching</p> <p>Listen for suggestions of informal situated learning in the workplace, community of practice (teaching-focused) in a group / dept / institution.</p> <p>Listen for dept-focused professional development as well as individual development, linking community of practice to more organised activities, not just informal learning in the situation.</p>

Main Questions	Follow-up and extension of main questions	<i>Areas to listen for, prompt where appropriate or raise later on - NOT unique to these boxes, may well overlap others</i>
<p>6. <i>Context questions:</i></p> <p>* We've been using the term "professional" in relation to development - how much do you think of tertiary teaching as a profession?</p> <p>* How does a newly appointed tertiary teacher become part of the "culture" of this institution?</p>	<p>* What do you see as attributes of a profession, and how does tertiary teaching "sit" with those?</p> <p>* Does it matter whether people see tertiary teaching as a profession? Are there implications for entry, initial training, on-going development, professional responsibilities, ethics?</p> <p>* Are there examples of subject areas or dept or institutional practices that help or hinder development of good teaching?</p>	<p>Link to ideas about professions, to link to education for professions (Eraut et al)</p> <p>Link later to the institutional documentation for comparison between policies, practice and perceptions.</p> <p>Listen again for suggestions of situated learning in the workplace, community of practice (teaching-focused) in a group / department / institution.</p>

Appendix F

Record Sheet for teaching observations:

Part A: Pre-session

Date:

Name:

Institution:

Course/paper name:

Level, credits, and qualification the paper is part of:

Notes on type of students (information provided by teacher):

Topic(s) for the observed session:

Intended teaching techniques/approach:

Intended learning outcomes for this session (not course/paper as a whole)

B. Observation notes during session:

Notes on classroom or other teaching space:

Notes on teaching / learning aids used or available:

Notes on general tone of interactions, apparent type/level of learning if observable:

Notes on any specific incidents (see also tally sheet)

Part C

Discussion after observed session:

Teacher's reflection on how the session went in relation to pre-session statements:

Teacher responses to any specific questions from me:

Note written materials supplied (eg course handbooks, assessments, session plans):

Appendix G

Approval letter from MUHEC

Massey University Human Ethics Committee
c/- EXMSS House, Turitea

Telephone: 64 6 350 5799, extn 2360
Email: P.Dewe@massey.ac.nz
<http://www.massey.ac.nz/~muhec>



Private Bag 11 222,
Palmerston North,
New Zealand
Telephone: 64 6 356 9099

18 August 1999

Ms Alison R VISKOVIC
PG Student
Educational Studies & Community Support
HOKOWHITU

Dear Alison

Re: Human Ethics Application – MUHEC 99/105
“Tertiary Teachers' Perceptions of Expertise in Teaching”

Thank you for your letter of 12 August 1999 and the amended protocol and its attachments.

The amendments you have made and the information you have supplied now meet the requirements of the Massey University Human Ethics Committee and the ethics of your application are approved.

I would appreciate it that once you have letters of approval from the different institutions you are approaching that you forward copies of these letters to Miss Karen Kahukoti, c/- EXMSS House so that they can be placed on your file.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Philip Dewe".

Professor Philip J Dewe
Chairperson
Massey University Human Ethics Committee - Palmerston North

cc Dr Janet Burns
Educational Studies & Community Support
HOKOWHITU

Appendix H
Instruments submitted to and approved by MUHEC

Massey letterhead

RESEARCH INFORMATION SHEET

Research Project: Tertiary Teachers' Perceptions of Expertise in Teaching

Researcher: Alison Viskovic.

I am a senior lecturer at Massey University at Wellington, where I am Programme Leader of the BEd programme for tertiary teachers and also do academic development work. I am registered as a part-time PhD student at Massey University, studying the topic shown above. My research procedure for this project has been approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee.

Supervisors:

Chief Supervisor: Dr Janet Davies, Department of Educational Studies and Community Support, Massey University.

Second Supervisor: Dr Deborah Willis, University Teaching Development Centre, Victoria University of Wellington.

Contact Details: Alison Viskovic,
 Massey University at Wellington,
 Private Box 756, Wellington
 Phone: 04 - 8012497, ext 8713;
 Fax: 04 - 801 2697
 email: a.viskovic@wnp.ac.nz

Dr Janet Davies, Massey University,
 P O Box 11 222, Palmerston North
 Phone: 06 - 351 3364
 Fax 06 - 351 3385
 email: J.R.Burns@massey.ac.nz

Dr Deborah Willis, Victoria University of Wellington, P O Box
 600, Wellington
 Phone: 04 - 495 5233, ext 8869
 email: deborah.willis@vuw.ac.nz

Nature and Purpose of the Study:

The proposed research will investigate perceptions of expertise in teaching that are held by tertiary teachers, and relationships between those perceptions and teachers' participation in initial and continuing professional education for the teaching role. *(Extract from approved PhD proposal)*

My literature survey showed that, while studies of conceptions of teaching had been carried out, little had been reported on teachers' perceptions of expertise or "good teaching" in tertiary contexts. In my own work I am very involved with helping people to improve the quality of teaching, and I believe my research could contribute to what we know and do about professional development for teachers in post-compulsory education and training.

People who are being invited to participate

I want to find out what people think counts as "good teaching" in the contexts of three different New Zealand institutions: a university; a polytechnic; and a wananga or private training establishment (PTE). I plan to look at four discipline or subject areas within each institution: computing; engineering (or related trades); communication / languages; and design / fine arts. Three people from each subject area will be invited to join in – thus up to twelve people from each institution would form a focus group for the initial stage.

A smaller number of people from each focus group will be invited to continue to a later stage in the second year, when I would like to visit them for individual interviews and to observe their working contexts.

I will identify potential participants by asking Heads of Department to pass on to their staff my invitation to join a focus group. I am looking for people who have been teaching for at least two years (preferably more), have a reputation as good teachers in their own context, and some of whom have completed some staff development related to teaching.

If any person who agrees to participate is also a student enrolled in the BEd for tertiary teachers offered by Massey University at Wellington, I assure them that involvement in this research is entirely voluntary, and will in no way affect their course of study or its assessment.

Research methods to be used

I am planning a qualitative, interpretive approach, using the following methods:

- 1. An initial focus group discussion** in each institution, where members of its staff can talk with me about what they perceive as expertise in teaching in their own contexts, and their ideas about education and professional development for teaching. This discussion is to help broaden the research rather than limiting the exploration to my own initial ideas. The group discussions will be audio-taped provided that members

agree, and members will each receive a transcript afterwards to check and comment on. Results will be reported without identifying individuals or institution names.

2. A written questionnaire to each focus group member, to gain comparative data such as age, gender, ethnicity, subject area of teaching, teaching experience, professional development completed, etc. The results will be collated and reported in summaries and tables without identifying individuals or institutions.

3. Individual semi-structured interviews with a smaller number of people from the focus groups, ideally one from each subject area from each institution. The purpose of the interviews is to gain in-depth data about people's perceptions of teaching practice in their context, and their reflections on good teaching and professional development. If people agree, I would like to audio-tape the interviews; each person will be given a copy of the transcript of their interview and will be able to comment further or request changes. I also wish to interview educational developers.

I would visit people's own institutions for the interviews so that I can also observe their general working context, which means more than one interview per person might be involved in some instances in order to discuss matters I have observed.

4. Examination of institutional documents relating to teaching, for example:

- Mission or charter statements on the value of teaching;
- Policies and procedures relating to: staff appointment, promotion and appraisal, professional development, accredited teaching qualifications, awards for teaching excellence;
- Statements about teaching in any other quality processes.

I hope to obtain or examine such papers when make the visits for interviews.

How much time are participants asked to make available?

The initial focus groups will take about two hours, allowing time first for tea / coffee and meeting people. Those willing to join in will be given the opportunity to suggest dates and times that suit them for their meeting. I hope the groups will meet in November of 1999.

The survey questionnaire should not take more than about 15 minutes, and would be completed soon after the focus group meetings.

The individual interviews, for a smaller number of people willing to continue in the following year (2000), would take one to two hours in a structured session, plus some informal observation / discussion time over two or three days while I am visiting the institution.

Participants will be sent copies of transcripts to check, also summaries of findings from the focus groups and interviews; It is up to them how much time they wish to spend reading such materials, and whether they choose to send any further response to me.

Ethical Issues and Access

The proposed research methods have been provided in detail to and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee. I will seek permission from each

institution before approaching any staff members, and this Information Sheet will be available to everyone involved.

Confidentiality and Anonymity

Information given will be confidential to this research project and any publications arising from it.

No individuals or their institutions will be identified in the reporting of the research - only code numbers or fictitious names will be used.

All participants will be free to withdraw at any stage of the research, or to request that some or all of the data they supplied be not used. They may also refuse to answer any particular questions at any time.

Respondents may ask at any time for an audio-tape recorder to be turned off, whether in a focus group or interview.

All data will be securely stored and not made accessible to people other than the researcher and her two supervisors. Data from recorded tapes will be transcribed, either by the researcher or by a secretarial assistant contracted for that purpose, who will be required to sign a Confidentiality Agreement .

Focus group tapes will be destroyed on completion of the project; individual interview tapes will also be destroyed unless a person prefers to have the tape of their own interview(s) returned to them.

The research results will be reported in the final PhD thesis, and may also appear in related conference presentations, refereed journals or books. A summary of the research findings will be made available to any participants who wish to have a copy, and also to the institutions that agreed to the involvement of their staff.

Participants' Rights

Participants in this project have the right to:

- decline to participate
- refuse to answer any questions
- withdraw from the study at any stage
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation
- provide information on the understanding that their names will not be used
- ask that an audio-tape recorder be turned off at any time
- receive copies of transcripts of their interview tapes, and comment on them or request that some data be corrected or removed
- be given a summary of the findings of the study when it is completed.

Further Information

If you want any more information, please feel free to contact the researcher or the chief supervisor – details are on the front page.

Participation in Focus Group and Survey on Expertise in Tertiary Teaching

I have read the Information Sheet about Alison Viskovic's research project and the proposed processes to be followed, with safeguards for the rights of participants.

I am willing to participate in the focus group and related survey questionnaire, as described in the Information Sheet.

I understand that if too many participation offers are received, I may not be selected, and that I will be notified promptly whether or not my offer has been accepted.

I understand that I will be supplied with a full consent form to sign before proceeding, and that I may withdraw from the research process at any time.

Signed:.....

Date:.....

Your Name:.....

Institution Address:.....

.....

Phone:..... Email:.....

Discipline area:.....

Years in Tertiary Teaching:.....

