The CIT Diploma in Tertiary Teaching
a critical reflection

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Abstract

This thesis explores issues related to the implementation of a programme of tertiary and adult teacher education based on experiential learning and action research.

The Diploma in Tertiary Teaching was developed in 1991 by The Education Centre (TEC) of the Central Institute of Technology, Heretaunga, New Zealand, as a response to changes in government educational funding and delivery policies. Its emphasis on open learning, student autonomy, action research and critical reflective practice placed the programme at odds with traditional programmes as well as the new National Qualifications Framework. The challenges of negotiating, resourcing and maintaining individual programmes of study for more than five hundred participants throughout New Zealand were compounded by funding and administrative systems based on classroom courses with set enrolment and completion times.

More important were the issues faced by the TEC staff in attempting to meet the needs of a widely diverse student population while remaining true to the programme's philosophical base. The matter of whether, when and how to intervene to influence student decision-making, or the need to reconcile student outcomes with those of the programme present ethical and practical dilemmas that are not easy to resolve.

The thesis describes the diploma programme, together with the philosophical, historical and political environments that influenced its evolution. Its main focus, however, is on questions and decisions relating to the translation of its theoretical and philosophical basis into reality.

The study considers three major areas of debate – facilitation, mentoring, and assessment. Resolutions in each of the areas raise questions of meaning and practice which relate to the broader areas of the National Qualifications Framework and educational policy.

The popularity and effectiveness of programmes such as the Diploma in Tertiary Teaching, as well as moves towards the use of electronic media and the internationalisation of education, are increasingly providing a challenge to traditional delivery methods and current government policies.

Acknowledgements

The researching and writing of this study has tried the patience of the staff of The Education Centre, who have been generous with their support, suggestions, critique and encouragement. Many will find their ideas and reflections incorporated into the study, and I apologise for not giving specific credit where it may be due. Even where the words are my own the environment of open exploration and debate at TEC over the last seven years have provided impetus and challenge.

Dr John Codd and Dr Wayne Edwards of Massey University have provided advice at strategic points in the research. I particularly thank Wayne for putting me in touch with 'grounded theory'. John revitalised me on several occasions with suggestions about changes in direction and emphasis. I have valued his patience and clear understanding of my mind's intentions.

My family have been the most long-suffering. Their relief that it is finished is palpable.

Preface

Introduction

In a workshop facilitated by the 1994 HERDSA scholar, Ann Kerwin, Professor of Medical Ignorance at the University of Arizona, we were asked to pose all the questions we could think of about learning and teaching. The questions tumbled out in their hundreds, ranging from the silly to the impossible, the wondering questions, many of them, that children might ask:

Does music influence learning?
Can one learn not to learn?
Why do unit standards not work?
Should learning be fun?
Do animals learn?
What would happen if there were no schools?

After a life full of answers, the main questions are all still there, the ignorance that underpins our knowing. This study is about one of those speculative 'what if?' questions. What if the theories of adult teaching and learning, theories of action research and critical reflective practice that have been so eloquently articulated over the last twenty or so years ... what if they were given a real concrete trial through an actual

programme? Would they really be effective? What problems or issues would arise? What would one have to do to cause them to be successful? On whose terms?

Over the last five or six years I have been taking stock of many of the questions that are avoided in education, the ones that if posed, can call into question the very foundations on which our education system has been constructed. These questions concern not only what **really** happens, but who benefits, what can be done differently, and whether we want what we are getting.

The catalyst has been the Diploma in Tertiary Teaching, developed and implemented by a team of adult and tertiary teacher educators at The Education Centre, Central Institute of Technology, Heretaunga, New Zealand.

This study tells the story of the development and implementation of the diploma programme, providing a historical and philosophical context and analysing the challenges and insights along the way. It shows the maturing of the ideas of the team through the years the diploma has been offered, and speculates on directions we may head in the future. Above all it tries to reconstruct the reality that underlies the diploma. This involves considering the 'connectedness' of ideas, the 'embedded ideology, dominant cultural values and oppressive stereotypes' underlying what we do (Kincheloe, 1993, p.97). Although a case study, its conclusions should have lasting application across any teaching programmes using similar methods.

The critical question

Despite the great deal of writing about need to move from teacher-centred pedagogical approaches to learning to ones which develop student responsibility and self-evaluation through critical reflection, few programmes seem to have consistently and effectively applied these theories, except in a small-scale way and often at a postgraduate level. And although action research has become an accepted process for teachers to investigate their teaching competence and professional development, it is rare to find it consistently applied in a full qualification.[1]

Enabling people to be self-evaluating and self-critical implies a completely different set of approaches to education, and poses new dilemmas and concerns. There is a great deal of rhetoric about the need for student-centred learning, but formal learning is increasingly embedded in policies which define what and how students should learn, and course structures and teacher strategies which provide them with little power to make their own decisions. A genuine belief in the power and ability of individuals to determine their own learning causes radical re-evaluation of all aspects of education from policy to practice. This occurs both with relation to the environment, and internally, with relation to the course itself.

The diploma attempts to apply the principles of open and student-centred learning in a consistent manner, while ensuring that participants become competent in both the understanding of learning process and the practice of teaching. While the programme provides models of teaching and learning, its core is the participants' exploration and interpretation of their own experiences and the growth of their ability to be self-critical. Action research, the ability of participants to systematically implement and evaluate planned changes in their practice, becomes the key to the growth of competence.

While it is simple to work out what might be the challenges of undertaking such a programme, little seems to have been written about the actual results of putting one into practice. It is one thing to be aware of the possibilities of resistance at a number of levels, but quite another to confront the realities on a day-to-day basis. It is hard to conceive, for instance, of the actual dilemmas and complications that arise with a system of open enrolment in an institution used to enrolling students at a certain time for a course lasting a set length and assessed on a set date, or the problems calculating Equivalent Full-Time Student (EFTS) places based on classroom attendance when a course has no compulsory attendance requirements. It is easy to anticipate that there will be some student difficulty about moving to self-directed programmes; it is hard to envisage what particular forms such resistance will take, and what strategies can be used to develop autonomy.

So this study, while touching upon all the implications and struggles associated with adopting a different educational philosophy and developing a course based on it, moves on to the consequences of introducing such a programme. It is about the ongoing

decisions, the unexpected problems and the inspirations and insights that changed thinking and practice on the way, as well as the enduring issues and debates. It addresses the question of the conceptual, administrative, professional and interpersonal issues arising from the introduction of a programme which emphasises student self-direction and research within a culture that places strong emphasis on externally defined outcomes and criteria, as well as teacher-centred teaching methods.[2]

Data gathering

From 1991, before the diploma had been conceived, I had started documenting what we were doing. I recorded what occurred in most of the staff meetings, collected different publications and revisions of publications, and kept diaries of events and my reflections about them.

The data gathering has been eclectic. Because I have been largely responsible for producing most of the documents for the diploma, I have kept files on most of the drafts as well as revisions of finished materials. I have also tried to keep editing notes where possible. These have proven invaluable, since it has often been that through articulating our ideas on paper we have clarified them and discovered anomalies and problems.

The production of a substantial course such as this also demands a great deal of official documentation and correspondence. I gathered whatever seemed relevant at the time, by the expedient practice of dating the papers and putting them in a file box, unsorted.

Much of importance cannot be classified adequately, as it consists of casual oral feedback, notes scribbled in margins, discussion and problem-solving from meetings, reports of teaching experiences, personal stories and other forms of sharing. I have tried to capture aspects of this dominant source of data through writing diaries, commentaries on discussions, tape recording meetings and discussions, observing and recording interaction patterns at meetings, and keeping drafts of publications. These ephemeral resources provide cultural cohesion at TEC; while they will rarely be

referred to, they form a dominant discourse, and are, of course, to some extent reflected in the documents. (See **Appendix A** for outline of reference materials.)

The contextual background

The TEC environment

The diploma is a product of its environment. I have attempted to fill in this context in several ways. First there is the context of the other work done at TEC. At various times over the last six years I have recorded the number of other demands on the attention of the staff. For instance, even over the two or three months when the major work on the diploma was undertaken, staff were engaged in a high workload of workshops, consultancy, developing and writing courses, and other tasks.[3]

I have recorded feedback lecturers have given at meetings about their main preoccupations. I have also on two or three occasions documented the events that have taken place at TEC during the course of a day or a week. We have tried to analyse the amount of time spent on various activities, with a view to rationalising our procedures.[4]

Central Institute of Technology

The study has a sub-commentary about the relationship between The Education Centre (TEC) and its host organisation, the Central Institute of Technology (CIT). Much of the information for this comes from memoranda and letters, staff newsletters and special announcements. I have also had access to CIT Council and committee meetings. TEC annual reports, budgets and financial statements, Validation Committee discussions, and other documents give body to records of discussions within TEC.

CIT's decisions are themselves in a context of the pressures of on one side the demands, criticisms and interests of staff, and on the other extreme financial and operational constraints resulting from changes in educational policy. While on one hand the institution appears to have acted at times arbitrarily and with little consultation in its approach to TEC, on the other it seems to have suffered the same arbitrary and non-consultative approach itself. It, too, has worked through a succession of 'quick fix'

solutions, for instance amalgamation, first with Hutt Valley Polytechnic, then with The Open Polytechnic, followed by massive restructuring, during which most of the senior management were replaced.

TEC lecturers have taken a strong lead in many CIT initiatives, with representations on many of the committees and submissions on many changes. In particular, staff members have for the last two years been major contributors to a task force considering approaches to open learning and have played critical roles on the Academic Board and the Staff Development Committee. TEC has had representatives on the Recognition of Prior Learning Task force, the Ethics Committee, the Library Committee, Validation Committees, and many other administrative and policy bodies. I have retained copies of records of meetings with these groups.

Association of Staff in Tertiary Education

TEC has also taken a major role in the Association for Staff in Tertiary Education (ASTE), at both branch and national level, with at one stage having both branch committee members and the National Vice-President on the staff. ASTE has taken an often crucial role both in developing and supporting the diploma and in preventing the closure of TEC. Some of the documentation for these events has been retained.

National education policy

One of TEC's main sources of continuing debate, at both practical and philosophical levels, is with the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA). Our early interest in the development of the National Framework has been maintained through negotiations, discussion, attendance at workshops and conferences, and exploration of ideas by facilitating workshops. TEC staff have read widely about the systems operating in New Zealand and overseas, and in 1993 and 1994 visited several institutions in Britain to discover practical issues arising from the implementation of similar processes.

The association with NZQA has also involved input into the standards bodies developing units for the framework, review and critique of NZQA documents, and

membership of accreditation panels. We have worked closely with the Education and Training Support Agency (ETSA) on implementation and assessment of units, and have also been involved with many other groups in developing their own programmes of study within the qualifications framework.

The development and implementation of the diploma programme has raised many issues both relating to the National Framework, and regarding other aspects of the Government's tertiary education policy. The system of EFTS funding has been of particular concern, as have other funding issues. These we see as symptoms of an approach to education riddled with contradiction and often alien to our own.[5]

The context of private enterprise, competition and credentialism has ironically also been instrumental in TEC's success. The study documents the adaptability and creativity that have ensured our survival, without at the same time compromising our own beliefs or standards. It is interesting also to note how within five years our ideas have become accepted as sensible, if not mainstream.

Academic debate and scholarship

While in the context of polytechnic education it has sometimes been considered radical or even extreme in its views,[6] TEC's position is endorsed by a range of experts and professional bodies. Lecturers undertake wide reading and set aside time to discuss current theories and case studies.

Our membership of the Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia (HERDSA), the Action Learning, Action Research and Process Management Association (ALARPM), the Action Research Network (ARN) and other similar professional associations puts us in touch with practitioners from around the world. Several TEC lecturers have visited other centres and we host several overseas visitors each year. Conference papers we offer are generally well attended.

The TEC staff have had the good fortune to have worked with important mentors to have their conceptual framework translated into substance. Among our mentors have

been John Heron, David Boud, Graham Gibbs, David Jacques, John Mulligan, Rose Pere and Cliff Bunning.

My involvement as a student in the Master of Educational Administration programme at Massey University has been of importance in at least three ways. First, it has provided me with a focus for my personal reading and confirmed and clarified my thinking about educational theories and ideologies. Second, it has ensured that I have undertaken practical work both analysing TEC and critiquing educational changes. Finally, it has provided me with much needed impetus for the present study.

Sorting it out

I eventually decided on an interim set of chapter titles for the purposes of sorting the information. I then started recording my notes as separate chronological accounts, on large sheets of paper, marking those that seemed to be developing some significance. I went as the information dictated; for one of the chapters I created a separate sheet for people, for another a diagram started to form. As connections were made through the sheets, I noted those, too, on separate sheets, along with comments about the adequacy of the original category chapters and other structural questions. All the documents were placed in folders, where possible under general headings, but otherwise in rough chronological order.

When I considered that an adequate overview of a particular area was forming I started typing the commentary. The narrative started and finished with the area or topic and frequently moved towards lists or comments. Each unfinished extract of text was then placed under the chapter category in which it best fitted. Each chapter then consisted of a growing section of continuous narrative, supplemented by a string of extracts, some of which were quickly supplanted by new ideas.

I was soon made aware of the importance of context. I was hoping to find in published material confirmation of data from more informal sources, such as records of discussions and meetings. I found the opposite. Different sources of information gave parallel rather than complementary texts. For instance, not one single piece of correspondence from CIT over 1990-1992 concerned itself with educational or professional issues.

Instead, they are concerned with funding, systems, standards, and requirements. It was only when I moved into my personal diary that the extent of the involvement of TEC staff in outside matters became apparent. Concerns, concepts, and even language differed in different contexts.

I now question the concept of objectivity in the context of this sort of research. Instead different forms of data often characterise different perspectives which together present a complex picture of individual viewpoints. The informal data, the observations of staff, reports of meetings, working documents and notes, form the context from which the diploma was created and which feeds its continuing dynamism.

