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**Does teaching matter?  
Reconceptualising teaching, scholarship, and the PhD  
programme in New Zealand university English departments**

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

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

*in*

*English*

*Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand*

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**1999**

## ABSTRACT

Recent international research in higher education laments the undervalued status of teaching. Teaching is research's poor cousin, the superstar actor's underpaid double, the motorbike's sidecar. An academic's time and energy are poured, sometimes enthusiastically, sometimes grudgingly, into teaching, but numerous studies reveal that the glory, the kudos, the money, and the rewards come mainly from research. Moreover, most university teachers remain un(der)trained and un(der)supported.

What of the New Zealand situation? Little research has been carried out into teaching and teacher training in higher education in New Zealand, and even less research exists on teaching in *English* in New Zealand universities. In a pioneering attempt to make good this omission, this case-study examines New Zealand English academics' attitudes, particularly towards the following questions. Does teaching matter? Are teachers being adequately trained? Should the PhD be modified to provide a more effective training ground for potential university teachers of English in New Zealand? Are research and teaching competing forces in an academic's life, and might we reconceptualise all the activities of the academic under a broader notion of "scholarship"?

A brief historical overview of the development of the university, the discipline of English, and the PhD is followed by a detailed consideration of the introduction of English as a university subject to New Zealand. The evolution of curriculum, teaching methods, research and graduate study in English are described before current perceptions, policies and practices regarding teaching in English are considered in the light of questionnaires, focus groups, and interviews with full-time and part-time New Zealand English academics. The thesis makes recommendations regarding both teaching and the PhD, and self-reflexivity, discussion and collaboration are called for in order that a reconceptualisation of the PhD programme and the New Zealand English academic's role may occur.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis could not have been completed without the financial support of a Massey Doctoral Scholarship, for which I am very grateful. I am also thankful to the School of English and Media Studies for providing me with so many resources, including an office, photocopying and printing facilities, teaching and secretarial work, encouragement, support and friendship.

Within the School of English and Media Studies, I would particularly like to thank Karen Rhodes for her enthusiasm, advice, wisdom and laughter; Deborah Laurs for her patience and help with my teaching, and for her friendship; William Broughton for making me feel so welcome and coming up with a number of useful documents and hints along the way; Warwick Slinn for his invaluable help with my GRF application; Russell Poole for his advice and help with my questionnaire and with any curly questions I had about being a graduate student; and John Muirhead and Angie Farrow for their encouragement and insightful comments.

Thanks must go to the History Department staff who helped me trial my questionnaire, as well as Professor Ian Gordon for his willingness to reminisce. I also want to acknowledge Margaret Franken's invaluable advice. Thank you so much for all your help; I only wish we had met earlier!

I owe a HUGE debt of gratitude to the women in the English office – Julie McKenzie, Maree Fraser, Jane Moran, and (in 1998) Jo Matheson. You're all saints.

Less saintly, but ever so supportive, are my fellow graduate students (past and present) – you've all helped to make Massey and Palmerston North feel like home and have been understanding, helpful, caring and fun. Thanks especially to Lauren and Cushla for their sanity-saving lunch breaks and their fridge.

My friends outside of Massey have been pillars of support and put up with endless whinging about my poverty-stricken, stressful parody of a life. I have a job now, so I'll

shout you all a drink or four in Wellington! Special thanks to Liz and Pen, my wonderful flatmates, and Gerry, Michelle, Liz C., the Pams, Marcus and Sinbad.

Associate Professor Wayne Edwards was an encouraging and supportive second supervisor and I am grateful for his time and energy.

I am indebted to Professor Dick Corballis, my chief supervisor, and owe him the biggest thanks of all. I am grateful, firstly, that he took me on when no-one else seemed interested. But mostly I am thankful for his endless patience, his willingness to meet whenever I wanted to, his ideas, his editing skills and his friendship. Thank you for everything.

And last of all, thank you to all my family, but especially my parents, for believing in me, supporting me, loving me and trusting that I would one day no longer be a student! This thesis is as much your achievement as it is mine and I dedicate it to you both, Mum and Dad.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AAU	Academic Audit Unit
AP	Associate Professor
AUS	Association of University Staff (NZ)
CAUT	Committee for the Advancement of University Teaching (Australia)
CEQ	Course Experience Questionnaire
HERDSA	Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia
HoD	Head of Department
ILT	National Institute for Learning and Teaching (UK)
L	Lecturer
LISQ	Learning Improvement Strategies Questionnaire
MEd	Master of Education
NZUAAU	New Zealand Universities' Academic Audit Unit
NZVCC	New Zealand Vice Chancellors' Committee
P	Professor
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
SEDA	Staff and Educational Development Association (UK)
SEEQ	Students' Evaluation of Educational Quality
SL	Senior Lecturer
SPSS	Statistics Package for Social Sciences
ST	Senior Tutor
T	Tutor (part-time)
TLC	Teaching and Learning Centre
TWN	Tertiary Writers' Network
UK	United Kingdom
UNZ	University of New Zealand
US	United States

# PART ONE

---

## *Introduction*

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## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

*There must be...a radical change in attitudes to teaching.*

Dearing Report, UK, 1997.

*Our perception is that while our universities are showing a renewed interest in teaching, they have a long way to go.*

West Report, Australia, 1998.

*The quality of teaching in tertiary education could be improved.*

White Paper on Tertiary Education, New Zealand, 1998.

Teaching is undervalued in universities around the world. A burgeoning body of literature tells us so<sup>1</sup>. While most academics identify themselves as teachers<sup>2</sup>, they are generally evaluated, rewarded, and promoted on the basis of their research. Research holds more sway partly because of an ingrained faith in its measurability, at least in a quantitative sense. Teaching ability, achievement, and activities, on the other hand, are viewed as slippery - harder to pin down, document and quantify<sup>3</sup>.

During their graduate studies, academics undertake varying degrees of research training, but few are trained as teachers<sup>4</sup>. A consequent lack of discussion and understanding about teaching has created a culture of resistance and a fear of change<sup>5</sup>, rooting the system in a status quo around which the "tired old teaching versus research debate" (Boyer, 1990; Weimer, 1997) circles, without any great effect on the privileged status of research. In the minds of many critics, the time is well overdue for a reconceptualisation of the role of the academic, according more value to teaching, without vitiating the role of

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<sup>1</sup> Ramsden, Margetson, Martin & Clarke (1995), in their report for the Committee for the Advancement of University Teaching in Australia, produce a comprehensive, extensively-researched literature review on recognising and rewarding good teaching in higher education, and it would be redundant to reproduce a similar review here. However, considerably more literature has appeared since the publication of their report, and I include references to these more recent studies in footnotes. Some of the more recent writing which refers specifically to the undervaluing of teaching includes, Baker, 1995; Cranton, 1997; Cross & Steadman, 1996; Dearing, 1997; Forest, 1998; Lewis, 1996; Menges & Weimer, 1996; Rowland, 1996; Teichler, 1996; Tomazos, 1997; and West, 1998.

<sup>2</sup> On identity, see Boyer, Altbach & Whitelaw, 1994; Entwistle, 1998b; Lewis, 1996; and Teichler, 1996.

<sup>3</sup> See for example, Baker, 1995; Lewis, 1996; and Rowland, 1996.

<sup>4</sup> On training issues, see Baker, 1995; Ellis, 1995; Entwistle, 1998a; Gibbs, 1998; Knapper, 1997; Lewis, 1996; Teichler, 1996; and Tomazos, 1997.

<sup>5</sup> On resistance, see Brookfield, 1995; Meade, 1997; Panitz & Panitz, 1998; Tomazos, 1997; and Upcraft, 1996.

research (or, for that matter, administration or service - to the discipline, the university, and the community).

Despite the bold claim in the New Zealand Education Amendment Act (1990) that a major characteristic of a university is that "research and teaching are closely interdependent and most of the teaching is done by people who are active in advancing knowledge" (Section 162.4a(ii)), New Zealand academics appear to be struggling to maintain a balance between the competing demands of research, which is extrinsically well-rewarded, and teaching, which is expected but taken-for-granted and time-consuming (though arguably *intrinsically* rewarding)<sup>6</sup>.

Meanwhile, a constantly changing and expanding student population means academics in the 1990s have to adapt their teaching accordingly. The tertiary student population in New Zealand increased 93.7% between 1985, when it numbered 102,673, and 1995, when it was 198,914 (Maani, 1997, p. 10). Upcraft (1996) identifies the following significant factors, which have led to a more diverse student population than ever before: increased racial/ethnic diversity<sup>7</sup>, a changing gender balance<sup>8</sup>, varying enrolment status (more part-time students), changes in the number of students in different age groups<sup>9</sup>, differences in residential status (more students living off-campus), increased numbers of students with disabilities and differing sexual orientations, leaps in international student enrolments, as well as changes in attitudes and values, family dynamics, health, and academic preparation. Furthermore, university students in the 1990s come to university

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<sup>6</sup> See Dwyer, 1998; Huntely-Moore & Panter, 1994; Johnston, 1997; Lewis, 1996; McKeachie, 1997; Muller, 1998; and Ramsden, 1992 about issues surrounding the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and rewards for teaching and research.

<sup>7</sup> Maani (1997) records that "participation rates for Maori, Pacific Islander, and the Asian population, have increased significantly during the past decade. For example, in the case of Maori university enrolments, the increase has been by over three times from 2,168 in 1986 to 9,118 in 1996" (p. 15), while Asian students numbered 1,395 in 1986 and 9,099 in 1996 (p. 10).

<sup>8</sup> The proportion of females in higher education in New Zealand has risen steadily in the last decade. Maani records that where females made up 49.3% of the student population in 1986, in 1996 that figure was 53% (p. 33).

<sup>9</sup> Maani (1997, p. 34) lists the following increases in age groups:

	1985	1995
40+	8,617	27,896
35-39	5,813	16,065
30-34	7,706	19,836
25-29	12,356	24,820

for differing reasons; many, Martin (1999) suggests, seek future employment and the status of a degree, rather than the opportunity to question and develop theoretical ideas.

Upcraft (1996) also cites major upheavals in the funding of higher education as contributing to the changes confronting today's students, and, in turn, today's academics. The average New Zealand university fee in 1985 was \$118. In 1995, it was \$1,910 (Maani, 1997, p. 22). In 1984, 39,325 students received an allowance; in 1994, only 40,105 did so, despite there being nearly double the number of students in tertiary education.

New Zealand academics now face a situation where a constantly changing and expanding student population, rising student fees, regular academic audits, a higher public profile, and demands for accountability mean teaching has assumed extraordinary importance, but it still seems to remain undervalued and under-rewarded within the institution. This thesis addresses the issue of teaching in New Zealand universities (particularly in English departments), and asks, "*Does teaching matter?*"

## **1.2 FACTORS MOTIVATING THE STUDY**

After completing a rather scathing evaluation of a (North American) graduate English course which had left me feeling, among other things, degraded, stupid, worthless and ignorant, I (and the nine other students in the class) looked forward to seeing the professor concerned censured, and the course revamped or assigned to another professor, if not completely removed. To our dismay, the course appeared unchanged in the English graduate handbook the following year, eventually producing at least ten more disgruntled graduate students. What was the point, we wondered, in evaluating the course and the teacher, if no action came of it? We confronted the department chair and were horrified to learn that, in fact, the professor had not even been shown the negative comments on the evaluations, only the positive ones. Department policy at the time (for reasons never properly articulated to us) apparently mandated the withholding of negative comments on student evaluations.

This experience of having my opinions ignored and my learning devalued led me to seek out information on teaching policies and practices within the department and the university, and I eventually enrolled in a graduate course, “Teaching and Learning in Higher Education”. The readings for this course, and for the later directed study I undertook with the Director of the Teaching and Learning Centre, included Ernest Boyer’s highly influential work, *Scholarship reconsidered: Priorities of the professoriate* (1990). In this report, Boyer bemoans the fact that teaching is undervalued in most institutions of higher learning, and he calls for a reassessment of academic priorities. He attacks the university’s narrow notion of scholarship as research and calls for a broader definition, with four foci:

- the scholarship of discovery (what we would traditionally call research)
- the scholarship of integration (giving meaning to research through inter-, multi-, and cross-disciplinary connections)
- the scholarship of application (the traditional concept of service), and
- the scholarship of teaching.

While these four distinctive, yet overlapping, components together constitute scholarship in its fullest sense, Boyer acknowledges that an academic may, at various times, emphasise one aspect more strongly than the other three. All four, however, must exist alongside each other in a true scholar. Boyer’s multi-dimensional rubric informs my thesis, and I endorse his call for a reconceptualisation of the academic role which takes account of all four aspects; however, the limited scope of a PhD thesis (which itself becomes an issue for analysis in Part Five below) prevents me from taking account of the whole picture, and forces me to concentrate most closely on just one of Boyer’s notions of scholarship – the scholarship of teaching.

In New Zealand, the importance of university teaching and its relationship to research are issues that have not often been formally explored. We seem content to let the “tired old debate” about the relationship between teaching and research in higher education go on elsewhere, without engaging in public or published discussion ourselves. We have no equivalent of the Australian Committee for the Advancement of University Teaching (CAUT), National Institute for Learning and Teaching (ILT) or the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA) in the UK, or the US Carnegie

Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. No New Zealand-based journal *regularly* publishes articles on teaching and learning issues in higher education, though the New Zealand *Education Review* and the *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies* do print *occasional* articles of interest to university-level teachers, as does *Connections*, a journal for and by teachers of adults, but aimed primarily at those working in vocational education. In addition, whereas the UK and Australian governments have both recently commissioned and published reports on higher education which directly confront teaching issues at university-level, New Zealand's recent White Paper on tertiary education had only some very general things to say about teaching:

The quality of research, teaching, and accountability in tertiary education could be improved (p. 5).

The teaching of a degree of international quality needs to be conducted in an environment where research is actively taking place (p. 29).

Furthermore, the Education Amendment Act (1990), cited by most New Zealand universities in their charters or mission statements, sets up a lopsided teaching/research paradigm when it calls for teaching informed by research, but fails to acknowledge or encourage research prompted by teaching. More important, the recent proposal, outlined in the 1998 White Paper on tertiary education, to separate research and teaching funding for universities reinforces the teaching/research dichotomy so derided in much of the recent higher education literature overseas, and restricts New Zealand academics to an outdated binary system which most other countries, in light of Boyer's work, are attempting to reconceptualise.

By focussing on teaching, I may stand accused of perpetuating this outdated binary system. However, I have chosen to emphasise teaching within Boyer's wider notion of scholarship and apply his ideals (since developed and expanded by others, including Brew, 1999; Cross & Steadman, 1996; Glassick et al., 1997; Menges & Weimer, 1996; and Paulsen & Feldman, 1995) to the discipline of English in New Zealand universities, as a means not of *reinforcing* binaries, but of *reconceptualising* and moving towards a new understanding of scholarship, one which includes and values teaching as a significant part of the English academic's role.

As an English person<sup>12</sup> myself, I felt it pertinent to study my own discipline, but English people are the focus of this thesis for more than personal reasons. Having completed my Bachelor of Arts and Master of Arts in English and served as a tutor in three English departments, I had developed an enthusiasm for the subject and a desire not only to develop my own understanding of its *raison d'être*, but also to offer a contribution to the way English as a university subject is defined. My contacts within the field guaranteed me ready access to participants and data, though the pitfalls of working too closely with people known to the researcher are well documented<sup>13</sup>. More significantly, the discipline of English, though relatively new to the university scene, is arguably the academic arena in which the tension between teaching and learning is most dramatic, since the authority of the teacher grapples not only with the students' authority but also with that of the literary and critical texts (see Section 2.7.5). Furthermore, English teachers at New Zealand universities consistently rate well above average in student evaluations, which suggests that their commitment to teaching is strong, and therefore makes them ideal candidates for a study on attitudes towards teaching.

### 1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The main aims of the research are to examine New Zealand English academics' attitudes towards teaching and the PhD programme, and, as a result, to reassess existing notions of scholarship. As noted above, Boyer (1990) breaks scholarship down into four components – discovery, integration, application and teaching. I shall focus principally on *teaching* within a New Zealand context, by delving into the attitudes of English academics towards teaching, comparing these with international attitudes, and placing both in the context of existing policy and practice and within Boyer's wider notion of scholarship. The object is to develop a sense of where New Zealand university English

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<sup>12</sup> Colin Evans (1993) in his book, *English people: The experience of teaching and learning English in British universities*, refers to the subjects of his study as "English people". At times in this thesis, I will also use this phrase to refer to teachers of English in New Zealand universities, not to people whose country of origin is England.

<sup>13</sup> Cresswell, 1998, sums up the main concerns: "individuals might withhold information, slant information toward what they want the researcher to hear, or provide 'dangerous knowledge' that is political and risky for an 'inside' investigator" (p. 114). By making this a multi-site case study, I have, hopefully, eliminated some of these worries, and moved the study beyond the "backyard" which Cresswell and others identify as potentially limiting and deceptive.

stands, and could possibly go, particularly with respect to the scholarship of teaching. To this end, the thesis builds on the research on teaching and teachers in higher education carried out by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in the United States (Boyer, 1990 and Boyer et al., 1994), the Committee for the Advancement of University Teaching in Australia (Ramsden et al., 1995), Halsey (1992) in the UK, and Teichler (1996) in Western Europe, Japan and the USA. The focus is narrower than these overseas studies in that I look only at teachers in university *English* departments in New Zealand. In another respect, however, my focus is broader in that I look at the role of the PhD in preparing *potential* university teachers for their roles as academics.

#### **1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

As mentioned earlier, formal discussion about the roles and attitudes of university teachers and the relationship between teaching and research is less prevalent in New Zealand than overseas. The New Zealand Association for Research in Education holds an annual conference at which one stream of ten is dedicated to tertiary education, but this is often a place for the presentation of disciplinary research, rather than discussion of teaching. The Association for University Staff (AUS) periodically releases statements and discussion documents on issues concerning teaching. Encouragingly, the Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia (HERDSA) held their annual conference at the University of Auckland last year, at which a significant number of New Zealand academics presented papers on teaching issues.

However, survey research exploring university teachers' conceptions of and attitudes towards teaching (in general, as well as in the discipline of English) in the form of journal articles, books and theses is thin on the ground in New Zealand and can be summed up fairly quickly. Au (1983) and Ashcroft (1987) look specifically at academic training and development issues, in an MEd and PhD thesis respectively, while Khull (1997) and Patrick (1998) look at *polytechnic* academics' conceptions of teaching and learning in their Masters theses. Meanwhile, Baskerville (1998) and Sullivan (1997) address workload issues in their reports from Massey and Victoria respectively.

In terms of survey research into the wider university system, resources are more readily available and recent publications include the Academic Audit Unit (AAU) *Audit Reports*, as well as occasional papers and discussion documents from the Association for University Staff (AUS) on issues such as accreditation of university staff, for example. Maani (1997) presents and dissects interesting statistical information on numbers and types of university students, and on university funding, as do Butterworth and Tarling (1994), though their book is essentially an historical overview of the university in New Zealand.

An intensive search of the *Union List of Higher Degree Theses in New Zealand Libraries* as well as on-line database searches turned up no theses or books on the status or reform of the PhD degree in New Zealand, in English or any other discipline. Nor did such searches reveal much on teaching at university level in English. Mark Williams's chapter in the latest edition of the *Oxford history of New Zealand literature* (1998) deals mostly with the development of New Zealand literary scholarship and criticism, but briefly mentions some university teachers and English departments. Likewise, the recent collection of essays in honour of Colin Gibson, *World and stage* (Waite, et al., 1998), contains some academics' reminiscences about teaching or being taught in English, especially at Otago University. Donald Anderson's (1950) Otago PhD thesis, *The teaching of English in the university*, is apparently the only document to deal specifically with teaching in English at university level. However, while Anderson's thesis offers an interesting historical overview of the curriculum in English, he makes little mention of teaching practices, policies, or methods. Moreover, his thesis never actually passed examination – he was asked to re-submit it with major revisions in 1950, but never actually did so.

Consequently, this thesis aims to make a significant contribution not only to the international body of literature on the scholarship of teaching, and the recognition and reward of good teaching at university level, but also to the sparse body of literature on higher education in New Zealand. It will hopefully serve as a springboard for many more studies of these issues and of the discipline of English in New Zealand.

## 1.5 NATURE OF THE STUDY

In light of the historically mute/d voices of New Zealand English academics on the subject of teaching, a case study approach seemed most practicable, focussing on what English academics had to say, without simply reducing their attitudes to a tick in a box or a circled number. Numerical data does, however, form part of this research alongside written, spoken and observed material, making this, then, an exploratory, instrumental<sup>14</sup>, multi-site case study<sup>15</sup>, using triangulation<sup>16</sup> of information with some quantitative techniques<sup>17</sup>. The case study involved the study of official and historical documents, as well as the participation of full- and part-time English academics in questionnaires, interviews and focus groups, and Part Three: Methodology details these methods in more depth, as well as considering the effectiveness of using a combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques.

## 1.6 DEFINITIONS

In the interests of clarity, I offer definitions for some key terms which will be used regularly throughout this thesis.

### 1.6.1 Teaching

Teaching extends well beyond designing a course and delivering it to students, as the following definition by Paul Ramsden, in his book, *Learning to teach in higher education* (1992) implies:

‘Teaching’ ... is defined in its broadest sense to include the aims of the curriculum, the methods of transmitting the knowledge those aims embody, the assessment of students, and the evaluation of the effectiveness of the instruction with which they are provided (Ramsden, 1992, p. 9).

The “methods of transmitting knowledge” in turn encompass more than lecturing or giving tutorials, as the job of teaching reaches well outside the university classroom. The

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<sup>14</sup> “Instrumental” implies using the case study to illustrate a particular issue (in this case, teaching).

<sup>15</sup> The case is singular – “English” – but the sites are multiple (in different universities).

<sup>16</sup> “In qualitative research, the convergence of sources of information, views of investigators, different theories, and different methodologies represents the triangulation of ideas” (Cresswell, 1998, p. 251). Denzin & Lincoln (1994) state that “triangulation is not a tool or strategy of validation, but an alternative to validation. ... a strategy that adds rigor, breadth, and depth to any investigation” (p. 2).

<sup>17</sup> Yin (1994) and Strauss & Corbin (1990) agree that using both quantitative and qualitative evidence within a case study is feasible and sometimes desirable.

University of Auckland provides, in their Teaching and Learning Policy, a more explicit summary of what they believe constitutes teaching in practice:

Teaching includes one-to-one consultations, postgraduate supervision, classroom teaching, supervising students in labs, clinics, schools and industry, supervising projects, advising students, assessing students' work...liaison with librarians to support learning, preparing teaching and course materials for on-campus and off-campus students, and contributing to course design and curriculum development (University of Auckland, 1999, p. 1).

The effectiveness of such a diverse range of teaching practice cannot be pinned down to one "best way", but research shows that there is significant agreement on what qualities are essential to good teaching at university level, as summed up by Ramsden, et al. (1995):

- Good teachers are also good learners
- Good teachers display enthusiasm for their subject and desire to share it with their students
- Good teachers recognise the importance of context, and adapt their teaching accordingly
- Good teachers encourage deep learning approaches, rather than surface approaches, and are concerned with developing their students' critical thinking skills, problem-solving skills, and problem-approach behaviours
- Good teachers demonstrate an ability to transform and extend knowledge, rather than merely transmitting it
- Good teachers set clear goals, use valid and appropriate assessment methods, and provide high quality feedback to their students, and
- Good teachers show respect for their students; they are interested in both their professional and their personal growth, encourage their independence and sustain high expectations of them

(Ramsden et al. 1995, p. 24).

Furthermore, good teachers are prepared to reflect critically on their teaching practice, and subject their teaching to self-, peer-, and student-evaluation, as well as keeping up-to-date with theoretical innovations and developments (Boyer, 1990; Brookfield, 1995; Ramsden, 1992)<sup>18</sup>.

### **1.7.1 Research**

The New Zealand Vice Chancellors' Committee (NZVCC) defines research in the following way:

Research is intellectually controlled investigation. It advances knowledge through the discovery and codification of new information or the development

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<sup>18</sup> This thesis does not set out to examine or evaluate current teaching practices in New Zealand English departments, though Section Two provides a historical context for such an examination; rather, its aim is to find out whether English academics value the *idea* of teaching – that is, before the *act* of teaching even begins, is the *idea* of teaching valued?

of further understanding about existing information. It is a creative and independent activity conducted by people with expert knowledge of theories, methods, and information of the principal field of enquiry and its cognate discipline(s). Research typically involves enquiry of an experimental or critical nature driven by an hypothesis or intellectual position capable of rigorous assessment. Its findings must be open to scrutiny and formal evaluation by others in the field, and this may be achieved through publication or public presentation. A long-term and cumulative activity, research is often characterised by fruitful new topics for investigation and unexpected uses of its findings

(NZVCC, 1998, p. 25).

This is a broad definition of research, encompassing all the disciplines. Research in English meets most of these criteria, but is nevertheless quite distinct from scientific research, as F. R. Leavis (1969) observes:

For our purposes, the phrase ‘a genuine contribution to knowledge’ has a marked infelicity, and...research in relation to an English school can have no close analogy with research in the sciences (Leavis, 1969, p. 192).

Research in English, Justice D. S. Smith (1946) tells us, is “scholarly” as opposed to scientific (p. 3), requiring of the researcher an ability to “learn how to carry through a sustained piece of constructive thinking in the exploration of some congenial theme or field” (Leavis, 1969, p. 191). This distinction between scientific *research* and English *scholarship* is one often made, even today, as a means of separating pure and applied scientific research from “the appreciation, interpretation or criticism of art” (Smith, 1946, p. 4). However, in this thesis, the term “scholarship” will not be used to describe *research* in English, but rather to refer more generally to the scholarly expectations inherent in the academic role (see next definition). Research in English, in this thesis, then, refers to the creative, experimental, intellectual activity undertaken by English academics which leads to the discovery of new knowledge and/or the development of understanding about existing knowledge, and which results in publication or public presentation.

### **1.7.2 Scholarship**

Scholarship in this thesis refers to an academic’s role in its entirety. It extends beyond traditional notions of scholarship as engagement in original research, and includes other functions, as Boyer describes:

The work of a scholar also means stepping back from one’s theory and practice, and communicating one’s knowledge effectively to students. Specifically, we conclude that the work of the professoriate might be thought of as having four

separate, yet overlapping, functions. These are: the scholarship of *discovery*; the scholarship of *integration*; the scholarship of *application*; and the scholarship of *teaching* (Boyer, 1990, p. 16).

Glassick et al. (1997) add that scholarship (whether it discovers, integrates, applies or teaches) must be guided by the following qualitative standards:

1. Clear goals
2. Adequate preparation
3. Appropriate methods
4. Significant results
5. Effective presentation
6. Reflective critique

(Glassick et al., 1997, pp. 24-25)

## **1.8 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS**

### **Part One: Introduction**

Part One provides an overview of the project as well as giving background and contextual information, describing the nature, purpose, and significance of the thesis, and laying out its structure.

### **Part Two: Background**

Part Two presents an historical overview of the establishment and development of the university, before moving into a consideration of the history of the discipline of English. Using primary and secondary sources, it then provides detailed information about the introduction of the university system to New Zealand in the nineteenth century, and the birth of English as a university subject in this country. Teaching in English in New Zealand is then dealt with in two sections: 1869-1960 and 1960-1990s. These sections are themselves divided into three parts: Curriculum, Teaching Methods, and Research and Graduate Study. The aim of Part Two is to set the scene before presenting the results of the present research study on English academics' attitudes towards teaching.

### **Part Three: Methodology**

Part Three outlines the methodological techniques and procedures, as well as using literature on qualitative and quantitative research to consider the advantages of these techniques for this project. It describes the sample – New Zealand English academics –

as well as the data-gathering techniques – questionnaires, personal interviews, focus groups, analysis of official documents – and it finishes with a description of the process of data analysis.

#### **Part Four: Findings on Teaching**

The fourth part of this thesis presents and discusses the findings of the interviews, questionnaires and focus groups, in the context of the findings of previous studies and other secondary literature. Part Four as a whole is divided into five main sections, dealing first with the participants of the study (4.1), followed by a presentation of their perceptions, the university policies, and the actual practice with regard to teaching and research (4.2). Part-time staff, whose responses often differ quite significantly from full-timers' and on whom much critical literature exists, warrant their own section (4.3) which is followed by a consideration of training and staff development activities and expectations in English (4.4). These four sections are rounded off with a list of recommendations (4.5).

#### **Part Five: The PhD**

Part Five deals with the PhD in English as the training ground for English academics. It incorporates questionnaire, focus group and interview material as well as making comparisons with PhD programmes in the United Kingdom and North America, in order to present an overview of what is currently offered. It calls for a reconsideration of the PhD in English as a significant way of moving towards a meaningful and radically altered conception of scholarship and the academic role.

#### **Part Six: Conclusion**

Part Six recapitulates the main points of the thesis and outlines suggestions for future research. It is followed by the final chapter, Part Seven: Appendices and References.

# PART TWO

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## *Background*

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## 2.1 ORIGINS OF THE UNIVERSITY

*A university, simply stated, is an association of teachers and students, with this characteristic, that the teachers do not cease to be students.*

J. C. Beaglehole.

While today's universities have clearly inherited the characteristics of the medieval institutions such as Paris and Bologna, Glenys Patterson (1997) believes that the intellectual traditions of the modern universities have their genesis as far back as 1500 BC when ancient Hindu teachers and students retreated to clearings in the forest "for contemplation and discussion on philosophy and religion"; when "examinations for entry to civil service [in China] led to the development of adult teaching in literature"; and when "the scribes and priests of ancient Egypt and Babylon also pursued advanced studies" (Patterson, 1997, p. 15). These gatherings, examinations and outdoor classrooms fit even today's dictionary definition of what constitutes a university: "the whole body of teachers and scholars engaged, at a particular place, in giving and receiving instruction in the higher branches of learning" (*Oxford English Dictionary*). What has changed most over the centuries is people's understanding of what constitutes those 'higher branches of learning', with university education in constant vacillation: from vocational to personal, secular to religious, and – most interesting for our purposes – classical to modern (including the discipline of English, to whose development the last section of Part Two is dedicated).

Possibly the world's earliest professors were to be found in fifth century BC, Athens. On the one hand there were the Sophists – "expert" teachers independent of any religious or political influence (Patterson, 1997, p. 16) – who believed that clever argument and persuasion led to excellence and, eventually, enlightenment. And on the other there was Socrates, who advocated the pursuit of truth and goodness, and encouraged ethical questioning. While the Sophists charged fees for their courses, Socrates offered his services freely and taught by questioning his pupils and listeners, thus developing the 'dialectical' or Socratic method of teaching that would influence higher education for many centuries.

Socrates' greatest disciple, Plato, carried on this philosophical tradition and set up and headed a residential school of higher education, known as the *Academy* in Athens in the

fourth century BC. The *Academy* and a rival institution headed by Isocrates were essentially training grounds for statesmen, who would sit through lectures and seminar discussions on mathematics (geometry), religion, metaphysics, ethics, educational theory, political theory, linguistic analysis, literary criticism, and some speculative science. These methods of teaching and the subjects offered constituted, Patterson believes, the earliest antecedent of a university curriculum. Indeed, during this time, and also in Roman times, what was to become the basis of medieval, and later still, liberal education, emerged: the *trivium* (grammar, rhetoric and dialectic) and the *quadrivium* (arithmetic, geometry, astronomy and music) (Patterson, 1997, p. 16-19).

By the fifth century AD, the Western Roman Empire had virtually been destroyed and for six centuries Europe lived through a period of invasion and chaos. Though the Christian Church grew strong during this time, it was increasingly wary of free thought and “came to suspect higher education as a beacon of paganism” (Brubacher, 1966, p. 429), thus forcing a decline in the numbers of men pursuing higher education. But church leaders in some places did encourage the establishment of “cathedral schools in conjunction with the churches of their cathedral cities” (Brubacher, 1966, p. 429). Offering a meagre education for clergy, these schools could hardly be considered as providers of “higher” education, but from them a tradition of collegial intellectual life eventually emerged.

As more and more cathedrals were built in European cities (especially in France)<sup>1</sup>, more students flocked to the attached schools, attracted not only by the traditional trivium/quadrivium curriculum but also by the presence of enthusiastic, ground-breaking schoolmasters such as Gebert and Abelard, who took learning beyond mere instruction and encouraged argument, discussion and enquiry (Lucas, 1972, p. 227). It was simply a matter of time before the students demanded more educational opportunities and the masters recognized that the fulfilment of this new and exciting lust for learning lay in some form of institutionalisation.

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<sup>1</sup> The situation was a little different in Bologna, where private law schools (in existence since the second half of the 11<sup>th</sup> century and under the protection of the Emperor Frederick I) provided the origin for what would become the University of Bologna (Verger, 1992, p. 48).

Inspired by an “overwhelming need to provide for the training of lawyers, schoolmasters and clerics to fill the ranks of the increasingly sophisticated administrations of both church and state” (Bowen, 1975, p. 105), groups of teachers and students began to engage in teaching and learning beyond that offered by the cathedral schools and to form institutions known as *studia generalia*. Assigning an exact date to the beginnings of these institutions is near impossible, but Boyd and King (1975) in *The History of Western Education* suggest that around the beginning of the twelfth century students began to move outside their hometowns in search of higher education (p. 128). Paris offered theology and arts, Bologna focussed on law, and Salerno devoted its attentions to medicine. Students flocked from all over Europe to these three cities, and it was this migration of students from many different towns that resulted in the name *studium generale* – “not a place where all subjects are studied, but a place where students from all parts are received” – a name in common use by the beginning of the thirteenth century (Rashdall, 1936, p. 6).

The word “university” derives from the Latin word *universitas*, which means “the whole, the universe, the entirety” (*Oxford English Dictionary*) and was usually applied to a group of people, a society, community, guild or corporation. Groups would be referred to as “the University of Masters and Scholars” or “the University of Scholars”, and, as Rashdall states in his seminal work, *The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages* (1936), “it is a mere accident that the term [university] has gradually come to be restricted to a particular kind of guild or corporation” (p. 5). But, by the fifteenth century, *universitas* applied *exclusively* to academic corporations (Patterson, 1997, p. 9) and had become a synonym for *studium generale*, a term which eventually fell into disuse, opening the door for the general use of the term “university” as we understand it today. Paris, Bologna, and Salerno, the three “great ‘mother’ universities” (Boyd & King, 1975, p. 128) met different needs, and along with the newer Oxford University, set the standard for future institutions. Many would argue that the *basic* tenets of the term ‘university’ have not changed dramatically since then.

## 2.2 THE EARLY UNIVERSITY

By the thirteenth century higher education in Europe had clearly become more and more important and more desirable for many young men. In the North in particular, the church had a possessive hold on university affairs<sup>2</sup>. The universities could not survive without the financial aid and protection of the church and also the protection offered its scholars by the crown, but they were not entirely happy with the administrative and academic interference from both these groups.

Tension continued until the fifteenth century when episcopal attitudes changed and the church began to “recognise and accept that the essence of a university was its autonomy; that the university was an independent legal entity outside the structure of the church” (Patterson, 1997, p. 74). Here can perhaps be seen the first stirrings of what is now known as “academic freedom” – the right of the universities and their teachers and scholars to question accepted ideas and standards and to put forward new ideas, without fear of attack or reprisal, and also to govern themselves and regulate their own curricula. As Scott has said, “the most important product of the medieval university was clearly the idea itself of a university, and the separation of intellectual authority from the political power on which this depended” (Scott, 1984, p. 26).

### 2.2.1 Early Curricula

The curricula of the Middle Ages were strongly influenced by ancient Greek learning and philosophy, and the *trivium* and the *quadrivium* formed the basis of a university arts education. An arts degree served as the preliminary for degrees in the “higher” faculties of law, theology and medicine. The medieval arts curriculum omitted “the ancient classics, modern languages, history, spontaneous literary expression, and the social sciences” and focussed on such utilitarian subjects as the art of letter writing, and debating (Patterson, 1997, p. 79-80).

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<sup>2</sup> Italy is clearly the exception to this powerful church influence as higher education there maintained a distinctly secular leaning. Boyd and King (1975) state that “the old literary studies which had commonly become ancillary to religion in the North were there pursued for their own sake, even by the clergy; and what is even more significant, the teachers in many cases were laymen” (p. 130).

### 2.2.2 Early Pedagogy

Teaching in the late medieval universities was based on three main methods of instruction: the *lectis* (lecture), the reading and comprehension of a textbook, and the *quaestio* (a disputation between lecturer and students based on the earlier lecture) (Allington & O’Shaughnessy, 1992, p. 33). Arguably, little has changed; at least in the discipline of English, where the lecture, personal reading of literary texts, and the seminar/tutorial dominate pedagogical methods.

Lectures (which we would probably refer to as “recitation” today) were delivered in Latin and though they took a number of different forms, usually followed one of two methods: either the lecturer spoke at a normal speed, which enabled his listeners to take in his comments, but did not enable them to note them down; or he spoke slowly so that the listeners could take down all that he said. He would usually either read or give an exposition of the prescribed texts (most commonly the lecturer’s own work), and sometimes provide a ‘gloss’ or comment on the text and give rulings on any problems arising out of it.

Lectures were divided into ‘extraordinary’ and ‘ordinary’. Ordinary lectures were given in the morning by the master or doctor<sup>3</sup> and covered the essential texts, while extraordinary lectures were given in the afternoon (a less favoured time) by senior scholars intending to proceed to the doctorate. (Even at this early stage, students intending to become university teachers indulged in some form of teacher training, in this instance acting, literally, as apprentices to the masters). The extraordinary lectures were not as complex, often dealing with less important texts or repeating material from the ordinary lecture for the benefit of students who missed the information the first time (Brubacher, 1966, pp. 431-32; Patterson, 1997, pp. 82-83; Rashdall, 1936, pp. 205-07).

The lectures lasted anywhere from one to three hours, and university and faculty statutes strictly governed their length, content and/or style. For example, a Paris faculty of arts statute declared that lecturers must speak fast enough that listeners could not take down all that was said; an Oxford statute decreed that masters should first read the text, then explain and comment on it; and a Padua statute directed the doctor to lecture for two

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<sup>3</sup> The terms Master and Doctor were synonymous at this time and meant “teacher” – Bologna used “doctor”, for example, while Paris preferred “Master”.

hours, students being forbidden to beat upon desks or benches to effect an earlier stop (Patterson, 1997, pp. 82-83).

The textbooks used in these lectures also came under scrutiny from the university authorities as the following extract from an Oxford document, c.1340, shows:

each regent master in grammar and any other public teacher of grammar should read his scholars only the book or books which treat of grammatical rules or science, or otherwise treating of ethics or metaphors or respectable poetry. To which Masters and other teachers the same Lord Chancellor forbids them to lecture on or expound the book of *Ovid De arte amandi (On the Art of Love)* and Pamphilius, and any other book which might entice or provoke his scholars to what is not allowed (cited in Patterson, 1997, p. 81).

While most lectures were simply readings of the master or doctor's own work<sup>4</sup>, it became possible later on for students to rent textbooks or own them (if they were wealthy enough). Later still they could consult them in the college libraries (usually established after bequests or donations to the university from benefactors), where the books were often chained to the desks or shelves. For a long time, however, access to the libraries was available only to masters and wealthy students from noble backgrounds; other students had to procure copies by borrowing from friends or tutors, hiring from bookshops, or copying the entire work themselves (O'Day, 1982). Of course, there were no printing presses in the early Middle Ages, so even the copies available for rent would have been handwritten copies of the original manuscripts.

Having read the textbooks and attended the lectures, the student would then engage in debates with his master and/or other students. These debates were commonly known as 'disputations' in which the student had to defend his ideas against all comers. This continuation of the dialectical tradition established in Ancient Greece, along with an emphasis on skills such as letter writing, gave the universities a clearly utilitarian educational purpose, preparing future lawyers, politicians and clergymen. It also provided a system of training for future university teachers – whether called masters (as they were in France) or doctors (as they were in Spain).

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<sup>4</sup> Many today would argue that little has changed in the twentieth century in this respect, with countless set texts being the lecturers' own books.

Given that the original meaning of ‘doctor’ is ‘teacher or instructor’, it comes as no surprise that the early university degree, at least at Bologna and Paris, was originally a certificate of entitlement to teach. The arts degree was seen as a preparation for the three ‘higher’ faculties of law, medicine and theology, and also as the first step in a teaching apprenticeship. The student would study with the master, then become a ‘pupil-teacher’ under the master, and then himself become a master. “In this way the medieval university operated as a teacher training system, with a close relationship between knowledge and teaching” (Patterson, 1997, p. 77). The master’s job was to “disseminate a body of approved knowledge” (Patterson, 1997, p. 92), not to pursue knowledge as an end in itself, nor to encourage independent enquiry in his students. Research held no place in the medieval university. As Christopher Lucas states in *Our Western Educational Heritage* (1972), “the early universities’ purposes were largely confined to teacher preparation” (p. 235). In many senses, this utilitarian purpose is later reflected in the early New Zealand university colleges where the main aim was to turn out people capable of educating a new colony of settlers (see Section 2.5).

### **2.2.3 The Renaissance**

The fifteenth century brought a growth in the number of universities in Europe and a general change in their composition. Universities established at this time tended not to focus on one specialty (for example, theology in Paris or law in Bologna) but rather offered all four faculties – arts, theology, law, and medicine. As more cities founded universities, students began to take advantage of the opportunity to study in their own towns and the universities developed a less cosmopolitan flavour. Furthermore, in 1499, the right of *cessatio*<sup>5</sup> – “the great instrument of academic aggression” (Rashdall, 1936, p. 430) – was revoked, thus strengthening local and national influence.

The Renaissance, with its humanistic pursuit of learning, brought some sense of freedom to the university curriculum. While the study of logic and scholastic philosophy was never completely displaced, the arts curriculum came to be dominated by subjects such as “Greek literature and language; Roman literature and Latin; rhetoric,

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<sup>5</sup> *Cessatio* involved moving the university to another city if masters and/or students felt they were not receiving fair treatment from the townspeople, and the guilds of students and masters seem to have had no qualms about carrying out this threat. Indeed, Cambridge was founded in 1209 after a migration of students from Oxford, and prior to that Oxford’s numbers grew following an influx of students from Paris.

poetry and history; Platonic philosophy; Hebrew, and the vernacular languages” and by the revival of eloquence, “the art of speaking and writing well in the classical mould” (Patterson, 1997, pp. 105 and 104). People began to attend university for other than vocational reasons and there occurred a surge in the enrolment of the sons of the nobility and the gentry, as well as an increase in the numbers of middle class students seeking upward social and vocational mobility through a university education.

#### **2.2.4 The Reformation**

The universities underwent enormous change and upheaval in the early sixteenth century as a result of the Protestant Reformation and later the Catholic Counter Reformation. As Europe oscillated between Catholicism and Protestantism, so too did the universities.

Despite great disruption and interference, many more universities were founded in the sixteenth and seventeenth century, and the numbers of students attending university rose significantly. The Jesuit movement can take much credit for this growth, having established over four hundred “‘colleges’, universities, and training seminaries” (Lucas, 1972, p. 261) by the end of the seventeenth century. These institutions tended to be found in countries such as France, Belgium, Austria, Hungary and Poland, because “the struggle with Protestantism was most intense in those areas” (Lucas, 1972, p. 261).

However, it appears that by the mid-seventeenth century the university began to serve fewer people. The enthusiasm for a university education, which had brought student numbers from such desperate lows in the early sixteenth century<sup>6</sup> to highs of, for example, 4,000 at Oxford and Cambridge in the 1630s (Patterson, 1997, p. 129), had again waned. Strict regulations, royal interference, an outdated curriculum, outmoded teaching methods, and a restricted student body led to stagnation and dormancy. As Patterson states, “the universities were much less involved in and responsive to the two major intellectual developments of the [seventeenth and eighteenth] centuries – the scientific revolution of the seventeenth and the philosophical ‘Enlightenment’ of the eighteenth” (Patterson, 1997, p. 127). Indeed, “most of the major scientific and technological discoveries and the new philosophical, social and political ideologies,

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<sup>6</sup> Some universities like Greifswald even closed for a period (1526-1535) (Patterson, 1997, p. 115).

were spawned beyond the walls of the university” (p. 128). Isaac Newton at Cambridge is one notable exception.

In contrast to the torpidity of the English (and even French and German) universities, Scottish universities, especially Edinburgh, began to flourish, attracting students from many other countries, and indulging in innovation and disciplinary experimentation well before changes came about in the English universities in the nineteenth century. Then, towards the end of the eighteenth century, strongly influenced by the French Revolution, increasing secularism, and what became known as the Industrial Revolution, the “liberal” (Scott, 1984) or “modern” (Patterson, 1997) university began to emerge on a wider scale.

### **2.3 THE LIBERAL UNIVERSITY**

By the end of the eighteenth century, according to Lawson and Silver (1973), university student numbers (in England at least) “were back to what they had been a century before” (p. 256) and the nineteenth century saw a great increase, not only in students but also in the number of institutions.

Germany reformed its university system under the influence of Wilhelm Von Humboldt, who established the University of Berlin in 1812. The new German universities took on what Patterson describes as a “research ethos” and encouraged and nurtured “scholarly and scientific research in parallel with their teaching function” (Patterson, 1997, p. 156), developing a “dedication to the ideal of *wissenschaft*, to the advancement of learning through disinterested scholarship” (Patterson, 1997, p. 157). As the next section and Part Five will show, this concept of the “research university” had a huge influence on higher education in the Western world, particularly in the United States, and much later also in Britain, and, consequently, New Zealand.

New universities established in Britain in the nineteenth century displayed signs of innovation and reform, encouraging Oxford and Cambridge to acknowledge competition, and also to admit non-Anglican students. In 1828 the University of London opened as a secular university college, aiming “to provide an education in the arts and sciences for the ‘youth of our middling rich people’” (Lawson and Silver, 1973, p. 257),

that is “all between mechanics and the enormously rich” (Thomas Campbell cited in Patterson, 1997, p. 163). Rivalry for the University College of London came in the form of the Anglican King’s College in 1831, until the two colleges were incorporated under the examining body of the University of London in 1836, establishing a model for the eventual development of the University of New Zealand and its four affiliated teaching colleges later in the century.

The University of London paved the way for the establishment of more “redbrick” civic universities (in contrast to the ancient stone of Oxford and Cambridge) in England, and university education became more accessible as a result. The curricula covered new subjects like modern languages, history and English, while ignoring theology and giving less dominance to Classics. Oxford and Cambridge still required of their students a knowledge of Latin and Greek, thus maintaining an elite student population, but the newer universities and constituent colleges of the University of London relaxed entrance requirements as well as curricula, opening their doors to lower classes, the less-educated, and, significantly, women.

Despite its not allowing female students until 1892, the Scottish university system made the most significant strides towards “education-for-all” in the nineteenth century and later strongly influenced the New Zealand situation. Scotland (its first university, St Andrews, having been founded in 1411) drew its university students from all classes – John Macmillan Brown, first Professor of English at Canterbury College, for example, was the son of an Ayrshire shipmaster, and he supported himself through the University of Edinburgh and later Glasgow by giving private tuition (Hankin, 1993, p. 58). As Patterson notes, in Scotland “there was no entrance examination, fees were low and costs were minimal...[and] the university terms were arranged to fit around the agricultural year” (p. 170). Furthermore, curricula in the Scottish universities were quick to change in line with their increasingly diverse student populations. While a Scottish university education did not offer as much freedom as a German one, where the concepts of *lernfreiheit* (freedom of choice and movement for the student) and *lehrfreiheit* (freedom of teaching and expression) dominated, it was not as rigid as an “Oxbridge” one, where the emphasis still lay in turning out “cultivated” men, steeped in Classical learning. It was in the Scottish atmosphere of egalitarianism and innovation that the university subject of English first emerged in the eighteenth century, and it was

also from Scotland that many of New Zealand's early professors and teachers of English came, as Sections 2.5 and 2.6 will show. But before we move on to English and teaching in New Zealand, we need to consider the origins of the PhD, itself a product of the liberal university.