Have you taken part in any staff development relating to tertiary teaching? **Yes / No**

Have you taken part in any formal courses of tertiary teacher education? **Yes / No**

(The questions above relate to matters such as teaching methods, course planning, assessments, resources, theories of learning and teaching, etc – not subject / content).

Please return this form in the supplied addressed envelope to:

**Alison Viskovic, Massey University at Wellington,
Private Box 756, Wellington.**

By Monday 20 September 1999

This form will be sent to people whose offer to participate in a focus group is accepted, with a letter thanking them and confirming their acceptance. Any person not accepted will also get a letter of thanks for offering, and telling them they will not be needed because numbers were filled.

Focus Group Arrangements

Please tick times that are most likely to suit you for a focus group meeting at your own institution, during the weeks **Monday 1 to Saturday 6 November**, or **Monday 8 to Saturday 13 November 1999**. I will try to identify a time that suits all those involved. If you wish to suggest particular timeslots within the boxes, please do so. I suggest that you anticipate a two-hour period, so that there is time for tea and coffee at the start and an opportunity to meet members of the group, before we move on the main discussion.

Your name:.....

	Morning	Afternoon	Early Evening
Monday			
Tuesday			
Wednesday			
Thursday			
Friday			
Saturday		xxxxxx	xxxxxx

Once I have collated all the responses, I will write to you to confirm the date, time and place for your focus group. I will also send you a short paper outlining some ideas the focus group may discuss.

If you have any queries, please feel free to contact me:

Phone: 04 – 801 2794, ext 8713

Fax: 04 – 801 2697

Email: alison.viskovic@wnp.ac.nz

Thank you very much for agreeing to take part in my project.

Alison Viskovic (*plus signature*)

Massey at Wellington Letterhead

Tel. 04 - 801 2794, ext. 8713

Fax 04 - 801 2697

email a.viskovic@wnp.ac.nz

date

The Chief Executive Officer

Institution

Address

...

Dear

Request to carry out research involving employees and documents of your institution

I am a senior lecturer at Massey University at Wellington, where I am an academic developer and Programme Leader of the BEd programme for tertiary teachers. I am also a PhD student registered with Massey University, and have gained the approval of the Massey University Human Ethics Committee (MUHEC) for a research process that involves gathering data from people through focus groups, a questionnaire and interviews. In addition I wish to gather data from institutional policy and procedure documents.

The enclosed Information Sheet explains details of the proposed process. I have identified your institution as representing one of three I wish to study, in order to gather the responses of tertiary teachers working in a typical university, polytechnic, and wananga or private training establishment.

The purpose of this letter is to request your permission, or that of your institution's research ethics committee, to:

- (a) Contact some of your Heads of Department for help in identifying potential participants (from whom I will select those finally invited), and your staff development department for help in arranging facilities to use for a focus group meeting;
 - (b) Invite some academic staff of your institution to take part in the project (via invitations distributed by the Heads of Department); also educational developers;
 - (c) Have access to copies of institutional documents relating to teaching quality, such as mission statements, policies and procedures for selection, development, appraisal and promotion of staff, or accreditation / audit criteria relating to teaching.
- I wish to examine these to gain a sense of the institution's attitudes to teaching and recognition of expertise in teaching.

I have enclosed copies of the following, which have been approved by the MUHEC:

1. Information Sheet for prospective research subjects, and invitation to participate.
2. Consent forms, for subjects who agree to participate in a focus group or interview.
3. Survey questionnaire.

The Information Sheet includes details about safeguards for the research participants. If you or your institution's ethics committee have any questions or further requirements I will be happy to address them. Once your approval to proceed has been given, and participants have been identified who are willing to take part, I would hope to conduct a focus group meeting at your institution during the first two weeks of November 1999. The follow-up interviews with a smaller number of the focus group participants would not take place until 2000 and would be negotiated at times to suit the participants.

Yours faithfully

Alison Viskovic

NOTE: A similar letter would be sent to the CEO of a wananga, but it would also ask what protocols such an institution would want a pakeha researcher to observe, whether a Maori co-researcher would be required, and whether additional focus groups rather than individual interviews might be considered more appropriate in that context.

Massey at Wellington Letterhead

Date (in October 1999)

The Head of Department

Institution

Address

Dear...

Request for assistance in conducting a research project on tertiary teaching

I am a senior lecturer at Massey University at Wellington, where I am an academic developer and Programme Leader of the BEd programme for tertiary teachers. I am also a PhD student registered with Massey University, and my research topic is “Tertiary Teachers’ Perceptions of Expertise in Teaching”.

The Massey University Human Ethics Committee has approved my research methods, and your institution has given me permission to contact you and members of your staff. Your department is one of four I am contacting, and I will be doing the same at two other types of institution.

I would be very grateful if you would agree to notify your staff of my project, and ask for a small number of people to volunteer to take part in a focus group meeting and a short survey questionnaire later in November. I have enclosed copies for you to distribute to staff of my invitation, an Information Sheet and response forms for people to reply direct to me – also stamped, addressed envelopes for their replies.

I hope to find three people from your staff who are teaching in the area of [*subject*], who have been teaching for at least two years (but preferably more); who are considered good teachers in your context (for example as indicated by student evaluations, appraisals or perhaps teaching excellence awards); and at least some of whom have done some professional development or educational courses concerned with aspects of tertiary teaching. Next year I hope one of them would be willing to be interviewed further in stage two of the project.

The Information Sheet contains details about safeguards for the research participants. I hope to conduct the focus group at your institution on 24 or 25 November 1999, at a time to be negotiated to suit the participants once they have been identified.

I will be very happy to provide participants and your department with a copy of my research findings. If you have any questions you would like to ask me before you pass my request on to your staff, please don’t hesitate to contact me:

Phone 04 – 801 2794, ext. 8713; email alison.viskovic@wnp.ac.nz

Yours faithfully

Alison Viskovic

Massey at Wellington Letterhead

Tel. 04 - 801 2794, ext. 8713

Fax 04 - 801 2697

email a.viskovic@wnp.ac.nz

date...

To Academic Staff Teaching in *(subject area)*

Invitation to participate in a focus group and survey about tertiary teaching

I am a registered PhD student of Massey University, carrying out research into tertiary teachers' perceptions of expertise. My planned research procedure has been approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee. I have also gained consent from your own institution to carry out research involving staff members.

I have attached an **Information Sheet** about the research project, and will be happy to answer further questions if you wish to contact me.

I hope you will offer to be one of the participants in the first stage, involving one focus group meeting and a survey questionnaire. Although this material has been distributed by your Head of Department, you are assured of anonymity - I will not tell anyone else whether you are one of the final participants.

I have enclosed a **response form** you can use to let me know if you are willing to participate, together with a reply-paid envelope.

I am seeking three participants from each subject area. If there are too many offers in some subject areas I will not be able to accept them all: I will therefore let people know promptly whether or not they have been selected for the project. I will then consult those selected, in order to find a mutually convenient time for the focus group meeting.

I realise that giving up time to contribute to a focus group and survey is a lot to ask of busy people, but do hope that you will consider it - I believe the findings will add to our understanding of how tertiary teachers develop their expertise. I also think you would find the focus group discussion an interesting and thought-provoking event. I will be happy to give you a summary of the final research findings, and to make a copy available to your institution.

Yours sincerely

Alison Viskovic

(Massey University Letterhead)

**Research Project:
Tertiary Teachers' Perceptions of Expertise in Teaching**

**Researcher:
Alison Viskovic**

CONSENT FORM FOR FOCUS GROUP PARTICIPANTS

I have read the Information Sheet and have had details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and to decline to answer any particular questions.

I agree to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that my name and institution will not be identified in the research reporting, and that the information will be used only for this research and publications arising from this research.

I agree / do not agree to the focus group discussion being audio taped for later transcription, and understand that if any part is taped I will be given a copy of the transcript and later a summary of findings.

I understand that I have the right to ask for the audio-tape to be turned off at any time when I am talking during the focus group discussion.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signed:

Name:

Date:

(Massey at Wellington Letterhead)

**Research Project:
Tertiary Teachers' Perceptions of Expertise in Teaching**

**Researcher:
Alison Viskovic**

CONSENT FORM FOR INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS

I have read the Information Sheet and have had details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and to decline to answer any particular questions.

I agree to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that my name and institution will not be identified in the research reporting, and that the information will be used only for this research and publications arising from this research.

I agree / do not agree to the interview(s) being audio-taped. I understand that if it is taped I will be given a copy of the transcript and later a summary of findings.

I understand that I have the right to ask for the audio-tape to be turned off at any time during the interview(s).

I agree / do not agree to the researcher observing a sample class being taught by me in order to become aware of my working context.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signed:

Name:

Date:

(Massey at Wellington Letterhead)

**Research Project:
Tertiary Teachers' Perceptions of Expertise in Teaching**

**Researcher:
Alison Viskovic**

TRANSCRIBER CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

I have read the Information Sheet and have had details of the study explained to me.

I agree to transcribe accurately into text the contents of audiotapes recorded by Alison Viskovic during focus group discussions and/or individual interviews as part of the research project named above.

I agree to store tapes and transcripts securely while they are in my possession so that other people cannot gain access to them. The transcription work will be done at a location where no other person can see the transcript or hear the audiotape while I am working.

I agree to maintain full confidentiality regarding the content of the transcribed material.

I will return all audiotapes to Alison Viskovic, and provide her with the transcripts in both disk and paper form.

I will not retain a copy of the transcript in any form once Alison Viskovic confirms that she has received the tapes, disk and paper copies from me.

I will not discuss the material with any other person, or give any person other than Alison Viskovic a copy of the transcript or the audiotape.

Signed:

Name:

Address:

Date:

Massey Letterhead

RESEARCH INFORMATION SHEET

(Version Two, used after decision not to proceed with focus groups)

Research Project: Tertiary Teachers' Perceptions of Expertise in Teaching

Researcher: Alison Viskovic.

I am a senior lecturer at Massey University at Wellington, where I am Programme Leader of the BEd programme for tertiary teachers and also do academic development work. I am registered as a part-time PhD student at Massey University, studying the topic shown above. My research procedure for this project has been approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee.

Supervisors:

Chief Supervisor: Dr Janet Davies, Department of Technology, Mathematics and Science Education, Massey University.

Second Supervisor: Dr Deborah Willis, University Teaching Development Centre, Victoria University of Wellington.