Ownership and confidentiality

One of the major ethical questions raised by studies such as this is that of ownership. The ideas presented in this study have been debated in various forms by TEC lecturers over the last five years. In this sense the study merely reports and summarises in a personal way dominant discourses of TEC. At times I have requested that other lecturers comment on parts of the document; other parts have been incorporated into official TEC documents.

I need to acknowledge the roles of all my colleagues who have contributed to the study both consciously and inadvertently. I have always considered their interest paramount and consider them my primary audience. The study is only valuable if it is of use to them and to the further development of TEC.

I must also acknowledge that a number of parts of the study have been used elsewhere, in particular in the definitive programme document for the Bachelor of Education (Applied) (CIT, 1996). The writing of TEC publications has occurred in parallel with this work, and so there has been a cross-fertilisation of public and private writing. This has been particularly so with Chapter Two, which formed the basis for the part of the definitive document outlining TEC philosophy.

The structure

The first chapter provides an overview of the programme. In it I have tried to capture its essence, in all its richness and complexity. The second chapter gives a philosophical rationale, in which it is shown to derive from an informed debate about the role of experiential learning and action research in the teaching of adults and in professional development. It shows that the programme is well grounded in adult learning theory. Chapter Three provides a historical perspective, in which are explored some of the conceptual, philosophical and administrative challenges encountered when the diploma was developed.

Chapter Four explores the implications of implementing a process and research based curriculum. It focuses on the three areas of facilitation, mentoring and assessment. It is these three areas that have provided the greatest challenge in terms of programme delivery. Chapter Five revisits them, considering some of the dilemmas and paradoxes that have become apparent. Chapter Six places these in a wider context of competing paradigms and educational policies.

Conclusions

This study has taken more than six years of intermittent labour to put together. They have probably been the most exciting and challenging years of my life, characterised by unrelenting change and the constant stimulus of surmounting intractable obstacles. Through our adherence to a common vision and philosophy, and through our determination, the TEC team have silenced our critics and have built up an enviable authority and respect.

It documents what has been for us extraordinary times. It is a tribute to my colleagues.

Chapter 1: The diploma experience

Introduction

This chapter provides a descriptive overview of the diploma. Its aim is to enable readers to engage with its coherence and complexity and some of the differences between it and other programmes with which they are familiar. There is inevitably some generalisation. This perhaps gives a misleading appearance of uniformity and regularity. The programme is characterised by variety, with each participant negotiating a unique course of study.

The Diploma in Tertiary Teaching

There are many options available in New Zealand to people who want to improve their abilities as tertiary and adult teachers. Many institutions conduct their own professional development programmes or may finance their teachers onto courses offered by a multitude of private training providers. Universities, colleges of education, community institutes and WEAs all offer different sorts of course. The most common formal qualification has become known as the Certificate of Adult Teaching

(CAT), but this takes various forms, depending on the needs of the teacher and the means of the provider. CATs do not even offer a consistent length let alone a consistent philosophy of adult teacher education.[1]

For teachers who want something more substantial than the 25 to 120 hour courses provided in CATs there is more limited scope. In the areas of polytechnic tutor training and the training of teachers in Private Training Establishments (PTEs) there were in 1995 three major qualifications on offer: the Auckland Institute of Technology's Diploma in Adult and Tertiary Education (Dip ATE), the Christchurch Polytechnic's Diploma in Teaching (Tertiary) (Dip Tchg (Tert)), and the Diploma in Tertiary Teaching (Dip Tert Tchg) offered by the Central Institute of Technology.[2]

The Christchurch diploma is the earliest of these and is in a sense a pioneer. It started in 1984 as a joint venture with Christchurch College of Education, and was at that stage only for staff of the polytechnic, but by 1990 it had become an NZQA approved programme offered to polytechnics throughout the South Island. It is also a pioneer in the processes it uses. Within a clear framework it offers great scope for individual negotiation, assessments are related to practice rather than to a set course of study, and it uses experiential learning and action research as a basis, with the objective of developing reflective practice (Manthei, 1992).

The Auckland diploma is more traditional in its approach. Although it offers open learning options, most students attend a structured programme of workshops. Students may also undertake individual contracts relating to parts of their work. A feature of the Auckland diploma is that students can undertake various certificate options which become components of the diploma. These can be taken at various polytechnics in the North Island which have been franchised by the Auckland Institute of Technology (Melrose, 1992).

The CIT Diploma in Tertiary Teaching is a later arrival. Of the two it resembles more closely the Christchurch diploma in its student-centredness and its emphasis on reflective practice and action research. But it has moved much further in terms of its reliance on students to make their own programme and in its definitions of what constitutes critical practice.

Participants

A breakdown of the more than four hundred enrolees on the CIT diploma in mid-1995 indicates the diversity of their backgrounds (fig 1:1). Although most of the participants are from polytechnics, almost a quarter are from private training establishments and many other from public and private institutions. Two important characteristics stand out. The first is the geographical range of participants, literally from Whangarei to the Bluff. The second is the number of Maori participants. This is largely, but not entirely, the result of contracts won by TEC with ETSA for training of Maori training providers.

The breakdown also indicates that the CIT diploma has many participants from the regions served by the other two diplomas. That is possibly a result of its flexible, student-centred approach.

Gender		Ethnicity		Locations	
Male	218	Pakeha/European	329	Wellington	192
Female	238	Maori	114	Hawkes Bay	70
		Chinese	6	Manawatu	55
		Tongan	1	Wairarapa	28
		Japanese	1	Southland	24
Age		Samoan	2	Nelson/Marlborough	22
Under 20	0	Other	3	Otago	20
20 – 24	9			Bay of Plenty	12
25 – 29	31			Christchurch	9
30 – 34	62			Gisborne	5
35 – 39	96	**Organisations**		Horowhenua	5
40 – 44	97	Polytechnics	269	Wanganui	4
45 – 49	83	Govt	46	Taranaki	3
50 – 54	47	Private training		Northland	3
55 – 59	24	establishments	104	Waikato	3
60 and over	7	Individuals	37	Auckland	1

Fig 1:1 Diploma participants, May 1995 (from CIT, 1996)

Structure of the diploma

The diploma has three stages. The first ensures that participants have a conceptual base from which to make good evaluations of their teaching practice. To pass this stage participants need to show that they are making reasoned and informed decisions in eight areas of their teaching. Workshops are offered that give models and theories and guide participants into processes of reflection. In Stage Two participants define six areas of personal and professional change they would like to implement. They develop reflective action research projects to ensure that the changes are appropriate and the effects evaluated. The third stage is the most complex. Participants critically analyse their work environment and through self and peer review procedures develop ways to enhance both it and their role in it (fig 1:2).

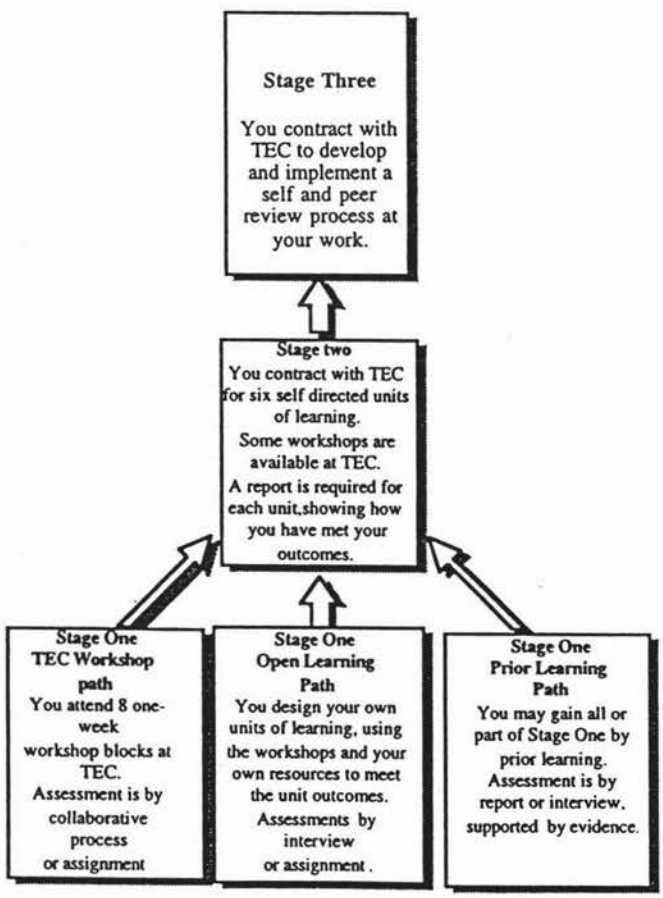

Fig 1:2 Diploma structure (from TEC, 1995:1)

The three stages are each characterised by a different way of working. Covey's (1990) diagram is a good model to describe the development (fig 1:3). Stage One moves participants from dependence to independence, at Stage Two they work independently, while at Stage Three they develop the skills of interdependence. Stage One consists of eight modules each relating to a specific aspect of teaching and learning. It constitutes the initial tutor training programme which most polytechnic appointees attend within the first two years of appointment. For each module TEC offers optional week-long workshop programmes, but many participants attend Certificate in Adult Teaching courses instead, or gain Stage One through assessment of prior learning.

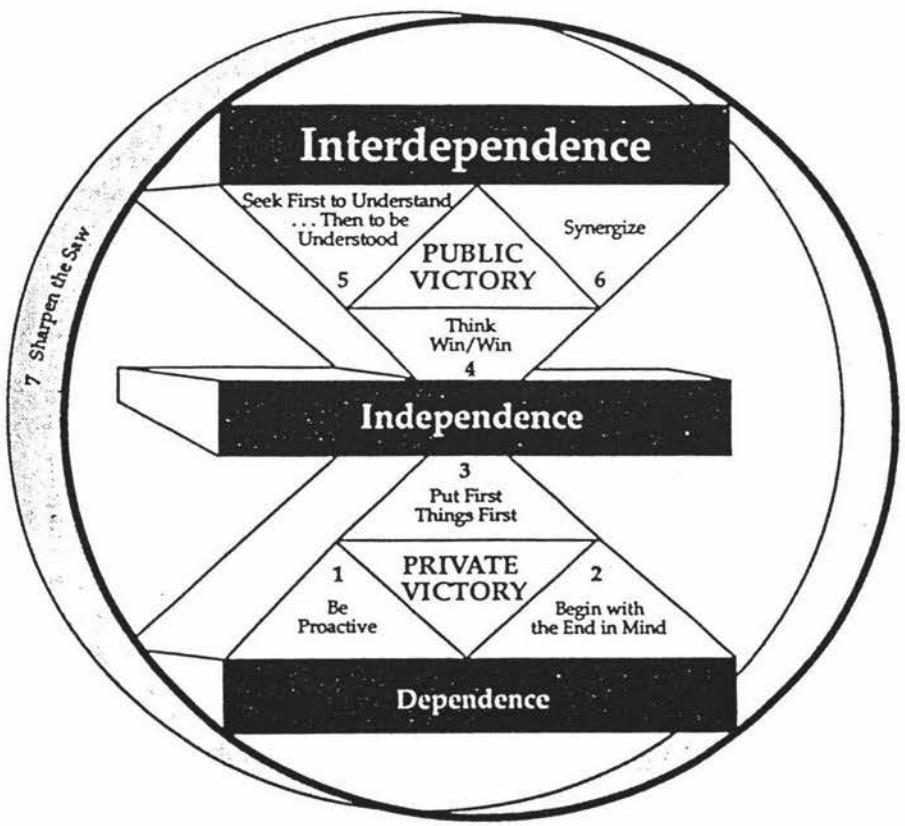

Fig 1:3 Dependence to interdependence (from Covey, 1990, p.57)

In Stage One participants gain confidence and competence in basic skills of teaching. Although their assessment is based on their attainment of set outcomes for each module, these are broad-based and interpreted in terms of their ability to critically evaluate their practice. Participants gradually get used to personal reflection and the use of action plans.

Stage Two consists of six action research projects on topics chosen by participants. They now have to define their own learning needs and translate those into a developmental programme. Assessment relates to their ability to analyse and evaluate the project in terms of its value to them and their work.

At Stage Three participants are expected to work with colleagues to develop an appropriate self and peer evaluation process which identifies individual and group goals and reviews changes introduced to meet them.

(**Appendix B** contains examples of action plans and proposal forms, planning sheets and assessment sheets used on the diploma.)

The experiences are different; the goals are common

People who join the diploma are usually of two sorts: they are either experienced teachers who want to claim credit for Stage One through prior learning, or they are new tutors with little understanding or experience of teaching. For the latter it is often a daunting prospect to define what their learning needs are and how they will meet them.

Each participant's programme is unique. All there is in common is that they are assessed on the outcomes of each module; the ways they take to reach that assessment are diverse. Even the programme of workshops offered at TEC are resources rather than courses. New teachers are strongly advised to enrol in the initial week-long block of workshops, which has been designed as a developmental unit; after that participants may choose from a plethora of workshops to suit their own needs.

The many participants who don't find attendance at TEC a viable option, whether because of distance or the pressures of work, usually find Stage One difficult.

Although in theory they may choose to work entirely independently, attend CAT courses in their own area, or work with learning packages, in practice few resources are available for them. Sometimes groups regularly meet together to study, and with other organisations TEC has set up joint programmes.

Workshops

Workshops are one day or two days long and although self-contained usually occur within a week of workshops around a similar theme so that participants may undertake them together. They have the following characteristics:

- They can be taken as individual one-off seminars by people not enrolled in any set course of study, as well as part of a coherent programme.
- They take account of a wide variety of learning environments, styles and levels of experience.
- They use the experiences of participants.
- They can be taken in any order and combination and nevertheless satisfy needs of coherence and personal development.
- They focus on providing frameworks for participants to understand and change their professional practice.
- Participants may be assessed as a result of attending individual workshops or whatever combination they have chosen.
- Assessment processes focus both on reflection on the workshop and enhancement of professional practice as a result of the workshop.