## 2.4 THE PhD

Philips and Pugh (1994) describe the PhD as a “licence to teach” (p. 18). Indeed, as we have seen, the term “doctor” stems from the Latin *docere* – to teach – and early meanings, dating from medieval times, are, according to the *Shorter Oxford Dictionary*: “a person who gives instruction in some branch of knowledge, or inculcates opinions or principles; a teacher” and “a leading medieval schoolman”. A student was usually granted the title “doctor” upon completion of a course of study in arts at a university such as Bologna. (Other universities, like Paris, preferred the term “master”). Thus, “doctor” did not really signify a *higher* degree, and still does not in Italy. Simpson (1983) suggests that this medieval doctorate resembled more our present-day professional doctorates, for example, in education and medicine. Otherwise, “The twentieth century research degree had no equivalent in the mediaeval university, just as there was no recognised profession of research” (Simpson, 1983, p. 5).

The same could be said of universities right up until the end of the nineteenth century, if not in Germany, at least in Britain, and certainly in New Zealand. The PhD, as a research degree, had its origins in Humboldt's University of Berlin. As well as introducing *lernfreiheit* and *lehrfreiheit*, Humboldt encouraged university professors to recognise the integral relationship of teaching and research, and to let their research inform their teaching. Out of this came a formalisation of the PhD degree, which quickly influenced education in the United States, but took much longer to have an effect in Britain.

Many US undergraduates ventured to Germany to complete German doctorates and returned to the States with ideas of establishing a similar graduate culture in their own country. Allen records that “[a]t a meeting of the Corporation of Yale University on July 24, 1860, the Scientific School asked that the doctorate be given ‘in accordance with the usage of German universities’ for ‘high attainments in Mathematics or Philosophy and

the Arts' in order to satisfy those students 'who now resort to German universities for the advantage of study no greater than we are able to afford'" (Allen, 1968, p. 8). Accordingly, in 1861, Yale awarded its first PhD, and doctoral study, with a focus on research, began to blossom in the United States. By the end of the century a PhD had become the *sine qua non* of university teachers (Simpson, 1983, p. 19; Henkel and Kogan, 1993, p. 86; Allen, 1968, p. 8).

The British, however, were slow to react to this development in higher education. More and more students were attracted by the German higher degrees ("from 26 in 1835-36 to 137 in 1891-92", according to Simpson, 1983, p.17), but little happened in terms of graduate education and research in their own country. In 1860, the University of London introduced the D.Sc. degree and in 1868 the D.Lit, both awarded solely on the basis of an examination; it was not until 1885 that a thesis was required for these degrees. By the turn of the century Cambridge and Oxford also offered higher research degrees (again the D.Lit and the D.Sc.), as did the Scottish universities, which introduced the D.Sc., the D.Litt and the D.Phil as five-year research degrees in 1895. Not surprisingly, however, students were far more attracted to the two-year German PhD, than to a five-year degree in Scotland.

Having seen the Americans establish their own graduate schools in an attempt to keep their students from flocking to German universities, the British eventually adopted a similar tactic, "not so much to entice British students away from Germany but, ironically, to divert to Britain the continuing stream of young American scholars to that country" (Simpson, 1983, p. 18). Thus, Oxford University finally introduced the PhD degree into statute on 12 June 1917, and by May of 1919 all other British universities had followed suit. Within five years, nearly 800 PhDs had been awarded in Britain (Henkel & Kogan, 1993, p. 86) and the popularity of the degree continued to escalate.

By the mid-twentieth century, the PhD had firmly ensconced itself in the US *and* in Britain as an aspiring academic's "ticket" into professorial life, but the degrees had begun to take very different forms in the two places. From the outset, the British PhD was conceived as a research degree, and all that was required of the student was a thesis on an original topic, and an oral defense or examination – the *viva voce*. In contrast, the PhD established at Yale in 1861 required the following of its students:

- A. Specialized courses and residency of at least one year, including at least three years of doctoral enrollment.
  - B. Language requirement demonstrating reading knowledge of one or two foreign languages.
  - C. Qualifying or comprehensive examinations.
  - D. Dissertation.
  - E. Oral examination in defense of dissertation and subject specialization
- (Buchanan & Herubel, 1995, p. 3).

Furthermore – although the average time to completion for a PhD student in Humanities in the US is currently more than eight years (Gumport, 1993) – 1861 regulations required that: “the entire course of study should involve NO MORE THAN THREE, at most four years beyond the BACCALAUREATE (Anderson cited in Ogden, 1993, p. 2).

Interestingly, these requirements remain almost exactly the same today, with a few exceptions by discipline and university. For example, some PhDs have become more professionalised – like the taught doctorate in Education (the EdD) – while others, particularly in economics, offer the opportunity to write and publish three journal articles, rather than a full-length dissertation (See Section 5.1.2).

Buchanan and Herubel (1995) claim that “the *doctor of philosophy* will continue to exist as the pinnacle of academic preparation and acculturation for a life of research, scholarship, or teaching” (p. 6), and while the PhD is undoubtedly the qualification that opens the doors into a life in academia, it is questionable whether it actually *prepares* the holder for that life, or even whether such preparation is or should be its purpose. The issue of the efficacy of the PhD in English in New Zealand will be taken up in much more depth in Part Five of this thesis.

## 2.5 A HISTORY OF ENGLISH

*The business of making one's own academic discipline itself the object of scrutiny, of deconstructing and/or reconstructing it, has not been commonly undertaken, and certainly not for English*

Peter Widdowson, 1982, p. 7

*There has been a resistance to self-study in higher education: while maintaining a quasi-monopoly on this kind of research, the academy on the whole has chosen not to pursue it. Historical reflexivity is inimical to profession-building since this depends, to a large degree, on occulting real origins (how many dentists' surgeries display pictures of fairground extractions?) and on leaving institutional or pedagogical processes unexamined*

Colin Evans, 1993, p. 4

*What I am calling for, therefore, is not merely a culturally expanded discipline, something we have substantially achieved in the last decade, but a theoretically self-critical and reflective one, something we still lack*

Cary Nelson, 1997a, p. 28

As the quotations above indicate, the discipline of English has not subjected itself to a great deal of self-reflection or scrutiny. Only in recent years have book-length considerations of the history of English as a university subject begun to appear<sup>7</sup> (McMurtry (1985), Graff (1987), Elbow (1990), Raymond (1996), Scholes (1998) in the United States; Widdowson (1982), Baldick (1983), Protherough (1989), Doyle (1989), Bergonzi (1990), Evans (1993) in the United Kingdom; Murray (1996) in Canada; Dale (1997) in Australia). Only Mark Williams's chapter on "Literary Scholarship, Criticism and Theory" in the *Oxford History of New Zealand Literature* (1998) considers the discipline's history in New Zealand, but his focus is limited to the development of literary scholarship and criticism related to New Zealand literature, both inside and outside the university.

In part, this lack of self-reflexivity, especially in New Zealand, could spring from the relative newness of English as a university subject. While the university itself has existed in one form or another since at least the twelfth century, and while English is a

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<sup>7</sup> However, earlier limited accounts of English do exist – for example, D. J. Palmer on Oxford, 1965; John Churton Collins on the literature/philology debate, 1891; and the Newbolt Report in 1921 on the teaching of English.

“monolithic” (McMurtry, 1985, p. 1) presence on so many university campuses throughout the English-speaking world, the first Chair of English did not appear until 1828, when University College, London was established. But before we consider the birth of English in England, its delayed introduction to Oxford and Cambridge, and its earlier establishment in colonial New Zealand, we must examine its origins as a university subject, for “English” was, in fact, not an English creation.

Recent scholars (Dale, 1997; Crawford, 1998) have argued that English as a university subject had its beginnings, not in England, and certainly not at Oxford or Cambridge, but in Scotland. At Edinburgh, Glasgow and St Andrews chairs with the terms “Rhetoric” and “Belles Lettres” in their titles were established in the mid-eighteenth century.<sup>8</sup> “Belles Lettres” had been used, rather loosely, since the fifteenth century, to define the field of “schoolteachers, advocates and literary intellectuals” (Crawford, 1998, p. 3) but had not hitherto included university professors. With the publication and wide dissemination (including in America) of Edinburgh professor Hugh Blair’s *Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres*, in 1783 – based as they were on Adam Smith’s earlier lectures at Glasgow – the study of English literature in a university setting took root.

Not until well into the nineteenth century, however, did English literature as a university subject make an appearance in England. When University College, London opened its secular, utilitarian doors in 1828 (influenced in no small part by the Scottish universities, and by Glaswegian poet, Thomas Campbell’s letter to *The Times* in 1825<sup>9</sup>), it offered students the opportunity to study the writings of their own countryfolk in their vernacular tongue<sup>10</sup>, under the rubric of “English Language and Literature”. By the mid-nineteenth century, English was well ensconced as a university subject in the civic universities in England, and in Scotland, and was beginning to find a home in Britain’s

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<sup>8</sup> 1751 – Professor of Logic and Rhetoric at Glasgow University, Adam Smith.

1756 – Professor of Logic, Rhetoric and Metaphysics at St Andrews, Robert Watson.

1762 – Professor of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres at Edinburgh University, Hugh Blair.

(Crawford, 1998, pp. 10-11).

<sup>9</sup> Linda Ferreira-Buckley (1998), in “Scottish Rhetoric and the formation of literary studies” (Crawford, 1998) states that “wishing to emulate the Scottish universities at home and the German ones abroad, Glasgow poet Thomas Campbell proposed a London university in an open letter to Lord Henry Brougham in a February 1825 issue of *The Times*” (p. 184).

<sup>10</sup> Donald Anderson (1950) records the “remarkable fact that as late as the eighteenth century it was a punishable offence for the pupils to use English in the grammar schools of England” (p. 6) and cites as his source, the 1921 Newbolt Report, *The Teaching of English in England*.

colonial universities, especially in India and Australia<sup>11</sup>. But Oxford and Cambridge continued to ignore its possibilities until near the end of the century; amid acrimonious debate about its suitability as an academic subject, a Chair of English Language and Literature was established at Oxford in 1885, while Cambridge did not follow suit until 1911.

Riding on a wave of innovation in printing and distribution technologies, and facilitated by growing national wealth, literacy levels boomed in nineteenth century England as more and more people gained access to the printed word. Public libraries increased in number and in influence, cheap paperbacks emerged, and reading became a widespread leisure activity. But being able to appreciate this plethora of literature required an education in skills not “universally available...literature was a specialized area of knowledge which had to be taught” (Guy and Small, 1993, p. 181).

Moreover, the introduction of English in universities was encouraged by imperialist and colonialist urges in nineteenth century Britain. Even in Scotland, where the subject had its roots, colonial issues influenced its inception, with Scots “school[ing] other Scots to conform to an Anglocentric norm in order to advance in Britain and the British empire” (Crawford, 1998, p. 8). English writings were preferred over local Scottish offerings, which were studied only if they “held their own alongside works from the assumed English cultural centre” of literary correctness and metropolitan language (Crawford, 1998, p. 9).

Nationalism and empire-building dominated the ambitions of many a European nation during the nineteenth century, nowhere more so perhaps than in Britain. As Britain expanded her empire, she determined to civilise the natives of the lands she conquered and instil in them the moral values that Britain held dear. Missionaries converted natives to the Queen’s religion while civil servants impressed upon them the virtues of English culture by quoting passages of literature. T. B. Macaulay, in his *Minute on Indian Education*, written in 1835, claimed that “teaching literature was the most effective and

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<sup>11</sup> Leigh Dale (1997) records the appointment of a Professor of English Literature and Language and Mental and Moral Philosophy at the University of Adelaide in 1874, but the teaching of English was happening in Modern Languages and Classics departments at Melbourne and Sydney universities from their establishment in the 1850s and 1860s.

least controversial means of cultivating ‘a class of persons, Indian in blood and colour, but English in taste, in opinions, in morals and in intellect’” (Dale, 1997, p. 49). And instead of classical works in Latin and Greek, which had for so long dominated England’s education system and had symbolised “high culture” and a learned mind, the colonised were asked to soak up Shakespeare and Milton<sup>12</sup>. The Classics empire thus slowly acceded to the burgeoning expansion of English Studies, but not without a fight, as evidenced by the public schools’ and universities’ unshaken confidence in the “superior humanism of the classics” (Mathieson, 1975, p. 24).

Support for the classics was principally motivated by a distrust of science and its anti-Christian pursuits. A classical education, however, simply did not compare with the scientific education that enabled German and other foreign students to produce new inventions and make new discoveries and thus enhance their countries’ reputation in an age of intensely competitive nationalism. This competition was furthered by Germany introducing “German” as a university subject, inspiring a competitive England to follow suit with “English”.

Furthermore, Classics ensured that higher education remained the preserve of an elite section of the British population at the same time as Britain was attempting to create a more egalitarian, liberal society. Women had not been allowed to study Classics, but the increasing wealth of a newly industrialised nation had helped reduce working hours and create the concept of leisure time, and, as John Macmillan Brown declared, “where the growth of industrial wealth gave one man leisure, it gave a dozen women most of their time to themselves” (Brown, 1894, p. 5). Women and working class Britons demanded access to education, and, ultimately, the subject of English provided it.

Women and the working class were allowed to partake in English studies, as they had earlier been allowed to pursue modern languages, because the upper-class men who traditionally partook of a university education deemed it a “sissy” subject, unworthy of their attention. An appreciation of literature required little scientific method. Moreover, it offered no foreseeable practical application. As Irving Babbit stated, “the man who

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<sup>12</sup> The British teachers, who were civil servants, would likely have learned these passages in the civic universities of London, in order to pass the “English” section of the East India Company’s examination, first introduced in the 1850s.

took literature too seriously would be suspected of effeminacy. The really virile thing is to be an engineer” (Graff, 1987, p. 107). Ostensibly, as Heather Murray points out in *Working in English*, the study of literature promoted social harmony, or so Matthew Arnold believed, but it did so by reducing and reconciling competing interests, thus enhancing “the importance of English in the education of workers, women, children and those of the colonized who are expected to form an administrative or service class” (Murray, 1996, p. 90). It would placate the working classes and keep them subjugated. So, too, women were admitted to the universities to indulge in a “hobby [which] was quiet...required no expensive equipment...had moral overtones (if one excised the eighteenth century novel, that is; many men refused to let their wives read Fielding), and...was intellectually accessible in that it did not require learning an ancient language, or any language at all” (McMurtry, 1985, p. 11). Indeed, according to Brian Doyle, nearly all of the students entering the School of English Language and Literature at Oxford were women until the First World War (Doyle, 1989, p. 3).

While the numbers of women in English departments gave English a fledgling presence in the university, their preference for the subject also provided a barrier to establishing it as a truly respectable academic pursuit. The study of English literature was seen as a “soft option”, a feminine preoccupation, a leisurely pursuit, and a subject for which rigorous methods of assessment did not appear to exist. Its potential as a liberalising, redemptive subject which would help to provide a human and moralistic perspective in a technological age<sup>13</sup> was threatened by its very lack of scientific attributes. If women could take English, it must be too easy for men. To gain acceptance, English needed to be hard. It had to not only prove its worth in a social sense; it also had to show that it possessed a discrete, autonomous body of knowledge, with its own set of specialised disciplinary practices. These practices should work to make the subject hard for both the students – “examinable, usable as a means of exclusion and inclusion, passing and failing” – and for the researchers – “hard in our modern sense...part of the ‘hard’ sciences” (Evans, 1993, p. 11). Enter philology.

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<sup>13</sup> George Gordon, one of Oxford’s first English literature professors, said in his inaugural lecture that “England is sick...and English literature must save it. The Churches...having failed, and social remedies being slow, English literature now has a triple function: still, I suppose, to delight and instruct us, but also, and above all, to save our souls and heal the State” (Gordon cited in Friedman, 1996, p. 4).

By studying the ways the English *language* worked in English literature, the subject of English made itself academically credible and a viable option for men. Students of English endured lectures and classes on pronunciation, etymology, syntax and grammar, and these philological approaches to texts offered the rigour and analytic practices that the subject needed in order to gain acceptance. Thus, whereas the introduction of the discipline to the university coincided with the entrance of women into higher education, so the fortification of it as a credible and accepted university subject was accompanied by its masculinization. Philology, coupled with a focus on the historical aspects of the texts and their authors, dominated the English curriculum well into the beginning of the twentieth century in England: the 1885 Oxford Chair was occupied by a philologist until the first decade of the twentieth century, while, as we have seen, Cambridge did not appoint a literary specialist to a Chair of English until 1911. In New Zealand, however, Chairs in English *Literature* had been established at three of the University of New Zealand's affiliated colleges well before those at Oxford and Cambridge, and at all four by 1900.

Meanwhile, women continued to fill the majority of seats in the English lecture halls. Murray (1996) notes that: "women outnumbered men by at least two to one.... The proportion then increased to three, sometimes even four, to one in the first decade of the new century" (Murray, 1996, p. 91). Sir Arthur Quiller Couch may have begun his Cambridge lectures with the greeting, "Gentlemen" (see, for example, his published lectures in *On the art of writing*, 1923), but most of his students were women. The *teachers* of university English, by contrast, were, without exception, all male until well into the twentieth century. In this respect, New Zealand barely differs from England – all four of our foundation university professors were British men, and no woman was appointed to a university English teaching role until around 1911, and then only as an assistant<sup>14</sup>.

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<sup>14</sup> Hughes and Ahem (1993) record that Evelyn Watson, MA, was appointed an assistant in English language and literature at Victoria University College in 1911.

## 2.6 ENGLISH IN EARLY NEW ZEALAND

*So far as practical utility is concerned...neither Greek nor Latin is of very great value to a man whose life is likely to be spent in the ordinary trades or callings of a colony. [But they are important as a means to] a liberal education, one which will enlarge the powers, cultivate the taste, refine the manners of him who obtains it; an education which in England is open to a few, in Scotland, I believe, to many; but which here ought to be open to all.*

George Samuel Sale  
(first Professor of Classics and English at Otago University, 1869)

*God help me, what would be the good of Greek verse for pioneers in a new colony?*

John Macmillan Brown  
(first Professor of English at Canterbury University College, 1874)

In New Zealand the purposes of a university education in English, indeed the purposes of a university education *tout court*, did differ quite significantly from the British purposes. The issue of higher education for the new settlers was raised by the Otago Association in Scotland as early as eight years after the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840, and two years later by the English Canterbury Association; but not until 1854 did university education warrant public discussion and attention in New Zealand. In his history of the University of Auckland, Keith Sinclair writes that during a debate on the electoral rolls, Hugh Carleton, Member of the House of Representatives for the Bay of Islands in North Auckland,

advocated bringing more educated men into the House. He recommended starting universities in each province. They would be secular bodies, their business being examining and granting degrees. Each religious denomination might establish its own college, where teaching would take place. University Members of Parliament, as in England, would be created, and each male graduate would collect an extra vote with his degree (Sinclair, 1983, p. 2).

But most people felt that the colony must attend to more important and pressing matters before it took on the issue of higher education.

A university would need students – more than the meagre 74 in attendance at Sydney University 22 years after its opening in 1850 – and these would need to be *educated* students. Elementary schooling demanded attention before higher training was considered. “[It is] impossible to have a university in anything more than name until there are good secondary schools,” claimed J. E. Gorst, in 1862 (Sinclair, 1983, p. 3).

And, as W. P. Morrell writes in his history of the University of Otago, “the Rector of the ‘High School’, who arrived in October 1856, found little use for his qualifications in classics and mathematics and had to teach elementary subjects” (Morrell, 1969, p. 2). The Rector, Reverend F. C. Simmons, thought a system whereby scholarships enabled New Zealand students to attend universities in Great Britain would be more appropriate for a new and growing colony than the immediate establishment of a university. Many agreed with him. Judge Richmond “feared that all New Zealand could produce by way of a university was ‘a stunted tree’: far better to remain ‘a healthy branch’” (Sinclair, 1983, p. 3). And, Lord Lyttelton, on an 1868 visit to Canterbury, “somewhat repelled by the raw colonial scene...renounced one of his old dreams in these words ‘...a young colony cannot have a university’” (Gardner, 1973, p. 21).

Just a year later, however, the University of Otago opened its doors, followed within three years by Canterbury University College. In the meantime (1870) the University of New Zealand had been established to act as an examining body, along the lines of the University of London, with affiliated colleges in the provinces acting as teaching institutions. It would be a university “moulded to suit the state of society in the colony. We must strike out a line of our own. We must adapt the scheme of university education to the peculiar requirements of our own case. We cannot reproduce Oxford, Cambridge, or Edinburgh in New Zealand” (Veel, editor of the *Christchurch Press* in the 1870s, cited in Gardner, 1973, pp. 34-35).

By the turn of the century there were four colleges, in Otago (1869), Canterbury (1872), Auckland (1883) and Wellington (1899). While Auckland University College and Victoria University College of Wellington were determined to provide an accessible and utilitarian university education, along the lines of the University of London, the Oxbridge influence was strong in the South – at Canterbury, especially, where the requirement to wear cap and gown and attend chapel twice a day, and the proximity of Christ’s College and the cathedral, stood as testimony to the Christchurch settlers’ attempts to replicate Oxford traditions. But the resemblance was superficial. A more pervasive influence came from the Scottish universities, where, Chris Worth reports, “supplying the deficiencies of secondary education ... [was] part of normal Scottish practice” (Worth, 1998, p. 212). As Gardner writes, one of the first requirements of the University of New Zealand was the “training of a generation of teachers who would

have to turn their hands, particularly in the new secondary schools, to almost any subject demanded of them” (Gardner, 1973, p. 96). The Scottish influence can further be seen in the subjects offered by the university colleges (with English a foundation chair at all four, well before chairs in English existed at Oxford and Cambridge) and also in the appointments made to these chairs (John Macmillan Brown at Canterbury and Hugh Mackenzie at Victoria both being Scottish).

English as an academic subject in New Zealand had a much more confident, auspicious beginning than might have been expected given its tumultuous entry into the English university system, where it fought against an entrenched classical curriculum, the dominance of higher education by middle- and higher-class men, and a developing belief in the value and pursuit of scientific knowledge and methodology. However, while all four New Zealand university colleges made English a foundation subject, it was firmly yoked to Classics for at least the first five years. Otago and Auckland both took a decade to split Classics and English into two Chairs (in 1879 and 1894 respectively), but, under the influence of the redoubtable John Macmillan Brown, Canterbury’s 1874 Chair of Classics, History and English Literature, discarded Classics and became, in 1879, English Language and Literature, History and Political Economy. See Table 2.1: New Zealand Chairs of English.

**TABLE 2.1 – NEW ZEALAND CHAIRS OF ENGLISH****ORIGINAL PROFESSORS**

Auckland	Classics and English	1883	Tucker/Pond/Posnett
Victoria	English Language and Literature	1899	Mackenzie
Canterbury	Classics, History and English Literature	1874	Macmillan Brown
Otago	Classics and English	1870	Sale

**SPLIT FROM CLASSICS**

Auckland	English	1894	Egerton
Victoria	English Language and Literature	1899	Mackenzie
Canterbury	English, History and Political Economy	1879	Macmillan Brown
Otago	English, Pol.Economy and Constitutional History	1881	Mainwaring Brown

**SPLIT FROM HISTORY**

Auckland	English	1894	Egerton
Victoria	English Language and Literature	1899	Mackenzie
Canterbury	English and History (from 1896), English (from 1906)	1906	Arnold Wall
Otago	English Language and Literature	1920	Ramsay

**1999**

Auckland	English	Professor Michael Neill
Waikato	English	Dr Anne McKim
Massey	School of English and Media Studies	Professor Dick Corballis
Victoria	School of English, Film and Theatre	Dr Brian Opie
Canterbury	English	Dr Denis Walker
Otago	English	Professor Jocelyn Harris

The prominence of Classics in the early New Zealand colleges in part reflects the wish to emulate the home institutions (whether Scottish, Oxbridge or the University of London) and maintain academic standards and traditions. The early New Zealand settlers wanted to imbue their new country with a sense of culture, a refinement of manners and attitude that would belie their rough existence. Applicants for the Chair of Classics, English Literature and History at Canterbury University College were warned, “the object of the College is to create a demand for culture, which does not exist at present in any perceptible degree” (Gardner, 1973, p. 86). Inculcating young students with Latin and Greek seemed the safest way of achieving such aims.

But New Zealand in the 1860s and 1870s needed a classical education even less than England did in the 1880s. New Zealand needed cultural enlightenment in a more practical form, and very quickly the teaching of English, as practised by men like John Macmillan Brown, took over from the classics, not as “a replacement for the fading glory of the classics, not training for a clerisy devoted to the ennoblement or moral improvement of the nation, but [as] a practical part of civic education in the new civilization of the settler world” (Worth, 1998, p. 220). Macmillan Brown and his fellow English professors were teaching early New Zealand to read, write and appreciate English literature and to take those skills back into the community as teachers. “By 1893 fifty-three per cent of University of New Zealand graduates were teachers.... In the arts and science faculties what was needed was not a specialised but a general degree...– a ‘teacher’s not a scholar’s degree’” (Sinclair, 1983, p. 83). While, in this respect, the University of New Zealand began to establish its own identity, this is not to imply that the University of New Zealand and its teachers threw off the mantle of British influence entirely. In fact, it remained a colonial institution, firmly yoked to its British progenitors until the mid-twentieth century – and nowhere is this more evident than in the curriculum and teaching methods of the early New Zealand English departments and their professors.

## 2.7 TEACHING ENGLISH IN EARLY NEW ZEALAND.

*When I called on him [Macmillan Brown] soon after my arrival he depressed me extremely with an account of his wonderful successes as a teacher, telling me how he had welcomed the outside public to his lecture room, and of the long queues crowding into the place, for I knew that I was not cut out for that sort of thing at all.*

Arnold Wall.

Not one of the four original English professors had any sort of teacher training, though a couple had previous university teaching experience. Many of the appointees to colonial chairs in the nineteenth century were young men with only a year or two of public school teaching or grammar school tutoring behind them: John Macmillan Brown was only 28 years old and Leigh Dale reports that, in Australia “those appointed to chairs from England during this period had an average age of 28” (Dale, 1997, p. 87). Macmillan Brown recognised the dangers inherent in this lack of training: “The misfortune is that such men are chosen for their scholarship alone whilst their teaching capacity and power of managing and influencing their students was to be discovered from the bitterness of failure” (Brown, 1974, p. 74). Later, Arnold Wall arrived at Canterbury with very little teaching experience, and Donald Anderson comments that “From this point of view it might have been considered a hazardous appointment to make; from others it was a hazardous one to accept” (Anderson, 1950, p. 71).

The hazards, for teachers and students alike in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, were compounded by a rigid and uncompromising curriculum and unforgiving examination system, uninspired teaching methods, and a lack of research facilities and graduate study. These factors will be dealt with in two sections: 1869-1960, and 1961-1990s.

### **2.7.1. Curriculum 1869-1960**

The English curriculum in the early New Zealand university bore the hallmarks of an Oxbridge concentration on philology, historical facts, and grammar, with little evidence of what we would now call “criticism”, beyond a consideration of the historical period in which the text was written. The following excerpt from the 1879 University of New Zealand B.A. Degree examination gives evidence of this approach:

B.A. Degree and Senior Scholarship Examination 1879

ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

Examiner... J.S. Elkington, Esq, M.A.

Thursday, January 2, 1879 10a.m. to 1p.m.

PHILOLOGY, &c.

1. "And whase willenn shall thiss boc  
efft otherr sithe writenn  
himm bidde icc that he't write riht  
swa summ this boc him taechethth."

Turn this extract into modern English, and give a short account of the work from which it is taken.

2. Decline the Saxon pronoun he, heo, hit, distinguishing the forms which are (i) obsolescent, and (ii) extinct.  
3. Give the history of the following words: bedridden, burges, each, gossiped, jeopardy, juggler, like, nice, pretty, quaint, score, Stamboul.  
4. Trace the history of the letters C, H, J, in our alphabet.  
5. In the order of evolution of the parts of speech what is the place of the conjunction? Would you expect modern prose or Elizabethan prose to yield the larger proportion of conjunctions? Why?  
6. What is the Augustan age of English literature, and why is it so called?  
7. In what year and under what circumstances did the Spectator come into existence? How do you explain its importance in literary history? Mention, with your reasons, the three papers which you consider the best in the collection.  
8. Who was the first critical editor of Shakespeare? By what other works is he known?  
9. Who wrote the following works? Exhibit your acquaintance with the subject-matter of any two: The Campaign; The Battle of the Books; Trivia; The Fable of the Bees; The Rape of the Lock; The Dialogue of Hylas and Philonous; The Shortest Way with Dissenters; The Creation.

*For Senior Scholarships*

1. Explain these passages:-  
a) "Here we find the beauty, the blossom, the glory, the aureole of language." – Earle, p. 214.  
b) "This is probably the chief cause of our short and easy sentences." – *Ib.*, p. 214.  
c) "The action of sound is a matter of great consequence in the shaping of words." – *Ib.*, p. 542.  
2. Point out any causes which in England at the outset of the 18<sup>th</sup> century tended to raise literature into a distinct profession.  
3. Sketch briefly the political history of Anne's reign, and mention, with their principal works, the chief party writers of the time.  
4. State what you know of the persons who during Anne's reign were known by the following titles:- The Master of the Mint: The Astronomer Royal: The Bishop of Salisbury.

Thursday, January 2, 1879. 2p.m. to 5p.m.

ENGLISH ESSAY

Write an essay on one of the following subjects:-

- a) The history of alphabetic writing  
b) ... "great Anna! whom three realms obey."  
c) The cause of the Wars of the Roses.

*For Senior Scholarships*

Write an essay on  
The Distempers of Learning.

Figure 2.1 – B.A. English Examination, 1879

The concentration on philology, historical scholarship, and grammar is obvious and is reflected also in the texts prescribed during this period. Very little beyond 1840 made it on to the syllabus, and Mark Williams sums up this rigorous conservatism in the following description of English at Otago in 1883:

By the time they had graduated they would have been able to translate *Beowulf* into modern English and comment on obscure passages in *The Canterbury Tales*. They would have been thoroughly versed in the characters and plots of Shakespeare's plays and the prosody of Renaissance, Augustan and Romantic poetry. They would have mastered the arts of paraphrase, etymology, grammar and rhetoric (Williams, 1998, p. 698).

Interestingly, in a move way ahead of its time, John Macmillan Brown prescribed George Eliot's *Romola* in the 1870s, but it then remained on the curriculum for the next sixty years. By the 1900s, attention to current writing was all but unheard of in the English curriculum owing to rigid specifications and requirements laid down by the governing body, the University of New Zealand, which was in turn strongly influenced by what was happening in the British universities. "To introduce a new set book...required the agreement of the four professors of English, and the approval of the Senate, and the signature of the Governor-General" (Thomson, 1994, p. 13).

By the 1920s and 1930s, however, many of the professors and lecturers were making a concerted effort to introduce New Zealand students to modern authors, including the literature of their own country. H. Winston Rhodes, a lecturer at Canterbury, though he was unable to change the syllabus, "gave voluntary lectures on modern literature and introduced D. H. Lawrence, W. B. Yeats, Gerald Manley Hopkins, T. S. Eliot and Virginia Woolf to delighted undergraduates" (Beardsley, 1973, p. 259). At Victoria, Ian Gordon ran an adult education series that often considered New Zealand authors. He also gave radio broadcasts on literature on 2YA radio and issued a series of post-primary school bulletins (Thomson, 1994, p. 14). In Auckland, P. S. Arden, a lecturer under the professorship of Arthur Sewell, acknowledged the embryonic state of New Zealand literature, but also prophesied a definite future for it:

In a new land where the fight for mere life has the main place in man's mind, literary culture is not to be expected....Into the cradle years of our national life were crowded events to stir the imagination of the least emotional – Homeric battles against man and nature, almost unique in any colonial history. The saga of our Maori wars, the epic of our pioneer fathers, are things yet to be written....But the day will come when all these will find expression in a literature of our own (Cited in Sinclair, 1983, p. 68).

Left-wing students and academics began publishing political and literary work and criticism in iconoclastic, but short-lived, periodicals like *Tomorrow* (out of Canterbury) and *Phoenix* (out of Auckland). Then, in the 1930s and 1940s, the regulatory framework slackened somewhat and the four colleges were given the opportunity to prescribe their own texts. Even then, university English lecturers found themselves restricted by the price and availability of texts, compulsory requirements (“English I was compulsory not only for the BA, but also for law and commerce degrees” (Pearson, 1992, p. 4)), and by the abiding belief that there was much English (i.e., British) literature that it was necessary for students to know before they began studying New Zealand literature.

In the 1940s, the requirement that examination scripts be sent back to England for marking was dropped<sup>15</sup>, signalling a new era in New Zealand university English. This requirement had resulted in the coaching, rather than the teaching, of students, as Donald Anderson describes:

The imperious obligation to teach to a fixed syllabus, on which examinations were set by an examiner out of touch with the teaching given, made the only fair form of teaching a rigidly conservative coaching in accepted facts and lines of thought – a procedure hampering to the student’s education and stifling to the professor’s initiative (Anderson, 1950, p. 57).

Beardsley echoes this complaint:

Teaching became subservient to the examination syllabus and teaching freedom was stifled....Examinations were given a spurious importance and the belief that university standards and the ultimate value of a degree are determined by the quality of the teaching was totally ignored. Above all, the system encouraged coaching and cramming to the detriment of understanding, true learning and scholarship (Beardsley, 1973, p. 239).

Some English lecturers and professors apparently fell victim to the ennui of examination coaching in their teaching: “[Gilray] was obviously an able man, and the recollections of his students confirm that he was extremely conscientious; but he seems to have lost his individuality, like too many of his colleagues, in the soulless functions of an examination coach” (Anderson, 1950, p. 69). Others just didn’t have enough time, energy, or inclination to give to their teaching: Egerton at Auckland, Wall at

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<sup>15</sup> “Stage I papers were marked in Great Britain until 1921 then in New Zealand. Stage II papers were marked in Great Britain until between 1925 and 1928 then in New Zealand. Stage III and honours papers were marked in Great Britain until 1940 then in New Zealand” (Currie & Kedgley, 1959, p. 5).

Canterbury, and Mackenzie at Victoria were evidently four examples<sup>16</sup>. But many English academics were assiduous and inspiring teachers, using a variety of teaching methods.

### **2.7.2 Teaching Methods 1869-1960**

Anderson identifies three “principal methods of instruction – that is, the essential educative processes...reading books, attending lectures, and participating in discussion” (Anderson, 1950, p. 132), and we can trace their origins back to ancient influences: the reading and comprehension of textbooks, the *lectis*, and the *quaestio* (See Part 2.2.3). Teachers of university English in the nineteenth century employed all three of these methods, but the most dominant then, and still today, was the lecture.

Graff writes that “lecture courses have in our time come to be regarded as the epitome of conservatism in pedagogy, but in the old college they were a threatening innovation” (Graff, 1987, p. 32). Indeed, in England, lectures were still optional in the nineteenth century, and still are at Oxford and Cambridge, and the dominant teaching forum was the tutorial (called a supervision at Cambridge) – one-on-one (sometimes two- or three-on-one) sessions with master and student, during which, in English especially, the student would read aloud an essay to the master, who would then make comments on it as the student sat subserviently and listened. However, the prohibitive costs of tutorial teaching prevented the Scottish universities and the University of London from adopting such a system, because of the numbers of students these universities attracted. With first year classes numbering in the hundreds, the most practical teaching method was the lecture. Ian Gordon explains that, in Scotland,

there was a different kind of attitude towards teaching because the typical...good professor in Scottish universities was a very good disciplinarian. He had a class of 200-300 students who could be quite rowdy. He had to keep them under control. I don't mean he had to beat them or anything, but he had to command the class. It did mean that the typical Scottish professor was a very good exponent of his craft, a good orator, a good teacher, and Macmillan Brown obviously had that discipline (Personal conversation).

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<sup>16</sup> “Egerton, a quiet, doddery, gentlemanly man, had long ceased to do research or to keep up with new work in his subject” (Sinclair, 1983, p. 161). “Wall, it is said, is proud that he could not recognise his students” (Beardsley, 1973, p. 270). Ian Gordon recalled, in a personal conversation, that Mackenzie was “the nicest man – hospitable, friendly, genial – but, as a scholar, useless, and, as a teacher, not very good”.

Perhaps no other English teacher in New Zealand has been more written and talked about than John Macmillan Brown, first professor of English at Canterbury University College, and in his memoirs we can see evidence of the dominance of the lecture as a teaching tool in early New Zealand English departments. Because of the University of New Zealand's desire to make the university accessible to all, student numbers grew rapidly<sup>17</sup> and the most effective means of reaching large numbers was the lecture, as Macmillan Brown reluctantly recognised.

Until his insomnia forced him to resign, Macmillan Brown taught English to New Zealand students for two decades, often "working sixteen or eighteen hours a day" (Henderson, 1941, p. 9). His students were predominantly trainee teachers and reportedly came from as far as 100 miles away to hear him lecture, including all day on Saturdays, from 9am till 4pm. He conducted four types of class: an essay or criticism class, during which students would write an essay; lectures on various specimens of literature, from which students would choose their essay topics; composition classes, in which he taught accurate and idiomatic English; and art lectures, which dealt "in a philosophical and imaginative way with some theme connected with one of the degree books set for the year" (Macmillan Brown, 1974, p. 93).

Displaying an attitude ahead of his time, he believed not in cramming students' minds with facts and details, but in encouraging them to think for themselves about literature and to defend their opinions. As Henderson writes, "He used to say that if teachers, instead of teaching facts, were to teach children how to educate themselves it would be immensely better for the nation" (Henderson, 1941, p. 35). In the light of this, he bemoaned the nature of an examination system which tested a student's written recall of facts, and called instead for an oral component to the examination in English, as well as a revitalisation of the syllabus and lecturing system:

The professor or lecturer was supposed to traverse the whole of his subject in his course. And this ideal still obstructs the evolution of universities, by turning their staff into coaches that cover every year the same barren ground, even though there are cheap text-books available to perform the same duties more thoroughly. The habit is enough to fossilize the most energetic mind in creation. And we have seen in the old universities men lecturing who had been at this

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<sup>17</sup> Wall's class sizes increased from 265 in 1906 to 421 in 1909, and he gained an assistant in 1911 as a result. Meanwhile, Charles Egerton was granted the assistance of Kenneth Sisam in 1910 when class sizes reached close to 200 at Auckland.

treadmill for half a century, beyond all possibility of being awakened from their hypnotic and hypnotizing sleep. Nay, the universities of the newer lands are manufacturing similar museum specimens. And the generations of unfortunate students pass through their classrooms as somnolent and as untouched by the growing life outside as their teachers, with only now and then a Rip Van Winkle look in their eyes as some echo from it seems about to awaken them. A professoriate of this sort has solved the problem how to simulate life while dead (Macmillan Brown cited in Henderson, 1941, p. 40).

In an effort to avoid such stagnation, Macmillan Brown did not limit his pedagogy to one teaching method. Dictated by student numbers, University of New Zealand regulations and expectations, and Scottish inheritances, the lecture remained the norm, but he supplemented and modified it in three significant ways, influenced by Benjamin Jowett, under whom he had studied at Balliol College, Oxford. Firstly, Macmillan Brown resolved to make his “chief aim the teaching of the art of writing in English” (Macmillan Brown, 1974, p. 92) and he adopted the Balliol practice, which flourished under Jowett’s influence, of having students write a weekly essay which was read aloud to the master: “I have no doubt,” he writes, “that this feature of Balliol life has had great influence in developing the literary and journalistic capacity of the students and stirred their ambition to succeed in literature” (Macmillan Brown, 1974, p. 65). Secondly he emulated Jowett’s practice of inviting promising students to his home for discussion. These Sunday morning gatherings at Macmillan Brown’s Fendalton home are well-recorded in his own memoirs and in those of his daughter, Millicent Baxter. The gatherings, Macmillan Brown wrote, “influenced both character and manners, developed conversational capacity and brought students into intimate relationships, if not friendship” (Hankin, 1993, p. 58). And the third, perhaps most striking inheritance from Jowett was Macmillan Brown’s use of sarcasm in the lecture room, as A. G. Henderson recalls:

Make an unfortunate guess in class and there would come over his face an expression of benignity. A pause and we knew what was coming. ‘Ah! Mr Henderson! Then the dictionaries are all wrong’; or ‘Come, Mr Hight, your edition must be later than mine; it is not so in my text-book’ (Henderson, 1941, p. 11).

Arnold Wall found Macmillan Brown’s techniques a little less amusing:

He was not only extremely dictatorial as a teacher – that is quite right and proper – but he was also something of tyrant. Yet I must admit that his methods were highly successful and that many of his old students regarded him with great respect and gratitude. Some of them, however, outgrew their enthusiasm and on

looking back would feel a bit ashamed of their blind acceptance of his Olympian authority (Wall, 1965, p. 112).

Still, these comments must be considered in the context of others' high regard for Macmillan Brown as a teacher – Henderson calls Macmillan Brown “perhaps the greatest [teacher] New Zealand has had” (p. 7), while the *Dictionary of New Zealand Biography* refers to his “reputation as perhaps the outstanding university teacher in New Zealand before 1900” (Hankin, 1993, p. 58) – and the not-so-complimentary comments on Wall's own teaching: “a dull lecturer, he lacked the warmth to make close contact with the students” (Beardsley, 1973, p. 258), and,

Wall had his own style of lecturing, ‘dry, crisp and witty’, to quote a discriminating student, though many others would not have gone beyond the first adjective. Wall wasted much of his lectures in reciting names and facts, complaining the while that it was a waste of time to do so. His denunciation of ‘cramming’ in New Zealand assorted ill with some of his own practice (Gardner, 1973, p. 121).

In addition to lectures, whether they were impassioned and sermonising like Macmillan Brown's or monotonously dull like Wall's, discussion classes of a sort also transpired, though only on an unofficial and sporadic basis. We have already seen Macmillan Brown's initiatives, and Ian Gordon's practice, with large classes and only himself to teach them in the early days, was to split the class into groups of a dozen or so once a week and put a student in charge of each group, moving from group to group himself to ensure discussion was happening. Discussion is a pedagogical tool Donald Anderson wanted to see put to better use in the 1950s, as evidenced in his unpublished PhD thesis, *English teaching in the university* (1950). He believed that the chief objection at the time, as now, to the introduction of smaller classes lay in the shortage of teachers to lead them, and he suggested the employment of Honours students in the capacity of “directors...as a possible expedient” (Anderson, 1950, p. 133). This suggestion would be taken up much later; the expansion of the universities in the 1960s led to the establishment of tutorial classes conducted by younger staff members and graduate students.

Another early pedagogical innovation in New Zealand English was Macmillan Brown's publication and wide dissemination (as far as Australia) of his lecture notes, in what could possibly be viewed as the birth of extramural teaching in New Zealand. Students had been giving copies of their own lecture notes to acquaintances unable to attend

Macmillan Brown's lectures, and Macmillan Brown himself eventually took to publishing and distributing his own notes, and in 1894 wrote *The Manual of English Literature*, which remained a staple textbook for many years at Canterbury. He also encouraged recently graduated students to set up coaching classes to enable them to earn enough money to sit for Honours, with the result that tutorial classes all over the country were conducted on the basis of his lecture notes.

### **2.7.3 Research and graduate study 1869-1960**

Despite the demands of such an intensive lecturing schedule and his commitment to teach English to as many students as desired to learn it in nineteenth-century New Zealand, Macmillan Brown still managed to write not only the *Manual of English Literature*, but also several articles on various aspects of English (usually Elizabethan) literature. The most significant of these was, according to H. F. Von Haast (1943), his article on Robert Greene, "An Early Rival for Shakespeare", which was published in the *New Zealand Magazine* in 1877 and cited by many Elizabethan scholars, both in New Zealand and abroad.

Thomas George Tucker, first Professor of Classics and English at Auckland, also became a renowned scholar<sup>18</sup>, but he was with the Auckland College for only one year, establishing his reputation after his appointment to the Chair at Melbourne in 1885. Otherwise, research and scholarship in English until at least the 1940s was meagre. The universities were thought of as teaching institutions, not centres of research (Sinclair, 1983; Gardner, 1973). Sinclair describes the attitude towards research in the early twentieth century:

The professors defended themselves then and later by saying, quite truthfully, that they had a very heavy teaching load. In 1919...Egerton was giving twelve lectures a week; Dettman ten; Segar twelve. With such a burden they probably felt no particular need to be defensive about research. A Canterbury professor said quite simply that research was impossible when a department consisted of one professor and an assistant. In any case, it was not generally thought, in England any more than in the Colony, that original investigation was a university function. It was assumed that there was a set body of knowledge to be learned. The Colleges were thought of as teaching institutions, passing on this knowledge (Sinclair, 1983, p. 83).

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<sup>18</sup> Leigh Dale (1997) describes Tucker as having the most distinguished academic record of the early Australian professors, and quotes a reviewer at the end of the nineteenth century as saying, "one cannot be a day in Melbourne among educated people without hearing Professor Tucker spoken of with admiration, and his opinions quoted as law on all literary subjects" (Dale, 1997, p. 33).

By the 1940s this attitude was beginning to change, as academics themselves began to call for a greater emphasis on research. In Christchurch in 1945, a pamphlet was produced, *Research and the University*, which pleaded for a dual role for the University as both a teaching and a research institution. A year later, Dr Beeby, the then Director of Education, included “a modest sum for university research (\$20,000) in his departmental budget, and it was this grant which the University Research Committee was established to distribute” (Gould, 1988, p. 150). Then, in 1948, a Grants Committee was set up by the Senate of the University of New Zealand, in recognition of the “desperate need for greater financial support for the country’s universities” (Gould, 1988, p. 17) following a flood of returning ex-servicemen seeking university education. This Grants Committee served as the precursor to the University Grants Committee, established in 1961, which included funds for research and graduate study in its quinquennial grants.

English department staff in the 1940s and 1950s were publishing in modest amounts. In June 1945, the Honourable Mr. Justice Smith, Chancellor of the University of New Zealand, sent out a questionnaire to Heads of Departments in the four University Colleges, in an attempt to ascertain “the extent to which research in their subjects had been carried on since the year 1933 in their Department...and whether they had the time or the funds to carry on research if they so wished” (Smith, 1946, p. 12). Smith found that “the replies from three Colleges show that some scholarly research has been done in each College. The Professors of English have large classes. One, who teaches 300 students, says he has not time for research but makes it. Holidays just give way” (Smith, 1946, p. 15). Eight years later, more English staff appeared to be making more time for research, though still not a great amount. A 1953 report published by the University of New Zealand declares that Auckland, Victoria and Canterbury’s English departments (Otago was not included) had ten works in progress in total. Auckland’s English department staff had published two books and eleven articles or chapters between 1949 and 1952, while Victoria and Canterbury’s records were slightly lower – Victoria had had four books published, but two of these were second editions, and one was an edited volume.

Meanwhile, new positions were created in many academic departments, including English<sup>19</sup>, and these began to be filled by staff educated not just in Britain, but also in North America, thanks to innovations like the Fulbright Scheme, established in 1946, and the input of the Carnegie Foundation. In 1950, however, Professor Sinclaire at Canterbury was still the only Professor of English with a New Zealand degree, and it would be some years before New Zealand English departments began to employ students with New Zealand PhDs<sup>20</sup>. Gould, in his 1988 book on the University Grants Committee, offers the following summary of the PhD's arrival and establishment in New Zealand:

The PhD degree had been introduced in the early 1920s, but it did not become successfully established and was discontinued after only four years. It was reintroduced after World War II, but until the end of the pre-Hughes Parry era advanced postgraduate work continued to mean, in the great majority of cases, study overseas. In 1959, of the 27 awards funded by the University of New Zealand for postgraduate study, 23 were for students to pursue PhD programmes at overseas universities (Gould, 1988, p. 143).

A perusal of the *Union List of Higher Degrees* to 1962 for PhDs in English completed in New Zealand supports Gould's claims. It appears that the first PhD in English in New Zealand was completed by J. C. Gries in 1951 on *An outline of prose fiction in New Zealand*. (This excludes Donald Anderson's 1950 PhD thesis, *English Teaching in the University*, as he was asked to resubmit it with revisions, but never actually did so). The following year, P. S. Wilson submitted a PhD thesis at Victoria University College on "A study of the proper names mentioned in Blake's poetry and prose", but PhDs in English completed in New Zealand do not make a regular appearance on the Union List until well into the 1960s.

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<sup>19</sup> Auckland had, in 1953, one Professor, two Senior Lecturers, three Lecturers and one Junior Lecturer, a total of seven staff members. Victoria had two more, though two of their number were classified as "Research Scholars" (H. Orsman and Patricia M. Burns, who had two works in progress between them). Besides Ian Gordon, the Professor, there were three Senior Lecturers, one Temporary Lecturer, one Lecturer, one Junior Lecturer and two Research Scholars. Canterbury had just six: one Professor, one Associate Professor, two Senior Lecturers, and two Lecturers (UNZ, 1953, pp. 1-3).