Contact Details: Alison Viskovic,
Massey University at Wellington,
Private Box 756, Wellington
Phone: 04 - 8012497, ext 8713;
Fax: 04 - 801 2697
email: A.R.Viskovic@massey.ac.nz

Dr Janet Davies, Massey University,
P O Box 11 222, Palmerston North
Phone: 06 - 351 3364
Fax 06 - 351 3385
email: J.R.Davies@massey.ac.nz

Dr Deborah Willis, Victoria University of Wellington, P O Box
600, Wellington
Phone: 04 - 495 5233, ext 8869
email: deborah.willis@vuw.ac.nz

Nature and Purpose of the Study:

The proposed research will investigate perceptions of expertise in teaching that are held by tertiary teachers, and relationships between those perceptions and teachers' participation in initial and continuing professional development and education for the teaching role. *(Extract from approved PhD proposal)*

My literature survey showed that, while some studies of conceptions of teaching had been carried out, little had been reported on teachers' perceptions of expertise or "good teaching" in tertiary contexts. In my own work I am very involved with helping people to improve the quality of teaching, and I believe my research could contribute to what we know and do about professional development for teachers in post-compulsory education and training.

People who are being invited to participate

I want to find out what people think about "good teaching" in the contexts of three different New Zealand institutions: a university, a polytechnic and a wananga. I plan to look at four discipline or subject areas within each institution: computing; engineering (or related trades); communication / languages; and design / fine arts. Prospective participants from each area will be invited to respond to an initial survey questionnaire. From that group a smaller number will be invited to continue to a later stage, in which I would like to visit them for individual interviews and to observe their working contexts. Staff developers would also be interviewed.

I will identify potential "subject-area" participants by asking Heads of Department to pass on to their staff my invitation to join the project. I am looking for people who have been teaching for at least two years (preferably more), have a reputation as good teachers in their own context, and some of whom have completed some staff development related to teaching.

If any person who agrees to participate is also a student enrolled in the BEd for tertiary teachers offered by Massey University at Wellington, I assure them that involvement in this research is entirely voluntary, and will in no way affect their course of study or assessment.

Research methods to be used

I am planning a qualitative, interpretive approach, using the following methods *:

- 1. A written survey questionnaire** to be distributed by Heads of Department to their staff, seeking volunteers willing to participate in my project. This will provide information such as age, gender, ethnicity, subject area of teaching, teaching experience, professional development completed, initial ideas about teaching, etc. The results will be collated and reported in summaries and tables without identifying individuals or institutions. One question will ask for volunteers for the next stage, individual interviews, and the survey responses will be also be used to help select which of those people will be interviewed.

2. Individual semi-structured interviews with a smaller number of people from those initially surveyed, ideally one teacher from each subject area from each institution. The purpose of the interviews is to gain in-depth data about people's perceptions of teaching practice in their context, and their reflections on good teaching and professional development. If people agree, I would like to audio-tape the interviews; each person will be given a copy of the transcript of their interview and will be able to comment further or request changes.

I would visit people's own institutions for the interviews so that I can also observe their general working context. More than one interview per person might be involved in some instances, in order to discuss matters I have observed.

I also plan to interview the academic staff developers in each institution, to gain another perspective on the institution's policies and practices in developing teaching quality.

3. Examination of institutional documents relating to teaching, for example:

- Mission or charter statements on the value of teaching;
- Policies and procedures relating to: staff appointment, promotion and appraisal, professional development, accredited teaching qualifications, awards for teaching excellence;
- Statements about teaching made in any other quality processes.

I hope to obtain or examine such papers at the times when I visit for interviews.

* Initially I also hoped also to use focus groups to supplement the surveys, but the logistics of arranging common times for all participants proved difficult and this process was abandoned so that I would not inconvenience people too much.

How much time are participants asked to make available?

The survey questionnaire should not take more than about 15 minutes and a stamped, addressed envelope will be provided for its return.

The individual interviews, for a smaller number of people willing to continue in the next stage, would take one to two hours in a semi-structured session, plus some informal observation / discussion time over two or three days while I am visiting the institution. If people are willing I may ask for a second interview later, to follow up findings and trends observed.

Participants will be sent copies of transcripts of their interviews to check, also summaries of findings from the surveys. It is up to them how much time they wish to spend reading such materials, and whether they choose to send any further response or comments to me.

Ethical Issues and Access

The proposed research methods have been provided in detail to and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee. I will seek permission from each

institution before approaching any staff members, and this Information Sheet will be available to everyone involved.

Confidentiality and Anonymity

Information given will be confidential to this research project and any publications arising from it.

No individuals or their institutions will be identified in the reporting of the research - only code numbers or fictitious names will be used.

All participants will be free to withdraw at any stage of the research, or to request that some or all of the data they supplied be not used. They may also refuse to answer any particular questions at any time.

Respondents may ask at any time for an audio-tape recorder to be turned off, whether in a focus group or interview.

All data will be securely stored and not made accessible to people other than the researcher and her two supervisors. Data from recorded tapes will be transcribed, either by the researcher or by a secretarial assistant contracted for that purpose, who will be required to sign a Confidentiality Agreement.

Individual interview tapes will be destroyed at the end of the project, unless a person prefers to have the tape of their own interview(s) returned to them.

The research results will be reported in the final PhD thesis, and may also appear in related conference presentations, articles in refereed journals, or chapters in books. A summary of the overall research findings will be made available to any participants who wish to have a copy, and also to the institutions that agreed to the involvement of their staff.

Participants' Rights

Participants in this project have the right to:

- decline to participate
- refuse to answer any questions
- withdraw from the study at any stage
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation
- provide information on the understanding that their names will not be used
- ask that an audio-tape recorder be turned off at any time
- receive copies of transcripts of their interview tapes, and comment on them or request that some data be corrected or removed
- be given a summary of the findings of the study when it is completed.

Further Information

If you want any more information, please feel free to contact the researcher or the chief supervisor – details are on the front page.

Appendix I

Research process implementation

The conduct of the project has followed this sequence of events:

1998

Initial approach to university, supervisors appointed, first stage of literature survey done, and presentation made to a student seminar in September. An accident in late September meant I could make no further progress till the next year.

1999

March: Proposal to Doctoral Research Committee (DRC) including initial literature survey. The project was to take an interpretive, qualitative approach, using case study method, and strategies such as focus groups, interviews, observations and examination of documents. The working title was *Tertiary Teachers' Perceptions of Expertise in Teaching*, and the three main research questions were:

1. What are common perceptions of expertise and excellence in teaching that are held by tertiary educators working in a range of different institutions or settings?
2. What influence does context (including institutional setting and discipline / subject area) have on tertiary teachers' perceptions of expertise and excellence in teaching?
3. How do tertiary teachers develop expertise in teaching?

April: DRC approval was given, with provisional enrolment for one year (part-time enrolment, therefore up to six years available for the project). Preparation of application to the Massey University Human Ethics Committee (MUHEC) began.

May: Completion of all materials for ethics application.

June: The application was submitted to MUHEC.

July: The ethics proposal was considered by MUHEC, and changes were requested. The main change affected the way teachers would be identified and approached through their HODs with an invitation to participate, putting more focus on their experience and less on their expertise as recognised by peers.

August: Following changes, MUHEC approval was received. A copy of the approval letter is in Appendix G; Appendix H has the information sheet and samples of letters, consent forms, etc.

September: Letters were sent to the Chief Executive Officers of the three institutions identified for the main project, requesting their permission to engage in research involving some of their staff and requesting copies of documents. I also contacted a fourth institution where I wished to run a pilot focus group. All institutions gave their agreement, in letters from their research coordinators, but the reply from the wananga took longer, because my request was referred to a general staff hui for discussion and confirmation.

October, early: Bundles of letters and information sheets were sent to HODs at the polytechnic and university to distribute among their staff, inviting responses from

people willing to participate in focus groups. I delayed sending focus group invitations to the wananga at this time, as it was in a different location and would need a separate later visit.

October, later: A pilot focus group meeting was held at a polytechnic in my home city. The discussion was audio-taped and then transcribed. The starter questions proved appropriate for generating discussion on ideas related to my research questions. There were difficulties, however, in attracting many participants.

November: Focus group responses from prospective participants at the university and polytechnic came in slowly, and unevenly from different departments.

December: Final focus group response numbers proved to be low (or nil) from half the departments at both polytechnic and university. Therefore I decided, after discussion with my supervisors, not to proceed with focus groups, but to move directly to interviews instead after the summer break.

2000

February/March: A letter and questionnaire were sent to all those in the university and polytechnic who had earlier indicated willingness to participate in a focus group. The questionnaires included a response section to indicate a person's willingness to be interviewed. Extra copies (with information sheets as well) were sent to heads of departments where initial responses had been low, for a further distribution to those likely to be interested in interviews rather than focus groups. Returns from this stage (during March-April) gave sufficient numbers across departments at each institution for me to be able to select participants for interviews from all the subject areas I was interested in.

During semester one I continued the literature survey while waiting for questionnaire responses, but had little time for initial writing because of work commitments as BEd(AdultEd) coordinator, following the merger of Wellington Polytechnic and Massey University. It was during this period that I encountered the work of Wenger (1998), and realised its significance in relation to research questions 2 and 3 in the original PhD proposal.

April: I wrote to every teacher who had offered to be interviewed, confirming whether they had been selected or not. Those selected were asked to indicate their availability over a range of times and days in June when I would visit the polytechnic and university (both in the same city). I also wrote to the educational developers there to request interviews with them, and received agreement from each.

May: I confirmed June interview dates and times by letter to each participant. Request letters and questionnaires were also sent to the wananga contact person to pass on to potential wananga participants, to start arranging interviews for a semester two visit.

Schedules of questions for the semi-structured interviews (one for teaching staff, one for staff developers) were checked with my supervisors and finalised. I carried out a pilot interview with a colleague in Wellington and concluded that the starter questions were clear and elicited the type of data I was interested in gathering, and so no changes were made to the schedule.

June: Polytechnic and university visits for interviews with teachers and staff developers and gathering of institutional documents were completed as planned.

July: Letters confirming interview days and times were sent to the participants at the wananga who had agreed to be available.

August: Interviews with teachers and staff developer at the wananga (in a different location from the university and polytechnic) were completed.

September: a further visit was made to observe some teaching by the four polytechnic staff who had been interviewed, and two of the university staff – two others were not available or not teaching in that period.

September, later: On my return to Wellington I worked with Jocelyn Robson, who was visiting from the University of Greenwich in London, to write a joint article on the theme of communities of practice as they related to teachers in further education. This drew on some of my literature review findings and my previous experiences in Wellington Polytechnic, rather than any data from the recent interviews. It was later published by the *Journal of In-Service Education* (Viskovic and Robson, 2001).

October: I had planned to revisit the wananga for teaching observations, but a tangi and some off-campus visits for their students meant the tutors there asked me to defer this visit to the next year.