In order to meet these characteristics the lecturers rely on a coherence of philosophy and values. This emphasises that good teaching is shown by the degree to which teachers can make sense of what they do, that participants have responsibility for their own learning, that the measure of the workshops lies not in their content but in their usefulness, and that the processes used in the workshops must be congruent with the content.

These points are reflected in student feedback. A glance through workshop feedback sheets indicates how often recurs the observation that although the TEC lecturers are diverse in interests and idiosyncratic in teaching style, there is consistency about the

programme. The consistency is expressed both in terms of congruence between content and process, and coherence of philosophy.[3]

Stage One contracting

In all formal teaching there is an implicit contract between teacher and student. The teacher is responsible for teaching the syllabus and meeting other course requirements. Many of the responsibilities of students are often clearly spelt out – attendance, completing work on time, sitting assessments – but there are also many informal ones, to do with language, participation, or even self-presentation. The problem with such undiscussed contracts is that neither side may have clear ideas about their own part of the contract.

On the diploma participants are asked to make the contracting formal. They set goals and try to meet them with the resourcing and guidance of TEC lecturers. People who attend workshops at TEC are usually asked to fill in a contract action plan, either for the unit or for the Initial Tutor Training Programme. Part of the first day of each week block is spent working on the contracting process. On the last day of the block participants then produce their action plan and undertake self and peer assessment on the extent to which they have met their goals. They then set further goals for implementing change in their teaching and reporting on it to TEC.

Stage One assessments

The Stage One programme consists of eight modules identified by broad-based outcomes expressing a mixture of knowledge and skill which defines competency in each of eight areas of teaching (fig 1:4). All that participants need to do to pass each module is to demonstrate their competence in the terms outlined in the outcomes. This involves them in having understanding of what they are doing and why they are doing it. Thus the criteria used for assessing competency relate to the processes they undertake to analyse their practice.

Participants can choose any way of showing competency, as long as they provide evidence of understanding, analysing, evaluating and setting goals for change. Some have submitted audiotapes or videotapes. But most in practice choose assignments, self and peer assessment, or group interview.

Introduction to teaching
The learning process
Course design and evaluation
Assessment
Human rights
Educational management
Educational media
Research

Fig 1:4 The eight modules of Stage One

Assessment of prior learning

Experienced teachers entering the diploma programme normally gain all or most of their Stage One through assessment of prior learning (APL). They have their current competence in teaching assessed in a similar way to those working through each module, but without attending workshops or using TEC resources.

Most participate in a group interview. Each candidate prepares a portfolio of evidence of their competence in the modules in which they are being assessed. They fill in planning sheets in each of the modules, which have questions that help them focus on their teaching experiences and values. Then three or four participants meet with two TEC lecturers for two to three hours and talk about themselves and their teaching. The interviews are informal and supportive. There are no set questions; the two assessors assume that the participants are competent in the units for which they are being assessed and so ask questions to confirm that competence.

Some people find the interviews difficult. In particular these are people who approach teaching with a strongly pragmatic or task centred attitude. Some find great difficulty describing what happens when they teach; they talk about what they **do**, but not the effects of what they do.

Not all have recognition of prior learning granted. Some may be asked to undertake more work in some areas, and others may get units on condition that they engage in specific change processes as a Stage Two module.

CAT courses and the assignment

Most participants on CAT courses, on the other hand, are given an assignment to undertake immediately after each one-week block. Assignments consist of module outcomes stated as a set of questions. They are sent in within a fortnight from the end of the block, and are marked at two levels, with only those who have met the Stage One criteria being awarded the module for the diploma. They are also available for all diploma modules as an alternative to other forms of assessment.

The assignment offers participants a chance to try new ideas out in practice and evaluate their immediate effectiveness. Instead of separating the workshops from their practice, they must make connections, while at the same time gaining skills in analysing their teaching.

All assignments are marked by the same lecturer, and samples are cross-marked by another lecturer. This way assessment consistency is maintained.

Workshops and self and peer assessment

While some workshop participants choose either interview or assignment, most undertake assessment through a self and peer process which makes use of the bonds that have built up over the workshop week and encourages ongoing networking. Participants use their reflection notes and planning sheets to prepare a presentation to a small group of peers on the Friday of the workshop week. The presentation should relate to the module outcomes as well as the participant's personal outcomes set at the start of the

week. A TEC lecturer and at least one peer assesses it according to the Stage One criteria – the other participants can add their own comments.

Many participants have further work to do to put their learning into practice; they are required to make a further report on changes they have made, or else choose a buddy who can check and send a supplementary report (fig 1:5).

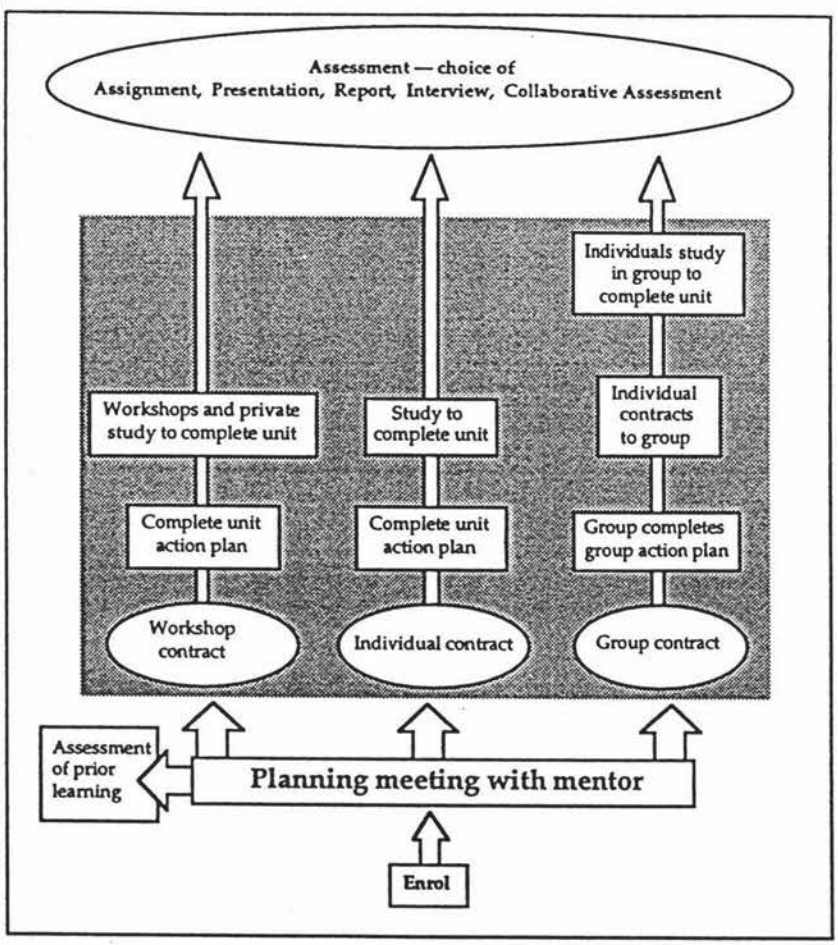

Fig 1:5 Stage One pathways
(from TEC, 1995:2)

Stage Two and action research

In Stage Two participants need to carry out six projects of professional self development and provide TEC with a report on each for assessment. They often take at least a year of part-time study to complete this stage, since each module requires a considerable amount of planning and evaluation.

The Stage Two guidebook outlines the process of action research and its application in the projects. Essentially participants need to identify areas where they would like to improve or enhance their work, they plan what they hope to achieve and the steps they will take to achieve it, and then they undertake it. In the report the TEC mentor looks for evidence of personal change and development as a result of undertaking the project (fig 1:6).

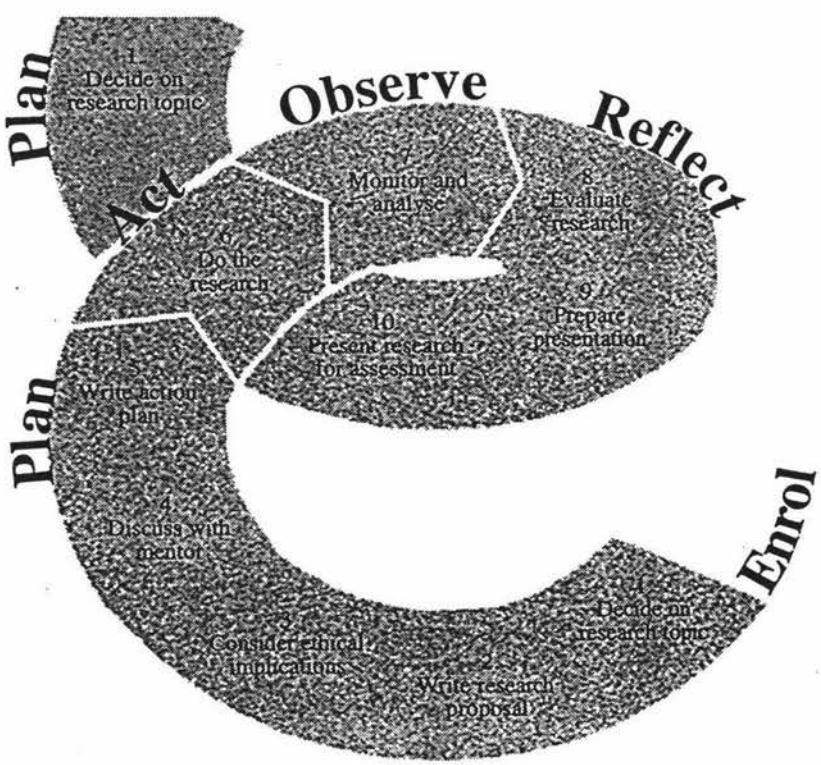

Fig 1:6 Stage Two processes
(from TEC, 1995:3)

Stage Two projects have been undertaken on a huge range of subjects. Here are some of them:

- Writing a distance learning package for religious education.
- Using music in the classroom.
- Evaluating a self and peer review process for art and design.
- Attending a toastmaster's course.
- Investigating women's attitudes to karate training.
- Teaching a practical task using distance education.
- Producing a video to teach welding techniques.

Each participant has a personal mentor from the time they enter the diploma. At Stage One the mentor guides the work of the participants, helps them identify appropriate resources, interviews them for their readiness for assessment, and normally acts as one of the assessors. Frequently participants choose as mentors lecturers they have met in workshops or elsewhere, and by the end of Stage One a congenial relationship has often been established.

The role of the mentor becomes particularly important at Stage Two. At the first meeting the mentor assesses the participant's readiness to undertake action research and if necessary provides some transitional material. For each project participants submit a **proposal**, which is checked by the mentor for feasibility and ethical considerations. The mentor also checks any questionnaires or other research instruments for appropriateness and validity. It is only then that the participant may start the project.

The **action plan** outlines both project and personal goals. In it participants make explicit the steps they are going to take and how they are going to evaluate the project. For many it is initially a difficult task to outline ways in which they are likely to change and develop as they undertake the project, yet that is of course the fundamental purpose of the research. Mentors provide examples, coach, model and guide participants through their first action plans.

During the course of the research mentors are available to provide support and guidance. Participants are encouraged to send in rough drafts and discuss fully all

changes they make to their original plans. It is common for reports to be submitted two or three times before they are considered ready for assessment.

Mentors also play the main role in assessment. They provide comments on an assessment sheet, before passing them to a colleague for an independent assessment.

As participants undertake more projects mentors encourage variety, depth and validity-testing. Participants are challenged more and more to question their normal approaches and try out alternatives. For many participants this is an exciting process of self-discovery. Many find unexpected insights into their work and life.[4]

Stage Three

Stage Three students are expected to engage in four basic components:

- Undertake an analysis of their work environment.
- Initiate a self-and-peer review process.
- Evaluate it over a period of six weeks.
- Implement changes resulting from the process.

All participants are different. While some are working in supportive teams all of whom are doing the diploma together others are isolated. Some participants want to work with others in a similar field, but geographically separated.

There are at least five quite different scenarios, with a considerable variation within each:

- A group of colleagues all on the diploma and wishing to undertake Stage Three together.
- A diploma participant working with colleagues who are supportive but not enrolled on the diploma.
- A participant working with colleagues who are not supportive of self-and-peer review processes.
- A participant working in isolation but able to undertake Stage Three with participants working in other areas.
- A participant who appoints a colleague as a supervisor.

For each of these Stage Three takes quite a different form. The first is perhaps the least complex. Yet there have been complications even here. In one case a senior colleague, almost through the diploma, undertook the exercise with his two junior colleagues, both of whom were working through Stage One modules. While all were granted Stage Three, and all showed considerable change as a result of it, it was clear that the senior participant was the motivating force and the understanding of the others was limited. It emphasised to us that while we do not insist on a set progression through the diploma it is in fact clearly developmental.

In the second and third scenarios what is achieved depends on the extent of the co-operation of colleagues. Typically in the second participants will be working as part of a team already engaged in evaluation and review, in which case the Stage Three may consist of an evaluation of the processes used within the team. In the third scenario Stage Three may take the form of attempts to build rapport and team processes with colleagues, a process which may or may not be successful. It may include changing meeting procedures, requesting a colleague to check out their teaching, networking, or other strategies. The focus may be on developing their own support networks quite independent of their workplace. Participants may prefer to work on developing self and peer feedback with their students or with other diploma participants from outside their own workplace.

The fourth scenario is similar to the formation of a learning **set**, where the differences between the participants enable critical perception to take place. This process has now been widely adopted in organisational learning applications, and indeed forms the basis of the new TEC Bachelor of Education (Applied) programme.[5]

The fifth scenario is often the most limited, especially if supervisors are chosen who are reluctant to engage in challenge. In that case the participant's ability to critically evaluate the environment is often circumscribed by the supervisory relationship rather than enhanced by a variety of perceptions.