<sup>20</sup> As the 1959 Report of the Committee on New Zealand universities said, "the increasing enrolments that are creating the need for extra staff are not likely to increase the supply of graduates with masters' or higher degrees until about five years later. It will be some years, therefore, before the New Zealand universities will be in a position to fill the major proportion of their vacancies from their own graduates and then only if the universities are now put in a much stronger position to develop their graduate studies for the production of future university teachers" (Hughes Parry, 1959, p. 51).

In 1959, the Report of the Committee on New Zealand Universities (hereafter referred to as the Hughes Parry report) was published, and it produced some fairly damning statistics and made a number of drastic recommendations regarding both research and teaching in the university, some of which had been anticipated in an earlier statement by the Association of University Teachers (AUT), entitled *The crisis in the universities: Some facts and figures* (1959) and also in *The University in New Zealand: Facts and figures*, by G. A. Currie and E. G. Kedgley (1959). All three publications point to the staff-student ratio and low salaries as the key reasons for staff shortages, poor teaching and a low research output. With a staff:student ratio of about 1:14 at the time (Currie & Kedgley, 1959, p. 29), and salaries substantially lower than in Australia, the AUT reported the following situation:

Not only are our University teachers' salaries too low to keep able men in this country; these men are also obliged to work, mostly, in under-staffed departments, where sound teaching and needed research are grievously impeded by the burden of routine and mass-class lecturing placed on a very few shoulders. Neither students nor staff can give of their best in such circumstances (AUT, 1959, p. 8).

The Hughes Parry Report foresaw serious consequences for higher education in New Zealand, if the salary and staff:student ratio problems were not dealt with:

If a university has a serious shortage of staff, these opportunities [to undertake research and community service] are necessarily limited. Thus, there is a strong incentive for qualified teachers to apply for positions in universities where staff-student ratios are more favourable, particularly if they are also offered higher salaries and better facilities for teaching and research (Hughes Parry, 1959, p. 59).

The government took heed of the Hughes Parry report recommendations and increased staff salaries to bring them in line with those in Australia. It also increased funding for research to \$200,000 and implemented the "Postgraduate Scholarships and Research Grants Subcommittee" of the UGC which the Hughes Parry report had advocated (Gould, 1988, p. 151).

#### **2.7.4 Curriculum 1961 – 1990s**

The disbanding of the University of New Zealand in 1961 saw independence granted to the four university colleges and the establishment of two new universities in Hamilton and Palmerston North. Research now became a more important focus and teachers began to specialise in particular areas. The English curriculum also expanded, taking on

a more distinctly New Zealand flavour in the majority of English departments, while graduate study slowly became more popular.

In 1959, the Hughes Parry report recorded a change in attitude towards the study of New Zealand's own literature:

It has been represented to us that New Zealand should introduce into university studies, or develop to a higher level, more of those subjects which have a direct bearing on New Zealand's own life and problems, which are designed to foster the growth of national self-understanding, and to increase delight in life... More attention should be paid at the universities, at the appropriate level, to New Zealand's own history, life and literature (Hughes Parry, 1959, p. 8).

E. H. McCormick had written a Victoria University College MA thesis in 1929 on *Literature in New Zealand* – the first piece of graduate research on New Zealand literature. In 1935, he developed this into a Cambridge MLitt thesis, titled, *Literature in New Zealand: an essay in cultural criticism*, and later still, in 1940, it became the book, *Letters and Art in New Zealand*. Other than this, and the involvement of English academic staff in publications like *Phoenix* and *Tomorrow*, New Zealand university teachers of English produced little scholarship on New Zealand literature until the 1960s, when C. K. Stead became “the first professional critic of New Zealand literature to work consistently from within a university” (Williams, 1998, p. 718)<sup>21</sup>. The curriculum was slowly changing, however, and after having made sporadic and brief appearances in the form of token texts in the 1940s, New Zealand literature made its first formal appearance in the English curriculum as an optional course at Auckland in 1956. Mark Williams's treatment of New Zealand literature in the universities in his chapter in the 1998 *Oxford History of New Zealand Literature* is comprehensive and illuminating and it is unnecessary to replicate it here. Thus, I offer only a brief summary, my concern ultimately being more with the *teaching* of English than with its curricular content.

The English curriculum in New Zealand universities has expanded since the 1960s to include a number of courses on New Zealand literature, as well as “Theory” and “Cultural Studies” papers, alongside the more traditional literary papers (mainly

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<sup>21</sup> E. H. McCormick had taught at Auckland University College from 1947-1951 and continued until 1952 as a Senior Research Fellow, but long before the publication of *New Zealand Literature: A Survey* in 1959, he had abandoned university teaching as he saw “little prospect of getting on with my work while I am in the job” (McCormick cited in Sorrenson, 1993, p. 77).

historical, philology having dropped out). There is also a rising interest in, as Australian academic John Frow puts it, “the broadening of English to include non-canonical literary genres, and non-literary forms, especially film and...television” (Frow, 1990, p. 9). The discipline of English has expanded to include, alongside the study of the English language and a multiplicity of literatures written in English (whether distinguished by nation, or gender, or class, or genre etc), the study of theatre, film and television, and more broadly, the study of the way we communicate with each other.

Auckland University offers a Film, Television and Media Studies programme out of their English department, while Massey’s English department has very recently dropped Classics (picked up by the School of History, Philosophy and Politics) and incorporated Media Studies to become the School of English and Media Studies. Otago also has a strong Film Studies programme, with a major available in “Modern Literature and Film”. Canterbury’s English department, having helped develop a very strong Journalism programme (which is now a separate entity), follows a more traditional programme of specifically history/genre courses, but it does offer a second year paper in Creative Writing. Victoria offers an undergraduate paper in creative writing as well as a Creative Writing MA, and the English department there is now known as the School of English, Film and Theatre. Otago has recently set up within the English department a Research Centre for New Zealand Studies, which also draws staff from a number of other disciplines, including History, Anthropology, and Women’s Studies, the aim being to “foster graduate, postgraduate and multi-disciplinary research into all aspects of New Zealand culture” (*English at Otago: Courses Available in 1998*). All these recent developments indicate a move toward a more pluralistic, diffuse definition of the discipline of English.

“When ‘English’ first came on the scene in the nineteenth century, it was precisely as a form of Cultural Studies, involving not only language and literature, but history, geography, philosophy and so on, requiring the first professors of the subject to be polymaths” (Bergonzi, 1990, pp. 193-94). Nowhere was this more evident than in Canterbury, where Macmillan Brown’s chair was titled “English Language and Literature, History, and Political Economy”. But the discipline soon narrowed itself to focus on canonical “English” literary texts alone. Now, in parts of New Zealand anyway (Massey and Otago), some English departments appear to moving back to the “Cultural

Studies” approach. Others are reasserting their role as departments of English language and literature (Canterbury and Waikato) while the remaining two (Auckland and Victoria) incorporate Theatre and Film programmes under the bigger English umbrella, but regard them as separate entities. Furthermore, two departments (Massey and Otago) currently offer courses in academic writing, while Auckland’s English department also incorporates Linguistics. Clearly, “English” in New Zealand is a fissiparous discipline with a multitude of components, approaches and options, and the same is easily said of the discipline world-wide. There is no single path forward, but a variety of tracks and directions.

This analogy could also be extended to the assessment of students’ work in English. The external examination dominated until the 1950s, with the essay gaining favour as an assessment technique in the middle of the twentieth century and remaining popular today, but there are many more assessment techniques which English people could, and do, use. While all six New Zealand university English departments favour the two-essays-and-examination form of assessment, some English academics are including other forms of assessment in their courses: journals, creative writing, group work, the performance of plays, poetry recitations, and participation in seminars, all make an appearance as assessable items in various course outlines in New Zealand university English in the 1990s, though they remain the exception rather than the rule.

### **2.7.5 Teaching Methods 1960-1990s**

Interestingly, with all the curricular and assessment changes in English in the decades up to and including the 1990s, few changes appear to have been made in teaching methods. The lecture still dominates, although the tutorial – not the Oxbridge one-on-one model, but the seminar, with around 10-12 students and a teacher – has become more popular, and co-operative learning and group learning, the lectorial and the student-centred (and often student-led) seminar are all gaining importance in the late 1990s. As will be revealed later, however, such innovation in terms of teaching is being stifled by apparently cost-effective, though certainly not pedagogically desirable, increases in class sizes and student:staff ratios.

Financial reasons forced the majority of early English teaching at university to be by lecture, and the same reasons ensure its continuation as the dominant university teaching

technique, right up until the present day. Carter (1973) records that, at Canterbury, the lecture was favoured over tutorials as the easiest and cheapest way of reaching large student numbers, and that arts students were subjected to “between 15 and 20 hours of lecturing” (p. 392) each week. Meanwhile, at Otago, Herbert Ramsay occupied the position of professor of English for 30 years with just one full-time assistant, and “seemed to have been content to maintain the Scottish tradition of teaching by lecturing to large classes” (Dalziel, 1998, p. 6). Student numbers rose, but staff numbers did not, while Ramsay was in charge, a fact of which he seemed eminently proud, Dalziel recalls. Not until the early-1950s, and the appointment of John Greig, did the staff of the English department at Otago expand to a number which made small-group teaching feasible.

Though economically viable, the lecture was not always effective, as Sinclair describes:

Teaching conditions were worse [in the 1950s and early 1960s] than they had ever been since the first few years of the [Auckland] college’s existence. In the English Department, with a first-year roll of 560, the lectures were being repeated three times by the same lecturers, which was a soul-destroying task (Sinclair, 1983, p. 216).

Students felt the stultifying effects of lecturing just as acutely, as F. R. Leavis recognised as early as 1943:

Officially, of course, lectures are intended to provide the necessary stimulus, guidance, command of instrumental ideas and contact with experienced minds. Officially – but does anyone really suppose they do? Few students suppose it (Leavis, 1979, p. 47).

In New Zealand, the Hughes Parry report blamed staff shortages and a preponderance of part-time students<sup>22</sup> for maintaining this damaging reliance on lectures, and for adding to the high failure rate in the 1950s:

In New Zealand at present...a large number of students entering the university are not provided with the guidance by staff or with the facilities for study which are necessary if they are to do themselves justice... We consider that it is of the utmost importance that a student should, from the beginning of his career at the university, have ample opportunity to discuss his work and his problems with his teachers. We are concerned here not only with justice to the student, and not merely with the prevention of avoidable failures, but also with improving the understanding and performance of those who will in any case pass, and with stimulating more of them to pursue their studies to an advanced level. To

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<sup>22</sup> Over 60% of Arts students in the UNZ in 1958 were part-timers (Currie & Kedgley, 1959; Hughes Parry, 1959; Day, 1984).

achieve these ends, a substantial increase in staff is urgently needed (Hughes Parry, 1959, p. 59).

A year after the Hughes Parry report, the University of Auckland established a Waikato branch in Hamilton, with an English teacher, Paul Day, as its lecturer-in-charge. Lectures were not the order of the day, however. In his history of the University of Waikato, *From the ground up* (1984), Day reports that the plan was to increase staff numbers and decrease part-time student numbers in order that "Waikato would...run as a full-time university; and staffing would be adequate for tutorials to be the norm" (Day, 1984, p. 81). This original plan paid dividends almost immediately when 80% of the first year's intake of students passed their examinations, compared with just 60% of Auckland students taking the same examination. By the 1980s, however, creeping class sizes and cuts in staff numbers had vitiated the original aim for smaller teaching groups<sup>23</sup>. The 1990s saw lectures again looming menacingly on an English student's timetable, with two hours of lectures and just one of tutorials per week for most English papers.

The history is much the same in the five other English departments, with expansion in the 1960s bringing higher staff numbers and smaller classes. In the early 50s at Otago, the newly appointed professor, John Greig, pushed for "small-group teaching as a supplement, and ideally as a substitute for lectures" (Dalziel, 1998, p. 7) and a staff of two became a staff of six. These six still did not constitute enough staff to abandon lecturing altogether, however, and the tutorial system remained an adjunct, as at the other five New Zealand English departments. Rapidly rising student numbers, and inadequate staff numbers, exacerbated by staff retirements and positions left unfilled due to hiring freezes and funding cuts in the 1980s and 1990s again affected staff:student ratios adversely<sup>24</sup>. Semesterisation has also meant an increased emphasis

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<sup>23</sup> Butterworth and Tarling (1994) note that the intended 10.2:1 ratio of the 1976-77 UGC settlement was not achieved, "owing to increased rolls and inflation. The 1980-84 quinquennium provided only half the funding required to maintain ratios at the 1979 level, and Muldoon's 3 per cent cut of 1982-84 removed further funding. The overall ratio was now 12.7:1, with Arts at 15:1.... An immediate objective of the UGC was that staffing should never be worse than 15:1 in any area" (p. 81).

<sup>24</sup> A 1985 report by David Hall and Bill Renwick, following a mini-review of tertiary education, conducted by the UGC, the Ministry of Education and Treasury, found that worsening staff:student ratios had "precluded meeting the demand for some popular courses, restricted the research expected of universities, and diminished the community involvement of their staff". They declared that "the target should be 11.5:1 by 1989, a ratio similar to that in Australia" (Butterworth and Tarling, 1994, p. 83). Butterworth and Tarling (1994) later report, however, that by 1990 "staff:student ratios continued to deteriorate" (p. 245), though they offer no figures.

on the lecture, often at the expense of active, encouraging learning experiences for the students. A number of British academics have recently questioned the desirability of lectures as the dominant teaching technique in English, but a similar debate is not occurring among New Zealand English academics. Dalziel, however, in the recent volume of essays dedicated to Colin Gibson (Waite et al., 1998), has this to say on Greig's attitude to lectures:

While agreeing that the students needed essential information about the works being studied, John believed that this information was easily accessible in books which the student should be encouraged to explore for himself [*sic*]... He thought that students spent lectures not listening, but taking bad notes. The notes then became a substitute for studying the texts and were regurgitated in countless examination answers (Dalziel, 1998, p. 11).

Greig believed that small groups of ten or less, on the other hand, "encouraged careful reading, the close examination of texts, and the exchange of ideas between experienced and inexperienced students of literature" (Dalziel, 1998, p. 10).

Cox (1990), Miall (1989) and Punter (1986) agree that the lecture encourages passivity in the student. Furthermore, they contend that the lecture often serves to reinforce the power and ideological control of the lecturer. In this post-(post-)modern era, when so many English academics are questioning and dismantling the authority of texts, authors and critics, lectures stand in stark defiance of this theory and allow English teachers to exert their interpretative authority over the student's potential understanding. The questioning of assumptions about authority and ideology in relation to the text is not echoed in a questioning of teaching and learning practices in English. English people, on the whole, seem prepared to assign a passive role to students, privileging the lecture as the dominant pedagogical technique, despite its obvious inadequacies: "There are forms of teaching, notably the lecture, which include boredom as part of the ordinary picture: no one thinks it exceptional or reprehensible if there are nodding heads in the lecture hall" (Cook, 1995, p. 135).

Cox suggests that university teachers of English need to look to their secondary and primary school counterparts for examples of innovation and development in English teaching which enable students to become "active makers" rather than "passive consumers" (Cox, 1990, p. 27). But Evans sounds a cautionary and explanatory note in this respect:

nothing...prevents good teachers lapsing into the mechanical.... This might be because of the university teacher's need to make a very clear boundary between low-status school *teachers* and high-status university *lecturers*. Anything which revealed commonality was rejected: anything which underlined difference was accepted. Since not much lecturing takes place in primary schools...lecturing is good; since a lot of pair-work and story-work goes on in primary schools, these things are not good.... virtually any alternative to the two higher education forms, the transmission model and the good-students-do-it-themselves model, is seen as making the university lecturer look like a secondary school teacher and therefore as status-threatening (Evans, 1993, p. 82).

But a desire for status is not the only factor which explains the reliance on the lecture in university English departments. As well as the funding pressures mentioned earlier, which affect all of the university, not just English, much of the resistance to methods other than the lecture stems from a lack of training in teaching. As early as 1891, John Churton Collins, expostulated on this very issue:

Are the universities to assume the responsibility of guaranteeing the attainments and qualifications of lecturers and teachers in English and other Literatures without providing them with any systematic training, or even submitting them to any test? (Collins, 1891, p. ix).

It seems that the universities were indeed prepared to allow teachers to forgo training or testing, and the lecture remains so dominant, in part, because of a sustained belief that training for university teaching is not necessary. Moreover, as Protherough (1989) suggests, "those who become English lecturers are normally those who have done well in the conventional system, and they are therefore unlikely to question it when they themselves come to teach. The methods they use...are simply assumed to be valid, and thus the lecturers ensure their continuance" (p. 131).

Slowly, however, as more training is offered to and expected of university English teachers, staff are acknowledging the passivity, boredom and inefficacy so often present in a teacher-centred, lecture-based approach to English teaching in the university, and are experimenting with various other techniques, especially the seminar, and it also percolates down to undergraduate level under the name of the "tutorial". This has been around for some time at graduate level. The advent of serious graduate study in New Zealand English departments, of the kind Donald Anderson could not conceive in

1950<sup>25</sup>, brought with it more intimate class sizes than at undergraduate level and gave rise to the graduate seminar, common in all departments.

Heather Murray (1996) talks of the potential the seminar/tutorial offers for self-reflective learning:

The seminar, in short, seems designed for free expression of opinion, cooperative and cumulative exchange, and attention to the alterity of the other. It stands, in these ways, in direct contrast to the lecture (Murray, 1996, p. 159).

But the seminar is not without its own problems and inefficiencies, as Punter (1986) explains:

The justifications for seminar teaching in English are many, and some of them are contradictory. It permits collaboration; or, it exposes the student to the experience of hard competition. It allows for exposure of the leader's weaknesses; or, it demonstrates his [*sic*] skills in manipulating a conscious group. It foregrounds the literary text as a present, tabled object over which all may pore; or, it subjugates the text to the development of argumentative articulacy (Punter, 1986, p. 218).

But such discussion about the role of the text, the teacher and the learner in the teaching and learning of English in the university does not happen, or at least is not written about, in New Zealand, and the lecture thus continues its reign in New Zealand English departments. To be sure, graduate teaching in English in New Zealand almost universally favours a seminar format, and a handful of teachers are moving away from a reliance on lecturing at undergraduate level, offering two tutorial sessions and only one lecture per week, for example. But change is slow, given the minimal training opportunities, rising student numbers, and increasingly adverse staff:student ratios – about 1:22 in most New Zealand university English departments. Furthermore, research expectations occupy considerably more of a New Zealand English academic's time in the 1990s than ever before.

### **2.7.6 Research and Graduate Study 1960-1990s**

In 1946, the then Chancellor of the University of New Zealand, David Stanley Smith, blamed the lack of research in New Zealand universities in the 1940s on unfavourable staff:student ratios and consequently long teaching hours, as well as a lack of the following resources: library facilities, archives, adequate funds, inspiration from contact

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<sup>25</sup>“In any foreseeable future, the post-graduate student of English will study overseas” (Anderson, 1950, p. 147).

with “leaders of thought in the centres of culture overseas, inspiration from more frequent conferences of University teachers in New Zealand...and encouragement that would come from the publication of good work at the expense of the University through (say) a University Press or other means of publication” (Smith, 1946, pp. 23-24).

In the 1990s, many of these problems have been rectified. Library facilities are greatly improved and the interloans system increases access to other library holdings in New Zealand and throughout the world. Archival material is continually being updated and supplemented, though access to literary archives of the kind Smith was referring to – pre-twentieth century British writers’ folios, original manuscripts etc – is obviously still limited by geography. Geography has been transcended in some respects, however, by new technologies such as the fax, e-mail, CD-Rom and the internet, and contact with internationally renowned scholars and experts is now much easier and more frequent than in the first half of this century, though still limited by lack of funding in the Humanities. New Zealand English academics can more readily attend overseas conferences by plane, or participate by e-mail, and also hold their own conferences in New Zealand, attended by foreign as well as local scholars. The University of New Zealand Press was established in 1946, but did not have a high volume of publication. In the 1990s, however, most universities have their own press, increasing publishing opportunities for staff.

In addition to these developments, the expansion of the New Zealand university system in the 1960s saw an influx of North American-educated academics into New Zealand English departments<sup>26</sup>. As Mark Williams notes, these young lecturers were “eager to introduce the ideas and perspectives of their training. They saw publication and conference attendance as an essential part of their careers” (Williams, 1998, p. 721). For all the above reasons, New Zealand English academics in the late 1960s and onwards began to publish more prolifically. Research did and does not occur unhindered for New

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<sup>26</sup> For example, in 1964 Roly Frean was appointed Professor of the Massey English department. A graduate of the University of Toronto, he established a Toronto connection with Massey, as evidenced by the later appointments of Russell Poole, John Muirhead and David Dowling – all New Zealanders who had also completed their doctorates at Toronto. Similarly, Otago’s English department currently boasts four Toronto graduates, as well as a strong contingent of its own graduates – Colin Gibson was appointed in 1957, with a UNZ PhD, while John Watson, appointed in 1965, also holds an Otago PhD. Victoria, on the other hand, maintains a strong British connection, with thirteen of its eighteen English department staff holding British higher degrees.

Zealand English academics, however. The original problem of unfavourable staff:student ratios still exists today, demanding time and commitment from English teachers that eat into time available for research. The issue of teaching vis-à-vis research commitments will be considered in much more depth in Part Four, as will the PhD in Part Five, where I present and discuss the findings of my surveys, focus groups and interviews with HoDs and individual staff members.

# PART THREE

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## *Methodology*

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### **3.1 AIMS AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

As noted in Part One, this case study builds on research on recognising, rewarding and valuing teaching and teachers in higher education, carried out by the following organisations and individuals:

- the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in the United States (Boyer, 1990 and Boyer et al., 1994),
- the Committee for the Advancement of University Teaching in Australia (Ramsden et al., 1995),
- Halsey (1992) in the UK, and
- Teichler (1996) in Western Europe, Japan and the USA.

The main questions driving the research were as follows:

- Is teaching valued in New Zealand universities?
- What are English department academic staff members' attitudes towards teaching?
- Are the claims about teaching by academic staff, by Heads of Departments (HoDs), and by institutional administrators matched in practice?
- Are university teachers being adequately trained?
- Could the PhD programme in English departments train potential university teachers more effectively than it currently does?
- Are research and teaching competing forces in an academic's life, and should we be reconceptualising all the activities of the academic under Ernest Boyer's notion of scholarship?

### **3.2 BRIDGING BINARIES**

#### **3.2.1 English/Education and Humanities/Social Sciences**

By enrolling as a PhD student in the School of English and Media Studies, I gained the advantage of easier access to the participants in the study and to official documents in English. By enlisting a second supervisor from the College of Education, I hoped to bridge the gap between my experiences as an English student and teacher, and the skills I would need to complete what is, essentially, an educational research project. And, by combining the research skills developed in English (close studies of literature involving critical analysis, interpretation, synthesis and argument) with a qualitative research

approach more commonly found in Social Science and Education departments, I hoped, in addition to answering the already mentioned research questions, to exploit the advantages cited in favour of the current spate of academic mergers in New Zealand universities, especially the decision to merge the faculties of Humanities and Social Sciences at Massey and Waikato. Such advantages include the encouragement of cross-, trans-, multi-, and inter-disciplinary research and teaching, described by Boyer as the “scholarship of integration”. Ironically, Massey has yet to build a bridge between Humanities and Social Sciences (in which English sits) and Education, and I am expected on the title page of my thesis to name just one department, despite the input from my second supervisor in Education.

### **3.2.2 Qualitative/Quantitative**

As mentioned in Part One: Introduction, this is a multi-site case study, using triangulation of information and some quantitative techniques (McIlroy, 1997; O’Brien, 1993; Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Vaughn et al., 1996; Wolff et al., 1993; Yin, 1994). The advantages of qualitative case study research are well documented:

It provides thick description, is grounded, is holistic and lifelike, simplifies data to be considered by the reader, illuminates meanings, and can communicate tacit knowledge (Merriam, 1998, p. 39);

Besides dialogue and understanding, a qualitative study may fill a void in existing literature, establish a new line of thinking, or assess an issue with an understudied group or population (Cresswell, 1998, p. 94).

It is, however, also fraught with risks, which Merriam (1998) succinctly summarises, quoting Guba and Lincoln (1981):

“Case studies can oversimplify or exaggerate a situation, leading the reader to erroneous conclusions about the actual state of affairs”. Furthermore, [Guba and Lincoln] warn, readers may think that case studies are accounts of the whole: “That is, they tend to masquerade as a whole when in fact they are but a part – a slice of life”.... Qualitative studies are limited, too, by the sensitivity and integrity of the investigator (Merriam, 1998, p. 42).

In aiming to avoid such oversimplification or reductionism, I used multiple methods for gathering the information. I also included quantitative techniques, which are subject to more stringent validity checks and processes, and I employed member checks, which involved taking the “data and tentative interpretations back to the people from whom they were derived and ask[ing] them if the results were plausible” (Merriam, 1998, p.

204). In addition, I subjected my work to peer examination as well as stating my intentions clearly at the beginning of the study (for example in the covering letters) in an effort to eliminate any perceived researcher bias. The following sections outline the procedures I took to gather the information.

### 3.3 THE SAMPLE

Having chosen the discipline of English as the research focus, I had to decide *who* and *how many* English people to involve. Since there are only six university English departments in New Zealand, coverage of all six was feasible, and clearly desirable, since such coverage would enable me to talk with some credibility and reliability about the opinions of English people in New Zealand. A more in-depth individual case study of the Massey department alone would perhaps have yielded richer, more detailed material, but such a narrow focus would also have limited the project's significance and applicability. Thus, this multi-site case study focuses on all six New Zealand university English departments. The sample includes all full-time and part-time academic staff, as part-time staff make a significant contribution, in terms of hours and effort, to the teaching that happens in New Zealand university English departments.

### 3.4 PROCEDURES FOR GATHERING MATERIAL

In order to achieve the triangulation of information desirable in qualitative case studies (Cresswell, 1998, p. 251), I tried to ensure that I had not only multiple data sources (both full-time and part-time English academics at six universities, HoDs, and Teaching and Learning Centre (TLC)<sup>1</sup> representatives) but also multiple methods of data collection. These were:

- questionnaires
- focus groups
- interviews, both semi-structured and open-ended
- the study of official documentation and other relevant literature.

Figure 3.1 on the next page outlines the time-line and overall design of the study. The processes specified there are described in detail in the following sections.

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<sup>1</sup> This name is used to signify the units or centres at each university responsible for the teaching development of academic staff. All six have different names, and this label covers them all, while revealing the identity of none.

## TIME-LINE AND OVERALL DESIGN OF THE STUDY

1997	MAR-MAY 98	JUNE-AUG 98	SEP-NOV 98	DEC 98—FEB 99	MAR-MAY 99
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Review of published and unpublished research, literature and official university documents on the discipline of English, the PhD programme, and teaching and research policies, procedures and practices at universities in New Zealand, Australia, the US and the UK.

Formulation of research problem

Development of questionnaires

Pilot studies

Full time questionnaires sent and returned

Part time questionnaires sent and returned

HoD questionnaires sent and returned

Focus groups conducted

HoD interviews conducted

TLC interviews conducted

Personal interviews conducted

Analysis of data

Figure 3.1 – Time-line and overall design of the study

### **3.4.1 The Questionnaires**

After reading relevant literature and talking informally with English academics, staff developers and teaching professionals, I began the formal information gathering process with the construction of two questionnaires. The decision was made to begin with a mail-out questionnaire for a number of reasons, all outlined in the relevant literature (Babbie, 1990; Hoinville & Jowell and associates, 1989; McIlroy, 1997; Rea & Parker, 1997; Sudman & Bradburn, 1983; Wolff et al., 1993; Weisberg, Krosnick & Bowen, 1996; Zikmund, 1997). Such a questionnaire would (potentially) reach all of the intended participants in the case study (teachers in New Zealand university English departments) without a significant outlay of time or expense. It would provide formal reassurance that their responses would be treated in confidence. It would enable them to fully consider and reflect upon their responses (if indeed they chose to respond) without the pressure of a face-to-face interview or a hurried phone conversation. And it would eliminate the possibility of interviewer bias or pressure affecting the responses. The disadvantages of using mail-out questionnaires will be considered nearer the end of this section.

Loosely based on Boyer's 1990 survey of academic staff in the United States and CAUT's 1995 survey of Australian academics and administrators, the questionnaire for full-time academic staff comprised 51 questions and was 10 pages long. The questionnaire for part-time academic staff was shorter, at 6 pages and 40 questions (See Appendices One and Two), as fewer of the issues were relevant to part-timers, and, in some instances, they would not have the knowledge or experience to answer the questions (for example, on promotion and appointment practices). Brook (1989) places the ideal length of a postal questionnaire at no more than 10 pages, while Sudman & Bradburn's (1983) upper limit is 16 pages, but both also admit that a highly literate sample population (such as English academics) will not necessarily be deterred by the length of the questionnaire. Furthermore, statistical studies have failed to prove a correlation between length and response rate. In fact, the appearance of the questionnaire apparently has more effect than its length on whether it is answered and returned (Brook, 1989, p. 127). A third questionnaire, designed for Heads of Department, will be discussed in more depth later in this section.

The questionnaires followed a similar format to the US and Australian surveys in that the bulk of the questions (26 of the full-time and 18 of the part-time) consisted of statements requiring the circling of a number on a Likert Scale: 1 signified “Is not at all valued” or “Strongly disagree”, and 5 signified “Is valued a great deal” or “Strongly agree”. Like the previous surveys, my questionnaires were divided into separate sections, both to ease analysis and to break the visual monotony. There were five sections in the full-time questionnaire:

- Your Views about Valuing and Rewarding Teaching
- Your Views About the PhD
- Your Views About the Discipline of English
- Your Own Teaching and Research Activities
- Background Information.

The second and third of the above sections were omitted from the part-time questionnaire, which therefore had only three sections. Some of the questions mirrored those in the earlier Boyer and CAUT surveys. For example, questions 1 and 2 on both questionnaires, and question 3 on the full-time one, were taken from the CAUT survey with very few alterations. But others, including the entire PhD and Discipline of English sections, were created specifically for this project.

Another significant difference was the inclusion of space for written comments after each question, a feature absent from the US and Australian surveys, but one that I considered vital to the credibility and dependability of my research. Both Brook (1989) and Sudman & Bradburn (1983) warn against the use of open-ended questions in postal questionnaires, because they “cannot probe or ask the respondent to explain a particular answer; they cannot encourage the respondent to be less reticent or to give his [*sic*] own opinions and prejudices rather than slogans and cliches” (Brook, 1989, p. 126). Leaving space for comments after each statement runs similar risks, but I felt it important to give the respondents the opportunity to explain their numerical responses, if they desired. I also felt that this would make the questionnaire more palatable to English people (whose own research is seldom quantifiable in nature) than a solely quantitative exercise would have been.

A similar tactic was employed in the construction of the questionnaire for HoDs (See Appendix Three); again space was created for written comments after each question. The questionnaire as a whole comprised three sections:

- Courses (4-5 questions, depending on the university),
- Teaching (14 questions), and
- Part-time Staff (19 questions).

Mainly statistical information was requested.

With construction of the questionnaires complete, a pre-test was undertaken in order to combat the risk of a poorly designed questionnaire causing a poor response rate (Babbie, 1990; Courtenay, 1989; Zikmund, 1997). Six academic staff members in one Humanities department at Massey University, and another three within the English department itself were given copies of the full-time questionnaire to complete as if they were actual research participants. They were also asked to respond to a set of questions about the design and layout of the questionnaire. Their responses were used to redesign and improve the questionnaire by making it:

- more readable, with bigger spaces between questions, a clearer font, and more clearly numbered pages,
- more consistent, with the Likert Scale swapped around on one set of questions so that 1 represented the two negative connotations (“Strongly disagree” and “Not at all valued”) all the way through the questionnaire,
- more economical, with fewer questions, less repetition and fewer pages, and
- more comprehensible, with clarity of instructions and questions enhanced.

Upon completion of this pre-testing and reworking of the questionnaires, approval for their use was sought from and granted by Massey University’s Human Ethics Committee. In July 1998 all full-time English department academic staff listed in the *Calendars* of the six New Zealand universities were sent an individually-addressed questionnaire.

In October 1998, part-time staff were sent their questionnaire. These were not, however, individually addressed, as the identity of these staff is not publicly available, owing to the instability and short-term nature of part-time teaching in English. Departments were

reluctant to divulge the names of part-time staff over the phone, but gladly (in most cases) told me the numbers of tutors and agreed to distribute the questionnaires if I sent them to the department secretary. With part-time questionnaires duly dispatched, I could only hope that they reached their intended audience.

The worry of whether all intended participants will receive a questionnaire is but one of the problems associated with mail-out surveys such as this. Survey research literature identifies many more (Babbie, 1990; Hoinville & Jowell & associates, 1989; McIlroy, 1997; Rea & Parker, 1997; Sudman & Bradburn, 1983; Zikmund, 1994). The potentially low response rate is one of the most significant problems befalling mail-out questionnaires. Researchers admit that there is no *firm* agreement on an acceptable percentage; however, McIlroy's research states that most consider response rates from 30% upwards satisfactory (McIlroy, 1997, p. 84). A *slow* return rate can also be a problem, one which certainly occurred during this project (See Section 4.1: Participants). Prompt responses can also be problematic, in that they may indicate an unusually strong interest in the topic, possibly obscuring the views of the silent (or slow) majority and thus introducing bias. I have to wonder whether this was the case with the part-time staff at one institution, over half of whom responded within just a week of the questionnaires being distributed. This suggested there was a problem of some nature in that department. Brook (1989) suggests the following with regard to early, late and non-respondents:

- Respondents (and particularly early respondents) tend to be:
    - favourably disposed towards the survey's aims or involved in the survey subject
    - politically or socially active...
    - receptive to new ideas
    - rapid decision makers
    - high achievers...
    - used to communicating by post.
  - Non-respondents and late respondents are more likely to:
    - be elderly, disengaged or withdrawn
    - live in urban, rather than suburban or rural areas
    - feel that they may be judged by the responses that they make
    - feel that they will be inadequate at supplying the information requested.
- (Brook, 1989, p. 137).

Certainly, as Section 4.1: Participants will show, much of this is true for the current project.

Another issue is the timing of the survey. I purposely sent the full-time questionnaires between semesters, when workload is, supposedly, lighter for these staff. I should have sent the part-time questionnaires earlier than I did; in fact they arrived near the end of the academic year when some part-timers had already left campus. This may, in part, explain the fact that the response rate from part-timers was lower than that from full-time staff.

Finally, perhaps one of the most significant weaknesses of postal surveys is that not only do the researchers have to rely on the respondents to complete and return the questionnaires, but they also run the risk of respondents misunderstanding questions, misreading instructions and/or missing out answers because the researchers are not present to clarify issues or ambiguities. This is discussed further in Sections 3.4.2 and 3.4.3 below.

In an effort to overcome some of these problems, I included with each questionnaire, as Babbie (1990), Hoinville, Jowell & associates (1989), McIlroy (1997) and Zikmund (1994) suggest, a stamped, self-addressed envelope and a cover letter, introducing myself and my supervisors, outlining the project in as much detail as was practicable, inviting – not demanding – participation, and guaranteeing anonymity and confidentiality. The letter asked respondents to record their name and institution on a cover-sheet which would be removed as soon as the questionnaire was returned. This cover-sheet enabled me to identify non-respondents, who were sent reminder letters in due course (See Appendix Four). My supervisor (who is also the Head of School) later sent letters to the other Heads of English Departments asking them to urge non-complying staff to return their completed questionnaires. With the Massey staff, I followed up my reminder letters with personal visits asking for their cooperation, and I also e-mailed individual staff at another institution who were known to me because I had completed my undergraduate degree there.

Of course, all of these measures could still not ensure a 100% response rate, and in cases like this the value of qualitative research, using multiple-methods and resisting reductionism, is particularly evident.

### **3.4.2 The Focus Groups**

Knowing that the questionnaires would neither yield all the information I hoped to gather nor allow all the relevant voices to be heard, I also planned to conduct focus groups and interviews with representatives from all six departments. Wolff et al. (1993) warn that,

survey research may be seen as hostage by its own design to the conceptual research priorities of the investigators. Survey research is characterized at every step by the extraordinary unilateral control exercised over measurement and interpretation by the researchers, guided by their own theoretical concerns (p. 119).

Holding focus groups would help to eliminate some of the perceived biases implicit in the questionnaire, by allowing English academics to speak for themselves about teaching, unconstrained by specific questions or themes. It would enable me to access a range of opinion as well as explore nuances and complexities (Hurworth, 1999) and it would also build on the data generated by the questionnaire. The perceived benefits of holding focus group discussions include the opportunity to supplement the information already gathered (Weisberg, Krosnick & Bowen, 1996), the chance to eliminate doubts, confusion, or ambiguity by being on hand to answer questions and to ask questions myself where responses were confusing, the opportunity for participants to voice concerns, and the chance for me to interact with the participants, read their body language, hear the tone of their voices, and observe their interaction with other focus group members – all activities unobservable by questionnaire. I did not aim to steer group members towards consensus about any of the issues, but rather to find out, as Morgan and Krueger (1993) suggest, “as much as possible about participants’ experiences and feelings” on teaching in English (p. 7). Moreover, the focus groups were likely to be more attractive to English academics than the questionnaires. As Morgan and Krueger (1993) suggest, a focus group is a friendly research method that is respectful and not condescending, a place in which English academics could talk at length on a subject dear, or in some cases anathematical, to them. The trick is, Rossman and Rallis (1998) suggest, “to promote participants’ talk through the creation of a permissive environment” (p. 135).

Herein, however, lies a potential disadvantage of using a focus group. There is the possibility that participants will not feel comfortable opening up either to each other or

to a stranger such as myself. Furthermore, as Hurworth (1999) suggests, the group dynamic may adversely influence the data-gathering process in the following ways:

- a forceful individual can alter the group outcome in the direction of his/her opinion
  - participants are more likely to express statements that are an acceptable social norm than if they were in an individual interview
  - participants may give polite answers or tow the political line
  - people will not give valid information if the topic is sensitive
  - individuals whose perceptions are different from the majority will suppress their perceptions, and
  - there will always be games of status and power in the group
- (Hurworth, 1999, p. 3).

In my case, other disadvantages lay in the voluntary nature of the exercise, the selective make-up of the groups, the time, expense and organisation required, and the danger of my presence influencing participants' responses and interaction. Hurworth (1999) again sounds a warning about the need for rigour on the part of the moderator and/or facilitator and suggests that, without adequate preparation, an inexperienced or ill-prepared moderator runs the risk of losing good data through not allowing equal opportunity for all participants to speak, by introducing personal biases, or by lacking the skill and/or personality to encourage full and enthusiastic participation from all present.

Once the information from the questionnaires had been gathered and compiled, I produced a summary report that tabled statistical responses to all of the questions and included a representative sample of written responses to each question. This summary was sent to individuals who had requested copies, and also to HoDs, along with an invitation to all department members to participate in a focus group discussion at their institution (See Appendix Five).

Only three of the six departments expressed interest in a focus group. This sample was, however, to some extent representative of the entire set of New Zealand English departments, in that it included a small, a medium and a large department, one being the oldest and another the newest English department in this country.

The first focus group was held at the medium-sized department, and nine people took part, including a facilitator and myself. Research suggests that no more than ten is an appropriate number for a focus group (Frey & Fontana, 1993, p. 30). As Hoinville, Jowell & associates (1989) suggest, “with more than ten participants the group becomes difficult to control and tends to split into sub-groups” (p. 18). Three people who had expressed interest in participating were included, regardless of their position in the department, and four others from a range of positions were invited to make up the numbers. All who were asked agreed to participate. The participants included the Head of Department (a Professor), an Associate Professor, three Senior Lecturers, a Lecturer, and a Senior Tutor. There were two women and five men, making this focus group fairly representative of the whole department.

The session lasted about 90 minutes and was recorded on both video and audio tape (the video being used for higher sound quality). A few days earlier, the group members had been sent a copy of the summary of the questionnaire results, with a covering letter and a consent form (See Appendices Six and Seven). At the start of the session, a facilitator introduced the project and myself, directed participants to their copy of the summary of results and asked people to make comments as a means of initiating the discussion. From then on, discussion flowed freely among all the participants and I had very little involvement, except to answer a couple of questions. No one member appeared to dominate the discussion, although two were significantly quieter than the others.

At the second focus group, in the large department, six people took part, including myself, but there was no facilitator. Having participated simply as an observer at the first group, I was able to watch the process of facilitation and believed that I would be able to undertake this role myself in the next two groups. The expense of bringing in a facilitator outweighed the potential disadvantages inherent in my facilitating the group (namely, the possibility that I might direct the conversation to my own ends, and intimidate or silence participants). Knodel (1993) and Weisberg, Krosnick & Bowen (1996) state that the facilitator must be prepared to improvise comments and questions, but within firmly established guidelines. The summary of results provided these guidelines and by encouraging participants to speak freely among themselves and trying to observe rather than participate myself, I believe I managed to avoid these pitfalls.

This second group comprised the Head of Department (again, a Professor), an Associate Professor, a Senior Lecturer, a Lecturer, and a Senior Tutor, and included two women and three men. The Head of Department and Department Administrator helped to find the participants, after no one initially volunteered their involvement. Again, representation across the department was crucial to each group member's selection. By including both genders and a range of positions, this group, like the first one, was suitably representative of the whole department. With no facilitator present, I introduced the project and myself, and asked the participants to comment on any aspect of the summary of results (which they had received earlier) that interested them. The first few minutes of this session were spent clarifying the research project and answering questions about its focus, direction and purpose. Discussion then flowed freely for about 85 minutes, again with no one member dominating the conversation, and with more balanced participation (probably because of the smaller size) than in the earlier group. This session was recorded on a Dictaphone and audio tape, but not on video tape (as no machine was available).

The final group, at the smallest of the three institutions, involved just four participants and myself, again in the role of facilitator. Hoinville, Jowell & associates (1989) state that "with fewer than about five people, it may be difficult to get a discussion going at all. However, with highly articulate and informed people, a smallish group may be preferable since it gives everyone ample opportunity to talk" (p. 18). Certainly, at this final focus group discussion was much more evenly distributed and also more focussed. The four were the Head of Department (a Senior Lecturer), an Associate Professor, another Senior Lecturer and a Lecturer. There was one woman and three men. Two participants had expressed interest in being involved, and the others were again selected with the help of the department secretary on the basis of their position in the department. Once again, the session was recorded on Dictaphone and audio tape and followed a very similar format to the second focus group, lasting about 90 minutes, and comprising an open-ended discussion with very few leading questions from me as facilitator.

All of the focus group participants signed consent forms agreeing to the recording of the sessions. The tapes were transcribed and the transcriptions printed for analysis (See Section 3.5).

### **3.4.3 The Interviews**

While the three HoDs who had allowed focus groups to be held at their institution offered their cooperation with personal interviews, trying to secure interviews with the other HoDs proved significantly more difficult. All six HoDs were sent a questionnaire requesting statistical information on courses in their department, teaching activities and policies, and the activities of part-time staff. A covering letter asked them to fill in and return the questionnaire to me, and also requested a personal interview about issues related to the hiring and promotion of staff. The sensitive and complex nature of this information, which will not and sometimes cannot be adequately conveyed in short written replies, necessitated these personal interviews. Only two HoDs returned this questionnaire within the requested time frame. Both agreed to personal interviews.

The advantages of face-to-face interviews are outlined in the literature on surveys and interviews and include the “role the interviewer can play in enhancing respondent participation, guiding the questioning, answering the respondent’s questions, and clarifying the meaning of responses” (Frey and Oishi 1995, p. 3). Face-to-face interviews mean the interviewer can probe, clarify and motivate the respondent to answer the questions, and can help to create both more flexibility and more complexity, if desired – actions not possible with mail-out questionnaires (Frey & Oishi, 1995; Rea and Parker, 1997).

Disadvantages include the time and cost involved, as well as the risk of interviewer-induced bias (Rea and Parker, 1997). Face-to-face interviews may also be affected by respondents’ reluctance to co-operate, both initially and during the interview. A further disadvantage lies in the possibility of the interviewee giving socially desirable responses – where the interviewee bows to interviewer or societal pressures rather than allowing their own instinctive responses to come through (Frey & Oishi, 1995; Weisberg, Krosnick & Bowen, 1997). Finally, there is the perceived lack of anonymity, and the potential for stress and fatigue.

The first interview lasted about 75 minutes – an appropriate length, according to Frey & Oishi (1995), who state that in interviews from 60-90 minutes duration “interviewers can probe in greater depth, go further into establishing rapport, and thus be in a better position to ask sensitive questions” (p. 37) than in shorter interviews. Any longer than 90 minutes and both interviewer and interviewee will begin to experience fatigue, and answers (and questions) may not be as thoughtful or as thorough. The interview was recorded on a Dictaphone and included specific questions regarding policies and practices related to the hiring and promotion of staff (See Appendix Eight). The HoD was also asked some open-ended questions on tutoring, the PhD, and the university’s and the HoD’s own views about teaching. The next HoD gave much shorter, less personal answers. Lasting just 35 minutes, this second interview was also recorded on Dictaphone and followed the same format as the first interview. The transcriptions of these interviews yielded richly informative material, augmenting my desire for cooperation from the other four HoDs.

While I received no reply at all from two HoDs, two others wrote – to my supervisor, not me – expressing dissatisfaction at not having been consulted earlier about the potential interview and about the focus groups. One of these declined outright to participate in the interview and the other wrote an ambivalent reply. Eventually, following a placatory letter, the first reluctant HoD (who had by now relinquished the position) agreed to speak to me. During the same visit I spoke with the new HoD and various department members. The second HoD, however, made no further moves to reply and the questionnaire was eventually completed by, and the interview conducted with, a new HoD early in 1999. These three interviews – with the two new HoDs and one ex-HoD – were conducted along very similar lines as the first one, and lasted between 40 and 70 minutes. Again, they were recorded on Dictaphone and later transcribed.

Meanwhile, two HoDs still had not responded at all. A visit to one in early 1999 revealed that the lack of involvement had sprung from resistance within the Faculty to revealing potentially (commercially) sensitive information that might adversely affect a department’s or university’s competitive position. A letter to the Faculty head from my supervisor containing the assurance that the information requested was solely for the

purposes of this research eventually secured the return of the completed questionnaire. Alas, time had run out for an interview.

After many unsuccessful attempts, by letter, phone and e-mail, to contact the sixth HoD, a chance phone call eventually resulted in an agreement to be interviewed, but this was cancelled the day before the meeting and a promise to post the completed questionnaire as soon as possible was not honoured. Four weeks later, my supervisor received an e-mail expressing concern at the sensitive nature of some of the questions. Once again, a placatory letter was dispatched, but no reply was received in time to be included in the research. Thus, five HoD questionnaires were returned, meetings regarding the questionnaires were held with five of the six current HoDs, but only four *in-depth* interviews were completed.

On my visits to the departments to interview HoDs and hold focus groups, I also interviewed some other English staff members. Two of these interviews were with the persons responsible for the training and/or coordination of part-time teaching staff in their departments. Their replies to open-ended questions regarding the status, training and treatment of part-time staff (See Appendix Nine) were recorded on Dictaphone and later transcribed. The interviews lasted between 25 and 60 minutes.

I also set out to interview a series of academic staff who had recently completed PhDs in different countries. I ended up with only two, both from North America. The open-ended questions for the first of these interviews focussed on the interviewee's experiences both as a graduate student overseas, and as a new staff member in a New Zealand university, and on attitudes to New Zealand and overseas PhDs (See Appendix Ten). The interview lasted about 80 minutes, was recorded on Dictaphone and transcribed. The second of these interviews was conducted by e-mail; another recently appointed staff member with a PhD from overseas was asked about the New Zealand and North American PhD programmes. The e-mail reply constituted three typed pages.

Finally, I was able to interview the Directors (or their representatives) of the Teaching and Learning Centres at all six universities. The interviews followed the same format at each institution. The questions were based on issues related to teaching that I had identified in the Academic Audit Unit (AAU) *Audit Reports* on each institution (See

Appendix Eleven for an example). Some required specific, factual answers; others were more open-ended. All six of these interviews were recorded on Dictaphone and transcribed.