November: Funding from the Massey University Research Fund for the transcribing of interviews was approved. A transcriber was found, to work over the summer break.

December: A joint paper with Jocelyn Robson (based on the article we had written in September) was presented at NZARE Annual Conference in Hamilton (Viskovic and Robson, 2000).

2001

January: transcribing of interviews was delayed, as the first person became ill and was unable to continue. The work was completed by another person during semester one.

February: I discussed with my supervisors a shift in emphasis that meant my main research focus became *How do people become tertiary teachers in NZ?* rather than teachers' perceptions of expertise in teaching, i.e. reversing the order of the three original research questions and changing the working title. This shift had emerged as a result of (a) my growing interest in communities of practice and how people learn in workplace situations, arising from recent literature; and (b) a recognition that, in the interviews, the teachers' stories of how they had developed as teachers was an area that had been little studied in the literature to date. This shift did not affect the data collection part of the research process (which was nearly complete) but had implications for the theoretical perspective adopted in my later approach to the interpretation of the data.

Balance of semester one: little progress other than overview reading of interview transcripts and institutional documents, and continuing literature search, because of

other work commitments as BEd(AdultEd) Coordinator, and writing new extramural study guides. I was therefore not able to travel to complete observations until semester two.

July: Interview transcripts were returned to all the participants, for them to modify if they wished, for return by the end of the year. Only one made major changes, returning the script to me after considerable delay in December 2002.

August: I completed the outstanding observations of two people at the university. I revisited the wananga expecting to do at least two observations, but had little success there. One person who had been interviewed had left and gone to another institution in Auckland; one was doing one-to-one work with students and declined to be observed as it was likely to be disruptive to the students; one was very willing to be observed but in fact had gone to a tangi on the day I arrived to visit; and the last offered a session that turned out to be student presentations in an EDU seminar, with very little input from the tutor.

September: I started initial analysis of the first group of interview transcriptions (those of the art and design teachers from each of the three sites).

October: I wrote a work-in-progress conference paper, based on initial impressions found in that first group of interviews. This helped me to identify emerging themes for the findings, and consider some initial links to theories from the literature review.

December: the work-in-progress paper was presented at the NZARE Annual Conference, Christchurch (Viskovic, 2001a). Discussion following the paper was positive, and colleagues familiar with institutions like the ones I had studied considered my observations relevant and reasonable.

2002

Semester one: I made limited progress again because of other work commitments as BEd(AdultEd) coordinator, and writing further extramural study guides.

July: I presented a work-in-progress paper at the SCUTREA Conference at University of Stirling, Scotland, modified from the NZARE 2001 paper to meet the theme of that later conference (Viskovic, 2002a). At that conference I met Barbara Malcolm, Miriam Zukas and Phil and Heather Hodkinson, whose work is discussed in the literature review. I also visited Jocelyn Robson, now at University of Surrey, to discuss her ongoing research on FE teachers.

September/October: I carried out an initial analysis of data in the institutional documents, and in staff developer interview transcripts.

November: I wrote a work-in-progress paper, based on the initial institutional and developer findings.

December: Paper presented at NZARE Conference, Palmerston North (Viskovic, 2002b). Considerable discussion with peers followed that presentation, generally confirming that my findings and initial conclusions seemed reasonable and realistic to colleagues familiar with institutions like the ones in my study.

2003

January: A major update of reading for the literature review.

Semester one: A low teaching load had been agreed for semester one, to provide me with time for further analysis of data and starting the main thesis chapters. In fact programme coordinator responsibilities interfered considerably with my time, and progress was slow.

February to end-March: I completed a major draft of the Literature Review chapter, including further updating to ensure that recent work had been taken into account.

April/May: I began a draft research method chapter, and wrote the first drafts of the polytechnic and wananga case study chapters. My initial approach in the latter two was to integrate data from all sources under a series of common themes.

June: Feedback from the chief supervisor indicated that more attention should be given to reporting first by data source in the case study chapters. I therefore revisited the interview transcripts and documents, and started second drafts of the first two case studies.

Early July: I presented a short work-in-progress paper at HERDSA International Conference in Christchurch, which basically combined the ideas from the two previous NZARE papers, and discussed the relevance of Wenger's ideas on community of practice as a perspective on the workplace learning of tertiary teachers in NZ.

July-October: I gained a Massey University Advanced Studies Award which would pay for most of my marking in semester two, and so give more time for writing. I reworked the first two case study chapters by data source as proposed by Janet, but they became very long, and parts seemed repetitive when findings from different sources were summed up at the end.

The chief supervisor went overseas on sabbatical leave, September to January, and Ruth Kane was appointed as replacement supervisor for that period.

November/December: Ruth thought the structure I had used for the conclusions to the revised case study chapters was worth using for the body of the chapters, so I set about rewriting them that way. That approach went back to using some major themes as headings, but I clustered data by source within those themes. Feedback from Deborah Willis, as second supervisor, in early December was positive about the effect of that approach. I therefore started the third case study (on the university) following that approach.

2004:

January: I completed the draft of the university case study chapter.

I met with Janet on her return from sabbatical, and she said she was satisfied with the latest case study structure – the data sources were clear within sections that integrated related material.

March: no writing time because of teaching and programme coordinator duties. At a further meeting with Janet we agreed on a writing and meeting plan that would enable me to complete the thesis by the end of the year. I cancelled my planned travel to attend three overseas conferences at mid-year, in order to gain some clear weeks for concentrated writing.

April-May: I shortened the literature review chapter and updated it again with recent studies. This repeated updating was important, because a number of books and articles relating to workplace learning and community of practice have been published since about 2000, and recent ones have contributed to my developing ideas as I came to write the final discussion chapter. I also shortened the three case study chapters.

June: Mainly marking. Began planning the discussion chapter.

July: Completed the first draft of the discussion chapter, submitted to supervisors 1 August.

August: Returned to the earlier draft research chapter to revise and reshape. Did further work to shorten the case studies and literature review. Collated and labelled appendices. Meeting held later in month with supervisors on first draft of discussion chapter. Planned introduction and conclusion chapters.

September: Responded to feedback and revised draft discussion chapter. Completed and submitted draft conclusion and introduction chapters for supervisor feedback. Collated all parts of the thesis, including appendices and bibliography, to submit first complete draft thesis to supervisors by 1 October. Presented a work-in-progress paper on the draft conclusions and recommendations to annual conference of polytechnic staff developers, and received positive feedback.

October/early November: End-of-year marking and programme coordinator duties while supervisors read the full draft. Feedback meeting planned for mid-November.

Late November/early November: presented work-in progress papers to NZARE and TERNZ conferences, and received positive feedback.

December: revised chapters 7 – 8 – 9 in light of supervisor feedback. Submitted second drafts to supervisors mid December. Developed graphical figures to illustrate last two chapters.

2005

January: Revised research chapter using feedback from second supervisor. Updated and further shortened literature review.

February-mid-March: Further improvements to research chapter following feedback from first supervisor. Restructured chapter nine and chapter one from feedback. Checked all cross-references, numbering system, labelling of figures and tables, finalised pagination and index, finalised introduction and abstract. Submitted full draft for supervisor checking, 2 March. Aim to submit for examination by mid-March.

Responses to questionnaire, used in selecting participants to interview (Key to abbreviations is on the last page of this appendix)

Code No.	Age	Ethn	Yrs T	Inst	Disc	Quals	NonT Exper.	TQual	Ed Ass'n	12A	12B	12C	Agree	Notes	Select
101	30-9	Pak	10+	Poly	Comm	MA	Univ.	CertTT	No	9	8	1	Yes	Thoughtful	Yes, Kit
102	50-9	Pak	10+	Poly	Comp	BSC CBC	Science research	DipTT	2 Prof	9	9	0	Yes	Sounds positive Cf 111	Yes, Ray
103	50-9	Pak	10+	Poly	Comp	PhD	5 yrs industry	CAT	No	9	5	3	Yes	Interesting, Cf 110	No
104	40-9	Pak	10+	Poly	Comp	PhD	20yrs	CAT	ASTE	6	5	1	No	N/A	No
105	40-9	NZ	5-10	Poly	Comp	MHSc	NS	CAT	No	3	5	1	Yes	Possible	No
106	40-9	Pak	10+	Poly	Comp	DBA	NS	DipTch	2 Prof	8	6	2	Yes	Focus on discipline	No
107	30-9	Pak	5-10	Poly	Eng	BA, BSc NZCE	6yrs industry	Part CertTT	1 Prof	7	3	3	Yes	Likely, Cf 106	Yes, Phil
108	50-9	Pak	10+	Poly	Eng	NZCE	10 yrs include NZRAF	DipTch primary.	No	2	6	3	Yes	Possible Cf 108	No
109	60+	Pak	10+	Poly	Eng	NZCE	RAF	RAF Instruc.	No	6	5	1	No	N/A	No
110	40-9	Pak	5-10	Poly	Eng	BE NZCE	20 yrs	CATE	No	0	7	5	May	Not likely	No
111	50-9	NZ	10+	Poly	Eng	NZCE REA	NS	NS	ASTE	0	0	0	No	N/A	No
112	40-9	Pak	5-10	Poly	DA	BFA	17yrs varied	No	No	6	5	1	Yes	Sounds interesting	Yes, Alex

Code No.	Age	Ethn	Yrs T	Inst	Disc	Quals	NonT Exper.	TQual	Ed Ass'n	12A	12B	12C	Agree	Notes	Selected?
120	50-9	Pak	10+	Univ	Comm	BA, Grad Dip	18yrs industry	No	3 Ed (Prof. links)	5	5	0	Yes	Wide experience	Yes, Andy
121	50-9	Pak	10+	Univ	Comp	PhD	P'Doc research	No	No	5	4	1	Yes	Sounds useful	Yes, Jan
122	30-9	Pak	5-10	Univ	Comp	PhD	3 yrs	NS	NS	9	9	0	Yes	Little in open-ended part	No
123	40-9	Pak	10+	Univ	Eng	PhD	NS	BA in Educ.	HER DSA	NS	NS	NS	Yes	Interest in educ and teaching	Yes, Glen
124	40-9	Asia	10+	Univ	Eng	MSc, PhD	Consultancy	NS	NS	4	3	5	Yes	Possible	No
125	40-9	Pak	10+	Univ	DA	MFA	Travel Fellow	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	Yes	Interesting (some phoned)	Yes, Chris
126	60+	Pak	10+	Univ	DA	BFA MA	School, COE	DipTch	Prof	7	3	0	No	N/A	No
130	50-9	Pak	4	Wan	Comm		34 yrs schools	DipTch DipALT In BEd	ARLA	7	5	0	Yes	Prim. T'chg – interesting comparisons	Yes, Pat
131	40-9	Mao	5-10	Wan	Comp	-	Office, Comput	TDWP In BEd	No	3	5	0	Yes	Now an adviser, doing less teaching	Yes, Hau
132	50-9	Mao	5PT. 5FT	Wan	Eng	TrCert NZCE	Marine, Welfare	In BEd	No	7	5	1	Yes	Wide range	Yes, Tai
133	50-9	Mao	10+	Wan	DA	-	Banks NursAid	In BEd	No	5	0	0	Yes	Previously taught Te Reo.	Yes, Ata

Key to column headings:

No. = Respondents' code numbers from the questionnaire forms

Ethn = Ethnicity

YrsT = Years in tertiary teaching

Inst = Institution

Disc = Discipline or teaching subject area

NonT Exper = Experience other than in teaching

TQual = Teaching qualification

EdAss'n = Member of a teaching or educational association

12A, 12B and 12C –number of boxes person ticked under each column of question 12.