Stage Three processes

While the four components of Stage Three seem to be progressive steps, in practice they often constitute facets of the same process. To evaluate the work environment,

participants need to consider their role in it and the effectiveness of that role. They need, in other words, to start on a self-review process, which can be checked out by peer review. In order to be able to work out what the questions are they need to have found some of the answers.

There are usually several parallel processes taking place at the same time:

- Group development of processes which will enable them to undertake self and peer review.
- Group analysis of strengths, weaknesses, and questions, which lead to the setting of goals for group development.
- Individuals within the group analysing their own strengths and weaknesses, as well as the nature of their contribution to the group. Individuals setting their own goals on the basis of the analysis.
- Group exploration of possible processes of self and peer review which they may undertake.
- Individuals within the group analysing their relationships with other members of the group.
- Group considering ways of recording and reporting processes and results.
- Individuals working out ways of monitoring, recording and reporting their own performance.

The Stage Three process links personal development to continuous improvement in the workplace. In our assessments we need to check that the process is safe, sustainable and effective. We also need to ensure that both individual and group goals are being met (fig 1:7).

Two models of practice

The Stage Three processes take aspects of two models:

- The team approach.
- The supervisory practice approach.

While there are similarities between the approaches, in essence they are for different purposes. The purpose of the team approach is to draw upon the talents of the team in

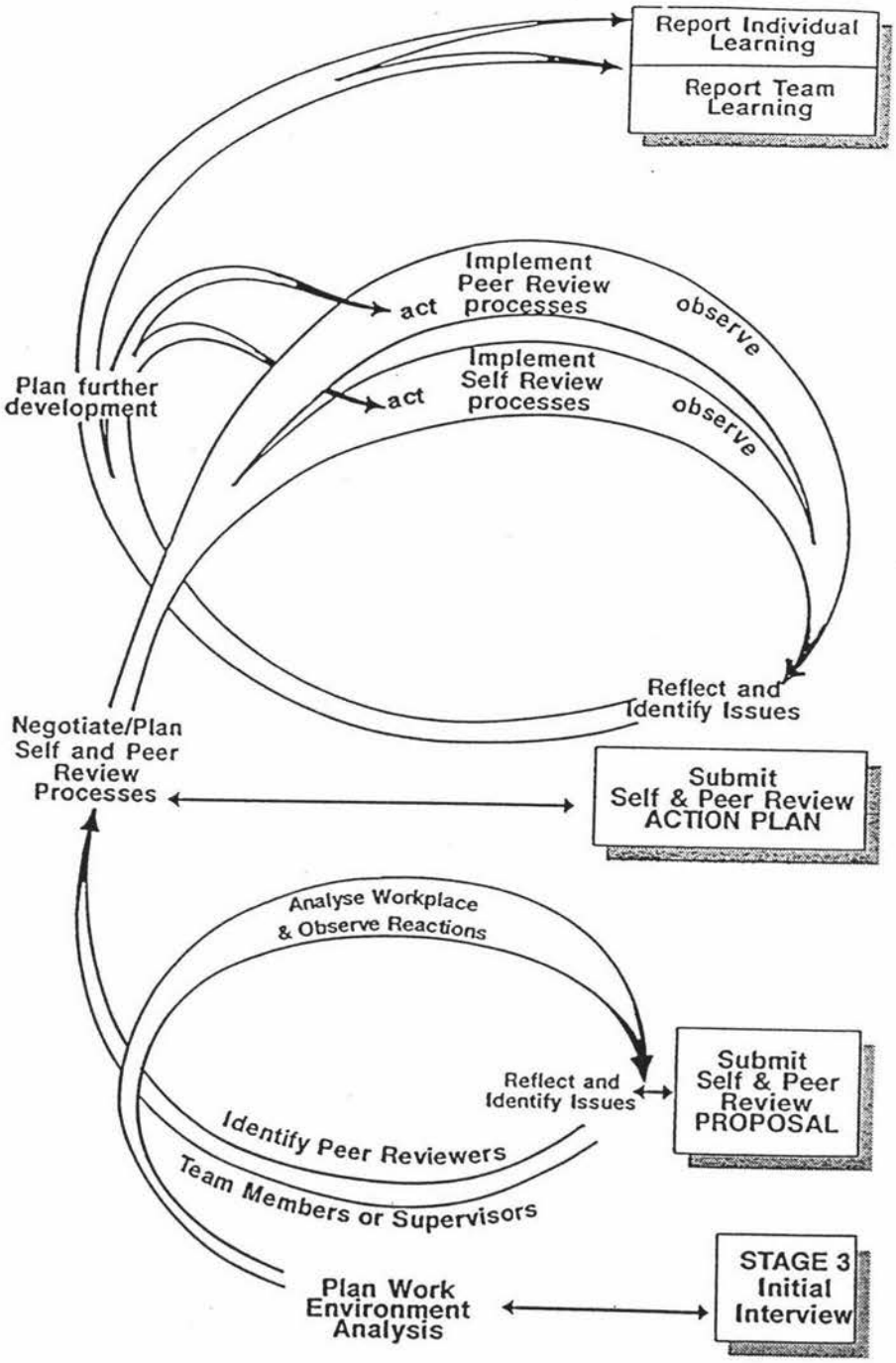

Fig 1:7 Stage Three processes
(TEC, 1995:4)

more and more effective ways. This involves the development of agreed goals within the team, and supportive evaluation of each member to achieve those goals.

The supervisory approach, by contrast, involves participants in using the expertise of peers to critique their own practice so that they can introduce processes of self-improvement. The purpose of this approach is to enhance personal performance.

Although the first two scenarios more closely follow the team approach, within them supervisory practice might be a key element.

Summary

In this chapter I attempt to give the 'flavour' of the experiences participants are likely to go through on the diploma, rather than focusing on specific details. It is not a straightforward experience, and most participants take three years to complete it. But along the way they develop a range of new strategies, explore important educational concepts, and develop confidence and competence. It gives most participants the opportunity to explore new areas of expertise, to evaluate their skills and to initiate change.

In the next chapter I show the development of the philosophical understandings that shaped the direction of the diploma and the processes that determined the resolve of the TEC team to persevere.

Chapter 2: The conceptual framework

Introduction

This chapter provides the rationale for the development and implementation of the diploma. The brief analysis of its philosophical base shows that it is the product of widely accepted theories of adult learning. Its openness and experiential nature reflects some of the experimental models used by John Stephenson in the School of Independent Study, University of North-West London, in the late 1980s, and its reflective practices derive sustenance from David Boud's work at the Sydney University of Technology. TEC has had many academic mentors, including John Heron, Graham Gibbs, and many less well-known but equally important practitioners from around the world (see for instance Boud, 1981, 1990, 1993; Boud and McDonald, 1981; Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985; Boud and Walker, 1990, 1991; Brookfield, 1987, 1991; Bunning, 1992, 1993:1, 1993:2, 1994; Burgess, 1986; Candy, 1991; Carr and Kemmis, 1986; Gibbs, 1990, 1992; Gibbs and Jenkins, 1992; Heron, 1989, 1990; Knowles, 1975, 1980; Kolb, 1984; Millar, 1991; Rogers, 1983; Stephenson, 1990; Stephenson and Laycock, 1993).

The diploma also arose out of research into the specific needs of the client base. The next chapter explores this context. For many years TEC has developed programmes to meet the policy, administrative and training needs of polytechnics, as well as the

specific requirements of an increasingly diverse participant group. It has also played a major role in negotiations to provide a coherent national framework for adult education. The chapter indicates how the philosophical base of TEC developed to meet the needs of our clients and the exigencies of educational policy.

The philosophy of TEC

> *"Teachers cannot encourage creativity, innovation, critical thought, autonomy, enthusiasm, commitment unless they themselves are creative, innovative, critical, autonomous, enthusiastic and committed." (Snook, 1993. p.29)*

Snook's statement captures the core of TEC philosophy. In what we advocate, in the way we interact with our students and clients, in our own evaluations of ourselves and each other and in the ways we interact with each other there is a consistency of intent, if not always of practice. We advocate the use of the experiential learning cycle as an appropriate tool for planning and evaluating programmes; we use the cycle to plan and evaluate our own programmes, and we model its use in the workshops we offer. We advocate moving to student-centred approaches; our course participants learn to set their own goals, plan their own programmes and assess their own progress, and we use their experiences as the basis for developing the skills they need to move to self-defined study.

The diploma equates good professional practice with the ability of teachers to analyse and evaluate their teaching systematically, with the purpose of enhancing and developing their competence.

One of the strengths of TEC is that the programmes are based on a coherent and shared philosophy and vision. This common ground is informed by eclectic reading in education, philosophy, psychology and management and enlivened by discussion, which has evolved to suit our particular needs and professional insights. If TEC is seen to subscribe to schools of thought about education it is not an uncritical adoption of the ideas of others, but a careful analysis of what is appropriate in our own situation.

An important part of our processes is that we spend a considerable time together discussing ideas and making connections between them. There are parallels between Knowles's insights into how adults learn, Kincheloe's insistence that we move beyond critical thinking, and Senge's concept of mental models, yet the three writers come from different disciplines and use different terms for their ideas (Knowles, 1980; Kincheloe, 1993; Senge, 1992).

Among implications for students are:

- Students learn best when they can work out what they want to learn and have the means to learn it.
- Teachers should not be making decisions about what students should or should not learn.
- The classroom functions best as a democracy, where decisions are arrived at to the mutual benefit of teachers and students.
- The teaching and learning process should be as open and collaborative as possible.

The diploma as an open learning programme

One of the ways of viewing the diploma is as an experiment in open learning. According to Paine (1988), 'open learning' refers to both a philosophy and a process of teaching. As a philosophy it stands in contrast to the concept that there should be one syllabus, set of outcomes, teaching and assessment process for all learners. Instead it proposes that where possible teaching should suit the needs of learners, and that it should meet goals set by learners in ways most appropriate for them.

As a process, open learning is concerned with providing opportunities and structures which enable students as much as possible to make their own decisions. While this implies flexibility of time and pace of learning, choice of delivery mode and venue, and options within the syllabus it also involves collaborative syllabus, course design and assessment, with students as much as possible taking responsibility for their own learning. Paine's definition of open learning expresses this idea clearly:

> *"It is learning which allows the learner to choose **how** to learn, **when** to learn, **where** to learn and **what** to learn as far as possible within the resource constraints of any educational and learning provision."* (Paine, ibid, p.xi). [1]

There is always a dilemma about which terms to use, as they are redefined by the contexts in which they are used. As Rountree (1992) points out, 'open learning' more frequently refers to a process of **teaching** than to a process of learning. Similarly 'flexible learning' and 'distance learning' both refer to a mode or system of education delivery. A NZQA unit of learning defines what should be taught, rather than what is learned.[2] We use the term 'open' to refer to teaching decisions which may lead to greater autonomy among course participants.

Within a framework of competencies and standards, the diploma provides participants with the freedom to define their own goals, learning processes and assessment methods. This presupposes a flexible structure: participants can enrol at any stage through the year and can move at their own pace (within certain constraints). They can pay as they go. They have the ability to claim recognition for their current competence through an assessment process. They may attend workshops but do not need to. They may choose from different assessment processes and can choose when they are assessed.

Over the four years of the diploma's operation many of the freedoms offered to participants regarding programme delivery have been converted to choices. There has been a benign tension throughout the planning and implementation of the diploma between giving participants complete freedom to determine their own structures and determining definite parameters within which they can work. Clear options, especially at initial stages of the diploma, have been a response to both student feedback and organisational constraints. In each case consideration has been made as to whether it leads to greater student autonomy within the framework or serves to foster dependence.[3]

The true openness of the programme lies in the mentoring and contracting processes. Even at Stage One, where modules have specified outcomes, participants interpret these in terms of their current practice and needs. They then develop a personal action plan showing their goals and ways they intend to meet them within the framework of outcomes set for each module. Stage Two modules provide a supportive research

framework that enables participants to pursue their own goals systematically and confidently.

As well as gaining practical teaching skills and techniques participants increasingly learn conceptual frameworks, the skills of self-analysis and reflection, and the critical perspectives provided through action research. As they move from dependence through independence to interdependence they change their conception of teaching and the world around until they see teaching as a matter of developing and maintaining relationships and they begin to make critical changes relating to their teaching and their work environment.

The open framework caters for the practical needs of a dispersed and varied clientele but its foundation lies in commitment to the practice of valuing different approaches to teaching and learning, to the principle that people only learn through trying things out for themselves, and to the faith that, given the opportunity and the support, people will become passionately involved in improving their skills and deepening their understandings. Excellence is defined in terms of the ability of teachers to be critically reflective about their own practice and to be able to grow and develop their understandings as a result of their analysis.

It is from this hub of autonomy and critical reflection that the processes and philosophies of the diploma emanate.

Andragogy and autonomous learning

Knowles (1980) borrowed the term 'andragogy' to contrast with traditional pedagogical approaches. He wanted a term to describe the differences between the ways in which adults can be helped to learn and the ways in which teachers teach children. He later saw the two terms as embedding sets of assumptions about learning. These are basically concerned with the level of responsibility learners take for their learning (see also Long, 1990, p.44).

If 'open learning' is the system and the intention, then andragogy describes the processes of teaching that enable learners to make their own decisions. It is a matter of recognising that

> *"when adults undertake to learn on their own they tend to follow a sequence of steps, move at a pace, make use of a variety of resources, exhibit a style, and access their learning in ways that are uniquely their own"* (Boud, 1981, p.8).

It means that they become facilitators of natural processes, rather than imposing their own style and content. Andragogy encompasses the skills of organising, supervising, mentoring, encouraging, contracting, counselling and assessing that the facilitator uses with self-directed learners.