#### **3.4.4 Official documents**

The AAU *Audit Reports* constitute just some of many official documents consulted in the course of this research. They were read as they became publicly available. I also had access to the institutional Audit Portfolios produced for the audits. Extracting from each report the information relating to teaching issues, I produced a preliminary graph, detailing 20 teaching policies, procedures and practices and the ways in which, according to the *Audit Reports*, these were enforced or implemented at each of the six institutions. This graph was used to identify apparent gaps in each institution's practices, and interview questions were formulated for the TLC directors on the basis of these gaps. (See Appendices Twelve and Thirteen for the original graph, and the updated version following the TLC interviews). This information has been used in Parts Four and Five of this thesis, where the questionnaire and interview data are presented and discussed, in light of recent literature in the areas of university teaching, the PhD programme and the discipline of English.

Other official documents consulted include University *Calendars*, dating back as far as 1870 (for appointment dates of early English professors, names and positions of current English staff members and the universities from which they received their PhDs, information on research in English, departmental course guidelines and programmes, and assessment procedures and weightings). Official promotion policies at two institutions have also been cited, as well as English department and TLC annual reports, university mission statements, teaching and learning plans and policies, TLC pamphlets, policies and handbooks, and government papers, such as the recent Green and White Papers on Tertiary Education.

## **2.5 DATA ANALYSIS**

The SPSS computing programme was used to analyse the quantitative data generated by the questionnaires. Numerical answers were inputted and tables produced for all 51 questions. These tables detail the number and percentage of responses for each category

on the Likert Scale. For most questions (as will be evident in Part Four), categories 4 and 5 or 1 and 2 were then combined to help create an overall picture. For questions 2 and 3, which asked respondents to indicate the importance of certain criteria in appointment and promotion decisions, categories 4 and 5 (and sometimes 1 and 2) were collapsed, and rankings generated to determine which were the most and least important (See Section 4.2.1). Given the qualitative nature of the study, statistical practices such as calculating means, standard deviations and frequencies were not considered necessary.

The written comments on the questionnaire were categorised first by the question they referred to, then under the headings “Agree”, “Disagree”, “Neutral”, and finally by themes generated from in-depth analysis of the other qualitative material, the focus groups and interviews. Transcripts were read and re-read before being coded thematically (as opposed to numerically), and five major themes emerged which form the structure for Parts Four and Five:

- 1 - English as a discipline
- 2 - Teaching and research – perceptions, policies, practice
- 3 - Training and staff development
- 4 - Part-timers
- 5 - The PhD.

# **PART FOUR**

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## *Findings on teaching*

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## 4.1 PARTICIPANTS

The case under consideration in this thesis is “English” in New Zealand universities. There are six New Zealand university English departments, ranging in size from ten full-time staff members, to thirty nine, with four departments located in the North Island and two in the South, in Christchurch and Dunedin. (Lincoln University near Christchurch does not have an English department and was therefore excluded from this study). The six English departments participated in the following ways:

- Full-time and part-time staff at all six departments were sent mail-out questionnaires.
- Five of the current HoDs answered the questionnaire designed specifically for them and/or participated in an interview.
- Full-time staff in three departments took part in focus groups.
- Four staff members in two different departments were individually interviewed.
- The Directors (or their representatives) of the Teaching and Learning Centres at all six universities were also interviewed.

The response rates to the initial questionnaires sent to all full-time and part-time English academic staff follow.

**Table 4.1 – Full-time questionnaire returns**

Department	Q's sent	Eligible respondents	Q's returned	% of dept responses	% of total response
1 <sup>1</sup>	(39)	30	11	36.6	23.0
2	(24)	16	5	31.3	11.0
3	(18)	16	11	68.7	23.0
4	(18)	12	8	66.0	17.0
5	(15)	15	6	40.0	13.0
6	(10)	10	6	60.0	13.0
	(124)	99	47	47.5	100.0

<sup>1</sup> Departments are represented by numbers here, and later, by the names of native trees in an effort to keep responses as confidential as possible.

Hedges (1989) and Frey & Oishi (1995) stress that the original number sent is not always the correct base from which to assess the final response rate:

Non-response must be carefully distinguished from elements being out-of-scope (deadwood). Selected sample elements that turn out not to be, or no longer to be, members of the survey population are out-of-scope; they should not have been included in the sampling frame and, when found, can simply be deleted....The base for calculating the response rate is the number of in-scope elements selected (not the total number initially selected) (Hedges, 1989, p. 71).

Accordingly, the numbers in parentheses refer to the number of questionnaires originally sent, based on the names listed in English department entries in the six university *Calendars*. These, however, included staff on leave, staff teaching subjects other than English (for example, linguistics, film and television) and staff who had left the department. The third column in Table 1, therefore, corresponds to the eligible number of participants or “in-scope elements” in each department.

The response rate of 47.5% corresponds with the standard response rates for other mail-out questionnaires. Weisberg, Krosnick & Bowen (1996) claim that response rates for mail-out surveys tend to be between 10% and 50% (p. 119), and, as Brook (1989) suggests, “although high response rates (i.e. over 70 per cent) are frequently achieved in postal enquiries, they sometimes drop to around 50 per cent for reasons that are not always clear” (p. 130). Babbie (1990) regards a response rate of around 50 percent as “adequate”, but not “high” or “very good”, citing as an example of inflated worth, the case of a US senator who used the phrase “this is regarded as a relatively high response rate for a survey of this type” to describe a 4 percent return rate on a poll of constituents! (Babbie, 1990, p. 182).

The response rate from the six institutions (columns 4-5) was fairly even, although the percentage of staff responding at Rata and Kowhai was lower than at the other four. This corresponds with Brook’s (1989) findings that non-respondents tend to be urban dwellers; Rata and Kowhai are in two of the biggest urban centres, and their HoDs were also the last to respond to the HoD questionnaire, with one failing to return a completed questionnaire at all.

A similar pattern is reflected in part-time response rates, as indicated in the table below.

**Table 4.2 – Part-time questionnaire returns**

Department	Q's sent	Eligible respondents	Q's returned	% of dept responses	% of total response
4	(27)	19	6	31.5	18.1
1	(21)	21	3	14.2	9.1
5	(20)	20	9	45.0	27.3
2	(16)	12	3	25.0	9.1
3	(11)	16	10	62.5	30.3
6	(6)	6	2	33.0	6.1
	(101)	94	33	35.1	100.0

Part-timers are not listed in the university *Calendars*, so numbers were obtained from departmental secretaries, and were often wrongly estimated. This estimate is again represented by the number in brackets. The response rate of part-time staff is lower than that of full-time staff for a number of reasons:

- I could not address the questionnaires individually, and therefore could not be certain they would reach the desired recipients;
- not all part-timers have mailboxes or are on campus regularly; and
- the questionnaires were sent in October, when some part-time staff had already finished their work for the year and/or left campus.

The discrepancies in response rates from department to department, for both surveys, are not easily explained. Contributing factors could include a lack of interest in the project, a lack of time, forgetfulness, reservations about its quantitative element, or resentment at having to fill in yet another questionnaire, particularly one which asked some personal questions. Some respondents raised these issues in their comments on the survey:

I do think there are inherent problems with this kind of assessment/method of gathering data – though I have no guaranteed instant alternative (SL<sup>2</sup>)

<sup>2</sup> The letters in parentheses after comments from questionnaire, interview or focus group participants refer to the quoted person's position in the department: T= part-time tutor, ST = senior tutor, L = lecturer, SL = senior lecturer, AP = associate professor, P = professor, HoD = Head of Department.

So far you've acknowledged that we do teaching and research, but you've left out all the other stuff that clutters our lives (known as administration) – not to mention answering questionnaires (P)

This is becoming tedious – why not fewer questions and less of this silly circling stuff? This research doesn't seem to be grounded in the methodology of English. Your target group would probably be happier writing at greater length on a small range of topics (SL).

With English academics in mind, I had tried to alleviate the potentially hostile reaction to the questionnaire's quantitative element by including ample space for written comments, and by declaring that the answering of any question, whether numerically or in writing, was entirely voluntary, but clearly this did not appease all of the potential respondents.

The following three tables summarise the gender (if indicated by the respondent) and position in the department of the respondents, and also relate these factors to the *total* numbers of staff in each position and of each gender.

**Table 4.3 – Gender of respondents**

	% Full-time	% Part-time	% Total
Male	55.3	21.2	41.2
Female	31.9	78.8	51.3
Not indicated	12.8	0.0	7.5
	100.0	100.0	100.0

These figures correspond to the percentages for ALL full-time staff in the six English departments – approximately 37% female and 63% male, according to calculations based on the 1998 university *Calendar* entries. Figures for ALL part-time staff are not known, although the following table shows that 87.5% of Senior Tutors<sup>3</sup> are women, and the percentage of women working part-time in English is possibly similar.

<sup>3</sup> "Senior Tutor" refers to full-time tutors, sometimes called teaching fellows or senior tutors (usually full-time academic staff with teaching responsibilities, but no research expectations), of which I calculate eight in all, according to the 1998 *Calendars*, seven of them women.

**Table 4.4 – Position in department by gender  
(based on 1998 university calendar entries and excluding part-timers)**

	Prof.	Assoc. Prof	Senior Lect.	Lecturer	Senior Tutor
Male	86.5%	92.8	66.5	40.0	12.5
Female	13.5%	7.2	33.5	60.0	87.5
	100.0%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Comparative figures for the UK in 1992 were:

**Table 4.5 – UK Figures for position in department by gender (Halsey, 1992, p. 222)**

	Men (%)	Women (%)
Professors	11.4	1.7
Readers/Senior Lect.	22.3	8.9
Lecturers	57.5	65.5
Other (research, tchg, etc)	8.6	23.9
	100.0	100.0

Women are underrepresented at the higher levels of the lecturer scale and above in New Zealand university English departments, and this is consistent with a worldwide historical trend. Since the turn of the century, an inverse proportion of male staff to female students has been obvious in English, and this inequality is only slowly being addressed. Two of the six current HoDs of English in New Zealand are women, as are two of the nine Professors, but it will take some time for the women who currently occupy 74% of the current lecturing and senior tutoring positions in English to move up the ranks, and thus improve this disparity<sup>4</sup>. (Such movement may be hampered, however, by restrictions on the promotion of senior tutors – at Rimu, for example, policy dictates that they *cannot* be promoted beyond Senior Tutor level).

<sup>4</sup> Internationally, Boyer et al. (1994) report that 60-70% of academics in the US and Australia are men, and Caplan (1994) indicates that while 27% of *all* faculty positions in the US and Canada are held by women, only about 17% of all *full-time* faculty are female (Caplan, 1994, p. 177).

While women are fairly well represented in the questionnaire responses, professors and senior tutors are slightly overrepresented, as shown in the following table.

**Table 4.6 – Position in department of full-time respondents**

Position	No. of respondents	% of respondents	% of actual staff
Professor	9	19.2	13.6
Assoc. Prof	7	14.9	12.7
Sen. Lecturer	19	40.4	43.6
Lecturer	7	14.9	22.8
Senior Tutor	5	10.6	7.3
	47	100.0	100.0

The differences between the percentage of staff in each position (taken from the *Calendars*) and the percentage who responded to the questionnaire are slight and are unlikely to have skewed the results, so the final sample can be considered representative of the whole case.

The following tables detail the age groups and previous qualifications and experience of the respondents. Corresponding figures for ALL English staff are not available, but the representativeness of the sample in other respects suggests that in these respects too it is representative. Furthermore, international research supports such figures: Boyer et al.'s 1994 study indicates that academia is “a middle-aged profession”, with an average age of 45 in the UK and Australia, and 48 in the US (Boyer et al., 1994, p. 5).

**Table 4.7 – Age group of respondents**

Age	% Part-time	% Full-time
20-29	58.0	--
30-39	12.0	11.0
40-49	15.0	30.0
50-59	12.0	50.0
60+	3.0	9.0
	100.0	100.0

**Table 4.8 – Years tertiary teaching**

Years	%Part-time	%Full-time
1-4	77.4	2.2
5-10	19.4	8.9
11-20	3.2	26.7
21-30	0.0	42.2
31-40	0.0	20.0
	100.0	100.0

During all three focus groups, at which only full-time staff were present<sup>5</sup>, people commented on various aspects of these figures. One point made was that part-timers have not been in the system for as long as full-timers; they are younger and less experienced, which explains their significantly different perspective, revealed later in this Section. However, one Senior Lecturer acknowledged that most full-timers have also at some point been part-timers and can thus relate to their concerns: “many of the comments made by the part-timers are exactly what I would have said 20-25 years ago in their shoes and things haven’t changed much”.

Others viewed the age group statistics with rather more alarm: “What struck me was that in the category 20-29 [there are] simply no full-time members of staff at all” (L). This can, in part, be explained by hiring patterns and policies in the past. Few appointments have been made in English in recent years, whereas in the late 60s and early 70s most departments nearly tripled in size. One department, for example, went from a staff of six (one professor, four lecturers, and one junior lecturer) in 1963 to a staff of seventeen (one professor, six senior lecturers, nine lecturers, one junior lecturer) in 1974. As Table 4.7 above indicates, many of those staff appointed in the 60s and 70s are still teaching, thus preventing new appointments from being made. In addition, one HoD commented that because new appointments are made primarily on the basis of the applicant’s publication record, it is very hard for younger people to compete, having had less time to publish than older applicants. Issues relating to appointment policies and practices will be expanded upon in Section 4.3. For now, suffice to say that the lack of younger staff in English departments in New Zealand is a cause for concern, as the following comments suggest:

Very soon, we won’t have anybody under 40.... Whilst we now talk about ‘the younger members of the department’, very soon the younger members in our department are going to be in their 40s.... I think it’s a really significant problem we’re facing, this business of age, because however we see ourselves, inevitably we are different people from those in their 20s and 30s. It’s not just a matter of age being closer to the students’; it’s different ideas, different training doctrines, different approaches to theory (SL).

Being considerably older than most of our students probably does have some problems connected with it, you know, different ways of understanding things

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<sup>5</sup> Part-time staff were not included in the focus groups as it was felt both full-time and part-time staff might feel constrained by the presence of the other group and I wanted discussion to be as unrestricted as possible. I originally intended to hold at least one separate focus group with part-time staff, but time, expense, and organisational difficulties prevented this.

and so on, but one of the things that has surprised me very much in I suppose the last five years, has been the very widespread breakdown of the old kind of formal relations between students and staff and the growth of what seems to me a very informal and much more relaxed kind of teaching, which I think is extremely good (AP).

The following sections of Part Four will discuss three main themes, generated from analysis of the interview and focus group material and the written comments on the questionnaires:

- teaching and research – perceptions, policies and practices
- part-timers
- training and staff development.

The PhD will be dealt with separately in Part Five. Each section will use questionnaire, focus group and interview data as well as relevant literature to produce an overview of these themes in English in New Zealand universities.

## 4.2 TEACHING AND RESEARCH

Teaching has certainly relaxed somewhat in English, as evidenced by the move away from the lecture and toward more co-operative, collaborative, student-centred learning environments. This is particularly evident in graduate teaching, itself a recent phenomenon, as established in Part Two. With smaller classes, older students, more student involvement in the form of seminar presentations and the like, and teachers more passionate about the topic at hand (since academics usually teach graduate classes on topics related to their current research), formality has never featured as strongly in the graduate seminar as in the undergraduate lecture hall. Furthermore, academics' relationships with graduate students<sup>6</sup> generally differ from those with undergraduate students, the former being treated more as potential colleagues. Such an attitude is reflected in the inclusion of graduate students at departmental meetings and functions, and in the informal gatherings organised with staff and graduate students in many English departments. Ideally, on this more neutral ground, the intricacies and hierarchies of the student-teacher relationship become diluted over glasses of wine and

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<sup>6</sup> For the purposes of this thesis, I will use the term "graduate student" to refer to a student studying beyond undergraduate level. In New Zealand this includes Honours, Masters and Doctoral students. In North America it includes Masters and beyond. In order to avoid confusion, I will not use the term "postgraduate".

cups of coffee, collegiality overtakes formality, and barriers are broken down. Teachers learn more about their students and vice versa. Trust is established and consequently carried back into the graduate classroom. Of course, this scenario does not ring true for all graduate student-lecturer relationships in English and the aging population of New Zealand university English academics may be an increasingly inhibiting factor.

Qualifications, experience and background also influence an academic's view and enjoyment of, attitude towards, and involvement in teaching and the student-teacher relationship (cf. Entwistle, 1998b and Menges & Weimer, 1996). While none of the part-timers who responded to the questionnaire has a PhD, most of the full-time staff do (76%). However, only 29.8% of the full-timers have a teaching certificate or diploma<sup>7</sup>, and only 47% any teaching experience outside the university. Twenty three full-time respondents (48.9%) indicated that they had not taught at any institution, other than a university, while two (4.3%) did not answer the question, leaving twenty two (46.8%) with previous teaching experience, including secondary and primary, polytechnic, College of Education, and second-language teaching, as well as music, speech and drama, and dance teaching. These figures suggest that the PhD is indeed the meal-ticket to an academic career in English: a meal-ticket which qualifies English people to teach without actually training them to do so. Lionel Lewis (1996) sees this lack of a teacher-training component in the PhD as contributing to the status quo which values research over teaching and restricts the notion of scholarship to a narrow research-based conception:

No doubt, current attitudes toward teaching (and research) are rooted in graduate training and the graduate schools. The PhD is a research degree. It certifies that individuals know anthropology or biology; it attests to their training as anthropologists or biologists, not that they have learned to teach the subject. The neophyte academic is guided step-by-step in completing a dissertation much as interns are supervised by experienced physicians. Teaching skills, such as they are, are picked up by trial and error or through having been a student. Seldom are they formally learned from a master teacher (Lewis, 1996, p. 9).

This matter will be taken up in much more depth in Part Five: The PhD, but it is hardly surprising that, given their training (and current appointment and promotion policies and

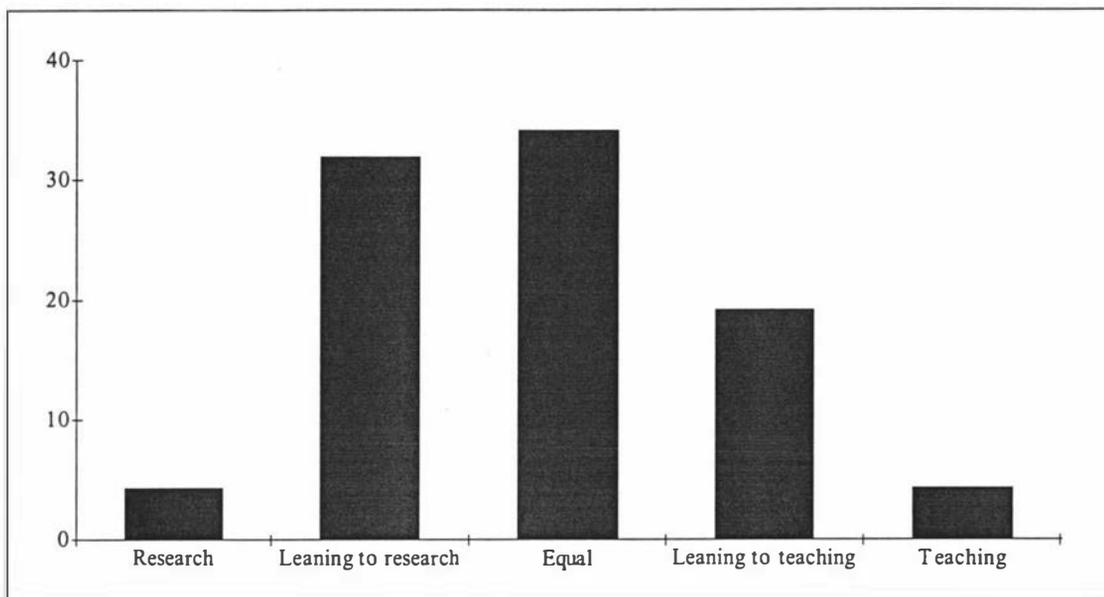
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<sup>7</sup> In fact, 38.4% of full-time respondents indicated that they possessed a teaching qualification:

Teaching certificate or diploma	29.8%
TEFL/TESL qualification	4.3%
Other	4.3%

practices), full-time English academics are generally more interested in research than in teaching, as the following graph indicates.

**Graph 4.1 – Main interests (Teaching or Research) of full-time academic staff (shown by percentage)**



The comparative figures from other recent studies (adapted from Ramsden et al., 1995, p. 83) are as follows:

**Table 4.9a – Main academic interests of full-time academic staff (Percentages) – adapted from Ramsden et al., 1995.**

	Ramsden et al. (1995)		Ramsden (1989)	Bowden & Anwyl (1978)	Halsey (1976)	Halsey & Trow (1964)
	Older unis	Newer unis				
Main interest primarily in research or leaning to research	48%	29	53	49	53	34
Main interest equally in research and teaching	30%	36	28	26	25	25
Main interest primarily in teaching or leaning to teaching	22%	35	19	25	23	40

Other studies (including the present one) reveal the following figures:

**Table 4.9b: Main academic interests of academic staff (Percentages)**

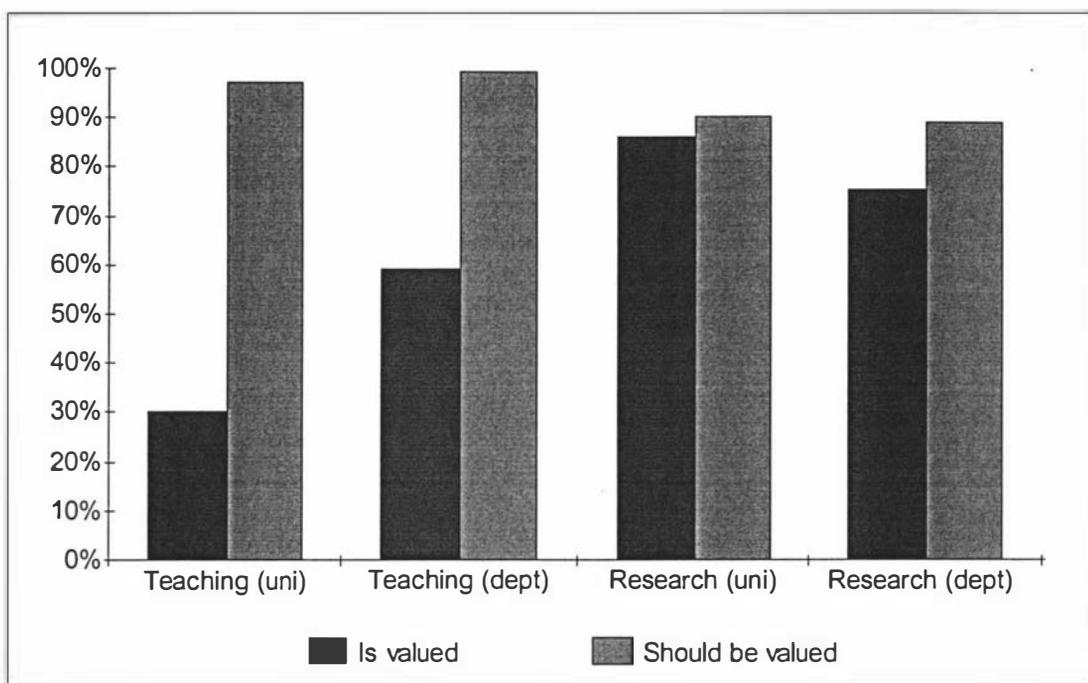
	Boyer (1990)		Boyer et al. (1994)			Present study – NZ (English)
	US – all	US - Humanities	US – all	UK – all	Aust – all	
Main interest primarily in research or leaning to research	30%	31	37	55	52	39
Main interest equally in research and teaching	--	--	--	--	--	36
Main interest primarily in teaching or leaning to teaching	70%	69	63	44	48	25

Much of the recent (as well as some of the older) research on higher education declares that teaching is undervalued in the university (see Part One: Introduction) but very little research has been done on teaching in New Zealand universities, and virtually none on teaching in *English* in New Zealand universities. My research thus aims to discover whether New Zealand English academics hold similar views to academics from a variety of disciplines around the world with respect to the value of teaching and research in the university. Results from previous studies (Boyer, 1990; Boyer et al., 1994; Glassick, 1997; Halsey, 1992; Ramsden et al., 1995) will be compared with the material from the present study, as appropriate. The following three sections of the thesis present the numerical results from the questionnaire alongside the written responses and the interview and focus group material. Analysis of all this material produced four main themes and the first of these themes (Teaching and Research) has been divided into three main areas: “Perceptions”, “Policies” and “Practices”.

#### **4.2.1 Perceptions of teaching and research**

Question One on the questionnaire asked English staff to indicate their perception of the value placed on 1) teaching and 2) research by their university and their department. It also asked them to indicate how they thought teaching and research *should be* valued. On the whole, the results correspond with the results of the CAUT survey (Ramsden, et al., 1995) of Australian academics, with differences only with respect to research.

**Graph 4.2 – The value that is and should be accorded to teaching and research at university and department levels  
(Percentage of respondents answering 4 “Valued” or 5 “Highly valued”)**



The graph clearly shows, in line with the previous studies, that most New Zealand English academics believe that teaching should be valued more, both by their department and their university. Few believe that teaching is currently valued by their university (only 29.5% indicated it was valued or highly valued), and 97% believe it should be valued more. These results mirror the CAUT survey, where 37% of respondents believed teaching was valued in their universities, and 95% believed it should be valued more (Ramsden, et al., 1995, p. 71).

Many of the respondents to the New Zealand questionnaire pointed out that while the university *purports* to value teaching, such proclamations are not backed up in practice:

The university claims to value teaching but neither rewards it by promotion nor makes pedagogical concerns primary – staff:student ratios, semester system, etc (ST).

The university talks a good line and provides some teacher training through its [TLC] facility, but teaching counts not a whit come promotion time (L).

Administration jobs paid more than teaching ones. Publication influences promotion more than teaching ability. Incoherent teachers not removed. Tutors paid penal rates (T).

Such attitudes can also be found in recent international research, as summed up by Sue Johnston (1997):

In spite of the recent emphasis on quality assurance in teaching in most countries...there are still mixed messages from university management about the relative importance of teaching and the rewards to be gained by individuals from devoting time to teaching projects....There continues to be a widespread perception in academia that research is the path to promotion and that time devoted to improvement of teaching is not adequately rewarded (Johnston, 1997, p. 33).

In their own departments, however, New Zealand English academics see teaching as being valued considerably more than it is by the university as a whole, with a number of respondents claiming that their department has “a strong teaching culture”. The CAUT figures indicate that 51% of Australian academics believe their department values teaching, compared with 59% of New Zealand English academics. In both surveys, however, almost all respondents believe their department could value teaching more (95% in the CAUT survey, 99% in the NZ one).

In stark contrast to their attitudes towards the value placed on teaching, English academics’ perceptions of the value that is and should be accorded to *research* by their universities and their departments are far more favourable. Nearly 100% of full-time English academics believe that their university values research (96%), and believe that this should be so (93%). Slightly less of them (73%) believe research is valued by their department, however, and that it should be valued more (85%). The CAUT survey yielded similar results for the perception of the current value accorded research at department level (77%) and at the university level (84%). One New Zealand respondent did note, however, that “some research is more ‘valued’ than other research, notably the research which attracts external funding and sponsorship” (SL).

Such results reflect international attitudes and studies (Baker, 1995; Boyer, 1990; Boyer et al, 1994; Gaff, 1975; Johnston, 1997; West, 1998 etc) which found that the majority perceive that research is valued more highly than teaching in most areas of academic life, undermining the potential effectiveness of teaching:

While staff felt both research and teaching were important they consistently rated teaching more important; however, they perceived the current institutional values and rewards were heavily weighed toward research to the detriment of teaching at the university (Baker, 1995, p. 2).

Respondents to both the present study and the CAUT survey indicate that, like teaching, research should be valued more at department level (89% New Zealand and 90% Australia), suggesting that the time is ripe for a broad reconceptualisation of the academic role in its entirety, but that it is teaching which ultimately needs more attention (99% New Zealand and 95% Australia):

I do not wish to see research valued less, but rather to see teaching valued more (P).

It seems to me that at university level there is often a kind of implicit assumption that good research creates good teaching, that if you're a good researcher that will somehow feed into the way you teach and the kind of results you get, and that worries me. I actually value both teaching *and* research, but I would like to see some kind of increased emphasis on good teaching. I don't think we have enough of that (L).

Such attitudes reinforce the emphasis of Boyer, and succeeding critics (Glassick et al., 1997; Menges & Weimer, 1996; and Cross & Steadman, 1996) on the scholarship of teaching:

What we urgently need today is a more inclusive view of what it means to be a scholar – a recognition that knowledge is acquired through research, through synthesis, through practice, *and* through teaching (Boyer, 1990, p. 24).

Full-time academic staff constantly strive to maintain a balance between the two, but either teaching or research, or the university itself, often suffers as a result of academics' energies being stretched in too many directions:

The present definition of the university is an institution which is a research institution, where the research is *tied* to the teaching, and the teaching and the research are indeed tied; if you don't do that, you won't have a university. So, if we emphasise teaching at the expense of research then, under present legislation, we run the risk of undermining ourselves as that sort of institution (AP).

The demands of teaching increase – most colleagues can do no research during the working week....This is not acceptable in an institution which (properly) gives a higher priority to research than to teaching. All my colleagues say they need time more than they need money for their research. The research culture in my department has been undermined (L).

Staff will typically put teaching before research (SL).

These attitudes are reinforced in responses to the suggestion that teaching suffers because of a pressure to do research. A majority of full-time New Zealand English

academics disagreed with this statement (48%)<sup>8</sup> – in line with the 46% who disagreed in Boyer’s 1990 US survey, and the 49% of Swedish respondents and 41% of American respondents in Boyer et al.’s 1994 survey of academics from all around the world. Rather, New Zealand English academics take the converse view: that *research* suffers more as a result of the pressure to teach; 68.9% agreed with the statement that “The pressure to teach reduces the quality of research in my department”<sup>9</sup>. With rising staff:student ratios and a changing student population, workload pressures increase and staff indicate that they find it harder to give time to their research:

The literature indicates that academic workloads have been steadily increasing over time. Both overseas and in New Zealand, there is growing concern about the effect of deteriorating staff: student ratios and increasing student numbers on teaching standards. The increased focus on research outputs and external income generation has also posed problems for teaching quality and workload pressures.... For the majority of staff, research output is being maintained, but at an unacceptably high cost. Other staff are finding it practically impossible to maintain a minimum level of research leading to a publication (Baskerville, 1998, pp. 3, 35.)

What perhaps stands out here is not that teaching or research is considered more important than the other, but that departmental and university expectations make it extremely difficult to maintain a balance between the two:

One can’t do full justice to both without burning the candle at both ends. Yes, it would be nice to have more time for research, but I guess we all have different priorities (SL).

How can you deliver quality teaching and have time to do quality research? (T).

Pressure from all sides constrains time available (L).

Staff: student ratios are bad and this increases the pressures involved in teaching and makes it more difficult to get to research (P).

Again, much of the recent literature supports these comments made by New Zealand English academics:

It is little exaggeration to say that...the average university or polytechnic teacher is now expected to be an excellent teacher: a man or woman who can expertly redesign courses and methods of teaching to suit different groups of students, deal with large mixed-ability classes, and juggle new administrative demands, while at the same time carrying a heavy research responsibility and showing

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<sup>8</sup> The results were – Agree 25%, Neutral 27%, Disagree 48%.

<sup>9</sup> Part-time responses to these questions have been excluded, as 30-40% of part-timers had no opinion on these matters, and the remaining percentages were not markedly different from the full-time responses.

accountability to a variety of masters as both a teacher and a scholar (Ramsden, 1992, p. 2).

With staff struggling to create and maintain a balance between teaching and research while still finding time for administrative duties and service to the discipline, the university and the community, and with the discipline itself in a state of flux, the working environment within an English department has the potential to harbour hostility and resentment, and to breed stress and dissatisfaction. However, a majority of respondents (57%) indicate that the working environment within their departments ensures that they gain intrinsic satisfaction from teaching students:

Gaining intrinsic satisfaction is why I'm still a member of the university (SL)

Good department, good conditions (SL).

Some of the written comments suggest, however, that such satisfaction derives not so much from the department or the working environment as from their colleagues and students, or from external forces:

I do gain satisfaction in this way BUT this happens in my classrooms. My department has nothing to do with it (L).

I'm gaining immense satisfaction this year, but only by systematically ignoring the distractions emanating from the university bureaucracy (SL).

If I gain satisfaction it is because a relationship has developed between myself and the students. There is nothing in the overall environment of the English department to facilitate this (T).

The need to maintain a balance between teaching and research and gain satisfaction is often thwarted by university-wide expectations with regard to appointment and promotion procedures and practices, as indicated by responses to Questions Two and Three in the questionnaire. The following table indicates the order (highest to lowest) in which academic staff perceive fifteen listed criteria to be valued in appointment decisions. The left hand column ranks the criteria in terms of actual value, while the right hand column indicates the order in which they *should be* valued. Each criterion is ranked according to the percentage of respondents who circled 4 (Quite highly valued) or 5 (Valued a great deal). A sixteenth category enabled respondents to indicate what else they thought is and should be valued in appointment decisions, and responses in this "Other" category included the following:

- academic qualifications (especially a PhD)
- field of study/critical approach
- status of university applicant previously employed at
- quality of applicant's academic writing, and
- evidence of willingness to perform administrative service.

**Table 4.10 – CRITERIA VALUED IN APPOINTMENT DECISIONS<sup>10</sup>**

	<b>ARE CURRENTLY VALUED</b>	<b>SHOULD BE VALUED</b>
1	Number of publications (82.2%)	Reputations of presses or journals publishing the books or articles (82.2%)
2	Reputations of presses or journals publishing the books or articles (80%)	Recommendations from outside scholars (75%)
3	Recommendations from outside scholars (77%)	Experience in teaching (72.8%)
4	Recommendations from other staff within the institution (60%)	Number of publications (71.2%)
5	Experience in teaching (52.2%)	Published reviews of scholar's books (55%)
6	Research grants received by the scholar (47.8%)	Recommendations from other staff in the institution (53.5%)
7	Published reviews of the scholar's books (47.5%)	Papers delivered at professional meetings or at other universities (44.5%)
8	Personality (41.5%)	Observations of teaching by colleagues (43%)
9	Papers delivered at professional meetings or at other universities (35.5%)	Student evaluations of courses taught (41.8%)
10	Student evaluations of courses taught (34.9%)	Personality (41.5%)
11	Production of extra-mural study guides (26.3%)	Recommendations from current or former students (39%)
12	Observations of teaching by colleagues (23 %)	Qualifications in teaching (36.3%)
13	Recommendations from current or former students (18.2%)	Syllabi for courses taught (33.3%)
14	Syllabi for courses taught (9.6 %)	Production of extra-mural study guides (33%)
15	Qualifications in teaching (9.1%)	Research grants received by the scholar (18.2%)

<sup>10</sup> Part-time staff were not asked these questions.

Clearly, English academics believe that teaching qualifications and experience must count for more in appointment decisions, and the number of publications for less, than is currently the case:

We have sometimes been bedazzled by over-hyped research reputations and colleague endorsements, only to find that the appointee has poor teaching skills or a 'difficult' personality – or both! (SL).

Anthony Smith and Frank Webster (1997) claim that a similar situation exists in the UK, where “even now it is relatively rare for appointment panels to ask for certification of teaching ability from candidates” (p. 102). Meanwhile, Lewis (1996) provides statistics that suggest a scenario in the US akin to the UK and New Zealand ones:

A 1987 survey of almost 2,500 chairs of academic departments conducted by the United States Department of Education's National Center for Educational Statistics found that when hiring new faculty...at institutions that grant doctorates, chairs were more concerned about the quality of an applicant's research than about teaching; 45 percent considered the latter a very important factor, while 73 percent considered the former to be so (Lewis, 1996, p. 30).

Knapper (1997) reiterates Lewis's assessment of the US situation:

there is virtually no emphasis on teaching skills and values during the appointment process, even though teaching issues will preoccupy the new appointee once work has begun (Knapper, 1997, p. 43).

A reconceptualisation of the academic role which would take account of the many dimensions of scholarship instead of restricting it to a narrow definition based on published research without taking account of teaching, is harder to achieve when such attitudes prevail. If research is accorded more weight at the time of appointment, this reinforces a culture, established during the PhD years, which favours research accomplishments over teaching, service and administrative activities and strengthens a status quo which few new academics, or experienced ones for that matter, will be prepared to challenge:

Boice's study (1991) records how new faculty enter the field intending to become good teachers and excited by their potential to be innovative teachers, but that these intentions are quickly and often permanently subverted by the lack of collegiality and support they experience, by their sense of isolation, and by their workload pressures (Johnston, 1997, p. 32).

When beginning teachers and even committed experienced teachers, hear that teaching is important but see the rewards go to research and publishing then teaching is bound to be neglected and the recipients, the students, the programs, and educational quality suffer (Baker, 1995, p. 3).

But a reassessment of appointment policies with regard to the *teaching* role of the scholar is not all that is necessary. If Boyer's multi-dimensional notion of scholarship is to take hold, as many believe it should, then the scholarship of discovery too must be redefined so that it involves more than the mere counting of published research articles and books.

In both the present study and the CAUT survey (Ramsden et al., 1995, p. 74), respondents felt that the *number* of publications should be valued less, while more emphasis needs to be placed on the *quality* of publications. This is indicated by the CAUT responses, (69% agree that the quality of publications is currently valued; 89% believe it should be valued more) and by the New Zealand English academics' responses and comments:

We need more emphasis on the QUALITY and IMPORTANCE of people's work. Just numbers encourages bad and shoddy 'quick fix' garbage (L).

...that old-fashioned notion of...freedom – professional freedom, which involves that accommodation of responsibility and liberality – is in fact actually being compromised more and more with an impulse to quantify and to make people accountable in ways that can be measured. And I am increasingly regretful that this is becoming more and more so. It's not so much the quality of what's being done, but the quantity of what can be measured. And that attitude is becoming more prevalent. It's getting in. I think I can afford to largely disregard it [as a senior lecturer with 20 years experience] but a lot of you can't (SL)

New Zealand English academics acknowledged that the *quality* of publications is more important than the *quantity*, but also recorded their concern about the difficulties inherent in trying to assess publications qualitatively. Firstly, there is the problem of attempting to identify the discipline's "top quality" journals, when there are so many fields of study in English:

We haven't got – it's not like Science – major journals in our field; it's just not possible (L).

They tried to find them; they did an exercise, the academic office, a couple of years ago, and, of course, we all nominated a different journal because we're all doing different areas, and they just got no agreement, any sort of uniformity about what were the most prestigious journals in our field (P).

I think there might actually be some areas in our department where it's really only the staff member who has a clear idea of what are the top ranking journals (SL)

Who is going to say in the general scheme of things that *Shakespeare Quarterly* is more important than *Speculum*? (L).

Secondly, there is the issue of the flaws inherent in the weighting placed on various *forms* of publication, as explained by two focus group members:

People try to devise weightings, and we're probably going to have to devise more weightings if the government goes ahead and splits up the research funding and the teaching funding and so forth. We're weighting something like Harry Orsman's *Dictionary* under a weighting system that counts as a book, published in a single calendar year, but everyone at this table knows that he spent his life preparing that book. How do you weight that and the importance of that over say several articles on some of those words in say, *Notes and Queries* or something? I mean, that's an extreme example of a New Zealand scholar in an English department's kind of effort, but it's a very important one (L).

But it gets more extreme than that. There was a guy at [a foreign university] who published an English-Welsh translation dictionary, considered not only the best translation dictionary in English-Welsh, but one of the best translation dictionaries ever published, and it won major international awards. And the reason there was an article about it in the *Times Higher Education Supplement* was because he got zero points for it in the points system because his employment is in the French department...and it's outside his area, so it's a hobby! So, the university got zero on this very strict points system used in the British universities (SL).

Furthermore, as a number of respondents suggested, English needs to widen its definition of "publications" to include such research efforts as theatre productions, play, television and film scripts, and creative work such as novels and poetry. Colin Evans, in *English People* (1993) also raises this issue, with regard to an English person feeling aggrieved about the lack of respect given creative writers in English departments:

He produces books – fiction and non-fiction – but never writes for academics: 'I write for general readers'. And he doesn't feel part of the department: 'I'm down this end of the corridor, with the fire extinguisher and the oxygen resuscitator.' He feels that creative writing is something which is seen as all right for students 'but if you are a member of staff, you mustn't get caught at it.' And yet 'someone who's a whizz at writing critical works but can't write a line of poetry or fiction is like someone teaching surgery who says "My God, I wouldn't operate on a patient, he'd die.'" Someone who doesn't write novels can tell you about the novel but some things you only know if you've written one' (Evans, 1993, p. 50).

Boyer (1990) also believes that for the scholarship of discovery to truly be meaningful, traditional notions of "research" must be widened to include other types of publication, such as writing a textbook, writing for nonspecialists, preparing quality computer

software, videos or television programmes, designing new courses and participating in curricular innovations (Boyer, 1990, pp. 35-36).

The issue of discovering ways to go beyond the mere enumeration of journal articles and academic books into a qualitative assessment of the overall worth of an English department member's publications is perhaps even more important at promotion time than at the initial hiring stage, when not much publication may yet have occurred anyway. The following table delineates English academics' perceptions of the importance of the same fifteen criteria as in the previous table, but this time in regard to promotion decisions. The "other" category generated the following additions:

- membership of university committees,
- experience/performance in administration (3 responses),
- contribution to the university community, and
- community outreach (2 responses).

**Table 4.11 – CRITERIA VALUED IN PROMOTION DECISIONS**

	<b>ARE</b>	<b>SHOULD BE</b>
1	Number of publications (97.8%)	Reputations of journals (84.1%)
2	Reputations of journals (88.3%)	Recommendations from outside scholars (73.2%)
3	Recommendations from outside scholars (67%)	Number of publications (66.7%)
4	Recs from staff within the institution (57%)	Production of study guides (66.7%)
5	Published reviews (56.7%)	Teaching experience (63.6%)
6	Research grants (56.1%)	Student evaluations (62.8%)
7	Student evaluations (55.8%)	Recs from staff within the institution (54.8%)
8	Papers presented at professional meetings/conferences (36.6%)	Observations of teaching by colleagues (50%)
9	Teaching experience (31.8%)	Papers presented at professional meetings/conferences (48.9%)
10	Personality (29.3%)	Published reviews (48.7%)
11	Production of study guides (26.7%)	Teaching qualifications (34.9%)
12	Obs of teaching by colleagues (14.3%)	Recs from current or former students (33.4%)
13 <sup>th</sup>	Recs from current or former students (14%)	Course syllabi (31%)
14 <sup>th</sup>	Course syllabi (9.6%)	Research grants (24.4%)
15 <sup>th</sup>	Teaching qualifications (2.3%)	Personality (17.5%)

Once again, these figures correspond to the CAUT results, where only 26% and 15% of respondents believed that teaching experience and teaching qualifications respectively were currently valued in promotion decisions, and 68% and 45% thought they should be valued more. They also reflect Halsey's 1989 study, which found that 33% of British university academics agreed that promotion depends too much on publication and too little on teaching (Halsey, 1992, p. 188).

Again, it is clear that New Zealand English academics want to see less emphasis on the quantity of publications in promotion decisions, and more emphasis on teaching experience and qualifications, but many are resigned to the reality of publication records dominating promotion decisions:

It is my perception that promotion committees assume we all teach, devise courses, write study guides etc. tolerably and comparably well, but the one thing that really sorts out the men from the boys (so to speak) is research output. Research output is more easily quantifiable and more prestigious (SL).

Although other factors are considered, publication remains the *first* criterion – unfortunately (L).

Such perceptions are also evident in responses to questions four and five on the questionnaire. A huge majority (86%) of respondents felt that “effectiveness as a teacher should be a primary criterion for the promotion of academic staff”, while 72% (compared with 64% of Humanities respondents in Boyer's 1990 survey) also believed that “emphasis had to be placed on criteria other than publications in the evaluation of the scholarly performance of academic staff”:

At the moment (as I understand it) the promotion/hiring system is primarily based upon publications – and too much reliance upon this leads to a vacuous and banal publication culture, as we have seen develop in US graduate schools (T).

Publications are certainly over-rated, because they are the primary way in which the university measures its international stature, and it is conceited enough to value that stature above all else (SL).

So long as there are students at university, teaching *must* be the *highest* concern. All other factors exist solely to facilitate teaching (L).

In contrast, some respondents were quite adamant that the promotions system was more than acceptable as it currently stands; 28.9% of full-time respondents disagreed that more emphasis was needed on other criteria:

There *is* emphasis on criteria other than publications. We need to prevent various interested parties attempting to weaken the emphasis on publications (AP).

However, the majority of respondents, as indicated not only by statistical results, but also in the written responses and in comments during the focus groups and interviews, felt that teaching is clearly undervalued in appointment and promotion decisions and that more should be done to rectify the prevailing imbalance. Such attitudes are mirrored in Christopher Knapper's comments on a recent (1997) study:

A survey I did at a large Canadian research university...showed that although faculty thought research and teaching should be weighted roughly equally in the tenure and reward system, they also believed that scholarly accomplishments were given twice the emphasis in practice. I repeated the study at a comparable institution in Australia and found almost identical results.... In the United States several surveys have yielded similar results (Knapper, 1997, p. 46).

The table on the following page summarises the top ten criteria in appointment and promotion decisions that New Zealand English academics feel should be valued more and the top ten criteria they feel should be valued less. The percentages indicate how many *more* people (or less in the second column) circled 4 (Quite highly valued) or 5 (Highly valued) in the "should be" category than 4 or 5 in "is valued". The letter in parentheses after the criterion indicates the question (P = promotion, A = appointment) to which the figures correspond.

**Table 4.12 – TOP TEN CRITERIA THAT SHOULD/SHOULD NOT BE VALUED IN PROMOTION AND APPOINTMENT DECISIONS**

SHOULD BE VALUED MORE			SHOULD BE VALUED LESS	
1	Production of study guides (P)	+40%	Research grants (P)	-31.7%
2	Observations of teaching (P)	+35.7%	Number of publications (P)	-31.1%
3	Teaching qualifications (P)	+32.6%	Research grants (A)	-29.6%
4	Teaching experience (P)	+31.8%	Personality (P)	-11.8%
5	Teaching qualifications (A)	+27.2%	Number of publications (A)	-11%
6	Course syllabi (A)	+23.7%	Published reviews (P)	-8%
7	Course syllabi (P)	+21.4%	Rec.from other staff (A)	-6.5%
8	Teaching experience (A)	+20.6%	Reps. of journals (P)	-4.2%
9	Observations of teaching (A)	+20.5%	Rec.from other staff (P)	-2.3%
10	Rec. from students (A)	+20.4%	Rec.from outside scholar (A)	-2.3%

Perhaps not surprisingly, given the earlier statistics and comments, all of the ten criteria that respondents felt should be valued more are teaching-related, while the majority of the criteria that they felt should be valued *less* are research-oriented. Respondents did, however, express reservations about the *effectiveness* or *practicality* of many of the criteria:

Excellence in teaching is still the hardest thing to establish from applicants. Demonstration classes are quite a false measure since excellence arises NOT out of a single brilliant class but from long-haul consistency (L).

Student evaluations are hopelessly unreliable (SL).

I'm doubtful about observations of teaching by colleagues because it's too easy to make teaching into a formula (SL).

Recommendations are often 'puffery' from friends. Student evaluations are suspect – it's all too easy to provide entertainment or reduce challenge (P).

These issues will be taken up in more depth in Section 4.2.3 Teaching Practices. Meanwhile, it is important, in the light of what staff *perceive* to be happening, to consider what actual policies are in place with regard to teaching in appointment and promotion decisions. To this end, the following section takes into consideration official documentation, such as university mission statements, *Academic Audit Reports*, departmental handbooks and policy manuals, as well as interviews with HoDs and Teaching and Learning Centre Directors (or their equivalent)<sup>11</sup>.

#### **4.2.2 Teaching policies**

According to the *Audit Reports*<sup>12</sup>, only two universities have well-established, senior level Teaching and Learning Committees. None have senior level administrators (e.g. Deputy, Pro- or Assistant-Vice Chancellors) with responsibility solely for Teaching and Learning (this role is usually subsumed under the title “Academic”), though all but one have Research Committees and Deputy, Pro- or Assistant-Vice Chancellors for Research. Only two universities have official Teaching and Learning Plans, although the other four universities are in the process of implementing either Teaching and Learning Taskforces or Teaching and Learning Plans.