A fuller collation of Qu. 12 responses follows on the next page.

Agree = Indicated willingness to be interviewed

Notes = My brief comment, including impression of open-ended responses

Sel? = Selected for interview? The names added are the pseudonyms used in the case study chapters.

Notes:

There is no column for **status**, because all respondents reported their current appointment status as full-time.

There is no column for **gender**, because including it might identify some participants.

Although gender data was sought in the questionnaire, it was not ultimately used to decide any choices among participants.

Abbreviations used within columns:

NS = Not Stated

Pak = Pakeka

Mao = Maori

Asia = Asian

Comm = Communication Studies,

Comp = Computer Studies,

Eng = Engineering or related trade,

DA = Design or Art

Prof (under Associations) = belongs to a professional or discipline association, *not* a teaching association

NursAid

Collation of responses on types of professional development undertaken:

12. Respondents were asked to tick boxes relating to types of teacher development:
Column A for any of these methods you have already experienced;
Column B for those that are effective for you or suit your learning style;
Column C for any you do not enjoy or do not find effective.

Numbers of respondents: Univ: 6 * Poly:12 Wananga: 4

Upper lines: Raw data, ie simply numbers of box ticks
 Lower lines: *Percentage of respondents who ticked this*

	A. Experienced			B. Effective			C. Not preferred		
	U	P	W	U	P	W	U	P	W
U=Univ; P=Poly; W=Wananga									
a. Attending induction workshops	5 83	7 58	1 25	4 66	4 33	1 25	1 17	3 25	-
b. Attending seminars or short courses	5 83	8 66	2 50	3 50	8 66	2 50	-	1 8	-
c. Getting feedback on observed teaching	2 33	8 66	2 50	1 17	10 83	2 50	-	1 8	-
d. Being mentored by a colleague	4 66	5 42	2 50	2 33	7 58	2 50	-	1 8	-
e. Developing a teaching portfolio	1 17	1 8	1 25	1 17	1 8	2 50	1 17	3	-
f. Reading literature on learning & teaching	5 83	7 58	2 50	4 66	6 50	2 50	-	2 16	-
g. Completing a tertiary teaching qual.	1 17	5 42	4 100	1 17	6 50	1 25	-	1 8	-
h. Doing action research project in tchg	-	3 25	-	1 17	2 16	-	-	2 16	-
i. Using systematic reflective practice	-	6 50	2 50	-	4 33	2 50	1 17	1 8	-
j. Using an innovative teaching grant	1 17	-	1 25	2 33	1 8	-	-	1 8	-
k. Using study leave to focus on teaching	2 33	2 16	1 25	3 50	3 25	1 33	-	-	-
l. Responding to formal student feedback	6 100	9 75	4 100	5 83	10 83	1 25	-	-	-
m. Other, please specify: <i>Poly</i> : student interviews; <i>SGID</i> ; <i>Univ</i> : Professional conferences									

* Seven university teachers responded, but only six filled in answers to question 12.

Appendix K

Institutional documents made available and used for content analysis

* Titles marked with an asterisk are pseudonyms, used to avoid identifying institutions.

Polytechnic:

Academic Staff Members' Collective Employment Agreement (1999-2001)

Annual Appraisal (dated 1998 but still in use in 2000)

Certificate in Adult Teaching (2000) programme booklet

Diploma in Tertiary Teaching (1999) programme booklet

Guide to Policies (2000)

Looking Ahead * (1999)

Mission Statement (1997)

Probation booklet (dated 1998 but still in use in 2000)

Promotion Pack (2000)

Staff development poster (2000).

Staff Handbook * (c. 1999)

Wananga:

Campus Student Handbook (2000)

Charter (undated, circa 1995)

Prospectus (2000)

Staff Collective Employment Contract (1999-2001).

Tutor Handbook (2001)

Samples of programme brochures (2000-1)

University:

Charter (undated, circa mid 1990s)

Draft Promotion Criteria (2000)

EDU leaflet (2000)

EDU Plan (2000)

Academic Staff Collective Employment Agreement (2000-2001)

Teachers Talk * (1999).

Teaching and Learning Committee Plan (2000)

Teaching and Learning Webpage * (2001)

Teaching Awards Criteria (2001)

Vision and Goals * (circa 2000)

Appendix L

Examples of coded pages from stage two analysis of teacher interview transcripts

1. Polytechnic Teacher Interviews

Extracts relating to: Initial support as a new teacher

Colour coding key:

Pink: Support from colleagues

Yellow: Training

Green: Content focus

Blue: Learning from experience

Purple: Probation

Orange: Links to previous experience

Underline Effects of being part-time

Names:

Design: Alex

Engineering: Phil

Computing: Ray

Communication: Kit

Alex

As a part-timer I got minimum instruction and no theory whatsoever. It was a case of “Do what you do best and off you go”. [The approach here] is fairly brief-driven, so the students get given a new brief, “You are to design for this fictitious company”. That was also my tuition brief, so I just taught to the brief and students worked to the brief.

I was on probation but I don't think I even had an introductory afternoon. I can't remember a single thing. There were a few pamphlets saying “Come to staff learning when you get time” and of-course being a part-timer I wasn't going to do that for nothing. I had a business to run and I would use up my half hour getting here unpaid, and teach for three or four hours, so I had to be careful. So I sort of stumbled through and, yeah, I made lots of mistakes which were unnecessary, but all in all it went okay – things went quite well.

When it came to the full-time job it actually went quite smoothly. The students were a wee bit hesitant but by then I had built up enough skill that I could reassure them almost immediately and off we went. But even then no formal training whatsoever. But once I became full-time obviously I went to the staff meetings, I went to the degree development meetings, the hideaway at a motel for a weekend – all of those sorts of things. I started learning the language just off my peers.

Phil

Well I had virtually no experience – I had taught part-time a little bit before I came. They had the Tutor Training Unit as it was in those days and in your first two years there was six weeks per year compulsory tutor training – I believe that was the scheme. The first year I did the course as they suggested to me.

Ray

I didn't have any formal induction - started as a part timer and in those days there was no process that I knew about. I was never on probation either – there was no formality when I finally became tenured.

It was scary. I really did not know what teaching meant. When colleagues would say to me “Well you have to teach them that” – I thought well, what does that mean, what do you mean teach them that? – You just mean tell them? – and I gradually picked up that meant that you talked about it and you explained it and that was the concept that you put across to the students as best you could.

- In the researcher role I was guided a lot. But – it is something that I have never really thought about before – what was the difference [*between becoming a researcher and becoming a teacher*]. I do remember thinking that teaching would - is a nice easy thing to do part time and it fits for mother/family kind of a role whereas research isn't, or the kind of scientific research I was doing, would be very difficult to do part-time. [*In teaching*] I did have a very good buddy mentor colleague who had taught that course for a long time and was quite a friend as well - in fact there were two of them. I was actually in quite a good team, so in some ways I got more guidance.

xx coordinated that group of five of us teaching the same – there were 10 classes of students doing the same thing. So xx coordinated the whole thing and that meant there was a lot of support for that. The course plans were there, you know, the sessions were decided, the starting points were all really good. So there was a lot of guidance... But those sorts of things evolved in the team rather than individually, so we did all cover the same content for a particular session and often we just bounced ideas off each other in the same sort of way. So any of us could relieve for the other people quite easily – with chemistry it wasn't too hard at all.

Kit

I came in as a part-time tutor to start with and they said well, right, here is the course. I didn't know what a unit standard was – but I started out with those courses and I was just sort of, oh goodness - okay. Then - it was really by osmosis I suppose - you find somebody that you could co-teach with and you talk to them and then you go to meetings. The department was quite a lot bigger then, part time staff have dropped in the last year or two. The tea room and the social stuff comes in, but at that time I was only coming in and out to teach my classes, I wasn't always here.

One of my supervisors at that time [*in a university, before the polytechnic appointment*] was – she was quite a new graduate and she had gone through that TA training and she was really helpful with that sort of thing. She gave me one of those file boxes over there full of articles about tertiary teachers.

[*If you were starting again are there things you would like to be different?*]

I don't think I would actually. I appreciated the support that I got and I quite liked being given the scope to learn it for myself without too much detriment to the students I hope.

Appendix M:

Examples of coded pages from stage two analysis of educational developer interview transcripts

University Educational Developers' Interview

Extracts relating to: Staff development related to teaching
(Support for new staff and Teaching qualifications were in separate categories at this stage of analysis)

Colour coding key:

- Orange: Participants
- Green: Teaching/research tensions
- Pink: EDU responding
- Purple: Content of staff development
- Yellow: Effects of staff development
- Blue: Perceptions of EDU

Names:

Dani and Jo, names as used in later case study chapter.