The purpose of open teaching and andragogy is to enable learners to take greater control of their own learning processes. This is variously termed 'autonomous learning', 'student-centred learning', 'learner managed learning', 'self-directed learning', and other names. I use the term 'autonomous learning' partly because it seems to have been less tainted by misunderstanding than other terms.

'Student-centred learning' seems to be used by the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) with a conscious ambiguity. Rather than referring to the ability of students to make decisions about their learning it commonly refers to teaching methods that take account of student learning styles. To gain accreditation to teach units providers need to indicate that they are using a variety of teaching and assessment techniques, with the aim that the teaching is carried out in a way sympathetic to student needs. This may mean no more than that lectures are pitched at the right level.[4]

'Self-directed learning' was defined by Knowles (1975, p.18) as

> *"that process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes".*

Yet that term, too, has become ambiguous. It now often implies a self-reliance which needs no help from others. While it indicates freedom of students to make their own decisions, it is also often used to excuse withdrawal of teacher contact time. For

instance, in several learning institutions in New Zealand, one way to increase student numbers without increasing staff is to timetable time for independent or self-directed study. This often means that students are completing work set by the teacher, in the same way that homework may be set.

Long's (1990) 'learner managed learning' is an attempt to describe more accurately what Knowles meant by 'self-directed learning'. His book is a simple and lucid explanation of autonomy. Yet the term 'managed' is not without ambiguity, and his term has not been generally adopted.

'Autonomous learning' means that learners take responsibility for making decisions about what they want to learn and how they will go about it. They may decide to attend classes or read books. They may decide to try things out and see how they go. They may decide to learn with others or on their own.

Experiential learning

One of the differences Knowles identifies between the ways adults and children learn is that adults relate their learning more to their previous life experiences, and use their experience to mediate and make sense of new events. According to Boud, learners bring into any situation their background of knowledge and understanding about the world, and an intention to learn or develop new understanding, and each new event can be experienced by the learner only in these terms. The event becomes meaningful as an experience only through its ability to fit or challenge the world view of the learner (Boud and Walker, 1990; Boud, 1993).

Boud makes a distinction between an **event** and an **experience of an event.** Everything that occurs may be termed a series of events. **Events** are open to an infinite variety of interpretations, and it is impossible to grasp an event in full complexity. People's **experiences** are what they choose of an event as important for them. According to Boud the quality of the experience depends on three factors – what occurs, the context or circumstances of its occurrence, and the orientation (feeling state, attitudes, personal past experiences) to the event of the person who experiences it.

Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle has become a model for understanding this process. Each part of the cycle requires particular skills, and depending on purpose, environment or background, learners often acquire a dominant way of responding to events (fig 2:1). This has been adapted by Honey and Mumford (1986) in their Learning Styles Questionnaire, which identifies learners as having a mixture of four orientations to learning: pragmatist, theorist, activist and reflector. Their research indicates that workers in specific occupations show dominant learning patterns, and that they are also related to cultural differences.

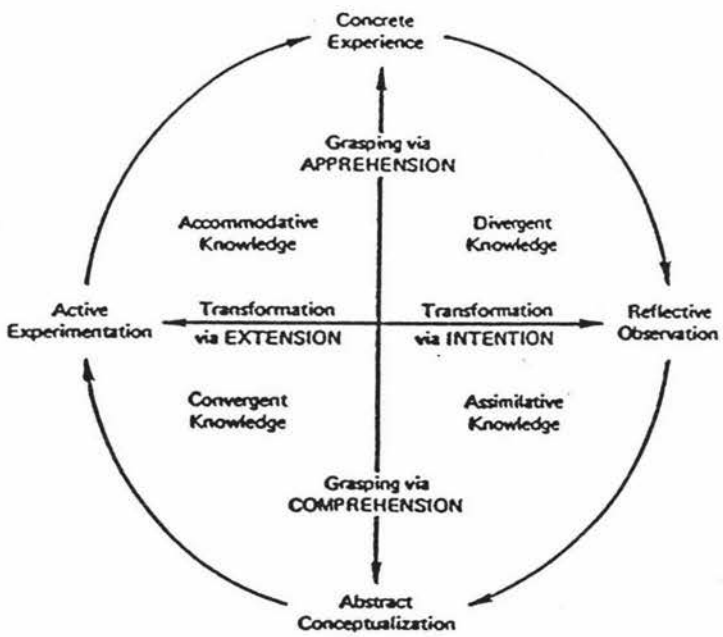

Fig 2:1 The experiential learning cycle (from Kolb, op cit, p.42)

Implications of this for teachers include the need to use a variety of strategies to engage the learning styles of students, and the need to teach their students a broader range of learning strategies to enhance their ability to learn more fully. Gibbs's research into British polytechnics indicates that teaching strategies such as overdependence on lectures, spoonfeeding, and assessment of recall make it hard for deep learning to take

place. He advocates a move to research projects, collaborative course planning and assessment, 'clinics', and other processes that develop multistructural, relational and extended abstract learning (Gibbs, 1990).

A useful distinction made by Boud and others is between 'experiential learning' and 'learning from experience'. The latter process involves elements of serendipity. It is the sort of learning that takes place in an unstructured way the whole time, and describes the processes people use to make sense of their environment. 'Experiential learning' is the term reserved for the use of the same techniques as occur in learning from experience, but in an intentional, structured and conscious way.

The distinction is useful because when the process becomes intentional and conscious then teaching and learning skills can be identified which enhance the learning process. The role of the teacher is changed from giving knowledge, demonstrating skill or encouraging learning, to one of structuring an event so that it is meaningful in terms of the learner's experience, providing opportunities and frameworks that enable learners to make links and see disparities, and giving skills in and opportunities for the learners to reflect on their learning.

The experience itself consists of two aspects – the observation of the event, and some kind of intervention (which could be a passive or internal one). In other words people choose aspects of the event that have meaning for them, and they influence the event in some way to test or reinforce that meaning. Skills can be learnt to improve both our observations and our interventions.

If an event is designed so that many people have similar experiences of it then it is possible to develop common ways of making sense of those experiences and theorising about them. There can be a measure of consensus that reinforces the importance of the common meaning.

Such an interpretation offers help for teachers. If they can create an event clearly separated from others, so that there is a focus on it, if the environment is right and personal needs have been satisfied, the chances are greater that all students will have experiences that are both more meaningful and with greater common significance.

At the same time it calls into question one of the most commonplace assumptions about education, that there is, or should be, a direct relationship between teaching and learning. Whatever the teacher does, only learners can learn, and they learn in ways more diverse and complex than the teacher has access to in teaching. Teachers can only influence learning insofar as they guide or support the learning process.

For learners, experiential learning processes normally involve the skills of analysis of past experiences, goal-setting, interpreting present events in the light of goals, and critically evaluating the learning that has taken place. Processes of personal challenge and critique are thus tied to learning the task. The event becomes a means of testing theories, refining and reconceptualising them.

Reflection on experience

The key to experiential learning is critical reflection. Boud proposes just two components in any learning, the experience and critical reflection on that experience (Boud, in Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985, p.7-17). The experience is the personal interpretation of an event, and critical reflection is the process of changing perspectives in the light of the experience. People learn only when some perspective transformation has taken place.

Boud talks of two types of reflection and they are both valid in reflective practice: 'reflecting **in** experience' and 'reflecting **after** experience'. All of our evaluations of our behaviours are surely a combination of these two. The main point about theorising about them is that by making the processes conscious one can then make them systematic and develop instruments to ensure that they are rigorous rather than merely haphazard.

To be able to engage in critical reflection, participants need to be able to analyse the experience in a dispassionate way, without cultural or emotional baggage intruding. They need to engage in a form of assumptional analysis, so that they are able to challenge the assumptions they bring to the event to create its significance as an experience. They need the ability to reframe the experience in new ways.

As with many professions, the key to good teaching is the ability to make appropriate decisions in a particular environment and to meet a set of particular circumstances, rather than responding the same way to all situations. This requires the teacher to have a repertoire of responses, as well as an understanding of their possible effects. It also needs the ability to choose, weighing up the consequences not only for themselves but for their students, colleagues and educational goals.

Thus teachers need more than teaching strategies; they need the ability to relate particular experiences to their theoretical understanding and respond with knowledge of the effects of what their response. They question their immediate reaction and convert it to a more thoughtful response. They need to be able to reflect critically on their practice.

Emotional competence

Instead of reacting in a naive global way to events around them, and behaving to outward events based on unconscious feelings of distress from their past, reflective practitioners need to be able to weigh up what is actually happening and respond in a way appropriate for the event. John Heron calls this process **emotional competence** (Heron, 1990, p.11-12).

Heron uses the term 'emotional competence' to mean not the development of a distress-free environment, but the ability to look beyond one's own distress to view the current event dispassionately. This involves being able to:

- Recognise the signs and some of the traumatic causes of present distress.
- Critique one's own assumptions about what is occurring.
- Observe carefully all aspects of an event and make decisions based on those careful observations.
- Check out with the other participants in the event about what experiences they are having.

If teachers relate to their surroundings and to their students in terms of living out unacknowledged past trauma, then they are obviously not able to look at their current milieu dispassionately. Students' problems and issues will be interpreted through the imperfect prism of the teacher's distress. Heron pictures organisations collectively

taking on and reinforcing the stress of the individuals within them, leading to psychotic institutional behaviour that would not be tolerated within individuals.

Heron is the founder of the branch of re-evaluation counselling called in New Zealand co-counselling. Essentially co-counselling is a process whereby two trained individuals can start to plumb the traumatic origins of current distress and by catharsis to reduce or remove the trauma. The basic technique involves a process of 'free attention', where the person taking the counsellor role gives undivided attention to the 'client', without entering into dialogue or in any way influencing what the client is saying, by smiles, agreement or any other signs.

In a sense 'free attention' is a clear manifestation of 'emotional competence'. Without practice it is a difficult task to undertake, for both counsellor and client. In initial stages counsellors frequently engage in an inner dialogue to make up for an external dialogue. Many quickly move into the comfort of their own thoughts (in a process called 'self-talk'). Some are unable to overcome the temptation to lead the client's talk in some way. Clients have equal problems. Without approval and guidance many just dry up. They have nothing to say.

However it can be a powerful aid for people to think through their own issues, reformulate them and seek solutions.

At the time of the development of the diploma all TEC staff, both lecturer and allied, had participated in a basic week-long co-counselling workshop and were engaged intermittently in co-counselling within the team and outside. But what was more important was the development within us of some of the skills of emotional competence, which ensured that we were often more able to consider what others in the team were contributing without attempts to own our own ideas or compete.

Cultural competence

Cultural competence, the extension of emotional competence to incorporate cultural identity, has been a useful concept as TEC has developed bicultural policies. It involves awareness of our own cultural dynamics, the motivating forces and assumptions that

engage us to behave in certain ways. Only then are we able to critically examine our own actions or to relate in non-reactive ways to the actions of others.

The development of our own cultural competence has been an ongoing preoccupation for the TEC staff. We are constantly exploring ways in which we can safely challenge our own and each other's preconceptions about the world and find the means to enjoy our diversity and uniqueness. We have few clear pointers as to how to do it; we feel comfortable experimenting with processes and seeing where they lead.

Challenging assumptions

Our cultural and emotional competence determines the extent to which we can understand and challenge the assumptions we have about the world. While assumptional analysis has become a major tool in organisational planning its application is usually specific to the task, role or culture of the organisation. Kilmann (1984) outlines techniques for challenging narrow views and providing multiple perspectives on a project. Hales (1993) similarly provides a process for recognising different frames of reference in engineering design.

These examples work within a powerful professional framework of common assumptions. The ability to challenge these underlying assumptions, which may call into question the very foundation of people's personal and professional identity, require more careful methods. By creating a new language to categorise data, and by many techniques that divorce data from traditional associations, grounded theory can provide some kind of starting point (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Schatzman and Strauss, 1973; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Heron (1989, 1990) provides insight into ways in which people hold onto their conceptions of the world, and counselling and facilitating techniques for challenging those conceptions.

The process is difficult, and one that the TEC staff have yet to fully explore. Yet it is a process vital to the idea of critical reflective practice.

Mirroring

I believe that many of us were deeply influenced by some of the ideas of a former Head of TEC, Dean Nugent. Nugent was steeped in post-modernist conceptions of the world. Essentially he viewed the role of the teacher as providing a mirror in which students could make sense of their own world. This involved the teacher's facilitating the student's deconstruction of what was said and reconstruction in a new form, by juxtaposition of incompatible concepts or providing a contextual frame.

Nugent's process of mirroring is in a sense another formulation of 'emotional competence', because it consists of an attempt to focus, free of assumptions, on the meanings of the student. However, it also means that whatever programme we offer is of a form that should help students gain their own insights, rather than providing them with common understandings in the form of dogma. Reflective practitioners see where they are and where they want to go. They are not of the 'competent citizen' model but of the 'human potential' model.

Nugent's contribution also extended to our conception of our own roles as teachers. Surely we must be able to hold up to ourselves a many faceted mirror, so that we may be able to deconstruct and reconstruct our own words and actions.

Action research and the diploma

The early versions of the diploma never mentioned action research. Instead they discussed principles of adult teaching, experiential and open learning, and reflective practice. One of the difficulties with regard to action research is that it is not a methodology as much as an approach to education, with a whole set of assumptions and implications attached to it. To the heart of some of the early practices that gradually become put together and codified under the name 'action research' was an ethic, that learning is an intensely personal affair, and that learners learn not what other people decree that they should learn, but what they set themselves to learn. Such an approach means that pedagogical teaching methods are questioned not only for their efficacy but for the values underpinning them.

Bunning uses an analogy to describe what he sees as the difference between scientific research and action research. Scientific research carefully skirts around swampy areas where there are messy solutions, and prefers the high ground where the view is clear and one keeps one's feet dry. Action research explores the swamp. There are no 'solutions' but interesting tracks and areas of wildlife to gazette (Bunning, 1995).