Other documentation which reveals official policy on teaching includes mission statements, charters and annual reports, most of which express a commitment to excellence in teaching and/or learning, with the accompanying expectations that teaching will be informed by research and that staff will undertake to constantly monitor and improve both their teaching and research practices. However, one mission statement fails to even mention teaching *or* learning:

The University will advance, preserve and respect knowledge through research and scholarship to the benefit of the wider community (*University Calendar*).

Such exclusion relegates teaching to a secondary or minor function, after research, and helps clarify why so many respondents, from that university, but also from the other five, expressed dissatisfaction with the value the university places on teaching. Even

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<sup>11</sup> The information in Section 4.2.2 derives from interviews and focus groups conducted in 1998, *Audit Reports* published in 1998 or earlier, and 1998 *University Calendars*. Changes *have* occurred in some areas recently, but for consistency this study deals only with pre-1999 policies.

<sup>12</sup> In order to maintain the anonymity of each English department, the *Audit Reports*, and all other public documents, such as *University Calendars* and departmental handbooks, will be listed in the References section of this thesis, but will not be cited specifically in the body of the thesis.

when teaching is accorded value in university policy, many people believe that this is not carried over into actual practice. As Boyer (1990) says, “almost all colleges pay lip service to the trilogy of teaching, research, and service, but when it comes to making judgements about professional performance, the three rarely are assigned equal merit” (Boyer, 1990, p. 15). Dwyer (1998) indicates that a similar scenario exists in the UK, where research is regarded as “the coin of the realm in academic reward structures” (Dwyer, 1998, p. 259).

In New Zealand, as mentioned earlier, this dissatisfaction is further exacerbated by university appointment policies at some institutions which, in many respects, disregard teaching. For example, according to the AAU *Audit Reports*, only one university *requires* an interview for appointment at lecturer level, and only two officially record that they require candidates either to give a teaching seminar or to show other evidence of their teaching ability. Conversations with TLC Directors revealed that interviews with prospective candidates and teaching seminars by the candidates usually only happen for senior level appointments.

The New Zealand English HoDs interviewed tend to favour the applicant’s speciality or field of study over other criteria in appointment, with three HoDs declaring this the most significant factor in determining which candidates gain an interview or make the shortlist. Teaching experience came third on the HoDs’ lists, often in conjunction with publication record. References were usually considered the second most important criterion, though they were often treated with some scepticism. As one HoD said, “One is very wary of references. Everyone from America is stellar with brilliant careers ahead of them” (HoD interview). For this reason, English departments appear to favour the use of interviews in appointment situations more often than the *Audit Reports* imply. Encouragingly, one English HoD described a thorough appointment process for a recently filled position, where three candidates were brought to the department:

each lectured an undergraduate class, gave a research seminar and had dinner with the committee and met with the postgrads. [They spent] three days here, and I would always do that again, because you cannot tell from a person’s CV or referees, or even from [a conversation] on the phone (HoD interview).

Clearly, for this HoD, the financial investment in bringing potential appointees to the department was worth it: “If people stay with you for ever and go right through to severance, that’s a million dollar investment, so where’s \$2000 in all that?” (HoD interview).

Once appointed, a new staff member is expected to undergo a *mandatory* induction process at only three of the six New Zealand institutions. Two of these programmes appear, according to AAU *Audit Reports* and TLC interviews, to be very thorough; they incorporate teaching issues and training, are suitably supported by the university administration, and are well-received by staff. Only staff with three years or more teaching experience may be exempted from the teaching component of the induction process. The other four induction programmes appear rather haphazard, varying from university to university, and department to department, and they attract few attendees (one *Audit Report* records a meagre 25% attendance at induction at one university).

Similarly, probation policies with regard to teaching vary from university to university. Most impose a three- to four-year probationary period, during which staff must prove competence in both research and teaching. The *Audit Reports* record that staff have been denied confirmation of their appointment because of poor teaching at three of the six universities. However, one institution does not have a probationary period at all, running the risk of poor teachers remaining on the staff because their teaching ability was not considered at appointment, groomed during induction, or nurtured during the early years of appointment.

At some institutions, poor teachers will be denied promotion, but elsewhere, if they have an outstanding publication record, they will move up the ranks despite their teaching performance. Knapper (1997) reports a similar situation in the US:

Anecdotal reports from institutions across North America indicate that extremely poor teachers, even if they are productive researchers, will often not be granted tenure. Once in the system, however, they may well be promoted, and it seems likely that the converse is also true: that the outstanding teacher with a mediocre research output will often not be promoted to associate or (especially) full professor...promotion to full professor often requires ‘national or international recognition’ as a scholar [in the narrow sense] (Knapper, 1997, p. 44).

At all New Zealand universities, policies regarding promotion express a desire that university staff will be competent as both researchers and teachers, as well as dedicating time to their discipline, their university and their community through service and administration. *Audit Report* findings, comments from HoDs and focus group members, and other anecdotal evidence, however, suggest that research weighs more heavily in promotion decisions than teaching. Two *Audit Reports* contain the following indictments:

The level of recognition given to teaching activities is variable, and little acknowledgement is given for the possession of teaching qualifications. Those with heavy teaching or administrative loads, leaving less time for research, appear to be disadvantaged in promotion (NZUAAU).

The panel was informed that a minimum level of performance in both research and teaching is required for promotion to be successful, but it has the impression that on the teaching scale this is merely a hurdle requirement, and that little further recognition is given for superior performance (NZUAAU).

A similar scenario exists at another university, where, one HoD reports, a candidate was denied promotion on the basis of a poor publication record, but was given a one-off bonus in recognition of excellent teaching. As one focus group member declares, however,

A bonus is not a promotion. It doesn't have any lasting impact on people's salaries. I think most people would perceive that the fact is there's no point in applying for promotion unless you've been publishing very actively, and all of us know of people who aren't particularly good teachers who have been promoted because they've published a lot (SL).

Reality seems distant from policy at the lower levels of the scale, but steps are being taken to rectify this discrepancy (perceived or real). One HoD notes that new policy dictates that new appointees are not allowed to teach more than two courses and are not allowed to do any supervisions for two years in order that they may first properly develop their courses and establish a publication record. Furthermore, this HoD says that "tenure has been extended out to up to six years to give people the chance to get some research done" (HoD interview). Administrative responsibilities are also minimal for most new appointees in this department, until they reach Senior Lecturer level. Other departments acknowledge that while research may currently receive more attention at the lower levels, anyone considering applying for promotion beyond Senior

Lecturer must be more than competent in all areas – research, teaching, administration and service.

At some universities, these four aspects are all taken into consideration in appraisal measures, too, whether the staff member is applying for promotion or not. However, two universities lack a comprehensive, university-wide appraisal system. According to the *Audit Report*, one university's appraisal processes vary widely across departments, with appraisal comprehensive in some departments and unknown in others. There is no requirement for staff at this university to show their appraisals to anyone, except when they are on probation or seeking advancement. The *Audit Report* advised that action be taken on the recommendations of an earlier report on academic staff development and appraisal, but, according to this university's TLC representative, little has happened, officially, since the publication of the *Audit Report*. A report produced by the TLC on department-based staff development and appraisal, offering practical methods and ideas for implementation and seeking interest from HoDs, was not particularly well-received by HoDs and few responded.

Meanwhile, at another university, staff may voluntarily complete a professional development report with the help of a senior mentor, outlining teaching and research achievements, but this does not appear to be operating constructively in many departments. The English department there established an Appraisal Committee in the early 1990s with a mandate to interview "each member of staff to facilitate them with their self-assessment...After doing this for a couple of years," the HoD reports, "we thought, because everybody is performing so well, that there just wasn't anything for them to learn" (HoD interview). This HoD then wrote a letter to the Chair of the University Appraisal Committee advising him that his ideas for appraisal and staff development

would be a waste of time because it would mean that conscientious people would be doing a lot of paper work, writing reports and so on, and the few people who need this treatment would not be affected by it...because there aren't any sanctions...you put your head down and let things blow over (HoD interview).

Not all New Zealand universities or English departments are so lackadaisical. One university has recently implemented a "systematic, comprehensive and integrated

Performance Review Scheme for academic staff' (NZUAAU), copied in some respects at two other universities. It is grounded in official university teaching and learning policy, and includes Fast Feedback, Students' Evaluation of Educational Quality (SEEQ) to assess teaching ability, the Learning Improvement Strategies Questionnaire (LISQ) to assess the quality of individual papers, the Course Experience Questionnaire (CEQ) to monitor the quality of overall courses or degree programmes, Teaching Portfolios, and Peer Evaluation.

These and other methods of assessing teaching and appraising overall staff performance are in place at some, but certainly not all, of the six universities in this study, and not all English departments utilise them, even if they are enshrined in university policy. For example, while documentation at all six universities states that a mentoring system is in place, with varying names – for example, “Colleague-in-support”, “Staff facilitation” – the *Audit Reports* record that none of the systems appear to work effectively university-wide. Certainly, only one English department indicated that it has a mentoring system in place, and it is only for new staff for the first six months. Nearly all the *Audit Reports* recommended that both more support and more training were necessary in order to “provide all staff with a level of support that is appropriate to their needs” (NZUAAU, p. 12), and this would seem to be a familiar refrain with regard to procedures relating to teaching assessment and staff development.

Some universities are contemplating introducing comprehensive teaching portfolios as a requirement for promotion, but at universities where departments have some control over the promotion process, not one English department expects this of their staff. As one HoD expressed it:

The union sent out guidelines for it, but there was a lot of flailing around, and some people did them and some people didn't. In some ways, it seems to have died the death; it's gone very quiet. That was about two years ago. It's an awful lot of work and I'm not sure it was necessarily the best way to go about it (HoD interview).

And that response came from the English HoD at the one university which, according to the AAU, requires teaching portfolios for promotion! Portfolios of a wider nature, encompassing teaching, research, administrative and service activities, are expected for promotion at two other universities, but evidence of their use is scanty in English.

Similarly, while peer review is required for promotion at one university, and used and encouraged in other ways at two more universities, no English department regularly appears to expect, encourage or promote the use of peer evaluation in the assessment of teaching performance. The three focus groups suggested that peer review is being ignored by many New Zealand English academics because of its apparent subjectivity and a lack of clear criteria, as well as the absence of any training for the peer reviewers themselves.

These attitudes towards peer review are further heightened by a fear of change, as one focus group member explained:

It's partly a fear. I guess it's to do with issues of change, and how you cope with change. The feeling that everyone has now is that the landscape is shifting constantly under your feet. The job we thought we were starting out to do five, ten, fifteen years ago, keeps on being different. And so I think a natural reaction to that is to kind of shut down (L).

One area in which even English staff are prevented from “shutting down” is student evaluations. All six universities have comprehensive, university-wide, compulsory student evaluation systems, under varying names. All English academics would, at some point, and probably regularly, have had their teaching evaluated by students. Such evaluation is only effective, however, if both teacher and students receive feedback on the process. The *Audit Reports* express concern that most student evaluations seem to happen at the end of the semester or the course; little feedback is available to students, and in some instances, no action is taken against teachers who receive recurring bad evaluations. Focus group members were also concerned at the private nature of student evaluations, particularly in departments where they are considered the property of the teacher, who is not expected to show them to anyone:

If you don't want to apply for promotion, if you just want to plod along with increments, or accept that you've reached a bar and that's where you'll stay for the rest of your career, you don't have to show anybody those results. You don't have to be monitored (SL).

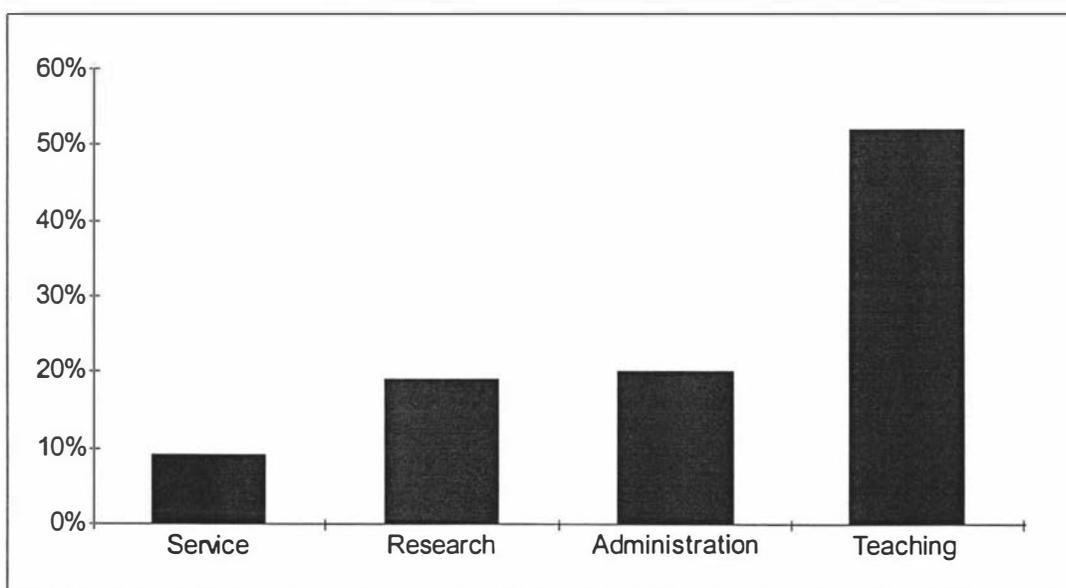
Section 4.2.3 considers staff reactions to student evaluations in more detail. Suffice to say here that policy at all six universities dictates that staff regularly have their teaching evaluated by students.

### **4.2.3 Teaching and research practices**

We have an understanding of what staff *perceive* to be the value placed on teaching and its related activities, and the previous section has enlightened us as to what actual policy *says* happens. But what really does go on in New Zealand university English departments with regard to teaching? This section will again incorporate numerical information from the questionnaire as well as written comments and material from interviews and focus groups, to present a picture of the teaching and research practices of New Zealand English academics.

The first consideration is the time per week spent on teaching and research. Mary Baskerville's (1998) study of workloads in the College of Humanities and Social Sciences at Massey University found that staff spent 51.4% of their time on teaching and 17% on personal research and publication (Baskerville, 1998, p. 39). The present study confirmed these figures for full-time staff (part-time staff were not asked this question).

**GRAPH 4.3: PERCENTAGE OF TIME PER WEEK ON TEACHING, RESEARCH, ADMINISTRATION AND SERVICE.<sup>13</sup>**



No indication was given in the questionnaire as to what activities were included in “teaching” and it appears that most respondents took it to mean “contact hours”, though

<sup>13</sup> Nine respondents chose not to answer this question, so the average was worked out on the basis of 38 responses.

one respondent answered that she spent 37.5 hours per week teaching, including marking, preparation, office hours and supervision. Clearly, however, the majority of English academics spend the majority of their time on teaching, though most clarified their percentages with a written comment along the lines that there really is no “regular week” and that their responses would vary depending on the time of the year, the stage of their career, the funding at the time, which semester they were in, and departmental workload expectations. This time averages out at 9.2 contact hours of teaching per week for full-time staff, a high load by international standards. Teichler (1996) reports the following statistics for professors:

- 5 hours in the Netherlands,
- 7 hours in Japan,
- 8 hours each in Germany, Sweden, England and the US.

The respective hours taught per week by middle-rank and junior staff at universities were about:

- 6 hours in Germany and Japan,
- 7 hours in the Netherlands,
- 8 hours in the US,
- 9 hours in England, and
- 10 hours in Sweden (Teichler, 1996, p. 34).

Part-time staff in New Zealand English departments teach an average of 7.8 contact teaching hours per week. Half of the part-time respondents are also working towards a PhD.

Many respondents to the New Zealand questionnaire, both full- and part-time, wrote that teaching commitments during the academic year prevented them from completing much research and that the majority of their research was therefore undertaken during the summer break and the other vacations. However, all but two of the full-time respondents indicated that they have completed and had published at least one major article in an academic or professional journal. Indeed, most (65.2%) had published eleven or more articles. This is a much higher percentage than in Boyer’s 1990 survey where only 28% of all respondents and 24% of respondents from the Humanities in his US study, indicated that they had published eleven or more articles. (Even 15.2% of *part-time* respondents in the New Zealand survey have published between one and five articles, and 6.1% have published six or more). The average figure for *book* publications corresponds more closely, with 45% of New Zealand English and 49% of US

Humanities academics having published between one and five books or monographs alone or in collaboration.

**Table 4.13 – Percentage of full-time respondents with articles published in professional or academic journals and books/monographs published alone or in collaboration**

Articles	% respondents	Books	% respondents
None	4.3	None	18.2
1-5	10.9	1-5	47.7
6-10	19.6	6-10	20.5
11+	65.2	11+	13.6
	100.0		100.0

These figures indicate that New Zealand English academics are prolific researchers, despite the prevailing belief that the pressure to teach reduces the quality of research in their departments (see Section 4.2.1) . Of the two full-time respondents who indicated that they had published neither a book nor any articles, one was a Senior Tutor with no research expectations attached to her job. The other was a lecturer with sixteen years tertiary teaching experience (seven at the current university) and a recent unsuccessful promotion application. This lecturer’s written comments indicated that s/he felt unable to make time for the research needed for such a publication, because of teaching commitments.

While most full-time New Zealand English academics appear to have respectable publication records by international standards (only 18.2% say that they have never published a book, compared with 42% in Halsey’s 1989 British survey), fewer are actively involved in teaching activities, ancillary to the act of teaching in the classroom. For example, only 14% belong to a discussion group which meets regularly to discuss teaching (and few could or would describe the title or nature of these groups, except for two who mentioned the Tertiary Writers’ Network Colloquium), although 60% of respondents said that discussion about teaching happens on a regular basis in their department (mostly informally). Less than half (46.7%) of full-time respondents said they have attended any teaching workshops or seminars in the last two years, and, of

those who have, six said they went to the TWN Colloquium<sup>14</sup>, while three said they attended sessions on PhD supervision. Other workshops listed included sessions on web-based pedagogy, and power point presentations; how to run sessions for new tutors; and workshops on teaching Shakespeare at a Shakespeare conference.

By contrast, 42% of *part-time* respondents belong to discussion groups and 60% have attended teaching workshops in the past two years. These discussion groups are usually meetings to discuss papers with the co-ordinator and other tutors (although one tutor also belongs to the Wellington Association of Teachers of English), while most of the workshops were “Introduction to tutoring” sessions, or the TWN Colloquium.

More encouragingly, 65% of New Zealand English academics, indicate that they have read literature on teaching generally, or on pedagogical theories or practices within the discipline of English, including the following:

- Rob Pope (1998) *The English Studies Book* (3)
- Colin Evans’s (1993) *English People* (2)
- the journals *College English* (2 subscriptions), *College Composition and Communication* (2 subscriptions), and *Education Review* (1 respondent)
- proceedings of the TWN Colloquium (4)
- books on teaching Shakespeare (1)
- feminist pedagogical theories (1)
- tutorial teaching (10+)
- postmodern and resistant pedagogies (e.g. bell hooks) (1)
- creative writing (2)
- “various dubious pieces of research on the relation of research to teaching” (AP)
- and “literature on web-based pedagogy... somewhat sceptically” (L).

Scepticism also appears in respondents’ attitudes towards various techniques for evaluating the effectiveness of their teaching. While over 90% of part-time respondents agreed that time spent documenting teaching effectiveness was time well-spent – “in this way academics can refine teaching techniques and therefore improve the overall

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<sup>14</sup> While six respondents listed the TWN Colloquium as an example of a teaching workshop or seminar, other English academics choose to count it towards their *research* activity, along with other conferences they have attended/presented papers at. Similarly, sessions on PhD supervision could be seen as slotting into both the teaching and the research areas, emphasising the integrative nature of scholarship and the difficulties and foolishness inherent in attempting to create/reinforce competing teaching and research paradigms. With examples such as these, it becomes even clearer why we need to move towards a more formalised all-embracing notion of scholarship and the academic role.

quality of their teaching” (T) – full-time respondents were far more wary. Less than half (45.6%) agreed that time spent documenting teaching effectiveness is time well-spent:

There is no agreement on what constitutes appropriate criteria or reliable documentary evidence – and the [Teaching and Learning Centre] at my university keeps changing its mind (AP).

Tough shot; documentation can be its own fascist trap, but some is indeed necessary (L).

Another admin burden, therefore time-consuming and tedious (SL)

Not really at the moment – since no real procedure beyond student evaluations (SL)

While all but one full-time respondent said they used student evaluations in assessing their teaching, a number expressed their concerns at the effectiveness and use of these evaluations:

Student evaluation alone is a poor measure of the value of the teaching, whatever it has to tell you about the teacher. It’s the *teaching* that matters to the institution. Over the years I have tried to develop questionnaires which tell me about the quality of the learning that has taken place. I don’t believe this distinction is understood sufficiently because evaluation has come to serve individual performance reviews (AP).

A focus group participant added further weight to the argument that student evaluations should not be used to assess both teaching and the teacher’s promotion prospects:

I think [the student evaluation system] is badly confused in the sense that it can be used for a multiplicity of purposes. It seems to me an absolute axiom of any teaching development is that the form that you’re using ought to be specific to the end result. If I’m going to be appraised for promotion purposes, I think a separate process of appraisal which is absolutely laid out and bare ought to be there. If I’m being asked to make myself a better teacher on an annual basis, then it ought to be a process which is entirely up to me. The purpose is to get me to own whatever problems I’ve got and to get me to seek creative solutions to them. I’m not going to do that, not totally trustingly, if at the same time I know that is going to be used to knock me out of a highly competitive promotion competition. I think there is a fundamental flaw, and that’s what it is (SL).

Four of the institutions have attempted to combat such flaws by implementing two different evaluation processes involving students, whereby in one instance they evaluate the course and in another they evaluate the teacher. The evaluation of the teacher is usually kept private, and seen only by the teacher and the HoD, but the course evaluations are made public. Some staff still see problems with student evaluations,

however, including the timing of the evaluations and the capacity of students to assess the teacher and the teaching:

I wonder about the timing of them. There are lots of them that all come at the end of courses, when students are preparing for exams and so on. I think they might be of more value if they were administered considerably retrospectively, perhaps even as graduate surveys. It's percolated, settled down, and they've had a number of other courses to compare something with. Courses taught in the first semester where first year students may not have anything to gauge courses with may get less glowing evaluations than someone in the second semester (ST).

How do students know what they're evaluating as a *good* teacher? Is it a good teacher who is amusing, entertaining, gives high marks? (ST)

It is very hard to get students to articulate anything, and the only thing you can really get them to articulate is "good lecturing". So that what they consider excellent in terms of teaching is somebody who gives a good performance or gives good notes, or something like that. But anyone who knows a little more about teaching will understand that it's a much more complicated phenomenon than is being evaluated (L).

Despite all these reservations – and they are held by many of the respondents – the majority of full-time English staff seem to rely heavily on student evaluations for assessing their teaching. Most say they also keep track of continuing student interest in their courses (68.9%), and self-evaluate their own teaching (86.4%), but only one respondent was able to explain exactly what was involved in such evaluation:

I always write a 'memo' to myself after every lecture, assessing how I think it went and how I might improve it next year (SL).

Brookfield (1995) believes that such critical self-reflection on teaching is vital, and that all university teachers should engage in it in order that it might help them to take informed actions, develop a rationale for practice, avoid self-laceration, ground them emotionally, enliven their classrooms and increase democratic trust (pp. 22-25). He suggests that the process should be one of discovering and examining one's assumptions by viewing one's practice "through four distinct, though interconnecting lenses.... our autobiographies as teachers and learners, our students' eyes, our colleagues' perceptions, and theoretical literature" (Brookfield, 1995, pp. xiii, xvii).

The "autobiographical lens", which many New Zealand English academics claim to turn on themselves, though they fail to articulate just how they do this, can be applied in a number of ways, according to Brookfield:

- by keeping teaching logs, in which reflections on the week’s teaching are recorded;
- by teacher learning audits once a term or once a year, in which “teachers are helped to identify the skills, knowledge and insights they have developed in the recent past” (Brookfield, 1995, p. 75);
- by role model profiles, reflections on people the teacher admires or who have been inspirational in some sense;
- by survival advice memos, in which the teacher writes a memo for his/her potential successor, giving emotional, political and instrumental tips for surviving in the job;
- by videotaping; and
- by keeping a “critical reflection portfolio” which “would document not only the teacher’s own involvement in critical reflection but also her [*sic*] efforts to encourage this in colleagues, through various forms of mentorship” and which might include “extracts from teaching journals, letters of thanks from colleagues, video vignettes from classroom teaching, taped discussions from critical conversation groups, statements of purpose and rationale in course outlines, and narrative evaluations given to students on their work in progress” (Brookfield, 1995, pp. 253-254).

Only 35.6% of New Zealand English academics say they keep a regularly updated teaching portfolio, but this figure will likely change in coming years as more institutions require one for promotion (See Section 4.2.2). Few are prepared to tackle more time-consuming and often more revealing techniques, such as video-taping and analysing their teaching with an experienced teacher or staff developer (4.4%), or the use of peer review (26.7%)<sup>15</sup>.

<sup>15</sup> These figures are for full-time staff only. Below is a table outlining both full- and part-time percentages.

**Table 4.14 – Methods for assessing teaching (percentage claiming to use each method)**

	Part-time	Full-time
Use student evaluations	80.6	97.8
Keep a regularly updated teaching portfolio	25.8	35.6
Self-evaluate own teaching	93.5	86.4
Encourage peer review of classroom teaching	29.0	26.7
Encourage peer review of syllabi, exams, and other teaching materials	25.8	55.6
Keep track of continuing student interest	51.6	68.9
Videotape and analyse teaching	3.2	4.4
Solicit student opinions	61.3	75.6
Solicit alumni opinions	12.9	24.4

That is the astonishing thing, isn't it? That you go into teaching, whether you've got a PhD or not yet, and I can't think when anybody has ever come to my lectures – I mean another staff member – except when [the HoD] has sat in on a couple of my lectures because I was doing his course, not because of any other relationship, and he offered me no feedback on that, nor would I expect him to, because that wasn't the sort of set-up. It is astonishing that nobody ever says, "You do this well; you do this badly; or here's ways I could help you" (SL).

Indeed, peer review, while it is starting to appear as a requirement in promotion applications on some campuses, strikes terror into the hearts of many an individualistic, traditionally solitary English teacher. Teaching is an infrequently discussed activity, one which few want examined. In the words of Joseph Harris:

"I sometimes feel," Judith Williamson once remarked, "that teaching is like sex – you know other people do it, but you never know what they do or *how* they do it'. Sex and teaching are activities famous for going on behind closed doors, and we often seem almost as circumspect about entering each other's classrooms as their bedrooms

(Harris, 1993, p. 785).

A focus group participant described what she sees as being at the root of this fear and circumspection:

It's the nature of work that somebody is going to review your performance and decide whether you're worth keeping on. And yet, in the academic system, it is part of the whole academic freedom concept, that people are fearful of others pointing at them and saying, "You are or are not doing well" (SL).

Such attitudes are not new, as the following quotation from Gaff (1975) indicates:

Faculty have come to feel that "a professor's classroom is his [*sic*] castle," that it is somehow unprofessional for a faculty member to criticize, interfere with, intrude upon, or even observe another instructor in his classroom

(Gaff, 1975, p. 3).

Two other focus group members saw the individualistic nature of academic work as a barrier to peer review and consequently to the improvement of teaching:

I think unlike other institutions...we very much have a cult of the individual here, don't we? We go off and work in our offices and there is an assumption of "high professionalism" – that you go in and do a highly professional job and then you come back and you prepare and it's all happening in this kind of

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Boyer et. al. (1994) give the following figures for use of student evaluations and peer review:

	Student evaluations	Peer review
Australia	74%	28%
UK	67%	16%
US	91%	49%

individual bubble, and very few of us ever really talk about our teaching because there's just an assumption that we're doing okay, you know? (L)

I think that the other thing is that there's an assumption that if you're *not* doing okay, you don't want to admit it. I don't want to go to you and say, "Gee, I'm having trouble with my class", because there's the sense that we are supposed to be professionals operating at this level and it's somehow an admission of failure, which possibly doesn't happen in other institutions where there's more collegiality (ST).

Ramsden (1992) agrees that peer review can be risky:

Peer ratings of teaching performance...are highly susceptible to prejudice and are often inaccurate. Academics typically have scanty and biased knowledge of the teaching abilities of their colleagues in other institutions; they are likely to rate a department's teaching effectiveness using their knowledge of its research standards (Ramsden, 1992, p. 238).

But Brookfield (1995) suggests that peer review of teaching *can* be effective if peer reviewers are trained, if peer review is part of a wider process of critical reflection on teaching, which includes self-assessment, student-assessment, and theoretical knowledge, and if the peer review process is itself varied. He suggests that peer review can be undertaken not just through classroom observation, but also by engaging in structured critical conversations with colleagues, by using critical incidents as discussion starters, and by undergoing a Good Practices Audit (Brookfield, 1995, pp. 183-184) in which problems are formulated, then individually and collectively analysed, and suggestions for practices are compiled as a result of such analysis.

Some New Zealand English academics do see positive aspects in using peer review to assess their teaching, and would welcome its introduction on a wider basis, with training offered for peer reviewers on how best to assess the teaching of their colleagues:

I've always felt that we really need, and again it's part of a cultural shift, to think more about peer evaluation and support, on a model that's done commonly in primary and secondary schools where the person being assessed owns the process and very much wants to direct it towards looking at areas that they know they're deficient in (SL).

One other example that English academics could take from the school system is the practice of weekly, often daily, staff meetings. Nearly a third of respondents felt that collaboration and discussion about teaching did not happen on a regular basis in their

department, except in what they described as team-teaching situations, or with tutors only, and only ever on a very informal basis:

I think more could be done (even within time constraints) 1) for accountability of grading, 2) for accountability of teaching practices, and 3) for tutor relationships: teaching is a TEAM effort (T).

Lack of discussion on teaching is apparently not confined to New Zealand English departments, as indicated by the following excerpt from US English academic Geoffrey Green's (1989) article "Welcome to paradise!":

A genuine surprise for you is how little the members of your new English department actually converse about literature or even teaching. Various committee tasks, tricks to arrive at a more convenient schedule, methods to deal with the school bookstore are more typical subjects of conversation. Or else, colleagues might discuss real estate, interest rates, vacations in Europe, fine dining, grants and sabbaticals, or the latest offerings in music, theater, and cinema (Green, 1989, p. 48).

However, one New Zealand English department returned an overwhelmingly positive response to the statement "Collaboration and discussion about teaching happens on a regular basis in my department", with all but one respondent answering affirmatively (the exception circled '3' Neutral). In this department, the architecture of the building which houses the department has enabled them to create a central and informal space where staff regularly meet for coffee, during which discussion about pedagogical issues often occurs:

So and so will tell me about his requirements for a paper, and suggest maybe I might want to do that in one of my papers, and we'll talk about it at coffee, about something that's gone particularly well, or particularly appallingly (ST).

They also have weekly staff meetings, "which means that they're not a big deal. We have them every week and they're over in an hour and all sorts of things come up. Those are really valuable" (P). And, the department also publishes a weekly one- to two-page newsletter which keeps staff up-to-date on events during the week. Such practices have helped create an environment where staff feel teaching issues can be raised and talked about with their peers.

Another situation which raises the possibility of talk about teaching is the activity of team-teaching, where a number of staff members teach one course. This appears to happen in most English departments, but particularly at the larger universities, and in the two departments which teach writing to a substantial first-year contingent:

As we have got bigger, we have less informal discussion, but almost all of our papers are team-taught, and there is a lot of collaboration and discussion among the members of the teams for each paper (P).

While one focus group acknowledged the potential dangers inherent in team-teaching, where one teacher might lecture on one aspect of the course with no reference to what previous lecturers have said or forthcoming lecturers are going to say, they felt that the team-teaching in their own department was generally of a high standard and conducive to good learning. Another focus group stressed the positive aspects of team-teaching with regard to the relationships that develop between full-time and part-time staff, and the opportunities for talk about teaching that arise as a consequence:

The courses tend to be designed by the full-time staff, and delivered sometimes by the part-time staff. I think there's a responsibility that perhaps the full-time staff have...to teach the teachers. I can remember when I was involved [as a part-timer] in literature papers and, for example, every week course controllers would give me one-on-one sessions through the material completely, before I did it, and that's important. In a lot of places people say, "Here's the course, here's the book, here's your list of students, go for it" (ST).

The role part-time staff play in the teaching activities of New Zealand university English departments is significant, and the treatment, attention, and money they receive, the teaching activities they undertake, the expectations placed on them, and their attitudes towards their jobs in many ways reflect the attitudes to teaching by English and by the university system as a whole. The following section deals with part-timers' responses and perceptions, and sheds some light on what has already been revealed about teaching in New Zealand university English departments.

### **4.3 PART-TIME STAFF**

As indicated in the previous section, the opinions of part-timers and full-timers differ on some matters. For example, part-timers feel that teaching is not valued highly in university English departments in New Zealand: only 45% circled 4 "Valued" or 5 "Valued a great deal" whereas 73% of full-timers circled 4 or 5. Part-timers also tend to feel that time spent on documenting teaching effectiveness is worthwhile (93.5% of part-timers agreed with this statement) while full-timers generally do not (only 45.6% agreed). The differences could in part be attributed to lack of experience – the part-time respondents had an average of just three years tertiary teaching experience – but one

focus group member also felt that different job expectations would affect their perceptions:

Full-time people realise their job is *both* teaching and research, and for part-timers it's almost entirely focussed on their teaching, because that's what they do, that's what they're paid to do; they're not paid to do research. The thing is there's quite a considerable shift in the nature of the job description and the expectations and pressures that go along with it (AP).

The pressures a part-time teacher in English experiences *are* different from those of a full-timer, but they are no less worthy of attention, especially as our part-time workforce expands. More and more students are being taught by part-time teachers, particularly in first year university courses; nearly all first year courses in all departments are taught by a combination of full-time and part-time staff, with lectures usually given by full-timers and tutorials by part-timers and some full-timers. And the pressure is on from the top to employ more casuals and fewer permanents. For example, at one university, departments are being encouraged to reduce the component of their budget tied up in permanent salaries from the current 93% to 85%.

The most pressing issue for part-time English staff, and one which full-timers do not have to confront with quite the same urgency or necessity, is pay-rates. Most are paid between \$45 and \$57 per tutorial – a figure which allows for one hour of preparation, one hour of teaching, and one of hour marking – but most would argue that each tutorial consumes more than three hours of their time. Marking is the biggest culprit, with some tutors, especially in writing courses, expected to mark five major assignments and six minor ones per tutorial per semester, often with class sizes of 18-20. Consider the situation at one university, where tutors are paid \$2500 per tutorial of 18 students each semester. Two sessions of two hours per week equals 48 contact hours. Four hours per week preparation makes another 48 hours. And if each of the five major assignments takes an average of half an hour to mark, that will be 45 more hours. Allow ten minutes for the minor ones and we get a further 18 hours. This means that tutors are getting paid \$15.72 per hour overall. More realistic figures of one hour per major assignment and 20 minutes for each minor one would give tutors just \$11.26 an hour. Factor in office hours, time with students after class, individual meetings and phone conversations and e-mails with students at a conservative two hours per week (24 hours in all) and a part-time teacher of writing in an English university department would earn \$10.16 an hour

*before* tax and 6% holiday pay is taken out. An average McDonald's restaurant worker starts on \$8.00 an hour and with pay rises can earn \$9.50 an hour! Tutors from only one New Zealand English department have knowledge of a pay rise in recent times; others have worked as long as eight years in the same department at the same pay rate.

Understandably, only 29% of part-time respondents feel that they are paid fairly for the work they do in the English department:

I am paid a pittance (T).

Being paid per tutorial-hour ensures constant conflict between students' needs for individual help and economic common sense (T).

I do much more work than I'm paid for, yet I'm aware that were the department budget ransacked for genuine recompense, I may have no work at all (T).

This acknowledgement that there is just no money available to pay tutors what they deserve speaks volumes about the value placed on teaching in English, whether budgetary decisions are ultimately departmental or university ones. As Frederic Jacobs (1998) suggests, "although many administrators acknowledge the defects of present practice, they also recognise the budgetary flexibility afforded them by present practice" (Jacobs, 1998, p. 16). It is easier to carry on exploiting part-time tutors, than to find the money to have the teaching done by full-time staff. Karen Thompson (1997) and Linda Ray Pratt (1997) have even more cynical outlooks:

When reflecting on higher education's failure to confront its treatment of exploited employees, I am reminded of Upton Sinclair noting that "it is difficult to get a man to understand something when his salary depends on his not understanding it" (Thompson, 1997, p. 289).

Part-time faculty employment is one of those abusive situations that is just too convenient for institutions to give up if they don't have to (Pratt, 1997, p. 264).

If teaching mattered more, part-time tutors, whose only job is to teach (since they are not *expected* to undertake any research, administration or service, though many do), would be better compensated for their work. As it is 29% of part-time tutors feel undervalued and insignificant: "As a casual tutor, I don't feel like anyone really cares. We're just there so they don't have to be (T)". Kathy Newman explains, from a US standpoint, the feelings of aggrieved part-timers, especially those who are also graduate students:

Though we are at the heart of the university – as products of the university and as producers in our own right – we are feared, resented, and misunderstood. For the audience outside the university, our work is hard to explain. For those inside the university, it is easy to explain away (Newman, 1997, p. 98).

However, most part-time tutors in New Zealand English departments (54.8%) feel that their colleagues value their work and their presence in the department: “They appreciate the work I do – their hands are tied when it comes to remuneration” (T). Most part-timers (78.8%) also feel satisfied with the working space, materials and resources for teaching provided by their departments. The following table outlines the resources available to part-time staff in the five departments whose HoDs replied to the HoD questionnaire.

**Table 4.15 – Resources Available to Part-time Staff**

	Kauri	Rimu	Kowhai	Matai	Totara
Office – own					
Office – shared	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Desk – own	✓		✓	✓	
Desk – shared		✓			✓
Phone	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Filing cabinet	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Books on teaching		✓			
Teaching resources	✓	✓		✓	✓
Stationery	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Mail box	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Private space to meet with students	✓		✓		✓
Computer – shared	✓			✓	✓
Computer – private			✓		
Computer – networked	✓			✓	✓
Photocopying	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Some tutors do have reservations, however:

There is a gesture at all these things but they fall far below what is actually required (T).

Constraints on photocopying are frustrating, and only those tutors who are postgraduate students have any working space (T).

Most tutors have to share offices and last semester I was one of 8 tutors in a room which had never been intended as an office – this made it difficult to have private conversations with students or to work in silence (T).

That only three English departments provide private space for part-time tutors to meet with students, that computing facilities are limited, that only one department provides

books on teaching, and that many part-time tutors feel aggrieved and undervalued is indicative of departmental and university cultures in which teaching is not valued as highly as it could be. As David Leslie (1998) says,

Part-time faculty often work without the normal support services that full-time faculty take for granted. For example, offices, telephones, computers, secretarial and other administrative support, and professional development funds provide the infrastructure that undergirds competent and effective teaching.... Full-time faculty simply would not work under the same conditions.... Part-time and adjunct faculty may bring added value to the institutions in which they teach, and they may teach for the best of reasons and with the strongest of capabilities. But they often do so under conditions that belie their employing institutions' commitment to quality instruction (Leslie, 1998, p. 99).

Departmental and university cultures in which part-time staff are treated as well as full-timers, provide evidence of a commitment to teaching and learning for the benefit of all – part-timers, full-timers, students, and the entire university community – as Donald Langenberg (1998) describes:

It seems to me that if we could only learn to recognise the members of our subfaculty as true partners in the grand calling of teaching and learning – partners with different but equally important roles – and enlist them as regular members of our collegium in all its functions, then we would ameliorate if not solve all the other problems before us. Let us eradicate the word *status* from our vocabularies and our behavior (Langenberg, 1998, p. 43).

David Allan (1996) concurs:

Status, and its resulting empowerment, still matters both to teacher and to student. Its denial – undoctored, untenured, untrained, or significantly, without respectable office furniture – truly flings the new university teacher “in at the deep end” (Allan, 1996, p. ix).

The “in at the deep end” metaphor is one used by a number of part-time respondents, particularly when referring to the lack of training available or offered to them. Only 38.7% agree that the training they received before they started working in their English department was sufficient. More than half of those respondents who agreed claim they gained their training outside the English department or even in spite of it, leaving just 16.1% who believe that their English department provided them with adequate training:

What training?! (T)

I did feel totally thrown in at the deep end. The [TLC] introductory course gave us lots of information, most of which turned out to be of no use(T).

No way. I was terrified! I felt I didn't really know what I was doing and was unclear on the assessment. I didn't get the course material early enough to feel confident (T).

Most training for tutors consists of a day-long session (only half a day in some departments) at the beginning of the year, usually run in conjunction with the TLC. In some departments, however, this training day is held *after* classes have begun, and is, in most cases, not followed by any further training. Only one department specified that they have additional training sessions for tutors – five throughout the year – but even in this department, tutors seemed disgruntled with the lack of provision and opportunities. The two most strongly negative comments came from there: “Not on your life!!” and “It was more a question of throwing you in at the deep end and relying on one’s understanding of the subject requirements to float”. Furthermore, not one respondent from this department strongly agreed that their training was sufficient, and of the five who did agree with reservations, three said it was because they were trained secondary school teachers or had been trained elsewhere. Ongoing meetings, a competitive selection process and clear criteria for the appointment of tutors clearly do not mean that this department has met the training needs of its part-time tutors. Furthermore, while this department pays its tutors for attending training sessions (\$60 lump sum), none of the other departments who responded appear to pay their tutors anything for training.

Formal meetings with tutors in all departments are scarce: at best there would be one or two marking meetings per semester, usually at the beginning and the end of each semester. However, HoDs say that many more informal meetings do go on between tutors and paper co-ordinators, usually fortnightly, and one department has an informal mentoring system in place.

The lack of teacher training is not peculiar to part-timers, however. Most full-timers undergo little initial or on-going training either, as the following section will show.

#### **4.4 TRAINING AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT**

After the induction process, little is expected of New Zealand English academics in terms of teacher training. Lack of training is not a phenomenon restricted to New Zealand universities. Gibbs (1998) reports the following disturbing statistics in the UK:

In the UK, the standard qualification for school teachers is the completion of a B. Ed. Program, which lasts for approximately 5,000 hours. A Postgraduate Certificate of Education which qualifies those who already have a first degree – and which focuses on process rather than subject knowledge and is therefore more comparable to a program for university teachers who already possess subject matter expertise – lasts for approximately 1,500 hours. The longest programs for new university teachers in the UK and the Netherlands are about 500 hours – about a third of the minimum approved length of that for school teachers (Gibbs, 1998, p. 225).

Not one New Zealand English department expects its full-time staff to complete *any* teaching qualifications, nor are they expected to attend any teaching workshops or seminars. Such qualifications and experience will, the policies suggest, supposedly enhance their promotion opportunities, but few English academics believe they have the time to spare on such activities when promotion depends so much more on their publication record.

Even more significantly, not one English department offers discipline-specific teaching workshops or seminars on anything but a very occasional basis, and these occasional sessions are usually targeted only at part-time staff. Only 17.8% of full-time questionnaire respondents agreed that anything is offered in this area, and none *strongly* agreed. Two respondents felt that the scarcity of workshops or seminars offered by the department was acceptable, indeed that their occasional appearance was “over the years...enough” (L) and that they “wouldn’t necessarily favour such a development anyway” (SL). Most respondents, however, regretted the lack of such opportunities, while also expressing some wariness about their intentions and effectiveness:

I can remember few such occasions, but I think afterwards we all pretty much carried on doing what we were doing, and indeed we wouldn’t want to end up as copycats. One hesitates to commend one’s own practices because it feels like boastfulness. One hesitates to query another’s practices because it might be construed as hostility or condescension (SL).

In effect the usual activities of this kind are research related. There is also a reluctance to discuss teaching practice in situations which might generate dispute or criticism (SL).

Such circumspection also influences attitudes towards other activities related to the ongoing professional development of full-time academic staff. As mentioned earlier, very few full-time English people belong to a discussion group which meets regularly to

discuss teaching issues and activities, and only 60% believe that discussion about teaching happens on a regular basis in their department. Furthermore, only one department appears to have regular and frequent staff meetings at which teaching issues are raised. In other departments, discussion about teaching is limited to curricular debates and assessment issues: “Most dissension about pedagogy in my brief experience has centred around grading standards” (L).

The sharing of good teaching practices in English seems to be limited by cynicism about people’s motives, fear of criticism and insult, a perceived lack of time, and by the prevailing “cult of individualism”<sup>16</sup> which confines English people to their offices, homes and classrooms where they work in solitude, without the support, encouragement or constructive criticism of their colleagues. One focus group latched on to the insidious pervasiveness of this “cult of individualism”, identifying also a growing “culture of complaint”, and calling instead for a “culture of affirmation”:

I think the reason why you *need* a culture of affirmation is because if you are going to [ask] people to train or retrain or to improve their teaching, people have got to feel that there is an environment of trust. And one of the reasons why I think there’s a resistance to training is that people feel afraid that it’s going to expose them in some way, show their weaknesses (L).

Such fears engender scepticism regarding the benefits of the courses offered by the Teaching and Learning Centres, as well as doubt about the experience, qualifications and motives of TLC staff, which in turn affect English academics’ and departments’ relationships with their TLCs. The *Audit Reports* indicate that four of the six TLCs are adequately supported by administration and staff alike, and are often commended by academic staff, but the remaining two are not so well-regarded. One Centre is considered by many academic staff as relevant only to general staff – a strange misconception considering that the Centre caters *only* for academic staff. What training it does offer is generally praised, but there is some confusion over their clientele; the TLC staff feel they are preaching to the converted, while the academic staff feel the TLC is there for remedial purposes only. More departmentally-based professional development is being pushed as a solution in this university, but has not been received particularly enthusiastically. Meanwhile, another university’s Centre is also regarded by

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<sup>16</sup> Brookfield (1995) talks of a culture of individualism, and also identifies a culture of secrecy and a culture of silence – all of which prevent critical reflection, including discussion with colleagues, on teaching.

many, according to the *Audit Report*, as “relevant only to those who are bad (for remediation) or good (for embellishment)” (NZUAAU, p. 12).

Comments from English academics would seem to support such conclusions, and even to suggest that Centres which the *Audit Reports* identify as successful also need to readdress their relationship with the English department. These comments come from a lecturer and an Associate Professor, respectively, at universities where the TLC was “universally complimented as doing an excellent job” (NZUAAU) or commended for “extensive and appropriate activities” (NZUAAU):

We have a specialist teaching unit on campus, and where problems arise some lecturers are referred to that unit for help. However, I have serious reservations about the implications of some of the recommendations such units make. They tend to want to reduce the range of texts taught, and to dumb down the teaching. They are also far too keen on the whole “quality” and evaluation charade (L).

The teaching development programmes offered are virtually useless because they’re taught by people with no experience of university teaching and no knowledge of the content and methodology of specific subjects such as English (AP).

English academics, as a whole, appear *not* to trust their TLCs, and this has prevented the building of stronger, more efficacious relationships, out of which might emerge discipline-specific teaching and training courses, more palatable to English academics. Part of the distrust possibly stems from a perception that the TLCs are simply bureaucratic mouthpieces or puppets, as the following comment from a clearly embittered Associate Professor implies:

The administration has destroyed good relations with students by turning them into customers whose complaints can have serious consequences for their teachers; it has lowered the academic standard of teaching by obliging teachers to cater to the less able and less committed students who constitute the majority; and it has destroyed the professional autonomy and commitment by instituting a surveillance network of bureaucrats and developmental officers because, apparently, it no longer trusts the professionals it has appointed to do their best without these. As the bureaucrats and developmental officers are naturally concerned to ensure their own continuing appointment and promotion, they demand increasingly more time-consuming evaluation of the teaching of academics, as well as adding their own barrage of criticism to the criticism they encourage from students (AP).

Whatever the cause, a resistance to opening themselves and their teaching up to criticism appears to prevent English academics from frequenting TLC courses and

undertaking long-term or ongoing professional development. A similar situation exists in Australia, where, Tomazos (1997) reports,

many academics have become sceptical and are distrustful of the current rhetoric from institutions about valuing quality teaching (Ramsden et al., 1995), leaving them somewhat resistant to the learning opportunities provided (Tomazos, 1997, p. 1).