By and large the people who come here are people who have a commitment to teaching, who are generally reasonably competent in what they are doing. We provide support for those who see teaching as being an important part of their role. (Jo)

Yes - and we see a few people who need more help and support - or who might have been advised to come and see EDU. Or who actually do acknowledge that they are struggling themselves and they are seeking help. But they would be the minority. (Jo)

There is a perception quite strongly held amongst some people - a lot of people - in the campus that we exist to straighten out poor or fix people - fix poor performers. For some people, some departments, well, they say to someone, "Go to [EDU]" and then they wash their hands of the whole issue. They don't see that development as a teacher is something that requires collegial support as well. (Jo)

I think I see people coming back, I have seen them coming in cycles. I see people getting interested in their teaching and they go through a big burst of teaching development. It's almost as if they get onto another plateau of

thinking about it. And then they disappear off the horizon for a while and they get involved in something else. So it's a sort of a 'jack their teaching up to one sort of a level'. Some of it may be design, they might introduce a new approach to a course. It's almost as if they are exhausted - they want to stop at that point there, leave it there and let it mature quietly and let themselves mature with it, go and do something else. Then sometimes they will pop back at another level, possibly not to the extent where they are, but another approach to teaching they might come in with a policy issue or - so their interest is coming back but it comes back at not so much a nicely defined developmental process I wouldn't have thought.. (Jo)

I am now starting to see young staff/new staff who came in with a lot of enthusiasm for their teaching and really keen to teach well and they attended a lot of EDU courses. They have taken two or three years and they have really worked on their teaching and then they have suddenly got to the point where they realise that their research isn't happening and that if they are going to be rewarded within the institution, they have got to focus on their research. I talk to a number of people now and in several cases it's actually been young women, for whom I think their teaching has been really really important, but they have come to a point where they have had to make a conscious decision that "I am going to have to put less time into my teaching in order to get my publications up". (Dani)

Part of our role I think is to provide support for the people who are going to take some leading role in their Departments and we do get people like that... Well - if you have a Departmental Group looking at say course design or a equipment design exercise, it gives us an opportunity for them as a group to sit down and face up to problems... Sometimes we get invited into the Departments because people have come to things here and said that "Oh we want to do that at home - come and do it with a bigger group". (Jo)

I think that the opportunity to mix with other people, more or less as equals, whom you don't have to face up to day to day is also an important part, and I wouldn't like to say that one is more important than the other. (Jo)

As somebody newer working in the area, one of the things that is happening for me is that I have begun to realise that I really miss the sort of sustained contact with people. We run a seminar or we run a workshop and we see a group of people, and then they disappear into the "out there" and there is very limited ability to follow up and find out what changes they have made and done as a result. Now some people do come back voluntarily and keep in contact - but - one of the things that [EDU] is doing is actually building a series of - layers - of a programme, so that you have got the sort of one-off survival skills, and then the more reflective sort of programme that goes over a longer period of time. Then on top of that we have now layered the Post Grad Cert. Increasingly I think that if you want to change the way people think about things, and the way they do what they are doing, it has to happen but it is only going to happen over time. (Dani)

Appendix N

Vignettes of site and class observations

1. Notes from observations at the Polytechnic

The polytechnic's main campus was on the edge of the central business district, with buildings ranging from an old technical college two-storied block to modern seven-story blocks and a central concourse. Some former commercial buildings had also been purchased, and refitted for teaching use. Pathways between buildings were wide and well-signposted, and small gardens and lawns were well tended. In most cases a department would be located in a single building, housing both staff offices and general and specialist teaching rooms. All the staff I visited had an office of their own, of moderate size – enough for desk, filing cabinets, bookshelves, computer station, and a couple of visitors' chairs. The main staffroom was central, with comfortable seating in groups round coffee tables, and tea and coffee available all day from a dispenser. Departments also had smaller facilities for staff meetings, and for tea-break socialising. There was a large student centre with refurbished cafeteria, meeting rooms, and other student services. Both staff and students also used a campus café. The library was central, and linked to student learning support facilities. Most classrooms, studios, laboratories and workshops had been designed for groups of 20-30 students, but some newer buildings included lecture theatres to seat larger numbers. My overall impression was that the site was typical of New Zealand tertiary institutions that have expanded over several decades on a city block. As visitor I needed a map to find my way round the mixture of buildings, whereas those working there tended to move within the smaller circuit of their departmental building, except when they went to meetings elsewhere, used the central services, or parked their cars.

The teaching rooms I visited to observe some classes varied by discipline and building. All were shared by a series of teachers and classes throughout a week, i.e. none was for sole use as a home room by one teacher or student group. Although large tiered lecture theatres were available on campus, all the classes I saw were in flat rooms. The teaching rooms I visited had practical, serviceable furniture and fittings, and attractive but not eye-catching décor: the presence of computers (with adjustable benches and chairs) in some rooms and carpets and whiteboards (instead of blackboards) in all would be the main visual changes compared with polytechnic teaching rooms of the

1970s and 1980s. All classes had well-presented polytechnic-produced print materials, such as course handbooks, class notes or examples to be worked, reflecting both the use of up-to-date computing and copying facilities, and quality assurance requirements for students to be fully informed about course requirements.

Two class observations have been selected for inclusion here, computing and communication studies.

Observation of business computing class

A business computing class was held in a new, tall building, with an atmosphere in the corridors more like that of city offices. The teaching room had well-spaced rows of PC computers (18 available), and students swivelled their seats round when the teacher used a whiteboard and overhead projector screen at the end of the room. The room had one wall of windows, with curtains pulled to reduce glare on the computer screens. The general effect was a room that was well lit and ventilated, and posters and displays added some variety to the neutral colours – walls, carpets and curtains were all in shades of grey. This class was mid-morning, but students also had access to computing facilities when out of class, including “after hours” in the evenings.

The course was database management systems, and the topic of this session was normalisation. There were 15 students, 8 male and 7 female, studying a course (paper) shared by a certificate and a diploma. The teacher said most were fulltime, only two part-time, and most were not school-leavers. The plan for the two-hour session was for half an hour introduction to the topic, then an exercise to do on the computers, with time to circulate and help students if needed, then a review of progress.

The teacher’s manner was friendly and encouraging, and the initial presentation of the topic was a mix of teacher explanations and questions to involve the students in thinking through the issues. The teacher used the overhead projector for “fixed” information, the whiteboard for developing a pre-planned sequence of diagrams, and showing changing effects, and handouts for common data, the class exercise, and an assignment to be completed after the session. After the explanations the students started work on the exercise, which the teacher had planned to make them go through one process before starting on the next. Around the middle of the session students were

able to take a 5-10 minute break (clearly an established routine) then when they were all back the teacher went through the exercise, drawing on their contributions for her whiteboard workings. After that the assignment was handed out, with time to discuss how it would be treated. Then further class time was spent on two more exercises, and the last ten minutes used to go through them as a group, and sum up the key ideas and steps. The teacher wound up by saying: “We’ve done an awful lot today, really full – most of you worked very competently and I’m really pleased with your progress”. Despite my own lack of specialist knowledge in the area, I felt I had understood and learned a lot too.

The overall impression of this teacher was organised, professional, aware of students, concerned to make the content and learning relevant. There was a friendly atmosphere in the room – for example, the teacher referred to a PTA meeting she had attended where a businessman talked about three things he looked for in staff: passion, communication and an ability to learn. A student then asked when the polytechnic would offer a “Passion 101” course.

Observation of communication studies class

This early-evening class (19 students) was held in a room in a middle-aged building, with tables and chairs (for up to 24 people) in clusters of four to six that could be regrouped easily for activities. Tea, coffee and biscuits were available for a mid-session break. A pinboard at the back had notices and information for students, but there were no posters on the other walls. The carpet was blue, the lower walls wood panelling, the upper walls painted cream. Tabletops were wood-grained laminate.

The course was diploma-level business communication. The students all had jobs, and were attending the polytechnic part-time. The main topic for the session was to be Transactional Analysis (TA), and the teacher had already taught it once that day to a morning class whose students (more full-timers) she found less able than those in the evening group. The teacher told me beforehand that both she and the students usually found the topic difficult to deal with.

The session opened, after friendly chat among students and teacher as people arrived, with feedback on the marking of a recent test. Students complained that the test room

had been noisy and the invigilator intimidating (looking over people's shoulders). The teacher said she would pass this on with a request for a different room for the final exam. Next there was a quick review of stress factors, the previous session's topic, with an exercise to do – "practice for this sort of thing in the exam". Initially students read the supplied material quietly, then they talked in groups as they worked through the activity. The teacher circulated during this time, responding if asked a question. After group feedback on this exercise, the teacher cleaned the whiteboard, checked that the room temperature was all right for people and that everyone could see, and introduced the main topic.

The teacher started with a short history of the background leading up to TA, from Freud's identification of id, ego and super ego to Berne's translation of the ideas into child, adult and parent. There was nothing on TA in the class text (although it was in the course syllabus, which was based on unit standards) so students were reminded of the supplementary material in the "pink book" of photocopied readings and class exercises. The teacher did not just lecture, but used questioning to lead the students through the ideas and help them make links to situations they were familiar with. The whiteboard was used frequently for diagrams showing different transactional patterns. Then an exercise was set – "Look at the memo example in the pink book – how adult is the model answer reply?" After quiet reading a buzz of discussion arose. The group paused for tea and coffee at this point, then resumed with discussion of their responses to the exercise. After that discussion of some "life scripts" was used to apply the TA ideas further, and show how they could be used in the workplace – this summed up the key ideas and rounded off the session.

Overall, this class had a friendly atmosphere, but was also purposeful – it was a cohesive group in which students were willing to share personal and work experiences as examples that were relevant to the topic. The teacher used open-ended questions, and encouraging prompts and responses. Afterwards the teacher felt s/he had talked a bit more than usual, but had still been able to rely on considerable input from the class. From the level of discussion I think most students had understood the concepts, and the session as a whole had not given the impression of a difficult topic to manage, despite the teacher's earlier comment.

2. Notes from observation at the Wananga

No class observations were possible, for reasons explained in Chapter Three. The following paragraphs relate to the campus that was visited.

The campus I visited was in a provincial town. It had one main building, two-storied, with a central open area used as a hall, and for activities such as morning karakia before staff and students went to their classes. Surrounding spaces were used for classrooms, workshops, student cafeteria, staff offices and staffroom. Additional newer single-storied buildings around the grounds housed some programmes, and there was a large shelter for waka. The wananga did not have a library on site, but had negotiated for staff and students to have distance access to the Open Polytechnic's library. Compared with the case study polytechnic or university, the basic building and its furnishings looked rather spartan, but the artworks on the walls and the enthusiasm of the people contributed to a friendly and rather informal atmosphere. Students passing all greeted me, not something that I encountered in the two bigger institutions.

3. Notes from observations at the University

No description of the campus is included, as it would identify the institution.

The teaching spaces I visited to observe some classes varied by discipline and building. Three were lecture theatres, shared by a series of teachers and classes from a range of programmes throughout a week, while the fourth, a fine art studio, was shared only by the staff and students of that specialism. The three lecture theatres were all tiered, but varied in size (noted in following descriptions). The teachers interviewed said they also used flat tutorial rooms with less formal arrangements of tables and chairs, but not for classes offered at the times of my visits. All the spaces I visited had practical, serviceable furniture and fittings, and pleasant but not eye-catching décor; the theatres all had facilities for data projection as well as whiteboards and overhead projectors. All classes had well-presented student materials, such as course handbooks, class notes or handouts of examples to be worked: these reflected the use of up-to-date computing and copying facilities, and quality assurance requirements for students to be fully informed about course requirements.