Action research provides as many theories as there are practitioners. Debates range over whether validity lies in process or results, whether it needs to be participative, what the role of the researcher is, whether it is 'academic' or 'professional', whether it can be imposed or must be grounded in real issues, whether it is a 'problem-solving' or a 'problem-posing' process, or even whether it is research at all.[5]

Action research and TEC

At TEC action research is used as a set of guidelines leading to both self-exploration and professional development, with its validity determined more by the effectiveness of change than the methodology used. Basic tenets of TEC's approach include:

- Action research has no beginning. Even the formulating of topics for research is a research process and in action research may be the main part of the research. Researchers engage in a process of reflection, which reformulates past experiences in terms appropriate to the present. The beginning of an action research cycle, then, involves a move back as well as forward.
- Similarly, action research has no end. Cycles are overlapping. The end of one cycle often opens up many possible new areas for research. It is often not fruitful to be too dogmatic about the cyclical nature of action research, but rather to think of it as a continuous process of planning, acting, observing and reflecting (Kemmis and McTaggart, 1982).
- It has internal and external consequences. The internal consequences are what is called 'learning', the external consequences are changes in the environment.

- Action research leads to further action research. It involves processes of 'making conscious' or 'becoming aware'. So by its nature it enables the researcher to engage in further research.
- It is necessarily political. Involvement in the process constitutes a political act; it means a commitment to question and if necessary change the status quo. It is in itself a process of freeing from dependence to independence to interdependence.
- Although simple and natural and self evident, it calls into question all processes where solutions are imposed.
- Action research is as much about process as achieving results.
- Action research involves collaboration between all interested parties.
- Processes are repeated at different levels. Commitment to action research involves commitment to personal autonomy, and to a process which will lead others to personal autonomy. This means that teachers engaging in action research will also change their teaching. They will advocate use of action research in their classes.
- Action research is as much a set of principles as it is a methodology.

Three frameworks for describing action research

TEC's eclectic view of action research may perhaps be described clearly through three 'frames of reference'. The first outlines a process of influence from the personal to the global, the second elaborates on this as a series of levels of application in teaching, while the third considers the scope of the project.

Resolution levels

The concept of **resolution level** is borrowed from engineering design (Hales, 1993). It refers to a number of different perspectives from which the design process is viewed. Decisions made from the perspective, say, of a design engineer, may be interpreted in many ways by other people involved in the design, depending on their own interests and contexts. One of the essentials of good engineering design is to integrate the different perspectives into the design process.

The action research process can be applied at a number of perspectives from the global to the personal. A decision or issue at one level of resolution impacts in a variety of ways on other levels. For instance, introducing a new technique in a class may affect the teacher's approach to a number of other classroom tasks. It may also change the confidence level of both teachers and students. The researcher needs to both anticipate and reflect on effects of the action research process introduced at one level on other levels (fig 2:2).

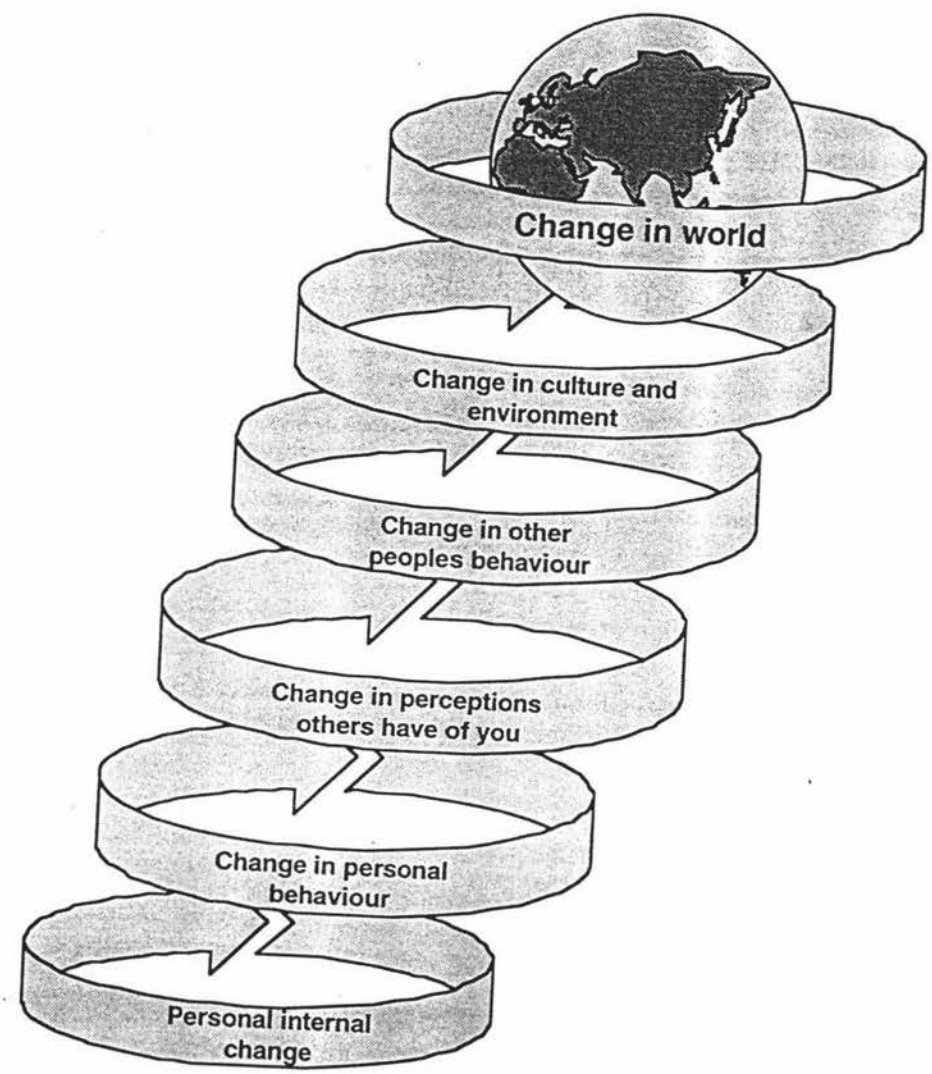

Fig 2:2 Levels of resolution

This conception of action research places TEC in the company of researchers who believe that action research leads to challenge of social norms and assumptions, for even the simplest of decisions to change a personal trait or a teaching technique leads to a move out of normal ways of seeing the world.[6]

Levels of application

Levels of application may be defined as the extent to which action research at one level leads to action research at another. Engagement in participative action research implies a commitment to the involvement of others to seek common resolutions to issues that they identify. Students or others participating in the action research themselves acquire not only the skills but a model of practice for their own investigations. Similarly, if a researcher requests of others that they reflect critically on their own experiences, then the researcher needs to possess and display the same self-reflective skills.

TEC's use of action research can be explained in terms of levels of application. We subscribe to the view that students learn best when they are given greater control over their own decision making, to the extent that they define, implement and evaluate their own learning. The skills of the teacher are in helping students develop skills of autonomy and self-evaluation. Teachers need to learn these skills themselves. Our role at TEC is therefore to model and practise these skills with course participants, so that they are autonomous, reflective practitioners and that they can pass on the same qualities to their students.

At another level of application, therefore, the skills and philosophies are embodied in our own developmental and evaluative processes. The processes we use to develop and implement the diploma parallel as far as possible the processes we expect our participants to develop for themselves and in their work practices (fig 2:3).

Levels of scope

Methodology, participation and validity are all determined by the **scope** of the research. Large-scale United Nations projects and personal self-learning can all be

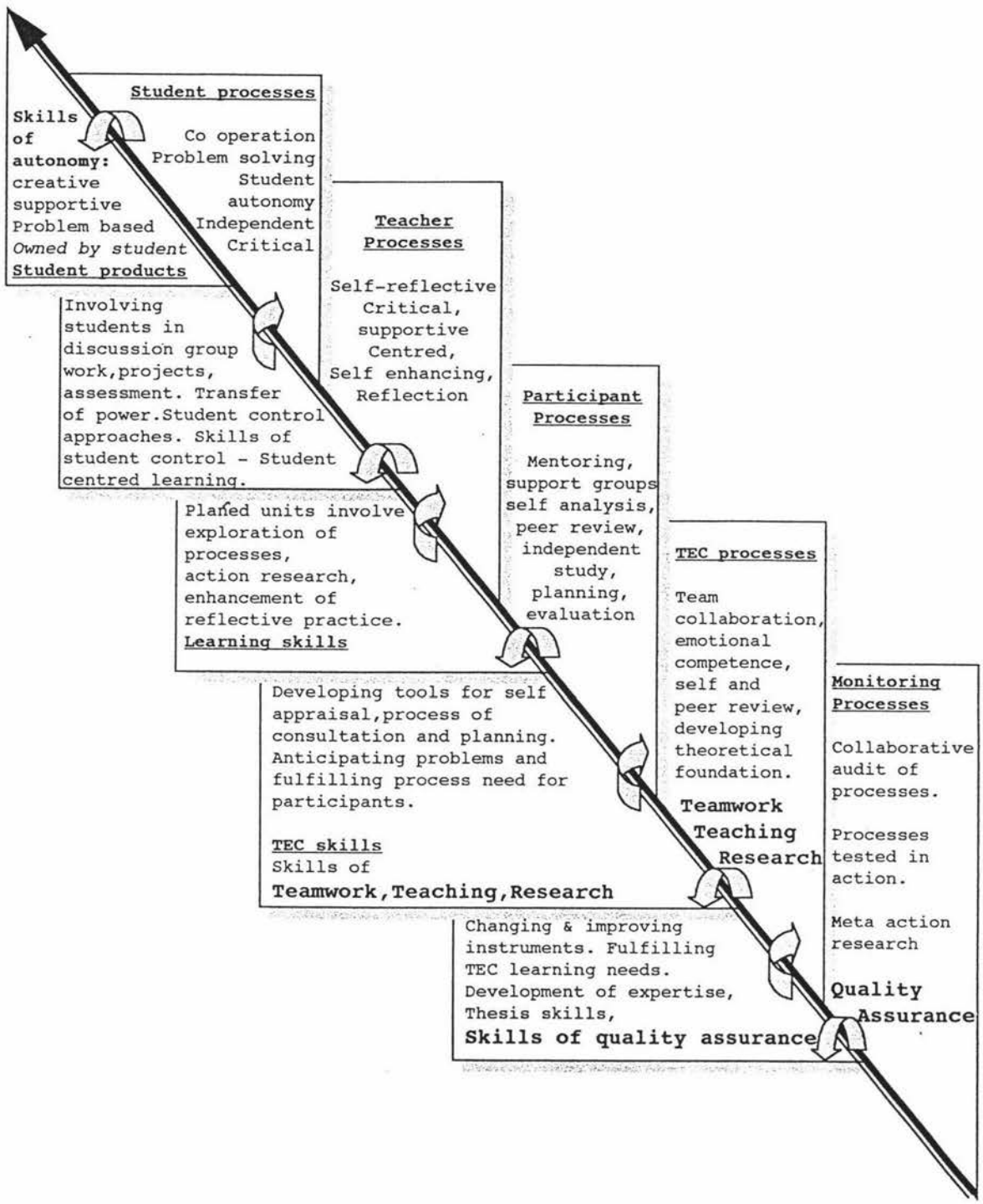

Fig 2:3 Levels of application

encompassed by the term 'action research', yet the projects have more to distinguish them than they have in common. They may be personal or task-based, with an individual or group focus, meeting academic or professional norms. Action research forms the basis of institutional learning, where the goals of an institution are met through the diligence of work teams in setting and meeting both individual and group goals. Larger-scale projects are often conceived of as a series of smaller action research cycles which together form a larger cycle (fig 2:4).

The diploma can also be viewed in terms of a number of discrete research tasks or projects impinging directly or more often obliquely on the broad design. Each book read or participant mentored adds to knowledge and understanding. It has been a living organism that has taken its meaning from the smaller organisms that constitute it.[7]

Types of research

Action research is very different from what is commonly known as research, even in the social sciences. Scientific research generally sets out to find answers to hypotheses which are generally explicable and applicable across a defined range of phenomena. What results is a set of explanations or natural rules to apply when investigating new phenomena. Where new information does not fit, then new hypotheses are advanced to discover why not. Thus the workings of organisms may be predicted in ever greater detail.

Essentially scientific research is concerned with describing and explaining a rational objective universe, where there is little room for opinion, let alone differences of interpretation. It is based on analysis, on the cause of distinctions between organisms. It is based on the idea that everything is predictable or explicable through reason.

Scientific research is not so appropriate for describing the unpredictable, such as the behaviour of humans or animals. Of course this too can be 'predicted' to a point or a degree of probability. What cannot be rationally predicted are the motivations or causes or reasons for behaviour. This can only be 'interpreted' from observations or reports of the behaviour, and so are valid only within the subjective rationale of the person doing the prediction. Thus there is no 'objective' truth about human behaviour, but only probabilities and interpretations.