Furthermore, only one institution offers a postgraduate certificate or diploma in tertiary teaching (though two others have certificates in the pipeline for 2000) and, to my knowledge, no English staff member has so far completed or even enrolled in this course. Many view such courses with disdain or wariness, often in the belief that their teaching is good enough already and needs no improvement. Consider, for example, the following comments, from one department:

I get my course surveys back and I'm 4.9 out of 5. Why do I need to go along? Obviously, I must be doing it all right. There's nothing from [the TLC] which kind of makes me think when I look at a programme, "Right, maybe that's got something". I think it probably needs to be targeted more (Current HoD).

As far as teaching goes, there's no problem in this department. Nothing is formally arranged [discussions on teaching or courses, for example] and really there's no need because the ratings for the teaching in this department are very good (Ex-HoD).

The following comment comes from a lecturer of eight years standing in another department:

I'm not convinced that attending further sessions on pedagogy would improve my teaching: I attended many when I first started teaching, but by now have heard most of it already. The push to require certification for tertiary teaching is mere credentialism (L).

Few full-timers believe that academic staff *should* have to possess teaching credentials, and most were concerned at who would hold the responsibility for ensuring compliance. Less than half of the full-time respondents (43.2%) thought that accreditation as a competent university teacher should be a requirement for all permanent academic staff:

I'm suspicious of "edu-speak" and don't believe that qualifications guarantee good teaching. Experience, peer and student reviews, and a demonstrated interest in innovative pedagogy should be sufficient (L).

Who is going to put the bell on the cat? (SL)

Others expressed concerns, but also saw some positives in such a requirement:

Although I thought at least half of the required work I did to get a secondary accreditation was pure horse-pucky, the other half was, has been, inordinately useful. Every lecturer I know would benefit from that good half (L).

It sounds eminently reasonable that teachers should be properly qualified to teach, just as plumbers should be properly qualified to plumb; my reservation is about who would do the accrediting (SL).

Part-time staff were less ambivalent, with 93.6% convinced that university teachers should be accredited:

A revolutionary thought. There'll be a large bonfire of the deadwood (T).

Lecturing is teaching so accreditation should be a requirement as it is in all other teaching institutions (T).

Perhaps part-time staff, being younger, more easily remember their own experiences as students and can more readily recall instances of poor teaching at university, which may have improved had the teacher been qualified:

As a student I took this [that lecturers were accredited teachers] for granted, but I soon learnt that many a great mind is a hopeless teacher! (T).

Yes, just because one has a PhD does not necessarily mean one will make a competent teacher. Often students decide on papers because of this. If they know someone is a poor teacher, they choose another paper instead (T).

I know of staff members who are in their positions solely due to their research, and their students find them abysmal (T).

The accreditation of university teachers is an issue being hotly debated in Australia and the UK at the moment, with various groups having released documents, guidelines, and policies. The UK Dearing Report (1997) recommends that “to achieve world class higher education teaching, it should become the norm for all permanent staff with teaching responsibilities to be trained on accredited programmes” (Dearing, 1997, p. 24). In Australia, the West Report (1998) states that “it is ironic that academics – the professionals who nurture all other professions in every field of human endeavour – continue to eschew professional qualifications for themselves”, and recommends that institutions be encouraged to “appoint new academic staff on probation until they have completed a qualification in teacher training” (West, 1998, p. 147). Here in New Zealand, however, staff appear to be less concerned about the issue, and while the

Association for University Staff (AUS) released a discussion document in 1997 and held a brief conference on the issue in mid-1998, little has happened since then.

New Zealand English academics are as wary of special arrangements being made for staff involved in teaching development projects as they are of imposed professional development requirements, such as accreditation, mandatory or otherwise. Only half believe that any special arrangement should be made to enable staff to undertake teaching development programmes, with the other half convinced that the money required for such a proposal would be better, and more appropriately, spent elsewhere:

Where is the money to come from? So long as teaching is valued in the promotions context, the incentive already exists for people to find the time for teaching development. I don't want to do more work so as to fund other people here (L).

Some English staff interpreted this, and other questions, as referring to staff who needed remedial help with their teaching. Consequently, teaching development grants were seen by some as insulting:

I presume they'd be given to the worst teachers to bring them up to scratch, or at least would be perceived that way – how humiliating! A 'teaching development grant' sounds like a euphemism for a rap over the knuckles (SL).

Those who can do. Those who can't apply for development grants (SL).

A majority of respondents (62.2%), however, felt positively about teaching development grants, and indeed, at most universities where teaching development grants *are* available (four out of six), they seem to be well-regarded by English staff and competitively fought for, though not many English academics are actually granted them.

As one HoD says,

It takes a particular kind of project, a team project, as so many of these grant things do.... They're predicated on a science model, that's what we find, and humanities tends to be a solitary activity. That's why it's perhaps more difficult for us to get these research grants and teaching and development grants, but we're learning ways to access them (HoD interview).

This department has managed to secure such a grant two years in a row for a project to produce a CD-Rom on Chaucer, by following a science model for the grant application.

The usual pool for such grants is around \$30,000, university-wide, although one university's fund totalled \$180,000 in 1998, and individual grants are usually around the \$2,000 mark. English academics would like to see more grants given for developing new courses or taking leave to study innovations elsewhere, as opposed to solely technological innovations and developments:

At present the few awards available are monopolized by the WWW nerds and techies. Our students still mostly want print media! We are therefore not served in attempting to serve them better (AP).

Ensuring that English academics receive opportunities to develop and improve their teaching is not solely an English department responsibility. Institutional structures, attitudes and award systems have a significant impact on how much training and staff development is available to English academics and how much they choose to undertake. As mentioned earlier, English academics' attitudes towards university Teaching and Learning Centres are not always positive. Currently, only one English department has a member of staff formally recognised as the liaison person between the TLC and the English department, despite the Audit Reports identifying at least one other university as having TLC "associates". Even then, this representative struggles to interest his fellow department members in TLC courses or programmes: "I think people would rather do their own thing", he says.

The traditionally solitary nature of an English academic's job may in part be responsible for the largely negative response to the following statement in the questionnaire: "a person with special responsibility for teaching development should be appointed within each New Zealand university English department/school or college/faculty". Only 21.7% of full-time respondents agreed with this, while over half (54.4%) disagreed, citing excessive bureaucratic tendencies (3) and "overkill" (2). Most seemed to perceive such a statement as an attempt to impose yet more unwanted outside influences upon already over-stretched, administratively burdened teachers: "Too bureaucratic an approach – staff should be able to look after their own teaching development, with assistance from colleagues and students" (SL). During focus groups this issue received closer attention.

One focus group felt that identifying someone in the department as the TLC liaison person and giving them responsibility for setting up and facilitating regular department

seminars on teaching-related issues would be a practical move, especially if that person relinquished their responsibilities to another after, say, two or three years, and the job rotated round the department. As one associate professor, who was initially ardently opposed to what he saw as a bureaucratic monster, put it:

The idea of monthly seminars sounds very good to me. Surely we would actually end up swapping our experiences with somebody acting as more of a facilitator than the fascist beast I imagined (AP).

Part-timers, who responded far more positively to this question (75.7% agreed), seemed to be thinking along these lines, and one answered: “That would be excellent. They could then serve as a kind of mediator between tutors and department as well” (T). In some departments, there are already such people who act as liaisons between part-timers and the department, and formalising their role and including all academic staff in their mandate could be the next significant step towards providing ongoing, appropriate professional development for English staff.

A disdain for excessive bureaucratic measures also revealed itself in full-time responses to the suggestion that a senior university committee should be established at each institution to oversee educational practices, including good teaching and assessment practices. Full-time staff were split on this issue, with 34.9% disagreeing, and 46.5% agreeing (the rest were neutral), but opinions were strong, varying from the caustic – “We’ve already got quite enough parasitic bureaucracies carrying out police work in this area” (SL) and “sounds like more fascist overseeing to me” (L) – to the enthusiastic – “such a committee would provide a focus for change” (P) – with some potentially supportive, but somewhat bewildered – “This sounds good in theory, but what on earth would they actually *do*?” (P). Once again, full-time staff, even if they supported it, seemed to view such a suggestion as a potentially Orwellian “big brother” attempt to keep a bureaucratic eye on staff:

However it’s done, it needs to be done discreetly and benignly. Nobody wants to feel as if they’re under surveillance by a ‘senior’ committee (seniority alone is no guarantee of good teaching) (SL).

And again, part-time staff took a different view, with 87.5% supporting the setting up of such a committee, anticipating that it would serve more of a facilitating role. Some part-timers, as well as many full-timers, did express concern at the effect the establishment of yet another committee might have on administration and workloads, however:

We have enough committees in this institution without creating any more – getting any kind of consensus or agreement from a committee such as this would be impossible (T)

I'd need to be persuaded that this wouldn't just be another machine for generating paper work (P).

The paper work involved in applying for a teaching award is similarly off-putting for many English academics. The Audit Reports record that only three of the six institutions involved in this study provide Teaching Awards, but since the publication of the Reports, awards for excellent teaching have been created at two more universities – a Teaching Medal to complement an already existing Research Medal at one, and at the other university, three awards of \$2000 each in each faculty. The guidelines for this latter award indicate that an applicant or nominee must provide not only their current or recent student evaluation scores, but also a comprehensive Teaching Portfolio – something which English academics are clearly resistant to – and “any other supporting material”.

But it is not simply the paper work involved which puts some English people off applying for such awards; the implications behind their introduction also generate wariness:

It comes back to the point that we're all agreeing on...that in promotional activities, teaching is not sufficiently recognised, so it strikes me as absolute proof positive of that that two Faculties at least are now moving towards making an award for teaching. Why do you do that? It's because it's otherwise not being recognised (SL).

Several participants expressed concern that initiatives like teaching awards, merit pay and bonuses for good teaching serve only to keep teaching undervalued in the promotion process: “it could backfire, you know; you give them a prize and then you don't have to promote them” (P).

This attitude is also reflected in some of the responses to the questionnaire's suggestion that poor teachers should be denied annual increments or merit pay. Respondents were split on this issue, with 55.8% agreeing and 39.5% disagreeing. One respondent stated that as well as denying them merit pay, poor teachers “just shouldn't be promoted” (SL), while others declared that poor teaching should not figure in such decisions (promotion *or* merit pay) if the candidate is also a good researcher:

We are employed to teach AND research; I strongly disagree that excellent researchers who may not be good teachers should be penalized (L).

Not if they're capable researchers. And especially not when there are no mechanisms to protect teaching staff against unfair, anonymous criticisms from students whose idea of good teaching is intellectually unchallenging entertainment (AP).

A truly outstanding researcher might be allowed the benefit of the doubt (P).

Part of the resistance to the denial of merit pay or promotion stems from what many English academics see as highly subjective and undefined processes for deciding who or what makes a good teacher<sup>17</sup>. Scepticism about evaluation procedures and the people doing the evaluating engendered a negative response to many earlier questions – on accreditation and the establishment of a teaching committee for example – and also appeared to affect their responses to the notion that disciplinary procedures should be in place to deal with instances of unsatisfactory teaching. Once again, the biggest concerns with regard to such a suggestion arose from an apparent fear of bureaucratic tendencies and the possibility that outsiders' interference/influence would over-ride English academics' own understanding of what is appropriate in their departments:

Depends on who defines what is unsatisfactory (SL).

Depends on what you mean by 'disciplinary'; again, this smacks of fascist tactics (L).

I fear bureaucratic procedures, and would prefer to have the HoD accountable (P).

This *would* be abused by management (L).

It seems reasonable to me that persistent non-improvers should be fired/not given tenure, but I don't have absolute faith in those at the top (SL).

Despite these reservations, the majority of respondents (56.1%) did feel it was appropriate for poor teachers to be disciplined, though most were wary of what such procedures would involve and felt that support and training were more appropriate approaches:

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<sup>17</sup> One of the issues many respondents and international critics (Baker, 1995; Lewis, 1996; Ramsden, 1992; Rowland, 1996) raise is the perceived difficulty in measuring teaching effectiveness, as compared to the more easily quantifiable nature of published research. This is an issue of gargantuan proportions which deserves its own PhD thesis, and it would be interesting to see someone take it up in relation to English teaching and research.

For someone against who [*sic*] student complaints are lodged yearly, certainly promotion should be denied, compulsory teacher training and possibly compulsory psychological counselling should be required (I've known people in the commercial sector who had to go through this in order to keep their jobs) (L).

They should be removed from teaching duties, or given training. If they are not good at teaching, research or supervision, they should be sacked (ST).

Not unless it's deliberate and incorrigible. Others need *help* with a performance problem, not a stick (P).

The recommendation of training and support, rather than disciplinary measures or financial penalties, implies that English academics do not currently receive enough training with respect to teaching. Certainly the figures presented here show that few full-time English academics engage in any on-going or even occasional teaching development, that the worth of awards for teaching is treated with a significant degree of cynicism, that teaching development grants are generally considered to be remedial as opposed to congratulatory, and that the teacher training that is currently provided is too generic and needs to focus more on the specific needs of *English* teachers. Changes in approach from the TLCs and upper management clearly need to occur before English academics will engage in professional teaching development *en masse* and with sustained enthusiasm, and changes in attitude on the part of the English academics themselves need to be encouraged. Perhaps such changes could in part be brought about by a reassessment of what New Zealand's PhD programmes in English currently offer potential academics.

Before considering the PhD, however, I would like to make some recommendations, based on these findings, about how English in New Zealand might move towards a reconceptualisation of the role of the English academic so that the scholarship of teaching, in particular, can be valued more highly and more visibly.

#### **4.5 RECOMMENDATIONS**

English academics need to consider, as individuals and as departments, how the teaching/research dichotomy can be broken down and replaced with a more holistic, realistic, and practical conceptualisation of what makes a first-rate scholar or academic.

Despite the “confusion concerning the concept of scholarship...this concept is important in current discourses about the changing nature of academic work in highlighting aspects of professionalism which are valued” (Brew, 1999, p. 1). If English academics want teaching to be valued more highly (as Part 4.2.1 clearly shows they do) they need to address the confusion about scholarship and discard out-dated, narrow conceptions of it simply as research-based activity. A reconfigured multi-dimensional notion of scholarship, if implemented in practice, would offer a means of broaching, and hopefully bridging the divide between teaching and research, by valuing *all* the roles an academic undertakes. Such a notion would ensure equity that doesn’t currently exist between teaching and research, and demand accountability in respect to these roles from the individual scholars themselves, from their departments, from their disciplines, and from their universities. Boyer’s “scholarship” would become, in Brew’s words, “the glue holding teaching and research together” (Brew, 1999, p. 2).

What might this new notion of scholarship look like in practice, and how might New Zealand English academics work their way towards such a reconceptualisation?

#### **4.5.1 Discussion**

Perhaps the most significant step English academics in New Zealand could take towards valuing teaching more highly is to engage in discussion and reflection about the role of the scholar in English. As Martin and Ramsden (1992) state, it is not simply a matter of aiming to *improve* teaching, but of changing the way English academics conceptualise their roles – including teaching, research, service and administration. As Sue Johnston (1997) suggests,

As long as teaching and research are seen as competitors in terms of their status in universities, teacher development activities will remain in a tenuous position in the minds of faculty. The situation tends to be seen as ‘either-or’, that is, commitment is given *either* to teaching *or* to research and there are few incentives to find an appropriate balance between these two components of faculty work.... A reconceptualisation of the faculty role [is required].... When not competing for time, teaching and research can be seen as complementary, with a commitment to good teaching and quality research both essential elements of being a first-rate faculty member (Johnston, 1997, pp. 33-34).

Discussion needs to occur far more regularly, not only between departments – a session at the next triennial conference of English departments could be devoted to

“Reconceptualising scholarship in English” or “Valuing the scholarship of teaching in English” – but also *within* departments and between individuals. All English departments should consider following Totara’s example by engaging in weekly staff meetings and occasional coffee mornings. Departments and individuals might also consider establishing regular discussion groups at which critical reflection could take place. However, Brookfield (1995) prefaces a similar suggestion with the following caveat:

While conversation can foster values of diversity, democracy, and openness, it can also marginalise and close down certain groups and perspectives....Putting teachers together in a room and suggesting that they talk about what they do will not necessarily increase the amount of critical reflection in the world. Conversation is truly critical and self-aware only when participants approach it with certain inclinations and predispositions.... They must know that no person or ideology will be allowed to dominate, and that all voices will be heard and respected. This means creating ground rules for conversation (Brookfield, 1995, pp. 142-143).

To this end, Brookfield makes a number of suggestions which could provide impetus for critical reflection on the scholarly role among English department colleagues. These include:

- The use of critical incidents that happen in the classroom as discussion starting points
- Circular response discussion exercises, where everyone is given set times to speak and respond, and
- Discussions where, at each session, each group member takes on a different role – for example, problem-, dilemma- or theme-poser; reflective analyst; the devil’s advocate; the theme spotter; or the umpire (Brookfield, 1995, p. 153).

Most importantly, HoDs need to realise that useful and inspirational discussion on teaching will only happen in an department where there exists an environment of trust and a “culture of affirmation” (L). Ramsden (1998) argues that “genuine learning requires an atmosphere of trust and an absence of fear; in these circumstances academics, like their students, take risks, improve, and do remarkable things” (p. 268). It is these remarkable things that HoDs should then focus on in order to build on and develop that trust. As Angelo (1999) states, we need to “start with success” (p. 10) before tackling the problems. He suggests that HoDs

take time to highlight what academic staff are doing well, and to share successful strategies. Encouraging academic staff to provide examples of successful teaching allows them to present their best “face,” and demonstrates that each is an intelligent, capable person with ideas to contribute to the good of the whole (Angelo, 1999, p. 5).

If the formality and structure of organised discussion groups is daunting or off-putting, or seems too time-consuming, English academics might consider establishing e-mail discussion groups, or building a network of colleagues from other departments or universities in order to simply chat about teaching. Such informal gatherings may well develop into more critical and in-depth reflection.

#### **4.5.2 Peer review**

Such networks can also provide interested, sympathetic and critically aware colleagues capable of reviewing an English academic’s classroom practice. As mentioned in some depth earlier in Part 4.2.2, English academics are wary of peer review, but should, given the stack of literature on its advantages (Boyer et al., 1994; Brookfield, 1995; Ramsden, 1992 etc), be more open to it.

#### **4.5.3 Teaching and learning forums/conferences**

Once departments have established a culture where discussion and peer review are commonplace and valued – or perhaps even before they have done so – English academics might consider organising and participating in Teaching and Learning Forums, Seminars, or Conferences either within their departments or in conjunction with other university departments. Such conferences would offer a forum at which innovative teaching projects and incidents could be showcased and research on teaching could be presented. A conference like this is run annually by the Business School at Nottingham Trent University in the UK (Smith & Pybus, 1999), and English departments in New Zealand would do well to follow such an example.

#### **4.5.4 Publishing on teaching**

Out of such forums could emerge published research on teaching in English, of which there is a paucity in New Zealand at present, as in the UK: “So very little university research time has been given over to researching higher education teaching in the UK”

(Smith & Webster, 1997, p. 103). Partly this is because university promotion practices do not readily recognise publications on teaching as significant research:

Institutional policies with respect to pedagogical scholarship also need to change. Weaver's (1986) survey of approximately 135 US college and universities documents that faculty writing about teaching is definitely not encouraged at 67 percent of those institutions, as reported by deans of social science and liberal arts (Weimer, 1997, p. 60).

Partly, also, it is because academics themselves feel they do not know enough to write on teaching, despite their being experts on their subject and teaching it daily:

The lack of effective, initial training in teaching means that most lecturers lack the background which could provide both a language through which to discuss any problems, and the self-confidence to think critically about their ways of teaching.... It is one of the paradoxes of higher education that faculty, who rely extensively on research findings within their own discipline, are reluctant to even consider the research on teaching. The lack of professional training in teaching does make them defensive towards such suggestions about improvement, and the claim that the research is unrealistic is such a reaction, at least in part (Entwistle, 1998b, pp. 103, 107).

Rowland (1996) provides a perfect example of this kind of attitude:

In a humanities subject a head of department said that such research was not something to which he felt members of his department could usefully contribute. It was something for educationalists:

No I don't think we would regard ourselves as qualified to do so. I could certainly give some ideas as to what I thought teaching was about...but if I were to write about teaching I would really feel that I ought to have studied teaching and know a bit more about teaching than I do (Rowland, 1996, p. 16).

By publishing about teaching in English, English academics will teach *themselves* about teaching and bring discussion about teaching in English into a public domain where critical reflection can truly occur and where a culture can develop which values the scholarship of teaching.

#### **4.5.5 Teaching portfolios**

In such a departmental culture, the use of teaching portfolios would seem both more worthwhile and more rewarding than English academics currently believe them to be. There is now a rich body of literature on the use of teaching portfolios in higher education (see Ramsden et al., 1995; Baker, 1995; Courts & McInerney, 1993; Seldin, 1997; and Shore et al., 1991) but I would like to zero in on Brookfield's (1995)

suggestion that academics implement what he calls a “critical reflection portfolio”, as described above in Section 4.3: Teaching practices.

Critical reflection on teaching needs to happen from an individual standpoint, among peers, and with students, and support must come from the top (from HoDs, as well as university administrators and policy makers) if such critical reflection is to be worth an English academic’s time and energy (Brookfield, 1995; Wright, 1998). Entwistle (1998b) describes why such support is necessary:

The attitudes of senior faculty, and particularly those of the Departmental Head, are very influential in developing the teaching ethos. Those attitudes will affect the reward system which operates within the department, and the way resources are distributed. Departmental staff receive clear signals about what activities “count”, and the effort they put into teaching is controlled in that way by the academic managers (Entwistle, 1998b, p. 102).

These recommendations have been directed at individual English academics and all could be implemented inexpensively, though they would all be time-consuming, of course. Many other ideas raised during the course of this research would require even more time, more money and, most significantly, more institutional support.

#### **4.5.6 Institutionally backed initiatives**

These more expensive, transformative changes could include the appointment of a special person within each English department, or at least within each College or Faculty of Humanities (and Social Sciences), who would be responsible for focussed and discipline-specific teaching and learning development – for running training programmes, facilitating discussion, organising seminars, encouraging peer- and self-assessment, co-ordinating part-time tutors, and liaising with the TLC. Institutional change could also come in the following forms:

- More substantial and accessible grants for teaching development,
- Sabbaticals and overseas leave dedicated to the development of teaching,
- Promotion policies and practices which take more account of teaching activities and achievements,
- The establishment of Teaching and Learning Committees at a senior level,
- The appointment of a Pro-, Assistant-, or Deputy-Vice Chancellor for Teaching,

- The introduction (in universities which do not already have them) of substantial and competitive teaching awards and medals to match existing research ones
- The dissemination of information on teaching through regular publications and the organisation of university-wide Good Practice Days and Teaching and Learning Conferences
- The provision of accessible, effective and appropriate initial training, and the expectation of long-term, ongoing professional development in teaching.

Perhaps if more academics received more initial training, and more *effective* training in teaching, their understanding would result in ongoing attention to teaching and to a higher value being accorded to teaching by the entire university system. To this end, Part Five looks at the PhD in English as a potential training ground for future English academics.

# PART FIVE

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## *The PhD*

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## 5.1 PURPOSE/CONCEPTIONS OF THE PhD PROGRAMME

As long as ago as the 1870s, when the introduction of the PhD was first being considered in England, its nature and purpose were ambiguously conceived. Many conceived of it solely as a research degree; others argued that a “doctor” was originally a teacher and the modern qualification should thus involve some form of teacher training. “Many very learned men”, declared A. C. Ramsay, “and many excellent Professors, are not remarkable for independent personal research in any particular branch of science...and they should not be deprived of the honour of the degree” (Simpson, 1983, p. 47). Similar arguments were heard across the Atlantic. For example, Don Cameron Allen (1968) records that a graduate student in the late 1800s presented a paper at a Graduate Club national meeting on “Specialized Scholarship versus Preparation for Teaching as a Basis for Graduate Study”. And a few years later, in 1903, William James questioned the efficacy of the PhD as an academic’s entrance ticket to university teaching: “Will anyone pretend for a moment...that the doctor’s degree is a guarantee that its professor will be successful as a teacher?” (cited in Ziolkowski, 1990, p. 178). Evidently few felt prepared to tackle such a question then, and fewer still, especially in New Zealand, would do so today.

The majority of academics, particularly in English in New Zealand, understand and accept the PhD as a research degree, designed to enable candidates to prove their competence in producing an original piece of sustained and innovative research. Departmental graduate handbooks and university *Calendars* all tend to describe the PhD in the same kinds of terms:

In the words of the University Calendar, a PhD thesis ‘demonstrates the candidate’s ability to carry out independent research’ and must also be ‘a significant contribution to the knowledge or understanding of a field of study.’ As well as intelligence and research aptitude, the degree requires considerable dedication and tenacity on the candidate’s part. Though most university teachers have a PhD, the degree does not automatically lead to a university position. The primary reason for embarking on a PhD should be your own commitment to a particular research interest (*Graduate English*, VUW handbook, 1998, p. 30).

A brief look at many of the guides available to prospective and enrolled PhD students, reveals a clear focus on research. For example, Philips and Pugh’s *How to Get a PhD* (1994) identifies the PhD as “primarily a research *training* exercise to get you from being a mere beginner in research to the level of a full professional” (p. 50). Similarly,

Phillida Salmon's *Achieving a PhD: Ten students' experience* (1992) zeroes in on research as the key, and, in many cases, only purpose of the PhD programme. Very few guides offer tips on how to incorporate teaching practice into the PhD experience, or recognise that teaching may constitute a significant component of a potential academic's training, despite recent and resounding calls for its inclusion.

Admittedly, the two examples above are from British books. Attitudes vary somewhat in the United States; for example, the purpose of the PhD programme is defined thus by the University of Southwestern Louisiana:

The department is committed to training its graduate students for success in the profession. Doctoral students are prepared for careers in university-level teaching and research... In addition to lecture courses and seminars, colloquia and tutorials bring together faculty members and students to discuss literary issues, teaching strategies and theory, and such professional concerns as placement and publication (*Peterson's*, 1996, p. 787).

*Peterson's graduate programs in the Humanities, Arts and Social Sciences* (1996) exposes a similar purpose at many other US institutions. Indeed, evidence of placement of doctorands in university jobs is often provided as proof of the success of a department's PhD programme: for example, the Catholic University of America's entry records that three doctorates were awarded in 1994, followed in parentheses by "100% entered university teaching or research" (p. 686). Despite these claims that the PhD provides broad training for a future as a university teacher and researcher in the US, even there many still conceive of it first and foremost as a research degree. Ziolkowski (1990) sums up the prevailing attitude:

The Ph.D., as it was imported into the United States from Germany during the heyday of positivism, was neither a teaching certificate (as James pointed out) nor a cachet of culture (as Babbit stressed). It was essentially a badge of research competence in the sciences... For this reason, the worries about the degree have come principally from the humanists – not from the scientists and engineers, who have been generally quite content (p. 191).

Some of the worries that Ziolkowski and many others identify relate to the lack of teaching experience offered by PhD programmes. If, as many people have suggested (Allen, 1968; Henkel and Kogan, 1993; Simpson, 1983), the PhD is the *sine qua non* for university teaching and research, it would seem logical to offer some sort of preparation for teaching, as well as for research, in the requirements leading to the degree. Indeed, Morton Winston (1992) identifies a need to "redefine graduate education as primarily

preparation for future college teachers, and not solely as preparation for future disciplinary researchers” (p. 60). But this is not happening widely, and certainly not in New Zealand.

What *is* happening in PhD programmes in English? The following section looks first at the UK and then at North America. Then, the current study’s findings with respect to the New Zealand PhD in English are outlined. The section ends with recommendations concerning the future of the PhD in English in New Zealand.

### **5.1.1 The UK PhD in English**

Based on a German model, the UK PhD has strongly influenced the NZ PhD. As in New Zealand, UK PhD students must write an original thesis and defend it orally before at least three examiners. Little else is formally expected in either country. A study by Becher et al. (1994), based on six years of research with 80 staff and 55 graduate students in six different disciplines, sums up the attitudes towards the PhD in the UK:

Overwhelmingly, the assumptions were that the doctorate was a preparation for an academic career and centred on research...; that academic careers would continue to be driven by research; and that the fundamental requirement for teaching in higher education was to be an active researcher and scholar.... The majority of academics, and not only those in the humanities, were more likely to see the process of achieving a doctorate in terms of the doctorand becoming a member of a disciplinary culture, one of whose distinguishing characteristics was individualism (Becher et al., 1994, p. 55).

Two New Zealand HoDs expressed concerns in interviews about the British PhD’s inflated reputation, with one stating that while their department once took “inferior British degrees over any New Zealand ones, that’s now changing”, and the other claiming that “ex-polytechnic universities (which lack established reputations) make UK degrees less desirable”.

The desirability of all UK PhDs, however, is also influenced by their lack of formal requirements. As Becher et al. (1994) state:

US universities are now less keen to recruit British PhDs because they prefer teachers whose graduate training has been broader than that provided in the UK, and who are thus more capable of teaching American undergraduates (Becher, et al., 1994, p. 171).

This same study found that teaching came a distant second to research in the UK system, and, where PhD students *were* offered teaching experience, it was for financial reasons, rather than pedagogic or career-enhancing ones:

Only one department in the study had begun to think about providing systematic training in teaching for those who were expected to form the next generation of academics. Elsewhere, the offering of university research scholarships in exchange for some prescribed teaching responsibilities had been developed to sustain research education in the institution, and perhaps to help manage the rise in undergraduate numbers, rather than to provide more structured preparation for teaching in higher education (Becher, et al., 1994, p. 55).

Becher (1993) describes the issue in more detail in an earlier article, emphasizing the benefits of teaching experience for students – not just financially, but also in terms of enhancing their own research work – and for departments:

There is a marked contrast between Britain and many other countries – the United States in particular – in the policy adopted toward giving graduate students opportunities to teach. In contexts in which students have for the most part to pay their own way through the graduate program, teaching undergraduate classes is a convenient and accepted way of augmenting other sources of earning. However, as has been noted, the common expectation is for British doctoral students to be grant-aided, and thus not to be significantly dependent on outside money-earning activities for the first three years. During this period relatively few are offered teaching responsibilities, which are in any case limited in range...For the most part, no specific training is given for this responsibility, a fact that concerned a number of students in the interview sample.

Teaching responsibilities are thus not an established part of the pattern of graduate student life, and there can be no automatic expectation that they will be available. Those who are allowed to do some teaching, to judge by the students we interviewed, find the experience enjoyable and rewarding in a sense not primarily financial. Several students commented that having to teach is a broadening experience, forcing one to look outside the confines of one's own particular specialism, and giving one a usefully wider perspective on the thesis topic (Becher, 1993, p. 133).

On a more positive note, it is heartening to see that, according to the *Prospects postgraduate directory* (1999), the School of Humanities: English, at Trinity and All Saints College offers a course and supervision expertise in “The History and Pedagogies of English”, while Teesside University offers a course titled “Literature and Pedagogy” (p. 280), so teaching is not being *completely* ignored in Britain. The overall lack of teaching experience available to British students, however, contrasts with what many argue is *too much* teaching experience for many North American PhD students.

### **5.1.2 The North American PhD in English**

North American PhD programmes in English are much more comprehensive than either the UK or New Zealand offerings. Consider, for example, the following description of the PhD programme at Michigan State University:

The doctoral program in English is a highly individualised program that aims to give students a comprehensive view of the discipline. Students are encouraged to integrate the advanced study of English and American literature and language with such closely related fields as literary theory and criticism, applied linguistics, reading theory, composition theory, critical studies in the teaching of English, and popular culture. Each candidate must successfully complete at least 12 credits of 900-level work, pass a series of three comprehensive examinations, pass a pre-dissertation examination covering the subject of the dissertation, and successfully defend the completed dissertation at an oral examination administered by the candidate's Guidance Committee (*Peterson's*, 1996, p. 767).

As this implies, PhD students in English in the United States must fulfil all or most of the following expectations: coursework, language requirements, preliminary and/or comprehensive examinations, dissertation, oral defence, and teaching<sup>1</sup>.

- **Coursework**

Most US universities require that PhD candidates spend one year on campus full-time for the course work. Huber (1989) reports that only 11% of English doctoral programs surveyed in the US in 1986 “stated that they had no course requirements whatsoever for the literature degree” (p. 174). It is interesting that this is lower than the 16% recorded by Allen in 1968. Huber also describes the nature of these compulsory courses:

Of the doctoral programs in the United States, 75% require courses in bibliography and research methods for the literature degree. In addition, between 32% and 53% require courses in literary criticism, critical theory, historical scholarship, linguistics and rhetoric.... Courses in teaching methods are a feature of most programs; only 24% of the doctoral programs in the sample do not offer such courses. Of the departments that offer such courses, almost 50% offer courses that treat the teaching of writing only, while 16% offer courses that consider the teaching of writing and the teaching of literature together. Another 28% offer two types of courses (Huber, 1989, p. 124).

Such teaching courses, however, are not always compulsory, nor are they always available to be taken for credit. In fact, many departments see courses in teaching as an

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<sup>1</sup> The dissertation, oral defence, and sometimes language requirements, are also required in New Zealand and the UK.

adjunct, “or even worse, as a kind of drudgery that must be endured in order to allow us to do our real ‘work’, which is research. It is not, that is, a fit subject for the graduate curriculum” (Kameen, 1995, p. 452).

- **Language requirements**

All PhD students of English in the US are expected to be able to prove basic proficiency (or a basic reading level comprehension) in at least one, and usually two, foreign languages. Proficiency usually means passing a test in the language (either oral or written) or, alternatively, showing proof on an official university transcript of passes in courses in a foreign language at third-year level or higher. Yale University requires PhD candidates in English to prove competency in *three* languages (*Peterson’s*, 1996, p. 710). *Peterson’s* records just two doctorate-granting English departments – State University of New York at Buffalo, and University of South Dakota – which do *not* require a foreign language. Interestingly, and an obvious sign of the times, *Peterson’s* also notes that in some English departments one of the foreign languages can be replaced by a “computer language”, and Carnegie Mellon University requires both a foreign language *and* a computer language (p. 686).

- **Preliminary and/or comprehensive examinations**

Once PhD students in English in the US have completed a specified amount of coursework, they face the prospect of an examination “which qualifies the successful student to begin the composition of his [*sic*] dissertation” (Allen, 1968, p. 60). Allen describes these examinations as covering “the full scope of English and American literature as contained in nine fields” at 33% of universities, and between four and eight fields at the others (p. 60). In an interview for the present study, a recent PhD graduate from a North American university described her exam requirements as follows:

Three comprehensive exams: one on the full sweep of literature in English (required of all graduates) and two on areas of my choice (mine were in 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> century American literature) (L).

- **The dissertation**

Allen (1968) reports that this takes an average of three years to complete, and is usually between 150 and 500 pages long. Rather depressingly, Ogden (1993) estimates that

nearly 50% [of North American PhD students] gave up and dropped out along the way. Usually the dropouts were those who completed the course work and exams BUT NOT THE DISSERTATION.... After years of working and paying for registration and dissertation credits, the university imposed time limit, usually seven years, ran out, and even with extensions, the student eventually just gave up. Obviously, most students get at least one time limit extension, since the median registered time exceeds that of the imposed limit (Ogden, 1993, p. 1).

While many MA programmes in English in North America offer candidates the opportunity to complete their Masters by course-work alone, without writing a thesis, all English PhD programmes require that candidates complete a dissertation; in fact it is the one requirement common to all programmes, according to listings in *Peterson's* (1996). Furthermore, the North American dissertation is expected to be as long as both the UK and New Zealand theses – benchmarks are usually around 300 pages or 100 000 words. Only one department appears to offer any kind of flexibility; the University of Toledo's listing states that candidates may complete a dissertation *or* a set of articles (p. 707).

While the North American programme may appear to offer more preparation than the UK or New Zealand one for the PhD student writing a dissertation, there is still a considerable amount of discontent:

In short, our dissertations are produced by honorable, hard-working people who, lacking a general education, read and take notes for a year or so in some isolated corner of the intellectual universe and then do the best they can with the pitifully inadequate intellectual habits picked up in a miscellaneous list of courses.... We tell them in effect: 'Just take a miscellaneous range of courses, with some distribution to fill in the gaps in your reading, then quickly choose an author or period or type or current school of criticism, dig into the topic for a year or two, say something about it that is more or less intelligible and preferably novel, and we'll give you the badge that just might get you a teaching job' (Booth, 1988, pp. 5-6).

In addition, the North American PhD programme in English has been accused by some critics of encouraging dissertation topics so obscure and specialized that they become almost worthless. As Wayne Booth suggests, "we produce more and more books for fewer and fewer readers" (1988, p. 26). Others agree:

Our students' research, constrained by the pressures of "specialization" and "coverage", does little to prepare them to breathe life into a neglected – dispirited – liberal arts curriculum (Slevin, 1989, p. 31).

The real danger is that graduate students will become specialists without perspective.... To avoid such narrowness an integrative component should be

built into every program. Specifically, we urge that all doctoral candidates be asked to put their special area of study in historical perspective and that time during graduate study should be devoted to social and ethical concerns. In such a program, the scholar should find metaphors and paradigms that give larger meaning to specialized knowledge (Boyer, 1990, p. 68).

Furthermore, as we have seen, many North American students find themselves so bogged down in the other demands of the PhD and in trying to keep themselves financially afloat, that some do not even finish their dissertations<sup>2</sup>.

- **Oral defence**

Again, according to *Peterson's* (1996) listings, practically all North American English departments require their PhD candidates to defend their dissertation orally. Little description is given of what such a defence entails, but Allen (1968) offers the following illuminating comments from candidates who have completed the process: “no one ever fails” (p. 70), “a joke”, “a farce”, “an amicable discussion”, “a congratulatory picnic” (p. 71) and “a waste of time” (p. 72). It would seem that, for many, the oral defence is merely a formality to be played out at the end of a very long process. Anecdotal evidence from my own research, however, reveals a more positive view of the oral defence from a recent graduate of a North American PhD programme. She felt that the oral helped her to develop as a “public intellectual” capable of presenting and defending her ideas in a public forum:

It was a chat and it was exactly the kind of thing you face from students in class; they could ask you anything and you have to negotiate how you're going to answer it.... Obviously the pedagogical techniques are different from answering in a defence situation, but [it emphasised] that lateral thinking ability...and the ability to engage in ideas with somebody and to talk intellectually. New Zealanders are not good at talking intellectually. That's something I've found frustrating coming back to actually (L).

- **Teaching expectations**

The issue of whether doctoral students should be expected to teach is not new in North America. Thirty years ago, Allen (1968) reported the following comments from English department chairmen:

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<sup>2</sup> Evelyn Ogden Hunt released a book in 1993 called *Completing your doctoral dissertation or master's thesis in two semesters or less*, a publication aimed at encouraging those students who are ABD (All But Dissertation) to get their dissertations finished.

“The Ph.D. training,” writes one chairman, “should have teaching requirements and those who show no ability as teachers should be denied the degree”. Another college man states that “narrowly trained pedants who cannot also teach writing and who do not enjoy teaching skills [or] have information outside their fields are of little use”.... One chairman regrets that the doctorate is no “badge of qualification for college teaching as it pretends to be, but a fraud on the students” (Allen, 1968, p. 80).

Is the North American PhD in English still as fraudulent in this respect? Many of the North American, particularly the US, PhD programmes expect their candidates to gain some teaching experience during the course of their degree. Practically all offer teaching assistantships and/or opportunities to graduate students, but many also provide courses on teaching and pedagogical issues:

The majority of departments in the sample state that they have added courses or internships designed to prepare students for their work as teaching assistants. Such courses carry credit in 40% of all doctoral programs; they are noncredit requirements in 19% (Huber, 1989, p. 123).

These statistics are a big leap from Allen’s estimate that only 31% of US doctoral programmes in English provided courses on pedagogical methods in 1968 (p. 197). In the late 1980s, according to Huber (1989), only 24% *did not* offer teaching courses at all (for credit, required or optional) (p. 162).

A fairly recent PhD graduate from a well-known North American university described her experiences of teaching in its English department very positively, praising the training she received in particular:

[It] is one of the few institutions in the country to actually *train* (what a concept!) its (English) teaching assistants! If one had previous university teaching experience (as I did) the training programme was optional, but we were expected to tag along to act as mentors for the novices. You didn’t get an assistantship otherwise, until you’d finished the one-year training programme (L).

But such experiences are not universal, and the statistics regarding teaching courses tell only a snippet of the full North American story regarding teaching during PhD study. Critics like Nelson (1997), Bérubé (1998) and Sims (1997) expose a dark, arguably even corrupt situation, over which PhD students appear to have little control, and which many administrators appear to deny even exists; PhD students in North America are, in many instances, being exploited as easily accessible and inexpensive labour for teaching

undergraduates, and are consequently spending much longer acquiring their PhD degrees than is necessary.

Sims (1997) argues that the real reason PhD students are getting more teaching experience is not because they need it as preparation for their own careers, but because undergraduate student numbers are rising rapidly and the universities need the cheap labour that a pool of financially-strapped graduate students provides. Critics estimate that the percentage of undergraduate teaching done by part-time faculty (including graduate students) at US universities is anywhere from 45 percent (Nelson, 1997; Newman, 1997; Bérubé, 1998) to 65 percent (Pratt, 1997):

A recent sampling of departments around the country for the American Association of University Professors found it was not uncommon for as much as 65 percent or more of instruction in Math, English, and modern languages to be in the hands of part-time faculty and graduate students (Pratt, 1997, p. 270).

Administrators' claims that graduate students do only 3 percent of the teaching (Levin in Robin & Stephens, 1997, p. 52) are disputed not only by statistics (see above) but also by individual testimonies:

During the chaos of the grade strike [at Yale, when graduate teaching assistants refused to hand in grades until their employment concerns were addressed and their union recognised as legitimate], it became very clear that the university could not function without our teaching and grading labor – or at least could not function for very long (Newman, 1997, p. 113).

A two-day walkout of teaching assistants on the Berkeley Campus of the University of California in the spring of 1989 caused the cancellation of nearly 75 percent of classes (Ziolkowski, 1990, p. 179).

In the light of such statistics and such experiences, it astounds many critics that administrators and some senior faculty members in English continue not only to allow the exploitation of graduate students as cheap labour, but also to excuse such exploitation by pigeon-holing the students as “apprentices”. Richard Levin, President of Yale University, wrote in a letter to “Friends and Graduates of Yale” that “we believe that graduate students are apprentice teachers and scholars, and the teaching they perform is part of their training” (Levin in Watt, 1997, p. 235). This would all be acceptable if such training were thorough, regular and sustained, if the “apprenticeship” did not last for a whole decade and if the “apprentice” was not responsible for so much work:

Universities persist in claiming graduate students teach as part of their doctoral training, not as employees, even though higher education is pervasively dependent on cheap instructional labor, with graduate assistants, postdocs, adjuncts, part-timers, or a mix of the above teaching exactly the same introductory courses on campus after campus. In the case of graduate teaching assistants, many of whom teach fifteen to twenty-five courses over six or seven years, the learning curve peaks years before the work ceases (Nelson, 1997, p. 25).

Not many people would wish to deny PhD students the *opportunity* to teach and gain valuable experience, but many believe that teaching should not be a *necessity* for PhD students:

Let their teaching be not a way of supporting themselves during graduate school but an integrated apprenticeship that takes place, perhaps, in their sixth or seventh semesters... We should explicitly provide such training in teaching as we can give, making students' teaching part of their training. Extensive experience will come later (Culler, 1989, p. 83).

The teaching that PhD students undertake should serve as an *enhancement* of their graduate learning experience and a furthering of their potential careers, not as a *distraction* which demands too much monotonously similar teaching of them, for too long, at too low a financial and pedagogical return:

we must...see to it that our doctoral students are better than mediocre teachers, and we should make more than ordinary effort to train them as teachers and measure their teaching skill....The recommendation that each graduate student be required to practise teaching is not a commendation of the long drawn-out teaching assistantship already denounced; it springs from the realization that it is unfair to society to send out pedagogically ignorant Ph.D.'s whose teaching powers are unknown and cannot be described (Allen, 1968, p. 117).

Allen made this bold statement in 1968 and it continues to resonate more than thirty years later, with apparently little progress having been made. Sims (1997) outlines similar recommendations from the Association of University Teachers, who suggest that teaching assistants should be paid at lecturers' wages, work a maximum of six contact hours a week, only *assist* academic staff (i.e., not design courses or exams), have a written contract guaranteeing them an income for at least four years so that they can finish their PhD, be exempt from paying fees (as high as \$19000 a year at Princeton, for example) and be adequately and appropriately trained and supported.

Without the freshman composition classes that so many of these North American PhD students are contracted to teach, the New Zealand programme, like its UK parent, cannot offer its PhD students as many teaching opportunities. This is, in some ways, a blessing in that PhD students are not exploited as “apprentices” by penny-pinching administrators and department heads, and in others a disadvantage in that New Zealand PhD students of English do not get the training in teaching and the teaching experience that future members of the profession need. Indeed, the New Zealand PhD programme is far more like the UK programmes than the North American ones.

### **5.1.3 The New Zealand PhD in English**

Current attitudes towards the PhD in English in New Zealand are not particularly positive, if written responses on the questionnaire are any indication. Many New Zealand English academics still seem inclined to favour the UK and US degrees over the New Zealand one, believing them to be more prestigious and thus more competitive. Responses to the statement in my survey that the New Zealand PhD offers students a sound preparation for an academic career demonstrated marked ambivalence. Forty percent of respondents remain neutral about whether it prepares students for an academic career in *New Zealand*, with 37.8% agreeing, and 22.3% disagreeing. The spread of responses remained fairly even regarding the *portability* of the New Zealand qualification— 34% were neutral, 34% agreed, and 32% disagreed with the suggestion that the New Zealand PhD adequately prepares students for an academic career *outside* New Zealand:

The training isn't as rigorous as it is at overseas universities where there is intense competition for admission to the PhD programme. And New Zealand graduates who also do PhDs in New Zealand don't have much variety of experience (AP).

I share the general prejudice in favour of OE (ST).

US Ivy League schools and major British universities are too prestigious for our graduates to compete (SL).

Other survey participants took issue with the notion of there even being “a New Zealand PhD”, claiming that *who* supervises your research is more important than *where* it is done: “There is a lot of snobbery about where you did your PhD. I don't think place matters very much so long as you have a good library, a good supervisor, and a good brain” (SL).

Furthermore, New Zealand English academics are very ambivalent about the purpose of the local PhD in English<sup>3</sup>. Some questionnaire respondents were clear that its purpose is to train academics: "If it be not, I know not what it be" (SL). However, a high thirty-four percent indicated a neutral response to the statement that "the purpose of the PhD programme in my department is to train academics". Thirty-nine percent disagreed, while only twenty-seven percent agreed. Citing the currently stagnant job market, many qualified their negative responses with comments regarding the impracticality and foolishness of training people for non-existent jobs. Others felt that the purpose of their department's PhD was to train *intellectuals*, not necessarily academics, and to "encourage and facilitate scholarship" (L), "open doors" (ST) and "instil a capacity for research" (L). One focus group member saw the PhD as "the [teacher] training college of the university" (P). But if New Zealand English cannot promise an academic future for its PhD students, *should* the purpose of the PhD be any more than training in research? Students, as the statistics in the following paragraph will show, would answer in the affirmative, with many of them maintaining the desire, futile as it may seem, to pursue an academic career (and not just in research).

Despite discouraging statistics regarding the university job market<sup>4</sup>, especially in English, many students continue to enrol in a PhD with the hope that it will lead to an academic career. Sixty-three percent of questionnaire respondents believe that most PhD students want to become academics, with only 12.5% disagreeing (the rest were neutral). This figure coincides with a 1994 UK survey which found that 65% of PhD students there had similar aims (Lueddeke, 1997, p. 143). Of course, there is anecdotal evidence to suggest otherwise, with one English HoD, for example, claiming that with

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<sup>3</sup> Many of the questionnaire responses fell into the "neutral" bracket, in part, perhaps, because at many institutions jurisdiction of the PhD degree is given to a university committee. For example, at Massey all matters to do with the PhD are dealt with by the university-wide Doctoral Research Committee (DRC) and all departments must consult the DRC about any changes to their PhD programmes, which leaves the English department little room for manoeuvre.