Two class observations have been selected for inclusion here, fine art and engineering

Observation of fine arts class

This class was held in an open-plan space in the fine arts building. Large benches were available for students to work at, with walls and dividers used to display work in progress and stimulus materials students had gathered. Large flat storage drawers were available for each student, and the lecturer's office was close by so that further resources were near at hand. Nearby studios, working areas and staff offices for other specialisms added to the sense that the whole building was devoted to making artworks. The studios were also used by staff for their own creative processes, so that students were able to observe them at work too, on some days of the week.

The class I observed was a small fourth-year group (three women and two men, all in their 20's), working on their final BFA projects. The session was a time for regular (fortnightly) individual progress checks with the lecturer in that specialism. Students were expected to be present with their current work, workbooks (of notes, ideas, planning, etc) and references they were using. The lecturer had a folder for each student with copies of their individual contract proposals for the projects.

Over two hours the lecturer spent concentrated time with each student. I observed a positive rapport between the lecturer and students, and relevant lecturer responses to the particular ways they were working. At times references were made to the work of other students, as sources of other ideas or techniques. Examples of specific teacher comments were: "What does that mean for you?" "Have you seen...?" or "I'm quite excited about that..." Differences in the abilities and progress of some students became apparent: one was not trying out enough examples and had to be encouraged not to depend too much on teacher suggestions; another was well ahead with the project and developing a range of variations in treatment. The teacher's awareness of each student's work over time, and different approaches to different students, were apparent – things that had been referred to in the prior interview.

My overall impression was of a working/studying area quite different from other parts of the university I visited, with students around whether classes were running or not,

and a sense of the working community of students and staff that had been referred to in the lecturer's interview. However numbers (both staff and students) were smaller than in other parts of the university, which would also have an influence on the patterns of activity in the working area.

Observation of engineering class

A one-hour lecture to 52 students (about 65-70 enrolled) in a tiered lecture theatre with seating for about 100. The subject was in the first professional year, and students were about half-way through the semester. Most students were full-time, and in their second year away from school. Five of those attending were female (out of 9 enrolled). The room had cream walls, brown carpets, black desk-tops, diffused overhead lighting, and windows down one side. There was an overhead projector, with a corner-angled screen, and the main front wall had two revolving blackboards rather than fixed whiteboards.

Beforehand, the lecturer commented that this group was less responsive than last year's for this paper - some students were a bit "grumpy" when asked to do activities in class, and there was more talking in the back rows. S/he wondered if this was an effect of a smaller class but in a bigger lecture theatre than in semester one - students might feel more distanced and anonymous when spaced out around the room. Another factor was that this lecture followed immediately after another class and was just before lunch-time, so that attention might be lower than at other times. This session was to be mainly talk, with some examples to be worked through by the students during the lecture. It continued a topic introduced at an earlier session that same morning. Handouts had been prepared for use during the session, and spares would be left at the lecturer's office door for people who missed anything.

The session started promptly, with recall of key points and an overview of what was to follow. The lecturer referred students to pages in the class notes at various stages, used the overhead projector for "fixed" diagrams, and used the blackboards for changing and developing material, with coloured chalks to distinguish patterns or specific items. The lecturer had a positive manner of speaking and a clear voice, but spoke quite fast. S/he faced the class and made plenty of eye-contact around the room. S/he moved back and forth frequently between the front bench, the blackboard and the OHP, and used a long

pointer at times on the OHP screen. At times s/he used both blackboards at once, to compare differences in diagrams for similar processes.

The lecture was well structured, with verbal pointers to key ideas and when moving on to new ideas. The lecturer “talked through” the working of several examples, at the same time putting questions to the class such as: “What could you do here? How many rotations...? If this had been... what would you expect? Does that make sense?”

Students were given time to work on the examples and talk to their neighbour about them. Sometimes several students volunteered answers to a question, but on two occasions the lecturer had to re-phrase the question before getting an answer. Other things were said to help with explanations, such as “This is the same sort of thing as... So if you were to draw... We could do it this way... This is important... This is what you need to think about, to work it out...”

There was some quiet student chat, mainly when there was a pause while they looked up the next page reference in the notes. Only two asked questions, towards the end of the session, which related to links with earlier work. After the session the lecturer said that s/he had changed the order of topics from last year’s lecture, but did not think it had made much difference to the clarity or students’ responses.

Appendix O

Vignettes of polytechnic department groups as communities of practice

The grounded theory analysis used for identifying themes that emerged from the teacher interview transcripts at each site had the effect of decontextualising aspects of each individual's account of their teaching. In particular it lost the overall impression of each one's work within a departmental community. A somewhat different view emerges if data from one teacher at a time are collated, as shown in the following vignettes drawn from the polytechnic case study. Considerable variations between departments within one institution are also indicated.

Being a teacher in the computing department:

As well as teaching a range of certificate and diploma courses, Ray was a programme coordinator, and so was also concerned with curriculum development and communication among staff. Ray frequently referred to working with other teachers, with a focus on what was happening in the teaching of the programmes, and an awareness of shared common practices such as assessment and compliance with QMS requirements. There were also links made to other polytechnics' computing teachers through moderation and a shared curriculum for a national qualification, and links were maintained with the commercial organisations that would employ the graduating students. Ray thought it was important to be focused on meeting students' needs and being encouraging in the classroom, and believed colleagues in the department also valued such attitudes. Ray said several times how much the support of EDU was valued, how available the staff development activities were, and also commended the new mentored appraisal process. Ray commented on seeing others respond positively to EDU courses, on the effects of early teaching experiences in a supportive group of staff, and on personal learning through the DipTT self-directed process. Although Ray had started part-time many years ago, it appeared most staff in computing today were being appointed full-time. Overall, Ray conveyed a positive sense of being a teacher in a departmental community of practice that encouraged good teaching, and had positive processes for inducting new members and maintaining and developing practice.

Being a teacher in the design department:

Alex was an enthusiastic teacher, but very conscious of factors that reduced contacts and communication in that department: many staff were part-timers who came on campus only to teach, did not have their own offices, and usually did not attend staff meetings. Alex accepted that part-timers were too busy with their main external jobs to make time for tutor training, a situation similar to Alex's own first experiences in the polytechnic. Some full-timers (including Alex) were on research conditions and so might be off-campus working on projects or consultancies; some had isolated offices; some taught papers in specialisms that others knew little about and could not contribute to; and there was a general busyness from increasing student numbers and workload. Administrative workload had created a shared impression among staff of institutional bureaucracy. Alex had not completed the CAT programme and was critical of its teaching approach: CAT was offered to new staff but Alex had little expectation of their doing it. Alex talked more of things that had been learnt by trial and error, such as developing interpersonal skills through dealings with students. Alex expressed a sense of responsibility for supervising new staff, and for helping others with problems if they identified a concern and requested help. A major factor that had promoted collaboration and a sense of community in the department was work on curriculum development projects, especially new degrees, which led to colleagues discussing teaching approaches as well as content during the development period. There was little sense, however, that teaching processes had remained as an ongoing communal focus. Overall, a picture emerged of a community bound by common interests in the wider field of design beyond the polytechnic, and the need for the design degree curriculum to relate to such external influences. No strong sense of teaching as a commonly shared focus of community practice emerged from this department.

Being a teacher in the communication studies department:

Kit had frequent contact with other teachers, both through co-teaching with a colleague, and through collaboration with staff from other departments whose programmes included communication courses. The need for care in communicating with staff in the other programmes was particularly noted. Kit also talked about ways of providing variety for students by involving external visitors. Kit was conscious of learning both by "osmosis" from experience and observing others teach, and by attending staff development courses and seminars. Kit valued seeing others teach, thought new staff

would benefit from having considerable time to observe others teaching, and also mentioned the value of social as well as work contacts among staff. Kit noted that there were fewer part-time staff today than in the past, and that many staff in the department had trained as schoolteachers; the rest had all done the polytechnic's CAT. Staff teaching in degrees in that department were expected to be engaged in research (Kit was engaged in PhD research). Discussion of teaching practice was reported as limited among the departmental group as a whole: a sense emerged that teaching was valued in the department, but its small size and its focus on teaching in other departments' programmes meant that people's energies were spread widely rather than being closely focused in the immediate community of communication teachers.

Being a teacher in the engineering department:

Phil's account gave little sense of the department as a close community (compared with the departments of the other teachers interviewed), as many staff chose to work off-campus when not required to be present for classes or meetings. Phil commended this in terms of recognising the autonomy and individual responsibility of staff, but it was also noticeable that Phil said nothing about experiential learning from working with other staff. Phil had not completed tutor training, and believed that others in the department shared an opinion that it was not sufficiently relevant to those teaching technical subjects. Phil's colleagues were more likely to focus their professional development on keeping up-to-date in their content, which generally meant networking with organisations (industry) outside the polytechnic. Phil talked about having a sense that teaching was an intuitive activity and that only some aspects could be learned (from colleagues or courses) rather than being part of one's personality. Staff collaboration in curriculum matters was acknowledged - but Phil also said that, while the programme leaders were aware of the bigger picture, many teachers focused just on their own papers, and that was having some impact on student perceptions of a lack of integration. While the CAT courses were not favoured by some in the department, individual support provided by EDU was commended, especially when problems were identified (as had happened in recent years). Thus the overall picture of this department, from one person's perspective, suggested a focus on teaching curriculum content, meeting institutional QMS requirements, and keeping subject matter up-to-date - but not a sense of a community where the developing and maintaining the practice of teaching - an interest in teaching/learning processes - was a major community concern.

Appendix P

Vignettes of communities of practice, drawn from the case studies, one per institution, using the art/design teachers' contexts for comparison

A. The university art lecturer's community of practice

Chris was very conscious of shared values and practices among colleagues in the Art School, and also saw students as joining the community of practising artists. Chris said: "I believe that teaching is hugely valued at this art school and forms the basis of what we do". Chris wanted to challenge, stimulate and extend students, and thought this was typical of colleagues' attitudes too; but the relationships Chris developed with students were more individual.

The School had a distinct location in a purpose-designed building, and flexible approaches to teaching (such as negotiating projects with individual students) were the norm. Staff frequently visited each others' teaching studios, and also worked on their own projects in the studios alongside their students. They reviewed and reflected on their individual and community practice annually, when the students' portfolios were examined – an example of 'mutual engagement and tuning their enterprise' over time.

Chris was aware (from EDU seminars) that ways of doing things in the School were different from those in more traditional university departments, suggesting that the 'shared repertoire, styles and discourses' of the Art School community were indeed distinctive. For Chris, the discipline and the department formed an intertwined community of practice, but little was said to suggest a comparably strong sense of the wider university community.