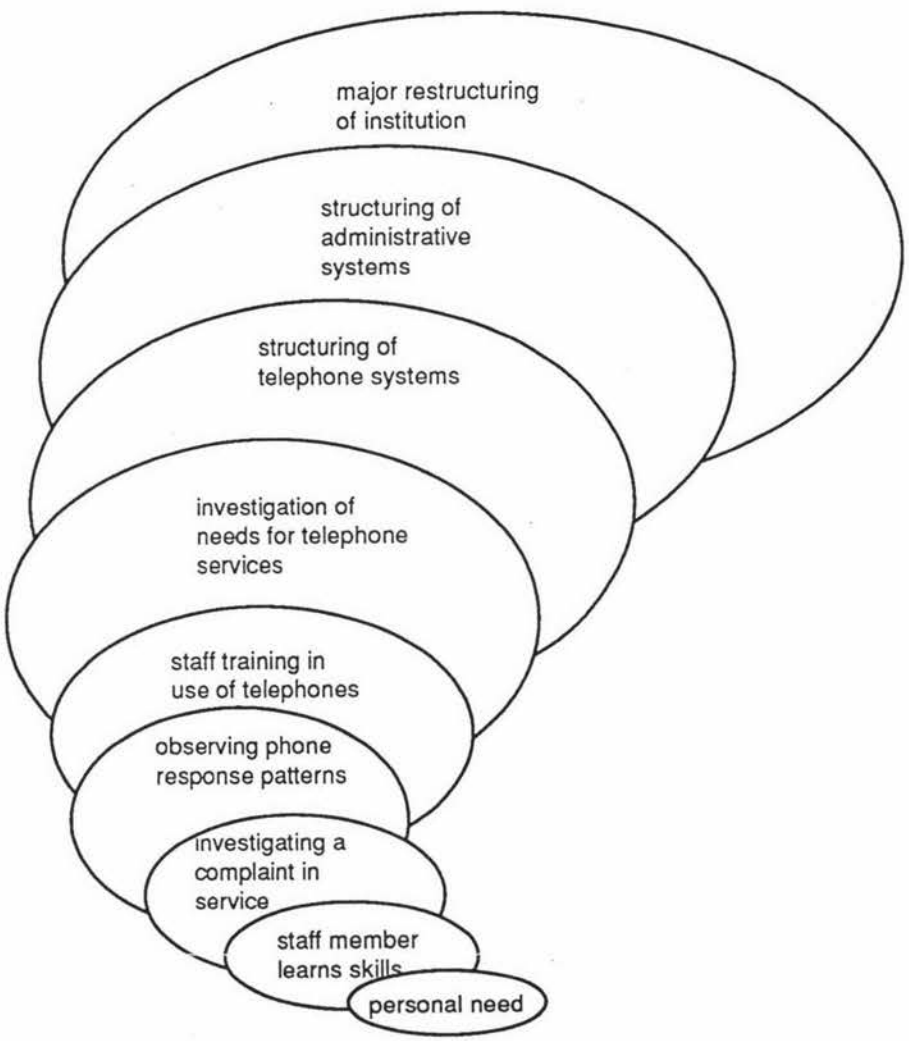

Fig 2:4 Levels of scope

Action research is not concerned with the development of general predictable rational explanations. Instead its purpose is for people to analyse and change what they do. While scientific research emphasises generalisable results action research is concerned with particular issues or problems and their resolution. While scientific research analyses, action research involves the exploration of possibilities. Scientific research is built on assumptions developed from previous research; action research questions assumptions. Scientific research places emphasis on 'objectivity'; action research involves the people affected by the issue in finding solutions which are most appropriate for them. Scientific research is 'value-free' while action research is generally concerned with promoting the common good (see Carr and Kemmis, 1986).[8]

Positivist and interpretive paradigms

Education can be seen in terms of a battleground between competing paradigms. One of the features of paradigms is their incompatibility with each other, because they constitute profoundly different sets of assumptions. Different paradigms not only present different interpretations of the same problems, but what presents as a problem in one may not be so in another. For instance, in a positivistic paradigm with its emphasis on an objective reality there is an issue of teacher subjectivity, which may be resolved, as was suggested by the State Services Commission in award negotiations only a few years ago, by developing 'teacher-proof packages' which could be 'taught' by teaching assistants. In the interpretive paradigm the issue is not teacher subjectivity, but rather the development of a range of perspectives.

Put simply, the positivist tradition subscribes to the Platonic view that there is a single unquestionable reality or truth which we are all aiming to understand. The main task of teachers is to help students along a progressive path of understanding of this truth.

The approach leads to a concern with means over ends – there is an assumption that the ends are 'real' and non-controversial – and that therefore the role of teachers relate to delivery in the most effective way, rather than questioning the value of the curriculum. It also leads to a mechanistic view of the world, where people undertake their alloted tasks in order for the well-oiled universe to function smoothly. This leads to

reductionism, whereby the whole is seen as no more than the sum of parts, and functionalism, where teaching acts have to be seen to serve specific, defined purposes.

Foster (1985, p.14) proposes five effects of the positivist, functionalist position:

- It denies the effect of culture.
- Organisations are viewed as ahistoric constructs.
- Organisations use a 'business practice' model.
- Organisations are geared to make 'profit'.
- Because of assumptions that there is only one way, there is little opportunity to demand change.

This paradigm is pervasive in the current educational climate. The effect of the National Qualifications Framework is that a mixture of industrial and educational spokespeople determine what is legitimate and valuable to learn and what is not. By assigning levels, values and criteria to each item of 'knowledge', the Framework is in effect determining a canon of appropriate instruction. By linking the instruction to funding mechanisms, it determines the relative legitimacy, not only of knowledge, but of modes of instruction.[9]

Experiential learning, however, derives from a different paradigm, based on the premise that 'reality' is a construct out of each of our subjective perceptions; that we each have our own unique subjective 'reality'. The world appears quite different when viewed through this lens. No one perception is right or objective; all events are open to as many interpretations as there are people to experience them.

In this interpretive or constuctivist paradigm the purpose of education is to discover and nurture individual potential and facilitate learning, rather than creating competent citizens through teaching people 'what they need to know'. It leads to the exploration of complexity and questioning of assumptions, in contrast to the positivistic paradigm which involves the breaking down of complex matters into simple components (see also Greenfield, 1975).

It is hard to reconcile the concept of vocational skills assessed against common standards with the concept of fulfilling creative potential and finding new ways of doing things. Yet this paradox is frequently at the heart of teaching. Teachers justify

what they do at times from the point of view of the growth of the learner and at other times in terms of syllabus requirements.

There is irony in that often the same words can relate to either paradigm, so that teachers may be inadvertently talking at cross-purposes. 'Student-centred' can mean "focusing on learning rather than teaching" or "providing learners with opportunities to learn what they wish to learn". 'Learner needs' may be defined by learner or teacher, and 'potential' may refer to job prospects rather than personal talents.

The most important difference lies in whether the learning is defined within the teacher's or the learner's frame of reference. In the positivist paradigm the purpose of the teaching is for the learner to conform to expected social norms or to fit into socially defined roles; the interpretist position is that learners should define and embrace unique pathways and meanings, at the same time being open to a range of perspectives. The one maintains social cohesion through control of access to intellectual capital (as defined by those who have the power to determine the legitimacy or appropriateness of knowledge). The other can lead to pluralism through questions about the legitimacy of the knowledge and the recognition of many points of view. In one the main educational questions are about means, while the other discusses the validity of the ends.

The methodologies used in the first stage of the diploma derive in the main from the interpretive view. This has informed our epistemological position, that knowledge is constructed either directly out of the experiences of the different participants or vicariously from their exposure to alternative theories and constructions of events. This position has led to redefinitions of the roles of teacher and learner. It has also led to profound questioning and critique of current ideologies and practices in New Zealand.

The critical perspective

However the interpretive position is in itself unsatisfactory. Even when teachers are facilitating in the true sense of education – i.e. "drawing people out" – their role is ambiguous. No matter how much they lead learners to create their own meanings

questions remain about their right to take on such a role, and their prerogative to lead in certain directions as opposed to others.[10]

One of the difficulties with the interpretive paradigm is that within the exploration of knowledge and the clarification of meaning there is little sense of purpose. Aronowitz and Giroux (1985) sees the fundamental role of teachers as to **transform** thinking about the world, rather than to uphold traditional or imposed views of knowledge. Teachers lead people into radical new thinking, which analyses social issues and resolves them in terms of overecoming injustices. Codd (1989) similarly refers to learning as reflective action which moves people from commonsense, traditional understandings to the development of critical transformative perspectives (see also Freire, 1973; Freire and Shor, 1987; Schön, 1987).

In particular the concepts of action research and critical practice derive from this paradigm. Carr and Kemmis (1986) argue that action research has both the intention and result of leading people to develop critical perspectives and transformative solutions (though Brookfield, 1991, debates the issue of moral prerogative involved in this view). Kincheloe (1993) discusses the need to maintain a critical framework which is not merely used to problem-solve but to question fundamental assumptions.

Conclusion

The different paradigms briefly described here are at the heart of the problems and dilemmas outlined in this study. They raise questions about roles of teachers and teaching, learning and assessment, as well as ideologies and their translation into policies and practices. The next chapter explores some of the issues raised in the development of the diploma and their resolution in ways that where possible fitted our commitment to the values of critical reflective practice.

Chapter 3: Developing the diploma

Introduction

This chapter provides a historical and developmental rationale for the diploma. It examines many of the decisions that gave its distinctive shape, and some of the dilemmas and challenges they presented.

The form the programme took and its theoretical base evolved from the changing needs of participants and the TEC client base. The Tutor Education Centre, formed out of the dividing up of the national Tutor Training Centre in 1985, was an autonomous unit receiving money directly from the Department of Education to provide initial tutor training for the eleven polytechnics in the Central Region, from Gisborne and Taranaki to Wellington. Between then and 1991 workshop programmes developed which were flexible enough to meet the administrative and educational needs of this diverse and scattered clientele. Programmes evolved from a prescriptive base to the provision of a number of alternatives, including independent research, from which participants defined their own individual courses of study.

Government policy changes led to the Tutor Education Centre being incorporated into the Central Institute of Technology from 1990, with central funding being removed from

the end of 1991, to be replaced by user charges on polytechnics. It seemed inevitable that TEC and the other two tutor training centres would close from lack of polytechnic support, and with them the chance of thorough initial training for polytechnic staff. At the end of October 1991 the Ministry of Education intervened and offered dedicated Equivalent Full-time Student (EFTS) funding to the three centres for one year. That was the catalyst for the Diploma in Tertiary Teaching.

The origins of the diploma, then, lie as much in pragmatism as philosophy. Open and student-directed learning processes were not only an educational base to which we all subscribed but also a most suitable process for working with our participants and polytechnic clients. The diploma itself was developed very quickly – the first draft was prepared in ten days – in response to the lifeline offered by the Ministry of Education.

How it started

The breakthrough came by means of the Association of Staff in Tertiary Education (ASTE), which approached the Ministry about the imminent demise of all three tutor education units. A temporary regime of EFTS funding for the three centres was proposed with the proviso that they offered a substantial qualification rather than merely a tutor education programme. The funding would be a transitional arrangement initially for a year, to enable the units to initiate self-funding programmes.[1]

The TEC team needed to produce a programme before the end of 1991, cost it out and sell it to the polytechnics, and have it approved by NZQA before 1992 had progressed too far.

Exploring options

The Auckland Technical Institute (ATI) Professional Development Centre and Christchurch Polytechnic already offered diploma programmes and our first option was to consider if either was appropriate for us. We had already looked at both programmes in some depth when discussing the proposition of a national diploma.

CIT's conviction that we should initially offer the Auckland Diploma in Adult and Tertiary Education was motivated by correspondence from ATI indicating that many of our former clients had already decided to change allegiance, and offering to employ some staff at CIT to maintain the programme. We were less convinced. Although on paper it looked appropriate it fitted neither with our educational philosophy nor with the training requirements of the local polytechnics.[2]

We saw tutor education as a matter of clarifying values and developing critical reflection, rather than learning a defined set of skills. Although the Dip ATE had reflective practice as one of its goals, the courses seemed subject rather than process centred, and coming from a predetermined position about what constituted a good teacher. In those terms, 'reflective practice' meant the students' ability to assess whether they had applied the taught behaviours appropriately. The course also did not appear to be flexible enough to meet the diverse needs of our clients as it depended heavily on set-programme workshop blocks with compulsory attendance requirements.

The Christchurch diploma was a different matter. We thought hard about ways in which it could be adapted to suit our situation. The relation of TEC with Marjorie Manthei of Christchurch Polytechnic had been more co-operative over a long period. Marjorie had attended meetings through 1990 and 1991 looking at the possibility of a national diploma framework. We endorsed the emphasis on critical reflective practice and the open, self-directed nature of much of the diploma. Indeed a number of our initial ideas on reflective practice originated with the Christchurch diploma.

However one of the requirements was that participants needed to have done a full year's teaching before they entered the diploma programme. We could see no benefit in that as we were of the view that a length of time teaching does not necessarily lead to better teaching or understanding of teacher training. It would also have disqualified many of our potential students.

Planning

From research of polytechnic requirements it was obvious we needed a flexible programme of workshops which could be taken individually or in week-long modules,

that they needed to be offered in a variety of locations as the need arose, and there needed to be credit for similar programmes offered by others. These workshops needed to be available as stand-alone courses and as part of the diploma programme, but we also needed, to achieve our EFTS funding, to enrol as many as we could in the diploma.

The criteria it needed to follow included:

- A framework flexible enough to incorporate the other diplomas, as well as any further ones that might be developed.
- The versatility to enable other providers to offer parts of the programme.
- Appropriateness not only for polytechnics but also for adult and community educators.
- A 'national' focus, rather than a CIT one. In particular it needed the input of the group of people discussing the national diploma.
- Appropriateness for both new and experienced teachers.
- Ability to give credit for skills already acquired, and in particular to those who had already received the Initial Tutor Training Certificate (ITTC).

In order to incorporate these criteria, it needed to have a flexible framework where students could design their own programmes. Participants would need to define their goals and the most appropriate means of achieving those goals. However it also had to show that participants had the opportunity of demonstrating their competence as teachers.

A consistent values base

It was only in the diploma's evolution that our underlying values became clear. We had a strong commitment to developing autonomy in our students, based on their ability to reflect critically on their own teaching. The meaning of this autonomy had not been fully explored, though in all our workshops we tried to move beyond explanation to challenge and critique, and we encouraged participants to identify their own learning needs, choose workshops which met their needs, and where possible develop independent learning programmes. We were also committed to the idea that reflection

and self-critique rather than the development of a range of practical skills formed the basis for good teaching. We recognised that the experiences participants brought to the programme should form the basis for exploration, and that often participants needed to have models and frameworks to make sense of their experiences. Juxtaposing them with the experiences of others, and interpretations others might make of their own experiences may also constitute a sort of 'cognitive dissonance' which may lead to questioning of their own assumptions. Thus we stressed the importance of valuing the experiences of others.[3]

TEC had long worked from the basis that each person entering a learning situation is a cultural entity and brings assumptions, attitudes and values that determine their ways of learning, understanding and organising knowledge.