<sup>4</sup> Linda Ray Pratt estimates that in the US "about 90 percent of the English Ph.D.'s on the market in the next few years will not find a tenure-track job. More than 40 percent of recent Ph.D.'s in English won't secure any full-time position" (Pratt, 1997, p. 265). Meanwhile, in New Zealand, few English departments have made any recent appointments. Despite evidence of an ageing academic population (50% of full-time questionnaire respondents were over 50), recent human rights legislation means that not all these people will retire at 65, as in the past, while recent financial constraints mean that, even if they do, there is no guarantee that their positions will be filled. For example, the equivalent of two and a half full-time staff in one English department have retired in the last 18 months and not one of their positions looks likely to be filled.

one exception all of his PhD students had undertaken the PhD “simply for the sake of it”.

Still, as long as students set out with academic futures in mind, and as long as English departments continue to hire new staff (as infrequently as that may occur), it can be argued that English departments have a responsibility to ensure that the qualification which leads to a university career in English offers adequate preparation, in *all* aspects of the job. Furthermore, it is incumbent upon supervisors and HoDs to warn and counsel students about not only the dire job situation, but also the pressures inherent in full-time academic employment, including the increasingly difficult task of juggling teaching, research, administration and service to the community, discipline and university. A good PhD programme should surely address all of these issues: are there any in English in New Zealand that do?

Only three respondents expressed outright praise of their department’s PhD, and all of these clearly viewed the PhD solely in terms of the thesis itself, rather than as an overall programme of study:

In general, I think our graduates achieve as much as overseas students do (SL).

It has to be examined by at least one overseas expert, usually from the UK or the US, so if it meets their standards it ought to be as good as any of their own (SL).

The third comment does mention something other than the thesis – teaching – but in a purely negative way, in defence of the status quo:

I would not wish to see the academic quality of the PhD, as a sustained piece of research, watered down. The PhD provides the best preparation for the *intellectual* demands of an academic career. Preparation for *teaching* is not (and should not be) its purpose (L).

The suggestion that the PhD should provide preparation for teaching was, in fact, not made in the questionnaire, but this respondent’s comment encourages a wider consideration of what the New Zealand PhD in English *does* offer, and what it might offer in the future.

- **Coursework**

The North American pattern of coursework for the first one or two years was pinpointed by many respondents as a good example of how more comprehensiveness might be achieved in a rapidly diversifying discipline:

North American PhDs probably prepare people better to be academics because in North America they have this system where they insist on doing a lot of courses before you start the thesis, so it means that they probably have a lot more knowledge of the subject than our people do, especially now there's the tendency more and more for students to do twentieth century courses, and the roll is always lots bigger in the twentieth century courses. So, this means that we're going to get people with PhDs who don't know anything about literature before 1900. But I think that can't happen in the States (HoD).

Many of our students produce excellent theses, but the successive reductions in the number and scope of B.A. and M.A. papers over the last 30 years (exacerbated by semesterisation) combined with the expansion of the subject, means that the thesis-only Ph.D. is an anachronism (AP).

Clearly, many English academics in New Zealand believe that PhD students of English in New Zealand should have access to courses which would either broaden their field of research or help them focus their thesis topic.

The lack of coursework can make for a very narrow focus (SL).

The North American pattern is better – gives a wider base than the thesis-only pattern (P).

The American one has got the course work as well. I think it's more diverse, a better test of the whole person, whereas you can get some very odd people sitting down and writing theses, who are going to be hopeless. Hopeless, not only as teachers, but in other respects too (HoD).

However, while a number of respondents seemed keen on introducing some form of course work to the PhD, many also expressed concern at the frightening amount of background knowledge a well-rounded student of English should now be expected to possess. When one focus group began talking about the workload pressures students experience, one member recounted the following story:

I think [a high workload] limits their study of English literature every bit as much as it limits their ability to go out beyond the literature into say history, philosophy, politics, the other things that used to be the stock and trade of the enthusiastic undergraduate a generation back.... I recently had a Masters student who, when I made a reference to *The Tempest* said, "I haven't read any Shakespeare". And again, I've come across others who haven't read any Yeats, haven't read any Eliot, haven't read any Pope, you can just go through the whole Canon. I'm not wanting to open up the problem of canonicity here, but I do

think that we who profess the teaching of English studies at large need to consider that...we don't turn out undergraduates with even a working familiarity of English literature. Whether we should or not is another matter (SL).

Introducing course work at PhD level might help to combat issues of coverage not only for the PhD student, but also for the undergraduate students they may eventually teach. An academic whose PhD has offered some grounding in a broad sweep of literature will surely enrich the undergraduate classroom more than one who has spent their time focussed solely on a highly specialised topic.

In addition, the collegial nature of post-graduate seminars helps to develop PhD students' confidence, by forcing them to share their ideas with others in an intellectually demanding setting. One research participant described her positive experiences doing courses for her PhD in North America:

I think [the North American PhD] produces better public intellectuals, because you're going to contribute in seminars...you get practice in verbalising your ideas. You've got contact with all these different lecturers. You do coursework, six courses to start with in your first year. You meet lots of different staff members and you get different styles. You start building contacts with staff and with other students...if you can't get along with somebody, you'll get along with somebody else. So, yeah, [the New Zealand PhD] means more dependence on your supervisor, I suspect – more isolation, less encouragement to connect across different areas in English.... Exposure to a range of ideas is valuable. And when you take a course, what the staff are doing for you is selecting the ten to fifteen most important books in that field, and if you're doing the research yourself, you've got to really stumble through all that...you're doing the legwork yourself I suppose (L).

The social benefits of attending graduate seminars were also emphasised by a questionnaire respondent:

I took my PhD in North America and feel that the courses-comprehensive exams-thesis model is both a better professional training and a less lonely and more wide-ranging program [than the New Zealand one] (L).

Social issues feature strongly in people's condemnation of the current PhD offerings in English in New Zealand. Loneliness and a lack of contact with staff and other students distinguish the New Zealand PhD from the North American programmes in particular. Where most North American English departments have an average of "45 MA students and 48 PhD students" (Huber, 1989, p. 132), at least two English departments in New Zealand had just two PhD students apiece in 1998. In fact – in contrast to New Zealand

where any suitably qualified PhD students tend to be welcomed for the EFTS, and therefore money, they bring to the department – the numbers in North America are so great that the competition for entry into English graduate programmes is intense. In 1995, Harvard, for example, had 583 applications for study in the graduate MA and PhD programme and only 3% were accepted (*Peterson's*, 1996, p. 689). At the less prestigious universities, Arizona State for example, still only 37% of applicants were accepted into the graduate programme (p. 683). Even in Canada, the University of Victoria (one of the smallest English departments) accepts only 27% of the applications it receives for graduate study (p. 709). While the New Zealand PhD programmes in English are unlikely ever to reach such numbers or levels of competition, students *could* lead a less lonely existence if they attended graduate seminars and classes, along with MA and Honours students, perhaps.

The thing I feel sorry about in New Zealand is that we don't have the resources to give people the sort of training that you can get, say, in North America, particularly, where you do those preliminary courses as part of your PhD and I think that would be just wonderful...I'm just fascinated with the way they do it over there. But with our kind of ratios, we just can't do that (HoD).

Alternatively, more emphasis could be placed on ensuring that PhD students present their research to other departmental members in a seminar-type forum, *at least once* during the course of their study. Many departments in New Zealand already do this. At least one department has weekly graduate research seminars at which graduate students present progress reports on their research or give papers they have prepared and/or given at disciplinary conferences elsewhere. Others meet monthly, while at least two departments bring together their graduate students for such a seminar only once a year. When coursework is not an option for New Zealand PhD students of English, the opportunity to talk about their research with peers and teachers is invaluable and should be nurtured and developed as much as possible.

- **Examinations**

The perceived worth of the coursework component of the North American PhD programmes is matched in some respondents' estimations only by the value of the comprehensive examinations. In most programmes, candidates sit the exams at the end of their second or third years, after completing the required coursework and prior to beginning the dissertation process. As mentioned earlier, the comprehensive exams –

“comps” – usually involve one exam covering a whole range of literature, and two or three other exams in fields of the student’s choosing. Like coursework, “comps” enable the PhD student to cover more ground than a specialised thesis alone does. But they can also achieve more than mere field coverage, according to one interviewee:

Because I did my comprehensive exams in [three different areas], when the job description came up looking for someone who had either [or all of three different subjects], I could say, “Well, I’ve done a survey of all those areas”. So, it actually widens your pool of reading, and it means that you’re used to being asked questions, which is a bit better in the job interview because you’ve been interviewed in your final exam three times by the time you’ve done your PhD. And you’re ready to jump into it, because if you’ve done comps in a general area you’ve got an idea of what the key texts are...they might ask you what texts you would teach in a course, so you’d have the general knowledge to pick them out.... The comps force you to read and make connections, so that you don’t just have reading knowledge but you’re able to condense and synthesise it.... A lot of jobs now they’re looking for somebody who can start straight away...so, if you’re not ready to jump into your job, they won’t hire you (L).

Many believe, as this interviewee obviously does, that “comps” give the candidate both research *and* teaching experience, at least in terms of designing courses and curricula.

- **Teaching expectations**

“Comps” are not the only aspect of the North American PhD programmes to offer teaching experience: many programmes actually require their students to spend at least a term teaching, and/or complete a credit course on teaching methods and issues. Some New Zealand English academics believe we should be heading in this direction.

For research, it’s alright [*sic*]. But no attention is given to teaching issues (L).

[North American PhD students] also get a lot of experience in tutoring and also in *designing* courses, not just giving tutorials, so that does give them a strength when it comes to hiring (HoD).

I think probably the American system is better [than the New Zealand one] with the teaching built in. I mean, it’s only built in nominally in a lot of cases – tick the box if you’ve done some teaching – but at least you tick the box, whereas the British system that we have gives you no guarantees at all and we have picked up the odd bad teacher like that (HoD).

I am very interested in the PhD. I mean, how do we get our teaching experience? Many of us who did PhDs in the English system didn’t get it through the PhD; there was no teaching component at all. We became qualified to work in a university by something that had nothing to do with teaching. In the American system, often there is a bit of a teaching component, but it’s usually just tick the

box, this person has done some teaching, and that's all. So, I mean, how *do* university staff get trained to teach? (P).

PhD students in New Zealand English departments acquire teaching experience *de facto*, not as a result of any predetermined, formal, universally agreed requirement that teaching will feature in their PhD programme. They *are* usually given tutoring opportunities, but there is no expectation that they *will* teach. Rather, as one focus group member described the situation in his department, “they have a kind of in-built right if they want to ask us for teaching. We would feel sort of obliged to let them”. Such an obligation stems from a variety of issues: social, pedagogical, financial (for student *and* department), and professional.

At least two departments claim that they offer their PhD students tutoring opportunities as a means of combatting the loneliness many experience working only on a thesis, often not even on campus:

We encourage them to do a little bit of tutoring, partly to overcome the isolation of being a postgraduate (HoD)

It helps with the loneliness of the long-distance researcher; they have to have a social dimension to their work (AP).

That social dimension is important not only for the individual PhD student, but also, apparently, for the department as a whole:

We do see it as good for our students to have contact with graduate students who have been through the system, and have got to that stage. I think, also, in a department that looks as though we're not out of kilter with others (that is, an aging department), the whole issue of age becomes significant. In a department, especially in our case, that has a number of senior staff, staff would be perceived by students certainly as senior in terms of the hierarchy, and [it is important] to have younger teachers who are seen as more accessible, especially I think at first year level (AP).

Another focus group member agrees that younger PhD students often relate more easily to undergraduate students, and goes on to suggest that this has pedagogical advantages:

I think [they provide] good labour for the department, because PhD students make very good tutors. They're very committed and they often have a lot more time, or spend much more time than we perhaps can, helping individual students (L).

There are also financial benefits for the department in allowing PhD students to teach:

The reasoning behind giving PhD students teaching is simply that we've unthinkingly inherited the British system, and while a bit of teaching usually happened, it was more for the convenience of the department than part of the study (HoD).

PhD students cost less to employ than full-time academics, and many can be employed to teach first and second-year level courses, thus freeing up full-timers for teaching at higher levels. It is not just the department that reaps the financial benefits, however, and at least two HoDs said that one of the main reasons they offer tutorial teaching to PhD students is to help them out financially:

Occasionally we look at the students and we say, "Well, she's a bit poor or she's living on a scholarship; we'll try to find her a bit of teaching". So, yes, we give them a bit [of tutoring] to help them out financially, but it's certainly not related to the PhD itself (HoD).

We have certain criteria according to which we appoint [tutors]. And when all these criteria are satisfied we will then give preference to those who are graduate students so as to help these students financially (HoD).

A colleague of the second of these HoDs contradicted him, however, when he stated that the reasoning behind offering PhD students teaching work was largely professional:

The policy we have for the appointment of tutors is that preference is given to people who are doing MA and PhDs, and it is regarded as part of their professionalization – that was the term that was actually used when the department was working out that policy (SL).

Similar reasoning dictates policy in another department:

We offer them tutoring partly because they're potential academics, and we would want to see them practicing what they're preaching, in a sense. And also because it widens their familiarity with literature and ways of dealing with literature (AP).

Professional development is perhaps the most significant of all the reasons mentioned by HoDs and English academics for providing PhD students with teaching opportunities, despite the slow recognition of its importance:

We give them teaching for department convenience really, but there are...other things: we help them with money; it's good to have a pool of tutors, and there's an obvious source of tutors; and I think just to some extent now we're coming to realise that it will be good for them professionally to be able to say, "Look, I've done it". But it's still quite distinct from a PhD; it's really an add-on, because the system we've inherited is a pure research PhD (HoD).

The social and financial benefits to the department should not override the students' own needs. In an ideal situation, PhD students would be well enough funded through scholarships and grants not to have to *rely* on teaching to supplement their incomes. They would also be interacting with peers and academic colleagues in post-graduate seminars on a weekly basis for at least a year, so that teaching need not be undertaken *purely* for social reasons.

#### **5.1.4 Perestroika**

As desirable as a well-rounded knowledge of one's field of specialization may be, and as important as it is to have excellent teachers in college classrooms, those problems cannot be solved by the Ph.D. alone, which exists – as James well knew – for related but distinctly different purposes. Discussion about reforms of the degree should take care not to discard what is good and distinctive about the Ph.D. by seeking to make it serve too many purposes (Ziolkowski, 1990, p. 182).

So, what *is* good about the New Zealand PhD in English and should be kept? On the one hand, the opportunity to undertake doctoral study in New Zealand free of the constraints of coursework, examinations, and teaching expectations probably attracts a number of students. However, if a student undertakes a PhD with an academic future in mind, English departments and New Zealand universities arguably have a responsibility to ensure that such a PhD offers that student adequate, appropriate and internationally marketable training<sup>5</sup>. As Nyquist and Wulff suggest in their guide-book, *Working effectively with graduate assistants* (1996):

As an experienced instructor, you have an ethical responsibility to help others prepare as future colleagues and professionals. The graduate students are entitled to the best preparation they can receive for both their present and their future roles and responsibilities (Nyquist & Wulff, 1996, p. 8).

If New Zealand English departments hope to come close to providing “the best preparation”, major changes need to occur – a revolution, even. Is New Zealand English ready for “some serious *perestroika*” (Bérubé, 1997, p. 165)? If so, I would suggest the following.

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<sup>5</sup> One option may be to consider a doctoral degree in English specifically geared towards the *teaching* of English – something along the lines of the professional D.Eds or the Doctor of Arts: “The *doctor of arts* came into existence in the mid-1970s to facilitate better subject knowledge and pedagogical interests. Its relatively short history has been less than illustrious compared to the PhD, but it has had measured success against its more research-oriented counterpart” (Buchanan & Herubel, 1995, p. 5).

- **Introduce course work**

My first and most contentious (because also the most complicated, expensive, and time-consuming) suggestion is that New Zealand English departments should seriously contemplate the introduction of a course-work component in the PhD degree<sup>6</sup>. English departments should consider introducing new courses specifically geared towards preparing PhD students for an academic career in English.

As James Slevin (1989) suggests, because it is “in part a professional degree program<sup>7</sup>, the PhD curriculum should incorporate formal occasions not just for developing scholarship and improving teaching” (which a New Zealand PhD in English currently fails to do adequately) “but for inquiring about the profession of scholarship and teaching and about the institutions in which they occur” (p. 31). To this end, he outlines four courses that he feels would “make a significant contribution to any graduate program; taken together, they would form a core of advanced courses that would serve very well our doctoral students, their future departments and students, and the profession” (p. 31). These courses include:

- “The English Curriculum and its Contexts” (p. 31) – a look at the undergraduate curriculum and its purpose.
- “Scholarship and its Contexts” – an opportunity to “explore the professional and pedagogical as well as the scholarly, implications of the research one plans to undertake” (p. 33).
- “Teaching and its Contexts” – a course which “would resemble these fairly common ‘teacher-training courses’, but it would contextualize teaching and scrutinize it from the perspective of current theoretical controversies” (p. 34).
- “The Graduate Program and its Contexts” - a seminar which would “prepare doctoral students for the roles they might choose to play in the profession” (p. 37).

Understandably, the introduction of *four* such courses at PhD level in New Zealand English would be a task of gargantuan proportions, especially in light of the dearth of

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<sup>6</sup> PhD students might be given the opportunity, and even be expected, to enrol in courses taken by Honours and Masters students.

<sup>7</sup> Maxwell and Shanahan (1997) also argue that the PhD is a professional degree “since it has become a qualification required of most academics and certainly of most researchers” (p. 134).

current offerings, but a single course touching on these kinds of issues would serve PhD students well in the interim and could be taught by virtually any and all full-time academic staff in an English department.

- **Run regular seminar series**

If the introduction of course-work is too intimidating, or is simply not financially viable, English departments *must* offer their PhD students some alternative forum for presenting, expressing, and sharing their ideas with peers and colleagues, as noted above. One New Zealand English department currently runs a weekly postgraduate seminar at which Masters and PhD students present and discuss their research with other students. This seminar is run by and for the postgraduate students, and staff tend to go only if the students they are supervising are presenting, because “we had one or two unfortunate experiences when people just starting out felt a bit overwhelmed by comments and queries which perhaps weren’t as gentle as they might have been” (HoD). Such a seminar provides a valuable forum for students to get feedback on and inspiration for their work, and offers them a social environment which helps combat the loneliness of postgraduate study. It should be emulated by all other New Zealand English departments on, at the very least, a monthly basis.

- **Improve funding and facilities**

The lonely existence of a New Zealand PhD student of English can also be overcome by ensuring that all students who desire it have access to office space within the department. Such a suggestion may seem outlandish to some, especially in light of current budgetary constraints, but English departments need to start thinking about their priorities. If they want to continue attracting PhD students (or start, as the case may be in some departments), they have to make the prospect of graduate work in their department as inviting as possible:

We’re in a bind here, because we want their money basically, and the kudos that comes from having a few PhD students, so the whole system which is competitive is pushing us to take them, and then, of course, we can’t do anything with them (HoD).

Office space should be found for all PhD students who want it, even if this means sharing with one or two other students, and access to computer and library resources

should be easy and cheap. Such recommendations apply also to part-time tutors (See Section 4.3).

Perhaps even more important (though, admittedly, out of the control or jurisdiction of English departments), PhD scholarships and grants need to be reassessed and brought into line with recent staff pay increases and inflationary adjustments. These scholarships started at \$10,200 in 1991-1992 at all six universities, and it is unconscionable that most now stand at just \$12,000, with only one rise in the last decade.

- **Improve supervision**

One change that all English departments *can* make, with or without university help and funding, is to ensure that all the staff who supervise PhD students in the department are adequately and appropriately trained and supported. One institution has now made training courses for PhD supervisors mandatory, and all others should certainly follow suit.

- **Reassess thesis requirements**

Such a change could also be accompanied by a reassessment of the current requirements for the PhD thesis in English (and perhaps other subjects). If such changes as the inclusion of course-work are implemented, PhD students will need more time than the current two and a half to three year limit on the tenure of scholarships, and the five-year limit for completion imposed on all full-time PhD candidates, with or without scholarships. However, if thesis requirements were relaxed a little in terms of length, students might still need only three or four years to complete their PhD. One suggestion is that students be allowed to produce three article-length papers instead of a “book-length opus that is likely to go unread” (Winston, 1995, p. 60). One of the focus groups in the present study gave tentative support for such a step.

Enabling students to produce shorter pieces of work for their theses increases their chances of having something published before they complete their PhDs, and gives them a sense of the publishing expectations of life as a full-time English academic (though, of course, English academics also write books). As it is, few actually publish their PhD research:

Accepted wisdom and research indicates that a small but significant number of Ph.D.'s perform research and successfully publish their findings; however, the majority do not fall into this select group. With this knowledge in mind, critics consider the research emphasis over the more pedagogical interests to be an anathema to the majority of faculty lives (Buchanan & Herubel, 1995, p. 5).

- **Address issues relating to academic life as a whole**

But the expectations that full-time academics *will* publish, and the evidence that the university system rewards publication over teaching achievement mean that PhD students must be warned about and prepared for this aspect of their future as English academics. This means alerting them to the realities of the publishing world, as well as the difficulties inherent in maintaining a balance between teaching, research and service and administrative duties.

One way of easing students into publishing is for supervisor and student to produce one or more joint publications. This appears to happen rarely in English, especially in New Zealand, but would benefit both staff and students if it became a more common practice. Staff would improve their publication record and students would get a taste of publishers' expectations.

Attendance and presentations at conferences are other means of inducting PhD students into academic life, and should be encouraged and well-funded. By attending international conferences, students can overcome the relative isolation of intellectual life in New Zealand and meet students and staff from English departments around the world. By organising their own local conferences students can set up networks with other postgraduate students around New Zealand and create support and discussion groups.

Another activity New Zealand students of English could undertake is to produce a journal of their own, in which they can publish their own work, along with contributions from esteemed colleagues and critics in various fields. One such project already under way in New Zealand is *Deep South*, an award-winning electronic journal, published by postgraduate students in the English department at the University of Otago. It began in 1995 and has now become an established feature of the postgraduate programme at Otago, producing three issues annually on the Web, averaging 268 hits a day, and

providing an outlet for publication and discussion. Ruzy Hashim sums up the benefits for post-graduate students of such a venture, in the most recent (November 1998) editorial:

Doing a PhD can, at times, be a lonely and alienating undertaking because of the specificities and intensity of one's study. For many of us, however, the production of *Deep South* has brought post-graduates into close contact with each other and engendered a warm academic environment. More importantly, the skills acquired in selecting and editing articles have been extremely useful – I have certainly picked up tips along the way which have helped to sharpen my own prose and better refine my research analysis. ...I hope this electronic journal continues to provide post-graduates with an outlet to publish their work within an international community. Your contributions to *Deep South* are a valuable source of dialogue which encourage and promote academic discussion across many fields of interest (Hashim, 1998, p. 1).

Other English departments in New Zealand should encourage graduate students to contribute to *Deep South* or to undertake similar projects themselves.

- **Introduce teaching expectations**

The last suggestion again flies in the face of financial issues, pressures of time, motivation and priority, and the existence of a stubbornly comfortable status quo. All PhD students should be given the opportunity to gain teaching experience – a point that few would argue with, though not all carry it into practice. English departments should make this a priority and ensure that it actually happens:

Academics need to be both good scholars and good teachers, and not every doctoral student is given the opportunity to gain teaching experience (SL).

One way of guaranteeing that all PhD students spend some time in the classroom is by introducing a course (as mentioned at the beginning of Part 4.6.4) on teaching issues, theories and methods, which has a practicum requirement. It should be discipline-specific, and taught by English staff, with TLC guidance. It should contain a practical, evaluated component and it should count for credit towards the degree:

Presumably there's definitely room for including some of this in some of the PhDs and certainly there's nothing to stop us from developing some sort of teaching component or at least teaching experience (AP).

In addition to taking a teaching course, PhD students should be able to work in conjunction with full-time staff on curricular and assessment issues, as well as helping

with tutorials and lectures. Involving them in all aspects of teaching will serve as solid grounding for a chosen future in academia:

Doctoral programs should be as responsible for the nurturing and development of the art of teaching as they are for the cultivation of scholarship [in the narrow sense]. Such responsibility should involve the entire graduate faculty, if not in the sense of active (or even benign) supervision of new teachers, at least in an awareness of their own teaching, its theory and practice, and its politics (Comley, 1989, p. 44).

I think that on-the-job training which is continuous, and never stops, is what we really ought to be looking at, and sharing practice; and I think that happens best at a school or departmental level (SL).

All members of an English department need to ensure that PhD students, the future English professionals, know that teaching matters. Everyone needs to work together to make it matter more.

# PART SIX

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## *Conclusion*

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## 6.1 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

As this research has shown, teaching *does* matter in New Zealand university English departments. But it could matter more, and the notion of scholarship needs reconceptualisation in order for more value to be placed on teaching. Such reconceptualisation needs to come not only from individuals (who would rather devote time to activities for which they are adequately rewarded) but also from departments (which influence and enforce the cultures and systems that decide what activities get rewarded - and how) so that the university as a whole (which determines such cultures and sends the messages about what really matters) can implement, promote and support a broader notion of scholarship – one which values *all* the roles an academic undertakes and moves beyond the teaching/research binary currently afflicting the New Zealand academic system.

Both individually and collectively, New Zealand English academics must engage in critical, self-reflexive debate about teaching and research, about scholarship, and about the PhD programme in English. As Heather Murray (1996) suggests,

English...is a discipline which has been, paradoxically but quite characteristically, both inward-turned and lacking in self-reflexivity. Those who work in English are much more likely to have a strong sense of critical history than of disciplinary history; but we need to turn onto our own day-to-day practices the close, between-the-lines, and sceptical reading skills customarily reserved for texts. That will allow us to 'work in English' in an additional way, by taking the discipline itself, past and present, as a subject of scrutiny  
(Murray, 1996, p. 12).

Scrutinising ourselves, our practices, our perceptions, our values, and our priorities, as this thesis has attempted to do, will open doors for discussion, reflection and, hopefully, reconceptualisation and reform. And reform is clearly needed. As Part Four has shown, 97% of New Zealand English academics believe that teaching should be valued more, but less than half of them are actively and regularly involved in teaching development, in the form of seminars, workshops or discussion groups. Not one department regularly provides its own seminars or workshops on teaching and learning issues, and only two departments have identified staff members as links between the English department and the TLC. As suggested in Part Four, the following changes need to occur on an individual and departmental level in order for teaching to matter more:

- English academics must begin to reconceptualise their role as academics. The triennial English department conference offers a forum at which debate around this issue could occur.
- More discussion needs to take place about teaching – between individuals, as well as within and across departments.
- Peer review of teaching should be encouraged and supported.
- English departments should organise departmental or college/faculty teaching and learning seminars/forums/conferences.
- Publishing on teaching should be encouraged and rewarded.
- All English academics should work towards building a teaching portfolio to accompany promotion applications, as well as to provide a medium for critical reflection on teaching.

But most respondents feel little inclination to devote precious time, that might be more profitably directed towards research, to activities that the system fails to adequately reward or support. They feel (72%) that more emphasis needs to be placed on criteria other than publications in the evaluation of the scholarly performance of academic staff. Promotion policies claim equal weighting for teaching and research, but, my findings (and many other international studies) indicate that these proclamations simply are not matched in practice. Scholarship remains narrowly conceived as research, and academics continue to be well-rewarded for their roles as researchers, but not as teachers (despite the fact that teaching occupies most of their time and interest).

English academics need to demand more tangible evidence from university administrators of a proclaimed commitment to activities other than research, and call for a reassessment of academic priorities. In fact, the debate has to be university-wide and commitments need to be made *at all levels* in order for reform and reconceptualisation to occur. Promotion policies and the PhD programme need particular attention. In both, teaching is currently undervalued; indeed, in the PhD it is ignored almost completely. English academics could lead the call for reform by agitating for the following institutional changes:

- the appointment at department or college/faculty level of a special person responsible for discipline-specific teaching and learning development – for running

training programmes, facilitating discussion, organising seminars, encouraging peer- and self-assessment, co-ordinating part-time tutors, and liaising with the TLC.

- More substantial and accessible grants for teaching development.
- Sabbaticals and overseas leave dedicated to the development of teaching.
- Improved promotion policies and practices which take more account of teaching activities and achievements.
- The establishment of Teaching and Learning Committees at a senior level.
- The appointment of a Pro-, Assistant-, or Deputy-Vice Chancellor for Teaching.
- The introduction of substantial and competitive teaching awards and medals to match existing research ones.
- The dissemination of information on teaching through regular publications, and the organisation of university-wide Good Practice Days and Teaching and Learning Conferences.
- The provision of accessible, effective and appropriate initial training, and the expectation of long-term, ongoing professional development in teaching.

Change also needs to occur in the PhD programme in English. Only 37.8% of respondents agree that the New Zealand PhD in English prepares students for an academic career in a New Zealand university, while only 34% agree that it prepares them for one overseas, yet 63% believe that most PhD students want to become academics. If the PhD is indeed the qualification that opens the doors to academia, it should provide training that values research *and* teaching as equally important components of an academic's role. Such training would work towards reconceptualising the role of scholarship and, more particularly, creating a university culture in which teaching matters. To this end, the following reforms need to take place in the PhD programme in English in New Zealand:

- Introduce course work
- Run regular seminar series
- Improve funding
- Improve supervision
- Reassess thesis requirements
- Address issues relating to academic life as a whole
- Introduce teaching expectations.

Until we reconceptualise what it means to be a university academic, however, teaching *will* remain the poor cousin of research: undervalued, under-rewarded and under-funded. Teachers will continue to enter academia unqualified and untrained, and unwilling to risk promotion opportunities by devoting scarce research time to acquiring teaching qualifications and undertaking on-going training. Boyer's multi-faceted notion of scholarship and his call for a reassessment of academic priorities have been heeded by many institutions and critics in the US and the UK, as well as in Australia, and the time is well overdue for New Zealand to join the discussion.

## **6.2 IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

This thesis provides an interesting starting point not only for discussion, but also for future research. The multi-site nature of the case study has produced an overview of teaching practices, policies, and perceptions in New Zealand university English departments, as well as providing information on the PhD programme and on English academics' (both full- and part-time) attitudes towards teaching and the PhD. It has successfully combined quantitative survey information with qualitative interview and focus group material, as well as historical and official documentation and literature. And it has raised a number of important issues which warrant further development in the future.

One omission from this study was the lack of a student voice – a voice drowned out at the best of times by the clamouring of academics, administrators and politicians, and disregarded by me in this study, mainly for reasons of time, accessibility and expense. It would be interesting to adapt the questionnaire to a student audience and follow up such a survey with interviews and focus groups in order to draw comparisons and contrasts with the findings in this study.

Such focus groups would probably benefit from the presence of a facilitator, other than the researcher, as mentioned in Section 3.4.2. Without a facilitator, a number of risks present themselves, including the introduction of personal biases, and the possibility that all group members will not participate equally. These problems did not arise in the focus groups for this study, although participants did initially tend to address their comments

to me rather than to each other, thus restricting the flow of discussion. This soon rectified itself, however, and by the end of all three sessions discussion participants were interacting. Indeed, at all three groups, participants took time to tell me afterwards that they were grateful for the opportunity to sit down and talk about teaching with their colleagues in an unthreatening, supportive environment, where no decision-making or consensus was necessary. The organisation of the focus groups involved considerable time and effort from both me and the participants. But they proved extremely valuable, and if students are to be surveyed, focus groups must form part of the process.

The process of getting English academics to agree on a time and place for a focus group was at times like herding cats, but my efforts to secure the participation of the six HoDs in personal interviews bring to mind less flattering similes. Two HoDs acquiesced as willingly as a cat being scratched behind her ears, but the others ran behind the washing machine and were only enticed out with placatory promises of the warm spot by the fire-place, or scared out with the introduction of the big tom-cat supervisor. One HoD remains firmly ensconced in the laundry, and I wonder what more I could have done to entice him out.

The reluctance of some HoDs could be attributed to an unfamiliarity with or dislike of the proposed research methods, an unwillingness to submit to any form of scrutiny, and/or a disregard for the importance of the issues at hand. Or maybe they were simply too busy. As one HoD wrote, "I really don't want to answer yet another long questionnaire, let alone in consultation with my colleagues who are constitutionally incapable of agreeing on anything". Attitudes like this are hard to overcome, and, in retrospect, there is probably very little I could have done, short of eliminating departments with reluctant HoDs from the study, to increase participation from HoDs. I would certainly like to have interviewed all of the HoDs, however, as well as many other staff.

As Hoinville, Jowell and associates (1989) say, "a group discussion with eight people lasting between one and two hours will not produce nearly as much detailed information as eight separate interviews" but "group discussions are quicker and cheaper to organise" (p. 13). Time and expense restricted the number of interviews in this project, and more would certainly have been desirable, especially on issues arising from focus

groups and the questionnaire. I would like to have interviewed some part-time staff, as well as the following:

- A recent PhD graduate (i.e., one who graduated in the last five years) from a UK university now working in New Zealand
- A recent PhD graduate from a New Zealand university working in New Zealand
- Staff members who graduated with PhDs from North American, UK and New Zealand universities more than twenty years ago, and are now working in New Zealand
- Staff members who have worked in both the New Zealand and North American and/or UK systems
- Students
- University administrators.

Should someone consider undertaking a similar project in another discipline or subject area they would do well to consider the inclusion of interviews with the groups and individuals listed above. It would be interesting if such a project could be devoted to another discipline or subject area. This would produce interesting results for comparison with English. Because so little has been written on the teaching of English in universities, the concentration on this particular discipline is important, but it also represents one of the major limitations of this thesis. Time, money, experience, and resources restricted me to one discipline, when a comparison with one or more other academic subjects would almost certainly have proved revealing.

The exclusive focus on teaching presents another limitation, in that I run the risk of perpetuating the standard binaries – teaching and research, teaching and learning, teachers and learners, full-timers and part-timers – which belie the fluidity and malleability of an academic's role. Hopefully, my continual reference to Boyer's multi-faceted notion of scholarship and my echoes of his call for a reconceptualisation of the academic's role have moved some way towards bridging these binaries and enveloping them in a wider notion of scholarship. It would be interesting for someone in the future to undertake a phenomenographic study of English academics' attitudes towards scholarship.

Finally, a fuller study of archival documents, memoirs, and historical texts would help generate a better understanding of traditional notions of scholarship in English. By understanding where they have come from, “English people” can learn to better appreciate what they are. And this self-reflexivity may in turn bring about a reconceptualisation of their role for the future.

# PART SEVEN

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## *Appendices and references*

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6 July 1998

## TEACHING IN NEW ZEALAND UNIVERSITY ENGLISH DEPARTMENTS

My name is Kathryn Sutherland and I am a PhD student and tutor in the School of English and Media Studies at Massey University, Palmerston North. With a working title of "Does Teaching Matter? Attitudes towards Teaching in New Zealand University English Departments," my thesis involves a survey of academic staff in the six New Zealand university English departments (or equivalent).

The purpose of this project is to gauge professional opinion on a number of issues, and in particular

- the extent to which teaching is valued in New Zealand university English departments, and
- the extent to which the PhD programme in New Zealand universities prepares English graduates to undertake teaching at university level.

The attached questionnaire asks for your opinion on matters related to these issues. It contains 51 questions and should take about half an hour to complete. As an academic staff member of a New Zealand university English department, you are invited to complete the attached questionnaire.

In accordance with the Massey University Code of Ethical Conduct, you have the right to decline to participate and/or to refuse to answer particular questions. Once I have received the complete questionnaire from you, however, I will take this as evidence of informed consent to use the data that you provide in my research.

The information you provide will be treated in strict confidence. Only I and my supervisor, Wayne Edwards, will see the raw data which I will store in a locked filing cabinet until my PhD thesis is complete; I will then destroy the data. Anonymity is guaranteed for respondents. I have asked you to identify yourself on the cover sheet of the questionnaire simply so that I can then remove your name from the list of non-respondents. On receipt of your completed questionnaire, I will remove this sheet and assign a code number so that your response will remain anonymous. Opinions and perceptions of individuals will not be disclosed.

A summary report of the data will be distributed to participating departments and all respondents will be invited to participate in a focus group at their institution to discuss the results. The information generated from these focus groups will also be incorporated into the final thesis, copies of which will be held in the Massey library, as per usual procedure for PhD theses.

Associate Professor Wayne Edwards is supervising this research and he can be contacted at (06) 351-3368 or [W.L.Edwards@massey.ac.nz](mailto:W.L.Edwards@massey.ac.nz). I thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Please return it in the stamped, self-addressed envelope.

Yours sincerely

Kathryn Sutherland  
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# YOUR VIEWS ABOUT VALUING AND REWARDING TEACHING

1) Please indicate, by circling a number, the extent to which you think a) teaching and b) research IS VALUED and SHOULD BE VALUED in the contexts specified:

	IS VALUED					SHOULD BE VALUED				
	Not at all				A great deal	Not at all				A great deal
<b>a) Teaching</b>										
i) in your university	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
ii) in your department or school	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Comments:

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**b) Research**

i) in your university	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
ii) in your department or school	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Comments:

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2) Please indicate, by circling a number, the extent to which you think each item or activity listed below IS VALUED and SHOULD BE VALUED in making decisions about APPOINTMENTS at your university:

	IS VALUED					SHOULD BE VALUED				
	Not at all				A great deal	Not at all				A great deal
a) the number of publications	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
b) reputations of the presses or journals publishing the books or articles	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
c) published reviews of the scholar's books	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
d) research grants received by the scholar	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
e) lectures or papers delivered at professional meetings or at other universities	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
f) recommendations from other staff within the institution	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
g) recommendations from current or former students	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
h) recommendations from outside scholars	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
i) qualifications in teaching	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
j) experience in teaching	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
k) syllabi for courses taught	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
l) observations of teaching by colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Please use the back of each page if you need room for more comments

Page 1 of 10

m) student evaluations of courses taught		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
n) personality		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
o) production of extra-mural study guides	N/A	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
p) other (Please specify)		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Comments:

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3) Please indicate, by circling a number, the extent to which you think each item or activity listed below IS VALUED and SHOULD BE VALUED in making decisions about PROMOTION at your university

		IS VALUED					SHOULD BE VALUED				
		Not at all	A great deal				Not at all	A great deal			
a) the number of publications		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
b) reputations of the presses or journals publishing the books or articles		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
c) published reviews of the scholar's books		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
d) research grants received by the scholar		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
e) lectures or papers delivered at professional meetings or at other universities		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
f) recommendations from other staff within the institution		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
g) recommendations from current or former students		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
h) recommendations from outside scholars		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
i) qualifications in teaching		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
j) experience in teaching		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
k) syllabi for courses taught		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
l) observations of teaching by colleagues		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
m) student evaluations of courses taught		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
n) personality		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
o) production of extra-mural study guides	N/A	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
p) other (Please specify)		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Comments:

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Please answer the following questions (4-26) by choosing a number from the following scale

1 – STRONGLY DISAGREE

2 – DISAGREE WITH RESERVATIONS

3 – NEUTRAL

4 – AGREE WITH RESERVATIONS

5 – STRONGLY AGREE

4) Effectiveness as a teacher should be a primary criterion for promotion of academic staff

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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5) At my institution we need more emphasis on criteria other than publications in the evaluation of the scholarly performance of academic staff

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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6) The pressure to publish reduces the quality of teaching in my department

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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7) The pressure to teach reduces the quality of research in my department

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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8) Time spent on documenting teaching effectiveness is time well spent

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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9) Teaching development grants should be given to individual academics to encourage good teaching

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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10) Special arrangements (eg release from other duties, funding for replacement staff) should be made to enable staff to undertake teaching development programmes

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

11) A person with special responsibility for teaching development should be appointed within each New Zealand university English department/school or college/faculty

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

12) A senior university committee should exist at each institution, or within each department or school, which oversees educational practices, including good teaching and assessment practices

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

13) Accreditation as a competent university teacher should be a requirement for all permanent academic staff members

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

14) Poor teachers should be denied annual increments/merit pay

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

15) Disciplinary procedures should be in place to deal with instances of unsatisfactory teaching

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

16) Collaboration and discussion about teaching happens on a regular basis in my department

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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17) The working environment within my department ensures that I gain intrinsic satisfaction from teaching students

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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18) My department provides and/or encourages workshops and seminars on teaching and learning in English

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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## YOUR VIEWS ABOUT THE PHD

19) The New Zealand PhD offers a sound preparation for an academic career in New Zealand

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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20) The New Zealand PhD offers a sound preparation for an academic career outside New Zealand

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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21) The purpose of the PhD programme in my department is to train academics

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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22) Most PhD students in my department want to become academics

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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# YOUR VIEWS ABOUT THE DISCIPLINE OF ENGLISH

23) English is the most important subject at university

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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24) Writing should be a compulsory first year subject for all university students in New Zealand

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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25) All English academic staff should teach writing for at least some fraction of their contact hours

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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26) All English academic staff should teach literature for at least some fraction of their contact hours

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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27) Rate as a percentage the importance of teaching the following in the discipline of English at university

- a) writing skills \_\_\_\_\_ %
- b) literary theory \_\_\_\_\_ %
- c) literature \_\_\_\_\_ %
- d) other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_ %

Comments:

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## YOUR OWN TEACHING AND RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

28) Approximately how many books/monographs have you published (including edited works) alone or in collaboration?

- a) \_\_\_\_\_ None
- b) \_\_\_\_\_ One to Five
- c) \_\_\_\_\_ Six to Ten
- d) \_\_\_\_\_ Eleven or more

29) Approximately how many articles have you published in academic or professional journals?

- a) \_\_\_\_\_ None
- b) \_\_\_\_\_ One to Five
- c) \_\_\_\_\_ Six to Ten
- d) \_\_\_\_\_ Eleven or more

30) During the past two years, have you attended any teaching workshops or seminars? (Please tick)

- a) No \_\_\_\_\_
  - b) Yes \_\_\_\_\_ (Please specify)
- 

31) During the past two years, have you read any recent literature on teaching generally, or on pedagogical theories or practices within the discipline of English?

- a) No \_\_\_\_\_
  - b) Yes \_\_\_\_\_ (Please specify)
- 

32) Do you belong to any discussion/peer groups which meet on a regular basis to discuss teaching and share teaching practices and experiences? (Please tick)

- a) No \_\_\_\_\_
- b) Yes \_\_\_\_\_

33) To assess your own teaching do you: (please tick all that apply)

- \_\_\_\_\_ a) use student evaluations of your classroom teaching
- \_\_\_\_\_ b) keep a regularly updated teaching portfolio/dossier
- \_\_\_\_\_ c) self-evaluate your own teaching
- \_\_\_\_\_ d) encourage peer review of your classroom teaching
- \_\_\_\_\_ e) encourage peer review of your syllabi, examinations, and other teaching materials
- \_\_\_\_\_ f) keep track of continuing student interest (ie majors, course enrolments)
- \_\_\_\_\_ g) videotape and analyze with a staff developer your classroom teaching
- \_\_\_\_\_ h) solicit student opinions/recommendations/comments
- \_\_\_\_\_ i) solicit alumni opinions/recommendations/comments
- \_\_\_\_\_ j) other

34) Please indicate, as a percentage, the amount of time you think you spend on each of the following activities in a regular week

- a) teaching (including preparation and marking) \_\_\_\_\_ %
- b) research \_\_\_\_\_ %
- c) service (to university and/or community) \_\_\_\_\_ %
- d) administration \_\_\_\_\_ %

Comments:

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35) Do your interests lie primarily in research or in teaching?

- \_\_\_\_\_ a) primarily in research
- \_\_\_\_\_ b) in both, leaning to research
- \_\_\_\_\_ c) equally in research and teaching
- \_\_\_\_\_ d) in both, leaning to teaching
- \_\_\_\_\_ e) primarily in teaching

## BACKGROUND INFORMATION

36) Female / Male (*Please circle*)

37) Position in department (*Please tick*)

- a) Professor
- b) Associate Professor / Reader
- c) Senior Lecturer
- d) Lecturer
- e) Associate / Assistant Lecturer
- f) Senior Tutor
- g) Tutor
- h) Other (*Please specify*) \_\_\_\_\_

38) Status (*Please tick*)

- a) Full time
- b) Part time
- c) Probationary appointment
- d) Limited term contract
- e) Other (*Please specify*) \_\_\_\_\_

39) Age Group (*Please circle*)    20-29    30-39    40-49    50-59    60+

40) Do you have a PhD/Doctorate? (*Please tick*)

- a) No (*move on to question 42*)
- b) Yes

41) From which university did you receive your PhD? \_\_\_\_\_

42) If you don't have a PhD, please indicate your highest level qualification

- a) Bachelor's
- b) Grad diploma
- c) MA
- d) MPhil
- e) Other (*Please specify*) \_\_\_\_\_

43) Do you have any teaching qualifications?

- a) No
- b) Yes (*Please specify*) \_\_\_\_\_

44) How many years have you been teaching in tertiary education? \_\_\_\_\_ years

45) How many years have you been teaching at your university? \_\_\_\_\_ years

46) Have you previously taught at any of the following? (*Please tick all which apply*)

- a) Primary school
- b) Secondary school
- c) Polytechnic
- d) College of Education
- e) Other (*Please specify*) \_\_\_\_\_

47) Have you been a candidate for promotion in the last two years? *(Please tick)*

a) No *(move on to question 49)*

b) Yes

48) Was your application successful?  a) No  
 b) Yes

49) How many hours a week do you spend teaching? \_\_\_\_\_ hours

50) Please indicate the levels you teach *(Please tick all which apply)*

a) 100-level / 1<sup>st</sup> year / Stage One

b) 200-level / 2<sup>nd</sup> year / Stage Two

c) 300-level / 3<sup>rd</sup> year / Stage Three

d) Final Year BAHons (Undergraduate)

e) BAHons (Graduate)

f) Postgraduate Diploma

g) Master's level taught papers

h) Master's supervision

i) PhD supervision

j) Other *(Please specify)* \_\_\_\_\_

51) Any further comments

Thank you for your time. Please return the questionnaire in the stamped, self-addressed envelope provided.

*Please use the back of each page if you need room for more comments*

Page 10 of 10

## TEACHING IN NEW ZEALAND UNIVERSITY ENGLISH DEPARTMENTS

My name is Kathryn Sutherland and I am a PhD student and tutor in the School of English and Media Studies at Massey University, Palmerston North. With a working title of “Does Teaching Matter? Attitudes towards Teaching in New Zealand University English Departments,” my thesis involves a survey of part-time teaching staff in the six New Zealand university English departments.

The full-time academic staff in your department were also invited to complete a similar survey, and your Head of Department has recently been sent a questionnaire asking for details about policies and procedures regarding teaching in your department. The purpose of this whole project is to gauge professional opinion on a number of issues, and in particular

- the extent to which teaching is valued in New Zealand university English departments, and
- the extent to which the PhD programme in New Zealand universities prepares English graduates to undertake teaching at university level.

The attached questionnaire asks for your opinion on matters related to these issues. It contains 40 questions and should take about half an hour to complete. As a part-time staff member of a New Zealand university English department, you are invited to complete the attached questionnaire. You have the right to decline to participate and/or to refuse to answer particular questions. Once I have received the complete questionnaire from you, however, I will take this as evidence of informed consent to use the data that you provide in my research. The information you provide will be treated in strict confidence. Only I and my supervisor, Wayne Edwards, will see the raw data which I will store in a locked filing cabinet until my PhD thesis is complete; I will then destroy the data. Anonymity is guaranteed for respondents. I have asked you to identify yourself on the cover sheet of the questionnaire simply so that I can then remove your name from the list of non-respondents. On receipt of your completed questionnaire, I will remove this sheet and assign a code number so that your response will remain anonymous. Opinions and perceptions of individuals will not be disclosed.

A summary report of the data will be distributed to participating departments and all respondents will be invited to participate in a focus group at their institution to discuss the results. The information generated from these focus groups will also be incorporated into the final thesis, copies of which will be held in the Massey library, as per usual procedure for PhD theses. Professor Dick Corballis, from the School of English and Media Studies, Ph: (06) 350 5017, and Associate Professor Wayne Edwards from the Department of Educational Studies, Ph: (06) 351 3368, are supervising this research should you wish to contact them. Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Please return it in the stamped, self-addressed envelope provided.