While EDU seminars and team teaching with an experienced colleague had contributed to Chris's learning, most learning about teaching in that School was gained through the teachers' informal, ongoing work, and talking about their work, together. Current staff members were working more closely together than had been the case when Chris first started – a further example of 'tuning the enterprise'.

B. The wananga applied arts teacher's communities of practice

Very different community experiences were described by the applied arts tutor at the wananga. Tutors there belonged to at least three internal overlapping communities of practice, united by the whanau concept and Kaupapa Maori. The most immediate community of practice was the group of tutors at the local campus. The next was the group of subject colleagues at other campuses, who communicated by phone, fax, emails or occasional visits, and met at the national, cross-campus hui - evidence of 'mutual engagement and tuning their enterprise'. The third was the whole wananga as a community of practice, most visible at the national hui, but also having an influence through the discourse of central requirements that applied to all teachers.

On campus, tutors shared common practices such as spending four days a week in home-rooms with their students, then the fifth day on Maori language and teacher development activities. Many 'second-chance' students needed support in building confidence and self-esteem, and strategies for supporting students were shared among campus colleagues. While Ata had moved from language teaching to arts, giving personal support to students remained central, so that Ata's home-room was a supportive mini-community for students.

External community influences came more through networking with local organisations that were potential employers of wananga students, than through teachers' membership of disciplinary groups and professional organisations. The wananga also had relationships with the various iwi of regions where campuses had been established.

The wananga stressed the importance of teaching, and Ata and colleagues were proud of being engaged in completing a tertiary teaching degree (from an external provider). Newer tutors were expected to complete the wananga's own qualification. Ata was very aware of being part of the wananga's community history, and perceived that staff and students were part of a continuing story. Some staff stayed only a short time, finding it hard to become fully committed; others stayed on, becoming part of the whanau, teaching for the satisfaction of the work. Thus the wananga tutors had 'shared repertoire, styles and discourses', some of which related to their campus community, some to their subject community, and some to the wananga as a whole.

C. The polytechnic design lecturer's community

The design lecturer's context provided evidence of another very different community of practice. Alex was responsible for computer graphics in the design department, the only in-house specialist for several degree papers, and supervisor of a number of part-time staff and the department's computer technicians. Increased enrolments had put pressure on staff in recent years, especially in papers with student projects requiring individual supervision as well as group teaching. Full-time teachers therefore carried heavy teaching and administrative loads.

Alex had started out as a part-timer and knew what it was like to juggle external priorities with fitting in teaching and marking. It appeared that many full-time staff had entered that way, so that they gradually became accustomed to the department's ways, but often bypassed the polytechnic's probation support processes and courses on teaching. Alex talked of the comparative isolation of staff – they had scattered offices, some were off-campus doing research or consultancy work, others were part-time – creating a feeling of “passing like ships in the night”.

Distinctive elements of this community of practice included the teachers' enthusiasm for design and for preparing students to go into design careers; and their curriculum development initiatives (such as new degrees), which had brought staff together and generated much discussion on teaching methods as well as content. Other common factors included maintaining contact with professional communities outside the polytechnic; people's general lack of formal teacher development and dependence on trial and error learning - though that was to some extent balanced by their communication skills as designers; and dealing with the requirements of what they perceived as the polytechnic's 'bureaucracy'. Thus, while they had the 'shared repertoire and discourse' of a community of practice, it would seem that at times 'mutual engagement and tuning their enterprise' might be under some strain.

Appendix Q

Extract from:

Polytechnic Academic Staff Members' Collective Employment Agreement for Members of ASTE (Association of Staff in Tertiary Education) at xx Polytechnic

Characteristics of Teaching Staff, ASM, SASM and PASM Grades

Schedule C

Factors characterising academic staff members and senior academic staff members

These characteristics should be applied:

1. in the identification of academic staff positions
2. during probationary period
3. for career progression

ASMs [Academic Staff Members] are expected to assume responsibility for the quality of their own outcomes insofar as they relate to the dimensions of practice identified below. In other areas ASMs should work under the guidance of SASMs [Senior Academic Staff Members] or PAsMs [Principal Academic Staff Members].

They should:

1. Be competent in their discipline / subject area
2. Implement and develop programmes (respond to feedback)
3. Apply effective communication skills in learning situations related to their discipline
4. Select and apply teaching and/or learning strategies to promote effective learning consistent with individual student learning needs
5. Contribute to the development of and implement programmes for the assessment of student learning
6. Recognise student learning difficulties and arrange for appropriate support
7. Evaluate and reflect on own practice in order to identify directions and strategies for development
8. Demonstrate commitment to ongoing professional development both within their discipline and as an educator:
 - Initiate and respond to feedback from students and/or peers
 - Plan and implement programmes for professional development
9. Practise in non-racist and non-sexist ways and be sensitive to students and colleagues with special needs
10. Demonstrate that their practice is informed by the current body of knowledge about effective teaching and learning
11. Be able to contribute to the effective outcome of work teams
12. Participate in the broader professional and academic life of the institution
13. Discharge administrative responsibilities integral to ASM's work
14. Support and contribute to the objectives, direction and operation of their department including research projects where appropriate
15. Practise within the policy framework and legislative obligations of the institution.

SASMs [Senior Academic Staff Members] are expected to take responsibility for the quality of their own outcomes insofar as they relate to the dimensions of practice identified below...

They should:

1. Be able to demonstrate advanced standing in their discipline / subject area
2. Design, implement, develop and evaluate new and existing programmes of learning (through application of defensible models).
3. Apply effective communication skills in diverse learning situations.
4. Select and apply teaching and/or learning strategies consistent with individual student learning needs.
5. Select and apply strategies to enable students to develop as independent learners.
6. Plan, implement and evaluate programmes for the assessment of student learning, including the assessment of prior experiential learning.
7. Be able to identify student learning difficulties and plan and implement strategies for improvement.
8. Design and implement small-scale research into effective teaching and/or learning within own discipline.
9. Evaluate and reflect on own practice in order to identify directions and strategies for improvement.
10. Demonstrate commitment to ongoing professional development both within their discipline and as an educator:
 - Initiate and respond to feedback from students and peers
 - Plan and implement programmes for professional development
11. Practise in non-racist and non-sexist ways and be sensitive to students and colleagues with special needs.
12. Demonstrate that their practice is informed by the current body of knowledge about effective teaching and learning.
13. Take responsibility for the effective outcome of work teams.
14. Actively contribute to the broader academic and professional life of the institution
15. Discharge administrative responsibilities integral to the SASM role.
16. Practise within the policy framework and legislative obligations of the institution.
17. Demonstrate professional activities which contribute in a positive way to the reputation of the [institution] / profession, eg research, consultancy, publication.
18. Actively support and contribute to the objectives, direction and operation of their department and the[institution].

Principal Academic Staff Members Criteria

The following extract is from the annual promotion package:

The PASM grade provides for progression beyond the SASM grade. Academic staff will demonstrate the characteristics of excellence in all aspects of educational delivery set out for the SASM grade, as well as the additional PASM criteria listed below:

19. Demonstrate professional leadership and act as a role model to staff on matters relating to policy and workplace relationships and any or all of the following:
20. Demonstrate leadership as an educator, and / or
21. Demonstrate leadership in their discipline, and / or
22. Demonstrate professional activities (including research) which contribute in a positive way to the reputation of [the institution].

Appendix R

Glossary of Maori terms:

Ahuatanga Maori	Maori tradition(s)
Hui	Gathering or meeting
Hui a Kaupapa	Staff development gathering
Iwi	Tribe
Kaiako	Teacher, tutor
Kaimahi	Staff member (not only teachers)
Karakia	Prayers
Kaupapa	Culture and values
Kohanga Reo	Maori language pre-school
Korowai	Cloak
Mahi	Contribution
Manaakitanga	Respect
Matauranga	School / learning and teaching
Pakeha	Non-Maori
Pou Tautoko	Campus Manager
Powhiri	Welcome
Raranga	Weaving
Tangata whenua	People of the land or local area
Tangi	Funeral
Tauira	Student or students
Te Kura Toi	Visual Arts
Te Reo	Language
Tikanga	Customary practices
Tohu	Award for a qualification, eg a certificate
Waihanga Akoranga	Programme development
Waka	Canoe
Wananga	Maori tertiary institution
Whaea	Mother or senior woman
Whakaakoranga	Programme Delivery
Whakapapa	History
Whakairo Rakau	Carving
Whanau	Family

Appendix S

Glossary of abbreviations used

ACTT	Advanced Certificate in Tertiary Teaching (at case study wananga)
APNZ	Association of Polytechnics of New
ASDUNZ	Association of Staff Developers of Universities in NZ
ASM	Academic Staff Member (at the polytechnic)
AVC(A)	Assistant vice chancellor (Academic)
CAT	Certificate in Adult Teaching (a 40-credit, level 4 qualification at the case study polytechnic; other polytechnics offer similar)
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CPD	Continuing professional development
CUAP	Committee for University Academic Programmes (NZVCC Subcommittee)
DipTT	Diploma in Tertiary Teaching (used as a generic name for 120-credit qualifications offered at case study wananga and several polytechnics)
EDU	Educational Development Unit (used as a generic name in all three case studies, although local names for such units varied)
EFTS	Equivalent Full-Time Students
FE	Further Education, in UK
HE	Higher Education
HERDSA	Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia
HOD	Head of Department
HR	Human Resources [Department]
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ILT	Institute for Learning and Teaching (UK)
ITO	Industry Training Organisation
ITPNZ	Institutes of Technology and Polytechnics of New Zealand
MAccess	Maori Access programmes
MOE	Ministry University Human Ethics Committee
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
NZPPC	New Zealand Polytechnic Programmes Committee (APNZ Subcommittee)
NZQA	New Zealand Qualifications Authority
NZVCC	New Zealand Vice-Chancellors Committee

PASM	Professional Academic Staff Member (at the polytechnic)
PTE	Private Training Establishment (NZ)
PVC(A)	Pro-Vice-Chancellor (Academic)
QMS	Quality Management System
SASM	Senior Academic Staff Member (at the polytechnic)
SEDA	Staff and Educational Development Association (UK)
SGID	Small Group Instructional Diagnosis
TAFE	Technical and Further Education, in Australia
TEC	Tertiary Education Commission (NZ)
TEAC	Tertiary Education Advisory Commission (NZ)
TLHE	Literature of teaching and learning in higher education
TOPS	Training Opportunities Programmes
TTU	Tutor Training Unit, national facility for polytechnic tutors, 1973-86
VET	Vocational Education and Training