Yours sincerely



Kathryn Sutherland  
PhD Student, School of English and Media Studies  
Massey University, Palmerston North  
E-mail: K.A.Sutherland@massey.ac.nz

# YOUR VIEWS ABOUT VALUING AND REWARDING TEACHING

Please indicate, by circling a number, the extent to which you think 1) teaching and 2) research IS VALUED and SHOULD BE VALUED in the contexts specified:

	IS VALUED					SHOULD BE VALUED				
	Not at all			A great deal		Not at all			A great deal	
<b>1) Teaching</b>										
i) in your university	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
ii) in your English department	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Comments:

---



---

## 2) Research

i) in your university	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
ii) in your English department	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Comments:

---



---

Please answer the following questions (3-18) by choosing a number from the following scale

- 1 – STRONGLY DISAGREE
- 2 – DISAGREE WITH RESERVATIONS
- 3 – NEUTRAL
- 4 – AGREE WITH RESERVATIONS
- 5 – STRONGLY AGREE

3) Effectiveness as a teacher should be a primary criterion for promotion of academic staff

1 2 3 4 5 No opinion

Comments:

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---

4) At my institution we need more emphasis on criteria other than publications in the evaluation of the scholarly performance of academic staff

1 2 3 4 5 No opinion

Comments:

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5) The pressure to publish reduces the quality of teaching in my department

1 2 3 4 5 No opinion

Comments:

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6) The pressure to teach reduces the quality of research in my department

1 2 3 4 5 No opinion

Comments:

---

---

---

7) Time spent on documenting teaching effectiveness is time well spent

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

---

---

---

8) A person with special responsibility for teaching development should be appointed within each New Zealand university English department/school or college/faculty

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

---

---

---

9) A senior university committee should exist at each institution, or within each department or school, which oversees educational practices, including good teaching and assessment practices

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

---

---

---

10) Accreditation as a competent university teacher should be a requirement for all permanent academic staff members

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

---

---

---

11) Disciplinary procedures should be in place to deal with instances of unsatisfactory teaching

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

---

---

---

12) Collaboration and discussion about teaching happens on a regular basis in my English department

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

---

---

---

13) The working environment within my English department ensures that I gain intrinsic satisfaction from teaching students

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

---

---

---

14) My department provides and/or encourages workshops and seminars on teaching and learning in English

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

---

---

---

15) I am paid fairly for the teaching I do in the English department

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

---

---

---

16) I feel valued by my senior colleagues in the English department

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

---

---

---

17) The training I received before I started teaching in the English department was sufficient

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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---

---

18) I am provided with adequate working space, materials, and resources for teaching in the English department

1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

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19) Part-time teachers in the English department last received a pay rise in 19\_\_?

## YOUR OWN TEACHING AND RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

20) Approximately how many books/monographs have you published (including edited works) alone or in collaboration?

- a) \_\_\_\_\_ None
- b) \_\_\_\_\_ One to Five
- c) \_\_\_\_\_ Six to Ten
- d) \_\_\_\_\_ Eleven or more

20.1) Approximately how many articles have you published in academic or professional journals?

- a) \_\_\_\_\_ None
- b) \_\_\_\_\_ One to Five
- c) \_\_\_\_\_ Six to Ten
- d) \_\_\_\_\_ Eleven or more

21) During the past two years, have you read any recent literature on teaching generally, or on pedagogical theories or practices within the discipline of English?

- a) No \_\_\_\_\_
- b) Yes \_\_\_\_\_ (*Please specify*)

22) During the past two years, have you attended any teaching workshops or seminars? (Please tick)

- a) No \_\_\_\_\_
- b) Yes \_\_\_\_\_ (*Please specify*)

23) Do you belong to any discussion/peer groups which meet on a regular basis to discuss teaching and share teaching practices and experiences? (*Please tick*)

- a) No \_\_\_\_\_
- b) Yes \_\_\_\_\_

- 24) To assess your own teaching do you: *(please tick all that apply)*
- a) use student evaluations of your classroom teaching
  - b) keep a regularly updated teaching portfolio/dossier
  - c) self-evaluate your own teaching
  - d) encourage peer review of your classroom teaching
  - e) encourage peer review of your syllabi, examinations, and other teaching materials
  - f) keep track of continuing student interest (ie majors, course enrolments)
  - g) videotape and analyze with a staff developer your classroom teaching
  - h) solicit student opinions/recommendations/comments
  - i) solicit alumni opinions/recommendations/comments
  - j) other *(please specify)*

- 25) Do your interests lie primarily in research or in teaching?
- a) primarily in research
  - b) in both, leaning to research
  - c) equally in research and teaching
  - d) in both, leaning to teaching
  - e) primarily in teaching

## BACKGROUND INFORMATION

26) Female / Male *(Please circle)*

27) Position in department *(Please tick)*

- a)  Associate /Assistant Lecturer
- b)  Senior Tutor
- c)  Tutor
- d)  Grad assistant
- e)  Other *(Please specify)* \_\_\_\_\_

28) Status *(Please tick)*

- a)  Probationary appointment
- b)  Limited term contract
- c)  Permanent
- d)  Other *(Please specify)* \_\_\_\_\_

29) Age Group *(Please circle)*      Under 20      20-29      31-39      40-49      50-59      60+

30) Do you have a PhD/Doctorate? *(Please tick)*

- a) No *(move on to question 42)*
- b) Yes

31) From which university did you receive your PhD? \_\_\_\_\_

32) Are you currently working towards a PhD?

- a)  No
- b)  Yes *(If yes, how far away do you think you are from completion?)* \_\_\_\_\_

33) If you don't have a PhD, please indicate your highest level qualification

- a) Bachelor's
- b) Grad diploma
- c) MA
- d) MPhil
- e) Other (*Please specify*) \_\_\_\_\_

34) Do you have any teaching qualifications?

- a) No
- b) Yes (*Please specify*) \_\_\_\_\_

35) How many years have you been teaching in tertiary education? \_\_\_\_\_ years

36) How many years have you been teaching at your university? \_\_\_\_\_ years

37) Have you previously taught at any of the following? (*Please tick all which apply*)

- a) Primary school
- b) Secondary school
- c) Polytechnic
- d) College of Education
- e) Other (*Please specify*) \_\_\_\_\_

38) How many hours a week do you spend teaching? \_\_\_\_\_ hours

39) Please indicate the levels you teach (*Please tick all which apply*)

- a) 100-level / 1<sup>st</sup> year / Stage One
- b) 200-level / 2<sup>nd</sup> year / Stage Two
- c) 300-level / 3<sup>rd</sup> year / Stage Three
- d) Final Year BAHons (Undergraduate)
- e) BAHons (Graduate)
- f) Postgraduate Diploma
- g) Master's level taught papers
- h) Master's supervision
- i) PhD supervision
- j) Other (*Please specify*) \_\_\_\_\_

40) Any further comments:

Thank you for your time. Please return the questionnaire in the stamped, self-addressed envelope provided.

### 7.1.3 APPENDIX THREE – HOD QUESTIONNAIRE



School of English and  
Media Studies  
Private Bag 11 222,  
Palmerston North,  
New Zealand  
Telephone: 64 6 356 9099  
Facsimile: 64 6 350 5672

, HoD  
Department of English  
University of

Wednesday 7 October 1998

Dear

My name is Kathryn Sutherland and I am a PhD student and tutor in the School of English and Media Studies at Massey University, Palmerston North. Recently, you and many of your colleagues completed a questionnaire for me that asked for your opinion on teaching in New Zealand university English departments, the PhD programme, and the discipline of English. I am now attempting to discover just what actual *policies and procedures* are in place, and what *practices* are followed with regard to teaching and learning in English departments at New Zealand universities. The attached questionnaire deals with three areas:

- Courses
- Teaching
- Part-time staff

Each section contains between six and nineteen questions, varying in length and style. You may decline to answer any or all of the questions. Some will require a straight yes or no answer; others ask for in-depth written answers that may also require some research. As the head of your department, you are invited to answer these questions (with the help of other department members if appropriate) and return the questionnaire to me by Monday the 2<sup>nd</sup> of November. If necessary, I will call/e-mail you to clarify any issues raised by your response.

I will produce a summary report of the data, which I will send to all participating heads of departments. The information you provide will also be used in my PhD thesis, copies of which will be held in the Massey library, as per usual procedure for PhD theses.

As you know, I intend to organise focus meetings at your institution to discuss the results of my July survey which all full-time academic staff were invited to complete. In the course of the same visit, I would like to interview you concerning issues related to the hiring and promotion of staff. I shall provide, in advance, a copy of the questions for this interview and later telephone you to arrange a suitable interview time.

You have the right to decline to participate in the interview and/or to refuse to answer particular questions; you may also ask that the interview be terminated at any time. I will interview you on the basis that I will be able to use whatever information you give me in my PhD thesis, unless you indicate otherwise during the course of the interview. We will discuss these issues of anonymity and confidentiality at the start of the interview and they will be outlined in a consent form for you to sign before we proceed.

Professor Dick Corballis and Associate Professor Wayne Edwards are supervising this research and they can be contacted at the following numbers and e-mail addresses:

Dick Corballis - Ph: (06) 350 5017 or [R.P.Corballis@massey.ac.nz](mailto:R.P.Corballis@massey.ac.nz)

Wayne Edwards - Ph: (06) 351 3368 or [W.L.Edwards@massey.ac.nz](mailto:W.L.Edwards@massey.ac.nz)

I thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Please return it in the stamped, self-addressed envelope provided.

Yours sincerely



Kathryn Sutherland  
PhD Student, School of English and Media Studies  
Massey University, Palmerston North  
E-mail: [K.A.Sutherland@massey.ac.nz](mailto:K.A.Sutherland@massey.ac.nz)

## Teaching and Learning in New Zealand university English departments

### SECTION ONE – COURSES

- 1) What are the enrolment figures for the writing course offered in your department?
- 2) Who teaches this course?
  - a) \_\_\_ full-time staff
  - b) \_\_\_ part-time staff
  - c) \_\_\_ graduate students
  - d) \_\_\_ a combination of the above (please elaborate)
- 3) Do you know of any similar courses (on academic writing/ composition/ communication) elsewhere in your university? Please describe them.
- 4) Please list any first year courses where enrolment is 150 or more.
- 5) Who teaches these courses?
  - a) \_\_\_ full-time staff
  - b) \_\_\_ part-time staff
  - c) \_\_\_ graduate students
  - d) \_\_\_ a combination of the above (please elaborate)

### SECTION TWO – TEACHING

- 1) Does the department employ any academic staff with teaching and/or administrative responsibilities only? (i.e., no research duties or expectations)
  - a) \_\_\_ No
  - b) \_\_\_ Yes
  - 1.1) What are these positions called?
  - 1.2) How many such positions are there?
  - 1.3) Are they full-time or part-time?
  - 1.4) When were these positions first created?
  - 1.5) What expectations do you have of these staff during the Christmas vacation, i.e., are they expected to do research, or to engage in other work for the department?
- 2) What kind of teacher training is available to full-time academic staff?
- 3) Is there any *mandatory* training?
  - a) \_\_\_ No
  - b) \_\_\_ YesComments:
- 4) Are full-time staff expected to undertake *ongoing* professional development as teachers?
  - a) \_\_\_ No
  - b) \_\_\_ Yes
  - 4.1) How is this monitored?

- 5) Is there a mentoring system in place in your department for academic staff?  
 a)  No  
 b)  Yes  
 5.1) How well is this system utilised?
- 6) Are teaching development grants available to academic staff in your department?  
 a)  No  
 b)  Yes  
 Comments:
- 7) Are special arrangements (e.g., time release) made for staff involved in teaching development projects?  
 a)  No  
 b)  Yes  
 Comments:
- 8) Is funding available to replace staff on teaching development projects?  
 a)  No  
 b)  Yes  
 Comments:
- 9) Is your department actively involved with your university's academic development unit in encouraging high quality teaching and learning in your department?  
 a)  No  
 b)  Yes  
 9.1) In what ways?
- 10) Does your department or faculty have a committee which oversees teaching?  
 a)  No  
 b)  Yes  
 Comments:
- 11) Does your department provide workshops and/or seminars on teaching and learning?  
 a)  No  
 b)  Yes  
 11.1) Please describe
- 12) Does your department or university present any awards for teaching excellence?  
 a)  No  
 b)  Yes  
 Comments:
- 13) Does your department or university offer bonuses/merit pay/increments for good teaching?  
 a)  No  
 b)  Yes  
 13.1) Please specify.
- 14) What procedures are in place to assess teaching in your department?

### SECTION THREE – PART-TIME TEACHING STAFF

Please employ the help of other department members to answer this, and any other section of the questionnaire, if necessary.

Most New Zealand university English departments employ part-time staff to help with teaching in the department. They are called, variously, “tutors”, “casual assistants”, and “teaching assistants”. The following questions refer specifically to staff employed by your department to undertake teaching on a *part-time* basis (I will call them tutors). They may be temporary, permanent, or casual employees, but the questions *do not* refer to full-time staff with solely teaching responsibilities.

- 1) What title do you give to part-time teaching staff in your department?
  - a) \_\_\_\_\_ tutors
  - b) \_\_\_\_\_ teaching assistants
  - c) \_\_\_\_\_ casual assistants
  - d) \_\_\_\_\_ teachers
  - e) \_\_\_\_\_ other (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_
  
- 2) How many part-time tutors does your department employ? \_\_\_\_\_
  
- 3) How many of these part-time tutors are students?
  - a) Undergraduate \_\_\_\_\_
  - b) Honours level \_\_\_\_\_
  - c) Diploma level \_\_\_\_\_
  - d) MA/MPhil \_\_\_\_\_
  - e) PhD \_\_\_\_\_

TOTAL \_\_\_\_\_
  
- 4) Turnover: Estimate the average time a part-time tutor will remain in your department’s employment:
  - a) less than 6 months \_\_\_\_\_
  - b) 1 year \_\_\_\_\_
  - c) 1.5 years \_\_\_\_\_
  - d) 2 years \_\_\_\_\_
  - e) 3 years \_\_\_\_\_
  - f) 4 years \_\_\_\_\_
  - g) 5 years or more \_\_\_\_\_
  
- 5) Please describe the pay scale, pay rates, and method of payment for part-time tutors in your department. For example, if part-time tutors can move up a pay-scale, please indicate this, and if tutors are paid an hourly wage, please indicate what that hourly wage includes (eg \$45 = 1 hour preparation, 1 hour marking, 1 hour teaching).
  
- 6) What courses do part-time tutors in your department teach?
  - a) 100 level \_\_\_\_\_ (Please list - use back of page if you need more room)

- b) 200 level \_\_\_\_\_ (Please list)
  - c) 300 level \_\_\_\_\_ (Please list)
  - d) Graduate level \_\_\_\_\_ (Please list)
  - e) Other \_\_\_\_\_ (Please specify)
- 7) Do any part-time tutors in your department have sole responsibility for a course/s?  
 a) \_\_\_\_\_ No  
 b) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes  
 7.1) Please describe
- 8) Do any graduate students have sole responsibility for a course/s?  
 a) \_\_\_\_\_ No  
 b) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes  
 8.1) Please describe
- 9) Do graduate students in your department give lectures?  
 a) \_\_\_\_\_ No  
 b) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes
- 10) Are part-time tutors given office space in your department?  
 a) \_\_\_\_\_ No (Please go on to Question 11)  
 b) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes (Please continue with this question)

Shared Office/Room

Please tick if your department provides the following facilities, and cross if they don't.

- a) own desk \_\_\_\_\_
- b) shared desks \_\_\_\_\_
- c) phone \_\_\_\_\_
- d) filing cabinet \_\_\_\_\_
- e) books on teaching \_\_\_\_\_
- f) teaching resources \_\_\_\_\_
- g) stationery \_\_\_\_\_
- h) private space to meet with students \_\_\_\_\_
- i) mailbox \_\_\_\_\_
- j) computer \_\_\_\_\_
  - private \_\_\_\_\_
  - shared \_\_\_\_\_
  - networked \_\_\_\_\_
  - unnetworked \_\_\_\_\_
- k) other \_\_\_\_\_ (Please describe)

Own office / Room

Please tick if yes, cross if no.

- a) phone \_\_\_\_\_
- b) filing cabinet \_\_\_\_\_
- c) stationery \_\_\_\_\_
- d) mailbox \_\_\_\_\_
- e) computer \_\_\_\_\_
  - networked \_\_\_\_\_
  - unnetworked \_\_\_\_\_
- f) books on teaching \_\_\_\_\_
- g) teaching resources \_\_\_\_\_
- h) other \_\_\_\_\_

- 11) Do tutors in your department receive access to photocopying facilities?

- a) \_\_\_\_\_ No
- b) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes funded by department \_\_\_\_\_ must pay for themselves \_\_\_\_\_

- 12) What kind of training is offered to part-time tutors in your department?
- training *day* (Please describe, using back of page for more comments)
  - training *course* (Please describe)
  - ongoing training with campus academic development unit (Please describe) eg, Certificate in Tertiary Teaching over two year period
  - mentoring (Please describe)
  - other (Please specify)
- 13) Does the department pay the providers of this training?
- No
  - Yes
- 13.1) Please describe
- 14) Are tutors paid to attend any of the training?
- No
  - Yes
- 14.1 Please describe
- 15) How often do part-time tutors in your department meet formally to discuss teaching?
- Weekly
  - Fortnightly
  - Monthly
  - Twice yearly
  - Annually
  - Other (Please specify)
- 16) What is the nature of these meetings? Eg, brown bag lunch, formal committee meeting, marking meeting, whinge session, teaching seminar etc
- 17) Does your department fund/provide on-going professional development for part-time tutors?
- No
  - Yes
- 17.1) Please describe
- 18) Do you have a tutors' representative present, with full voting rights, at department meetings?
- No
  - Yes
- 19) Is there any other information about tutoring in your department which you would like me to know? (Please use the back of the page if you need more room).

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

## 7.1.4 APPENDIX FOUR – REMINDER LETTER



**MASSEY  
UNIVERSITY**

*Private Bag 11222  
Palmerston North  
New Zealand  
Telephone 64-6-356 9099  
Facsimile 64-6-350 5672*

*School of English and  
Media Studies*

*College of Humanities  
and Social Sciences*

**TURITEA CAMPUS**

4 August 1998

### **Survey of Attitudes to Teaching in New Zealand University English Departments**

## **REMINDER**

Thank you very much if you have already returned your survey.

If you have not yet had the time to complete your survey, please try to do so by **August 17** so that your comments may be included. This research is part of my PhD thesis and its validity depends on a reasonable response rate, so I would appreciate your participation.

I will be conducting focus groups and/or interviews at each institution once the data has been collected and summarised. Please let me know if you are interested in participating.

If you have any concerns, or if you need another copy of the survey, please do not hesitate to contact me, either by phone, (06) 350 4940, or e-mail:  
K.A.Sutherland@massey.ac.nz.

Thank you very much for your assistance.

Yours sincerely

Kathryn Sutherland  
PhD Student  
School of English and Media Studies  
Massey University, Palmerston North

## 7.1.5 APPENDIX FIVE – FOCUS GROUP REQUEST



**Massey University**  
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES

School of English and  
Media Studies  
Private Bag 11 222,  
Palmerston North,  
New Zealand  
Telephone: 64 6 356 9099  
Facsimile: 64 6 350 5672

Dr.  
University  
Private Bag

COPY

4 February 1999

Dear

Last year, you and many of your colleagues completed a survey for me on your attitudes towards teaching in the English department at \_\_\_\_\_ and in New Zealand. The information generated from that survey, completed by both full and part time staff members in all six university English departments in New Zealand, has been very useful for my PhD research and I am now holding focus groups at interested institutions. I am writing to ask if you would be interested in participating in such a focus group at your institution.

I have already held successful focus groups at \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_, which have generated a lot of interesting information, and I would now like the opportunity to hear your views on the results of the surveys.

The \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ focus groups lasted about an hour and a half each, and participants talked freely about the survey results with each other, asking questions of me as necessary. My role was really to observe and listen, gathering more data in the process. Both groups found the sessions beneficial in that they brought academic staff together in a different setting to talk about many important issues not often considered outside formal staff meetings.

I enclose a copy of the summary of the survey results. If you are interested in participating in a focus group to discuss this document, please let me know as soon as possible, by phone, mail, or e-mail: [K.A.Sutherland@massey.ac.nz](mailto:K.A.Sutherland@massey.ac.nz). If enough of you are interested, I will contact you to make arrangements about a time and place and so on. Alternatively, if you do not wish to participate in a focus group, please feel free to read the enclosed document and respond in writing if you have any comments.

I thank you for your time and consideration and I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read 'K.Sutherland'.

Kathryn Sutherland  
PhD Student and Tutor

## 7.1.6 APPENDIX SIX – FOCUS GROUP INFORMATION SHEET

Tuesday

Dear

“Does Teaching Matter? Attitudes Towards Teaching  
in New Zealand University English Departments”  
**FOCUS GROUP**  
**Friday 10.45am**

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this focus group. There will be five other participants, and the session will be facilitated by Associate Professor

As the researcher and compiler of the data, I will start by introducing the project and identifying what I believe to be some of the key issues. I hope that you will all read over the enclosed summary of results and identify what **you** see to be key issues for discussion on Friday.

The discussion will be facilitated by an impartial observer whose role is to ensure that all participants are heard fairly. You may choose not to speak at any time during the session and you are under no obligation to answer any questions. You may leave the room at any time. The session will probably last a minimum of an hour and will continue until participants wish to stop. Breaks will happen as necessary. We will establish such time frames as a group at the beginning of the session.

The session will be audio taped. Only I will hear the tape and I will transcribe it as soon as possible and then destroy it. Anonymity is guaranteed and your identity will not be revealed in my thesis unless you give me permission to do so. You will receive a consent form to sign on the day, which will indicate your willingness to be audio taped.

Results of the research will be written up as part of my PhD thesis, and will be available for public perusal, as per regular procedures, once it is complete.

Thank you very much for agreeing to take part in this focus group. I look forward to meeting with you on Friday morning.

Yours sincerely



Kathryn Sutherland.

**7.1.7 APPENDIX SEVEN – FOCUS GROUP/INTERVIEW CONSENT FORMS**

**Teaching and Learning in New Zealand University English Departments  
CONSENT FORM FOR INTERVIEW**

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the interview 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 interview 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 will not be used without my permission. *(The information will be used only for this research and publications arising from this research project).*

I agree / do not agree to the interview being audio taped. (I also understand that I have the right to ask for the audio tape to be turned off at any time during the discussion.)

I agree to participate in this interview under the conditions set out in the information sheet and discussed on the phone with the researcher.

Signed: .....

Name: .....

Date: .....

**Teaching in New Zealand university English departments  
CONSENT FORM FOR FOCUS GROUP  
Tuesday 13 April, 10.00am**

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the focus group 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 I have the right to withdraw from the discussion 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 will not be used without my permission. (The information will be used only for this research and publications arising from this research project).

I agree/do not agree to the interview being audio taped.

I also understand the I have the right to ask for the audio tape to be turned off at any time during the discussion.

I agree to participate in this focus group under the conditions set out in the information sheet.

Signed: .....

Name: .....

Date: .....

## 7.1.8 APPENDIX EIGHT: HOD FOLLOW UP INTERVIEW



School of English and  
Media Studies  
Private Bag 11 222,  
Palmerston North,  
New Zealand  
Telephone: 64 6 356 9099  
Facsimile: 64 6 350 5672

HoD, English Department

26 January 1999

Dear

Last year several of your academic staff members, both full time and part time, completed surveys for me on their attitudes towards and opinions about teaching in the English Department at \_\_\_\_\_ and in New Zealand. The information generated from these surveys, and those completed by staff members in the other five university English departments, has been very useful for my PhD research and I am now holding focus groups at interested institutions. If you think any of your academic staff would be interested in participating in a focus group to discuss the results of these surveys, please let me know and we can arrange a suitable time for me to visit your department. I enclose a summary of results; more copies are available.

In addition, \_\_\_\_\_ completed a separate survey on teaching policies and procedures in your department. It would be of great benefit to my research if I could conduct a follow-up interview with you with regard to this survey, and ask you some questions about the PhD programme in your department. My supervisor, Dick Corballis, is going to be in \_\_\_\_\_ on the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> of February and I wondered if this might be a suitable time for me to visit as well, if you are willing to see me. Would you please let me know, either by mail or e-mail: [K.A.Sutherland@massey.ac.nz](mailto:K.A.Sutherland@massey.ac.nz). Many thanks.

Yours sincerely



Kathryn Sutherland

## FOLLOW UP QUESTIONS FOR HOD INTERVIEW

### HIRING

The following are criteria often considered in the appointment of new staff:

- speciality
- teaching experience/ability
- publication record
- references
- administrative responsibilities/experience
- community service
- age
- gender
- and many others.

1a) What criteria have you generally privileged in the past?

1b) Have you given special emphasis to one or more of them in *recent* appointments?

Please specify.

- 2) Have any new academic staff appointed in the last decade NOT had a PhD? What position(s) were they hired for?
- 3) Are any members of your department soon due to retire? Do you think their positions will be filled or do you think they will be left empty?
- 4) Is your department expanding/stable/getting smaller?
- 5) What kind of people do you intend to hire in the future; are you looking for people with particular specialities or attributes: e.g. a postcolonial specialist, a women's literature specialist, a writing and communications person, a medievalist etc?

### PROMOTION

The following questions may require different answers depending on the level of the person applying for the promotion. If this is the case, then please indicate the differences at each level.

- 1) How much influence do you, as the Head of Department, have, or feel you have, over promotions?  
No influence at all / A small influence / A fair influence / A considerable influence / I make the decision
- 2) What are the most important criteria for the candidates applying for promotion in your department? Please indicate what sorts of things the department looks for, and also, if they differ, what the university promotions committee looks for.
- 3) Are staff in your department likely to be promoted if they have not recently published anything?
- 4) Are staff in your department likely to be promoted if they have recently received poor student evaluations or peer reviews of their teaching?



### 7.1.9 APPENDIX NINE: SAMPLE QUESTIONS FOR PART-TIME COORDINATORS' INTERVIEWS

- 1) Who are your tutors? Students – MA/PhD – Other?
- 2) What criteria, if any, do you have for selection of tutors?
- 3) Do you have an introductory session for tutors at the beginning of the year before classes begin? Describe.
- 4) Are workshops for tutors run in the department/in the university? Describe.
- 5) Who runs the workshops?
- 6) How often are they held?
- 7) Are they compulsory or voluntary? Paid or unpaid?
- 8) If voluntary, are they well-attended?
- 9) Are you satisfied with the training offered to tutors at present or do you think more could be done?
- 10) Do tutors themselves seem happy or do they want more?
- 11) Do you think *full-time* staff need more training opportunities?
- 12) Is there a close relationship with the English department and the academic development unit?
- 13) Is there anything else about teaching in the English department that you think I should know?

### **7.1.10 SET OF QUESTIONS FOR INTERVIEW WITH RECENT PHD GRADUATE**

- 1) Where did you do your PhD?
- 2) What requirements were there for completion?
- 3) Was there an expectation that you would teach?
- 4) How long did it take to complete?
- 5) Did it adequately prepare you for your life as an English academic?
- 6) How do you think New Zealand PhDs in English compare with North American ones?
- 7) What kinds of methods were used for assessing teaching in the English department in which you did your PhD?
- 8) Anything else to add on the PhD or teaching in English?

### **7.1.11 APPENDIX ELEVEN: SAMPLE OF QUESTIONS FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING CENTRE INTERVIEWS**

Show them a copy of the Audit Report table. Explain that I will go over each item and clarify that the Audit Report got it right, and establish what changes have occurred since the Audit Report was published.

- 1) Appointment – any developments?
- 2) Induction – any developments? Is there a university-wide policy yet?
- 3) Mentoring – is this still only at department level?
- 4) Peer evaluation – Nothing is mentioned in the Audit Report about peer evaluation of teaching. Is there any happening? Are any training sessions offered by the TLC?
- 5) Teaching portfolios – has anything happened in this area?
- 6) Student evaluation – any developments?
- 7) Facilitated discussion, CEQ, Teaching Development Grants – none were mentioned in the Audit Report but are offered at other institutions. Is anything offered in any of these areas here? Any plans to introduce any of them?
- 8) Tutors and training – more university-wide yet? Any new developments?
- 9) Teaching and learning committee – anything?
- 10) Good teaching practices shared – any plans for TLC publications or events?
- 11) TLC support – up date? Future plans?
- 12) Postgrad certificate in tertiary teaching – any plans to offer one?
- 13) Do you have a liaison person within the English department?
- 14) What is your relationship like with the English department?
- 15) Anything else you think I might need to know?

**ORIGINAL AUDIT REPORT GRAPH**  
**Teaching and learning policies, procedures and practices**  
*(Based On NZ Universities Academic Audit Unit Reports)*

	<b>AUCKLAND</b>	<b>WAIKATO</b>	<b>MASSEY</b>	<b>VICTORIA</b>	<b>CANTERBURY</b>	<b>OTAGO</b>
<b>1) APPOINTMENT</b> - Interview required	✓	X not mentioned	X Not always	X Only for senior appointments	X But short listed candidates visit dept	X Not always
<b>2) APPOINTMENT</b> - Teaching Ability	✓	X not mentioned	X	X	X	✓
<b>3) INDUCTION</b>	✓ only 25% attend	✓ Not compulsory Varies dept to dept	✓ Mandatory for all new staff	✓ Not compulsory Varies dept to dept	✓ Not compulsory Varies dept to dept	✓ Thorough
<b>4) PROBATION</b>	"Continuation" interview – mixed reports	✓ 4 years – thorough 2 have failed in last 10 years	✓ 5 years for profs 3 years for other staff	✓ 2 not confirmed because of poor teaching	X	✓ 4 years Staff have failed because of teaching performance
<b>5) MENTORING</b>	Needs more attention. More training necessary	✓ "Colleague-in-support" – needs to be UW-wide	✓ Dependent on department though	✓ Departmental only. No overall monitoring or quality process	✓ One-third of depts only – more support necessary	✓ "Staff facilitation" Variable
<b>6) PEER EVALUATION</b>	✓ Materials being prepared to increase use of peer evaluation	X not mentioned	✓ not obligatory	✓ required for promotion	X not mentioned	✓ But colleague evaluators need training
<b>7) TEACHING PORTFOLIOS</b>	✓ CPD offers seminars	X not mentioned	✓ TDU has written a paper on their use	✓ - of sorts. Needs more explanation	X not mentioned	✓ necessary for promotion
<b>8) STUDENT EVALUATION</b>	✓ Recent review with sound recommendations	X An appraisal system but action needs to be taken on 1994/1996 review	✓ Began properly in 1998 – SET's successor	X End-of-course evaluation, but students need feedback	X End-of-course evaluation, but not acted upon	X Students receive little feedback
<b>9) FACILITATED DISCUSSIONS</b>	X not mentioned	X not mentioned	✓ Apparently good work being done	✓ But need more leaders	X not mentioned	X not mentioned
<b>10) CEQ</b>	✓ moving towards it	X not mentioned	✓	X not mentioned	X not mentioned	✓
<b>11) TUTORS AND TRAINING</b>	✓ CPD offers some training and a Tutor's Training Certificate	✓ TLDU offers some training – varies by department	X not mentioned	X not mentioned	✓ Optional – should be mandatory	✓ 3 day course. More consistency needed OU-wide
<b>12) TEACHING AND LEARNING COMMITTEE</b>	✓ Education Committee of Senate	X Quality Assurance Committee?	X	✓ Academic Comm includes Workload & Assessment Comms	✓ Academic Staff Development Committee	✓ Teaching and Learning Excellence Committee

	<b>AUCKLAND</b>	<b>WAIKATO</b>	<b>MASSEY</b>	<b>VICTORIA</b>	<b>CANTERBURY</b>	<b>OTAGO</b>
<b>13) TEACHING DEVELOPMENT GRANTS</b>	✓ Teaching Improvement Grants - \$30 000 for 15 grants in 1997	X not mentioned	✓ FIET - Fund for Innovation and Excellence in Teaching - \$180 000	✓	X not mentioned	✓
<b>14) TEACHING / MERIT AWARDS</b>	✓ Distinguished Teaching Award	✓ Merit awards	X not mentioned	✓	X not mentioned	X not mentioned
<b>15) TEACHING &amp; LEARNING PLAN/ TASKFORCE</b>	✓ Deeply self-critical report from T & L Taskforce	X not mentioned	✓ Working Party on Teaching and Assessment	X but recommended	X Code of Teaching Practice (1996) – still not implemented	✓ TLP and TRPs
<b>15) ALTERNATIVE CALENDAR</b>	✓ AUSA – 30% input – needs more factual info	✓ WSU	X not mentioned	X not mentioned	✓ UCSA carried out and published all student evaluations TILL '93– now ERAU, but UCSA still publishes results	X not mentioned
<b>16) CLASS REPS</b>	✓ AUSA trained – effectiveness dependent on staff and HoD support	✓ But little central policy – WSU conducted a review in 1995	✓ But only 30% of departments are involved	✓ But very fragmented – more meetings are necessary	✓ 700 each year	✓ Depends on staff and department support
<b>17) FACULTY DEANS / REPS FOR TEACHING &amp; LEARNING</b>	✓ The five larger faculties have associate deans – role varies	X not mentioned	X not mentioned	X not mentioned	X not mentioned	✓ HEDC fellows = seconded HEDC associates = people in department
<b>18) GOOD TEACHING PRACTICES SHARED</b>	✓ “Innovations in Learning” and “Talking about Teaching” – 2 publications from CPD re awards/grants	X But TLDU keeps a note of good teachers	X	X	✓ Good teacher seminars, but thinly attended (usually only by other “good teachers”)	✓ At HEDC courses – use good teachers to lead seminars etc
<b>19) T&amp;L CENTRE WELL-SUPPORTED</b>	✓ Some low attendance at important courses	X Academic staff see it as relevant to general staff only	✓	✓	X seen as only for very bad or very good teachers	✓
<b>20) POSTGRAD DIP TERTIARY TCHG</b>	X Working on a Diploma	X	X In the pipeline for 2000	X	X	✓ 8 enrolled so far

**REVISED AUDIT REPORT GRAPH**  
**Teaching and learning policies, procedures and practices**  
*(Based On NZ Universities Academic Audit Unit Reports)*

	AUCKLAND	WAIKATO	MASSEY	VICTORIA	CANTERBURY	OTAGO
1) APPOINTMENT - Interview required	✓	X Depends on level	X Not always	✓ But can be by phone	✓ Yes	X Not always
2) APPOINTMENT - Teaching Ability	✓	X Depends on level	X	X Depends	X Informally. Have to give a tchg seminar	✓
3) INDUCTION	✓ only 25% attend	✓ Not compulsory Varies dept to dept	✓ Mandatory for all new staff	✓ Compulsory now	✓ Not compulsory Varies dept to dept	✓ Thorough
4) PROBATION	“Continuation” interview – mixed reports	✓ 4 years – thorough 2 have failed in last 10 years	✓ 5 years for profs 3 years for other staff	✓ 2 not confirmed because of poor teaching	X	✓ 4 years Staff have failed because of teaching performance
5) MENTORING	Needs more attention. More training necessary	✓ “Colleague-in-support” – needs to be UW-wide	✓ Dependent on department though	✓ Departmental only. New project started with women	✓ One-third of depts only – more support necessary	✓ “Staff facilitation” Variable
6) PEER EVALUATION	✓ Materials being prepared to increase use of peer evaluation	X Some departments. FHSS policy due.	✓ not obligatory	✓ required for promotion	X Nothing systematic UC wide	✓ But colleague evaluators need training
7) TEACHING PORTFOLIOS	✓ CPD offers seminars	X Not university-wide	✓ TDU has written a paper on their use	✓ - of sorts. Needs more explanation	X Being introduced. Pilot phase.	✓ necessary for promotion
8) STUDENT EVALUATION	✓ Recent review with sound recommendations	X An appraisal system – action needs to be taken on 1994/1996 review – Close.	✓ Began properly in 1998 – SET’s successor	✓ Comprehensive system including Fast Feedback and SeaVUW.	✓ Teaching surveys (private) and course surveys (public).	✓ Teaching questionnaire for promotion purposes. Student questionnaire for diagnostic ones.
9) FACILITATED DISCUSSIONS	X not mentioned	✓ Structured discussions	✓ Apparently good work being done	✓ But need more leaders	✓ Small Group Instructional Diagnosis	X not mentioned
10) CEQ	✓ moving towards it	X not mentioned	✓	X No	X Looking at it 1999	✓
11) TUTORS AND TRAINING	✓ CPD offers some training and a Tutor’s Training Certificate	✓ TLDU offers some training – varies by department	✓ Compulsory for all new tutors. Based in colleges and depts.	✓ Train the trainers system.	✓ Optional – should be mandatory. Department based.	✓ 3 day course. More consistency needed OU-wide
12) T & L COMMITTEE	✓ Education Committee of Senate	✓ One working on a T & L Plan	✓ Workgroup for T & L Plan.	✓ Academic Comm	✓ T & L Comm now established	✓ T & L Excellence Committee

	<b>AUCKLAND</b>	<b>WAIKATO</b>	<b>MASSEY</b>	<b>VICTORIA</b>	<b>CANTERBURY</b>	<b>OTAGO</b>
<b>13) TEACHING DEVELOPMENT GRANTS</b>	✓ Teaching Improvement Grants - \$30 000 for 15 grants in 1997	X Not really.	✓ FIET - Fund for Innovation and Excellence in Teaching - \$180 000	✓ About \$30 000 for whole university. Not well-reported on.	X Working on travel awards and seeding grants for teaching initiatives.	✓
<b>14) TEACHING / MERIT AWARDS</b>	✓ Distinguished Teaching Award	✓ Merit awards	X System proposed for merit pay. Bonuses at promotion	✓	X Teaching medal proposed, like Research medal.	X not mentioned
<b>15) TEACHING &amp; LEARNING PLAN/ TASKFORCE</b>	✓ Deeply self-critical report from T & L Taskforce	X In process now.	✓ T & L Plan drafts - 2 in 1998	X In the Strategic Plan but stagnated with restructuring	✓ Now a TLP at university level	✓ TLP and TRPs
<b>15) ALTERNATIVE CALENDAR</b>	✓ AUSA - 30% input - needs more factual info	✓ WSU	X not mentioned	X not mentioned	✓ UCSA carried out and published all student evaluations TILL '93 - now ERAU, but UCSA still publishes results	X not mentioned
<b>16) CLASS REPS</b>	✓ AUSA trained - effectiveness dependent on staff and HoD support	✓ But little central policy - WSU conducted a review in 1995	✓ But only 30% of departments are involved. Being revised.	✓ Revised system doing very well.	✓ 700 each year	✓ Depends on staff and department support
<b>17) FACULTY DEANS / REPS FOR TEACHING &amp; LEARNING</b>	✓ The five larger faculties have associate deans - role varies	X No.	X No.	X Ass Dean of Students in each Faculty.	X Pro VC Academic focusses on T & L. Department contacts.	✓ HEDC fellows = seconded HEDC associates = people in department
<b>18) GOOD TEACHING PRACTICES SHARED</b>	✓ "Innovations in Learning" and "Talking about Teaching" - 2 publications from CPD re awards/grants	✓ "TLDU Talk" - a publication of teachers talking teaching.	X	X Nothing systematic, but newsletter planned again and publication on award recipients.	✓ UC Research glossy will be matched by UC Teaching one.	✓ At HEDC courses - use good teachers to lead seminars etc
<b>19) T&amp;L CENTRE WELL-SUPPORTED</b>	✓ Some low attendance at important courses	X Academic staff see it as relevant to general staff only	✓ New staff member. Higher attendance.	✓	Have been peripheral but huge structural changes occurring.	✓
<b>20) POSTGRAD DIP TERTIARY TCHG</b>	X Not a priority.	X Next year with TLDU and School of Education, possibly	X In the pipeline for 2000	X No.	X Plans for a certificate in 2001.	✓ A certificate as well as a diploma now.

## QUESTIONNAIRE DATA

### 1a.i) Teaching is valued in your university

	Full-time	Part-time
Not at all valued	2%	7%
Undervalued	16	10
Moderately valued	46	61
Valued	25	19
Valued a great deal	11	3

### 1a.ii) Teaching is valued in your department/school

	Full-time	Part-time
Not at all valued	0%	7%
Undervalued	4	16
Moderately valued	23	32
Valued	41	39
Valued a great deal	32	6

### 1b.i) Research is valued in your university

	Full-time	Part-time
Not at all valued	2%	3%
Undervalued	2	3
Moderately valued	0	17
Valued	37	42
Valued a great deal	59	35

### 1b.ii) Research is valued in your department/school

	Full-time	Part-time
Not at all valued	2%	6%
Undervalued	5	6
Moderately valued	20	10
Valued	42	55
Valued a great deal	31	23

### Teaching should be valued in your university

	Full-time	Part-time
Not at all valued	0%	0%
Undervalued	0	0
Moderately valued	2	3
Valued	33	23
Valued a great deal	65	74

### Teaching should be valued in your department/school

	Full-time	Part-time
Not at all valued	0%	0%
Undervalued	0%	0
Moderately valued	2	0
Valued	33	23
Valued a great deal	65	77

### Research should be valued in your university

	Full-time	Part-time
Not at all valued	0%	0%
Undervalued	2	0
Moderately valued	5	13
Valued	37	16
Valued a great deal	56	71

### Research should be valued in your department/school

	Full-time	Part-time
Not at all valued	0%	0%
Undervalued	2	0%
Moderately valued	2	7
Valued	41	19
Valued a great deal	55	74

2) and 3)		Criteria valued in appointment decisions and promotion decisions (full-time respondents only)							
		<b>The number of publications is currently valued</b>		<b>The number of publications should be valued</b>		<b>The reputations of presses/journals are currently valued</b>		<b>The reputations of presses/journals should be valued</b>	
		Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion
Not at all		0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Not very highly		7	0	2	7	7	5	4	5
Moderately		11	2	25	27	13	7	12	12
Quite highly		41	37	57	50	39	38	45	37
A great deal		41	61	16	16	41	50	39	46
		<b>Published reviews are currently valued</b>		<b>Published reviews should be valued</b>		<b>Research grants are currently valued</b>		<b>Research grants should be valued</b>	
		Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion
Not at all		10%	3%	5%	3%	5%	5%	5	3%
Not very highly		13	17	10	5	7	5	21	25
Moderately		31	25	28	42	42	35	56	47
Quite highly		28	33	36	32	25	25	11	15
A great deal		18	22	21	18	21	35	7	10
		<b>Papers at conferences are currently valued</b>		<b>Papers at conferences should be valued</b>		<b>Recommendations from other staff are currently valued</b>		<b>Recommendations from staff should be valued</b>	
		Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion
Not at all		2%	3%	0%	0%	2%	4%	5%	0%
Not very highly		27	30	11	21	11	20	12	20
Moderately		36	32	46	31	25	20	28	27
Quite highly		30	30	36	43	37	46	31	41
A great deal		5	5	7	5	25	10	24	12
		<b>Recommendations from students are currently valued</b>		<b>Recommendations from students should be valued</b>		<b>Recommendations from outside scholars are currently valued</b>		<b>Recommendations from outside scholars should be valued</b>	
		Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion
Not at all		30%	39%	16%	20%	2%	10%	0%	0%
Not very highly		35	32	12	12	5	5	0%	8
Moderately		16	15	35	36	16	20	26	20
Quite highly		12	12	28	27	35	36	48	50
A great deal		7	2	9	5	42	29	26	22

	<b>Qualifications in teaching are currently valued</b>		<b>Qualifications in teaching should be valued</b>		<b>Experience in teaching is currently valued</b>		<b>Experience in teaching should be valued</b>	
	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion
Not at all	26%	41%	11%	31%	2%	7%	2%	2%
Not very highly	42	31	26	17	14	28	0	2
Moderately	23	26	28	18	30	33	26	33
Quite highly	9	2	33	17	40	23	44	30
A great deal	0	0	2	17	14	9	28	33
	<b>Syllabi for courses taught are currently valued</b>		<b>Syllabi for courses taught should be valued</b>		<b>Obs of teaching by colleagues are currently valued</b>		<b>Obs of teaching by colleagues should be valued</b>	
	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion
Not at all	24%	32%	7%	7%	26%	32%	9%	7%
Not very highly	22	41	12	22	21	34	9	12
Moderately	44	20	46	41	33	22	37	32
Quite highly	5	2	25	15	16	10	28	32
A great deal	5	5	10	15	4	2	17	17
	<b>Student evaluations are currently valued</b>		<b>Student evaluations should be valued</b>		<b>Personality is currently valued</b>		<b>Personality should be valued</b>	
	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion
Not at all	7%	7%	5%	5%	8%	13%	13%	21%
Not very highly	24	10	16	14	8	25	10	28
Moderately	33	26	36	17	45	35	35	33
Quite highly	24	38	31	45	27	20	32	18
A great deal	12	19	12	19	12	7	10	0
	<b>The production of extramural study guides is currently valued</b>		<b>The production of extramural study guides should be valued</b>					
	Appointment	Promotion	Appointment	Promotion				
Not at all	16%	13%	11%	13%				
Not very highly	37	33	17	0				
Moderately	21	27	39	20				
Quite highly	26	20	22	40				
A great deal	0	7	11	27				

4) **Effectiveness as a teacher should be a primary criterion for promotion of academic staff**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time	85%	7%	8%
Part-time	88	9	3

6) **The pressure to publish reduces the quality of teaching in my department**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time	25%	27%	48%
Part-time	35	30	35

8) **Time spent on documenting teaching effectiveness is time well-spent**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time	46%	26%	28%
Part-time	94%	3%	3%

10) **Special arrangements should be made to enable staff to undertake teaching development programmes**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time only	50%	30%	20%

12) **A senior university committee should exist at each institution, or within each department or school which oversees educational practices, including good teaching and assessment practices**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time	46%	19%	35%
Part-time	88	9	3

5) **At my institution we need more emphasis on criteria other than publications in the evaluation of the scholarly performance of academic staff**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time	56%	15%	29%
Part-time	89	11	0

7) **The pressure to teach reduces the quality of research in my department**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time	69%	20%	11%
Part-time	43	35	22

9) **Teaching development grants should be given to individual academics to encourage good teaching**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time only	62%	22%	16%

11) **A person with special responsibility for teaching development should be appointed within each New Zealand university English school/department or college/faculty**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time only	22%	24%	54%

13) **Accreditation as a competent university teacher should be a requirement for all permanent academic staff members**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time	43%	27%	30%
Part-time	94	3	3

14) **Poor teachers should be denied annual increments/merit pay**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time only	56%	5%	39%

16) **Collaboration and discussion about teaching happens on a regular basis in my department**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time	60%	15%	25%
Part-time	42%	23%	35%

18) **My department provides and/or encourages workshops and seminars on teaching and learning in English**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time	18%	27%	55%
Part-time	36%	18%	46%

(Questions 19-26 full-time respondents only)

19) **The New Zealand PhD offers a sound preparation for an academic career in New Zealand**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	38%	40%	22%

21) **The purpose of the PhD programme in my department is to train academics**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	27%	34%	39%

23) **English is the most important subject at university**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	33%	44%	23%

25) **All English academic staff should teach writing for at least some fraction of their contact hours**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	33%	18%	49%

15) **Disciplinary procedures should be in place to deal with instances of unsatisfactory teaching**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time	56%	10%	34%
Part-time	65	29	6

17) **The working environment within my department ensures that I gain intrinsic satisfaction from teaching students**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Full-time	60%	20%	20%
Part-time	55%	16%	29%

20) **The New Zealand PhD offers a sound preparation for an academic career outside New Zealand**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	34%	34%	32%

22) **Most PhD students in my department want to become academics**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	63%	25%	12%

24) **Writing should be a compulsory first year subject for all university students in New Zealand**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	52%	19%	29%

26) **All English academic staff should teach literature for at least some fraction of their contact hours**

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	46%	11%	43%

**(Questions 27-30 part-time respondents only)**

27) **I am paid fairly for the teaching I do in the English department**

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
29%	23%	48%

28) **I feel valued by senior colleagues in the English department**

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
55%	16%	29%

29) **The training I received before I started teaching in the English department was sufficient**

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
38%	10%	52%

30) **I am provided with adequate working space, materials, and resources for teaching in the English department**

Agree	Neutral	Disagree
69%	25%	9%

30) **Do your interests lie primarily in research or in teaching?**

	Full-time	Part-time
Primarily in research	5%	9%
In both, leaning to research	34	18
Equally in research and teaching	36	34
In both, leaning to teaching	21	24
Primarily in teaching	4	15

31) **Rate as a percentage the importance of teaching the following in the discipline of English at university (full-time only)**

	Writing skills	Literary theory	Literature
0-20%	27%	51%	2%
21-40%	31	13%	30
41-60%	10	2	19
61-80%	2	2	15
81-99%	0	0	2
100%	0	2	2
N/A	30	30	30

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