This raft of values, still not clearly articulated, formed the basis of our decision making. For instance, in its first draft the Stage Two programme consisted of a selection of week-long workshops about different topics which we were interested in running, together with an option for participants to choose independent learning contracts. We clarified that the workshops were our agenda rather than that of our clients, and that the authority of our offering them might actually stand in the way of participants making independent decisions about their programmes, and thus maintain dependency. With reluctance we removed our menu of workshops, while retaining the option of offering workshops provided they arose from participant demand.

We also questioned the relationship of workshops we offered at Stage One with the need to demonstrate competence in the eight module areas. We realised that workshops were resources to help participants to gain and demonstrate competence, rather than being the direct cause of competence, and that competence needed to relate to practice rather than knowledge or understanding (see **Appendix C** for 1992 workshops).

Reviewing our first attempt

The first draft had a great deal of the arbitrary in it. The twelve weeks of Stage One were to fit into the old tutor training programme. The Stage Two and Stage Three modules were of similar size to provide symmetry rather than having any internal

rationale. Decisions were made on the basis of the sort of workshops we could offer, as much as with regard to participant needs.

Our revision started with the idea that 'no intervention' should always be the starting point in a helping relationship. In other words we had to consider what the effect was for the development of the participants, rather than accepting without contention that working with us was going to be beneficial.

We also worked from the basis that there were no indisputable performance criteria that determined what constituted a good teacher. They can only be judged by their results and that in a complex way. Teachers may be good at imparting knowledge to some students but leave others cold. Others may inspire, yet their weakness in subject knowledge may frustrate some students. No, the only determinant of good teachers is that they are able to work out the different effects of what they do, have the understanding to change and develop and experiment, the realisation of their own fallibility and a willingness to admit their faults. In short, a good teacher indulges in critical reflective practice.

Of course a wealth of understanding about teaching and learning, about oneself and about cultural and social issues is embedded in the ability to be a reflective practitioner, not to mention the skills of analysis, evaluation and reconstruction that constitute critical reflective practice itself. The diploma needed to address all these matters but particularly the skills of reflective practice, for with those teachers would be able to acquire the other understandings and skills.[4]

Challenges to traditional programmes

Decisions that were made about the form of the diploma were the result of attempting to resolve pragmatic questions in ways which did not compromise our beliefs about adult teacher training. Our questioning often led us to reject solutions which were commonplace in other courses of teacher training. The result was a programme structured in ways quite different from other similar programmes.[5]

Advanced standing

One of our first questions related to the issue of 'experience' or 'advanced standing'. The Christchurch diploma, and later the Wellington Polytechnic degree, gave automatic credit for 'advanced standing', which is variously interpreted as the experience and qualifications which have lead to a person's being employed as a teacher, or a period of teaching at an institution which provides an experiential basis for the course. While we were enthusiastic about recognising the current skills and practice of enrolees, it was clear to us that neither subject competence nor teaching experience **necessarily** made anybody a better teacher; credit for those aspects may even reinforce bad teaching instead of questioning it.

So instead of having a process of **recognition** of prior learning which automatically took into account experience and qualifications, we substituted an **assessment** process in every instance. We required evidence that participants had the skills and understandings appropriate for the programme we offered.

Supervised practice

We also questioned the notion of the **practicum** or period of practice supervised by TEC lecturers.[6] While we thought it was important for teachers at times to arrange for others to observe their teaching we thought it should be initiated by the teacher for specific purposes, rather than being a general 'supervision'.We did not consider that there was some kind of practice ideal against which performance could be measured, considering instead that each teacher possessed unique teaching qualities which may not be understood by an outsider viewing a single session.

The concept of supervision also raised questions about our relationship with our participants. While we welcomed any choice they might make to have others observe their teaching we considered that this should be determined by them in the context of their own organisation. Any observations we might make could be construed as part of an assessment rather than a developmental role, and so reinforce dependency. We wanted to concentrate on the ability of teachers to understand and critique their own practice.

Compulsory and optional components

One of the major debates was around whether there was a set of core skills required by all teachers and which therefore needed to be compulsory. The research undertaken by Alison Viscovic for the Wellington Region Working Party on Courses for Teachers of Adults (1991) found that there was considerable agreement about the sort of skills areas that were basic to teaching. These largely mirrored our own initial tutor training areas, with the addition of 'research skills'. They were also similar to the programmes offered in Auckland and Christchurch.

There is however some difference between showing competence in certain areas of a discipline and defining that competence in the same way for each person. While all adult teachers, it could be argued, need course design skills, the skills they need are defined and constrained by their own environment and purposes. We decided to have participants themselves make decisions about what was important for them, within a framework of broad-based outcomes relating to the skills areas outlined in Viscovic's research. Within that framework they could clearly define their own unique programme.

Achievement of outcomes

Essentially, an NZQA unit standard is a set of outcomes. Learners who can demonstrate they have met the criteria for achieving the outcomes gain the unit. The gaining of the unit should not be conditional on attending a course of study.

In practice, of course, meeting the criteria **is** usually made conditional on teaching, except where exception is made with relation to recognition of prior learning. Assessment, credit and funding are all tied to teaching rather than learning. As each module of a programme must stand alone assessment must relate strictly to what has happened within it rather than the more complex and haphazard learning that may occur as a result of the teaching. EFTS funding and student allowances similarly relate to attendance on programmes rather than the learning that may ensue.

One of our important insights was to define outcomes in terms of critical understanding leading to changes in practice. This meant that in contrast to conventional modular programmes, where assessment is of learning undertaken within the module, assessment for the diploma did not relate to understanding resulting from the workshops but to the effects of the workshops on defining, evaluating and changing practice. This approach challenged the assumption that there is a direct relationship between teaching and learning. The workshops became seen as resources rather than components of the programme. There were no attendance requirements.

The diploma's outcomes were concerned not with how good people are as teachers but how critically they assess themselves. In other words, our processes monitor the extent to which teachers are able to critically evaluate what they do.

Assessment criteria and assessment questions

This led to a major breakthrough in terms of assessment criteria – it was not sufficient to show competence; participants also needed to show 'insight' and changes as a result of that insight. The assessment criteria needed to indicate the extent of reflective practice which participants displayed in demonstrating their meeting of the outcomes. We developed a set of assessment criteria that related to meeting all the Stage One outcomes; they could be checked off on the action plans before reports were sent in for assessment (see **Appendix D).**

One of the more crucial aids to assessment was developed after the first reports came in. Three TEC lecturers all assessed the reports using their gut reactions, and all came to similar conclusions. We then discussed what criteria we appeared to use. These were converted into questions which were applied in assessing future reports. For a while we had in our literature both the assessment criteria and a set of assessment questions, which became the real assessment guide and worked very well for a while.

Reflective practice

An essential role for us was therefore to ensure that participants understood what was meant by reflective practice and that they had the tools to engage in it. We proposed a

requirement that participants attend a workshop where the reflective processes used in the diploma were explained and practised and a kitset which would enable participants to work through the development of critical self-evaluation on their own.

Increasingly we realised that the only compulsory elements should be those that gave the skills necessary to pass the diploma – the skills of reflective practice.

Assessment of prior learning

The separation of assessment from attendance at workshops highlighted for us the concept that all assessment is of prior learning. All people who had already attended our workshops could be given the relevant module provided they showed that they were able to show competence in meeting the outcomes by reflecting on their practice. Stage One was indeed no more than sets of outcomes and performance criteria, the meeting of which was the only requirement for gaining each module.

Instead of considering assessment of prior learning as different from other assessments, we resolved that all assessments could take place at any time, once participants had made a decision that they were ready for it. All they needed to provide at Stage One was a report, supported by evidence, that they were able to understand, evaluate and change their own practice in the module area.

Use of interviews

Although we specified that the report could be in any form the participant wished, and that they could combine reports, the process was slow and discouraging.

After some prompting we decided to encourage assessment by interview, where two TEC lecturers questioned one or more diploma candidates. After the first trial interviews we put together sets of guidelines, which three of us tried out on a visit to Hawke's Bay Polytechnic in which we accredited about fifteen participants with some or all of their Stage One modules.

The experiment was a remarkable success. It launched a number of tutors on their diploma pathway and so cemented our strong ties with the polytechnic. We were

surprised at the interview process itself and its effect on candidates. It was usually a rich and stimulating event, which was considered both positive and searching by participants, although there was some criticism of its subjective nature. The staff development tutor at Hawke's Bay Polytechnic made informal comparisons between our on-the-spot assessments and his understanding gleaned from years of knowledge of each participant, and while he disagreed with our assessment on one occasion he was very supportive of the process. We were ourselves surprised at the lack of disagreement between assessors about decisions, and about their ability to conduct the interview and discuss decisions openly.

While from the beginning participants had been encouraged to choose their own assessment method, after this visit the interview became the most common form. While some modifications have been made it is conducted essentially as it was trialled in Hawke's Bay. The instruction sheets for the interviews eventually became the first components of the Stage One Guidebook.

Specifying outcomes with unrelated assessment criteria caused difficulty of interpretation for many participants, who were unable to make connections between the two. Planning sheets to a large extent resolved the problem. Each module was provided with a planning sheet in the form of questions interpreting the outcomes in the light of the criteria and a space below each for responses. The rate of preparation improved markedly.

Assessment as audit

We were aware that all assessments we made about the teaching practice of participants would lessen their ability to assess themselves. Instead we spoke of 'auditing' assessments. What we meant was that our assessment would be of the ability participants displayed in assessing themselves. We would not judge whether participants were good teachers or not, but only whether they were themselves able to evaluate their own teaching adequately.

This meant that the assessment criteria at Stage One had to be divorced from the outcomes which considered participants' competence in each of the eight areas. We evolved a set of assessment questions which checked that participants were using

analysis, evaluation and enhancement of practice in whatever area they were studying.

We were also concerned about this audit, in that it was checking on aspects of the programme which might have been unclear to participants. So we also compiled a checklist assessment for them to undertake about their processes of evaluation, before they submitted the report to us.

A similar auditing approach applied to Stage Two and Stage Three.

Timeframes

One of the matters that provoked most dissention between TEC and CIT was that of timeframes. Our contention was that if participants were self-directed on the programme they should be able to undertake the modules and stages in any order and over any timeframe. There was in fact no rationale for enrolling them at the beginning of one year and insisting they complete one module or stage before moving to the next. Indeed, with participants able to undertake Stage One assessments at any stage, and with a workshop programme in which the order of attendance very much depended on the ability of polytechnics to release their staff, there was little chance of any restrictions being kept to.

Workshops as resources

Because we now considered workshops resources, rather than an integral part of the course, we could see no reason why the workshop programme should not be separated from that of the diploma itself, so that it could have open attendance. The diploma would then consist only of a contracted one-to-one process to meet the outcomes, using whatever resources, including workshops, that were available. Participants would be able to enrol at any time, unaffected by attendance at workshops.

We could see nothing but advantage in leaving this part of the decision-making up to participants. However such a move raised questions of enrolment, funding, EFTS calculations, student fees, continuity of records, and even room allocations.

Contracts and action plans

If participants were substantially determining their own programme, including setting their own outcomes within the diploma framework, then TEC needed some way of negotiating with each of them that they were fulfilling diploma requirements. We had already used action plans of a sort to determine the independent learning contracts and extended experience under the old Initial Tutor Training Certificate. It seemed an appropriate way to go.

There were several drafts of the action plan form before it came out the way it did. Some of those drafts used critical questions, but eventually we went for one which listed our outcomes on the front, then gave room for a wide variety of interpretation on the inside. The action plan gave a good basis for the development of the diploma at a time when we had nothing.

Challenges to polytechnic and national policies

The design of the diploma, while often appearing to fit with current educational thinking, in fact presented a great deal of challenge to both traditional and new educational philosophy and policy. Although much of the initial struggle to have it accepted within the polytechnic seemed to involve administrative issues, these reflected an approach to education that was clearly at odds with its open, student-centred nature.

The diploma provided a test to see just how far CIT was prepared to change to incorporate open learning principles. It took six months before the diploma received internal validation and for years after there were major administration and funding issues. It was clear that both these issues were manifestations of a different educational paradigm, in which our innovations were seen as perverse rather than positive.

The programme was incomprehensible to administrators within a system where students enrolled at the beginning of the year, paid all their course fees at once, sat a three-hour exam in November, and either passed or failed. The flexibility whereby people could attend workshops and later have them credited to the diploma, where

fees could be paid in stages, and where there was no equation between workshops and courses seemed conceptually beyond their grasp and physically beyond their recording system.

Enrolment

A good example of internal conflicts has been in the area of enrolment. For most courses at CIT in 1992 enrolment took place at the beginning of the year or at a set time through the year, and students paid for the complete course or a complete year. Despite our insistence on registration on individual modules there was no facility for that form of enrolment, and a reluctance to create such a facility. Early enrolees found that they on participating in a week of workshops they were billed for the full cost of the diploma. While we wished to charge for workshops separately from diploma charges, CIT instead wished to charge an 'enrolment fee' which covered all workshops.

Areas of dispute included the following:

- Problems registering students on individual modules.
- Problems with students paying as they went.
- Recording students as having failed if they had not completed within the year.
- Constant requests by CIT for examination results.
- Problems transferring from short course enrolment to diploma enrolment and using module passes as transferable currency between qualifications.
- No facility for holding fees from one year for use in the succeeding year.

As the allied staff at TEC had been used to registering people in a variety of different ways for courses they resorted to a kind of subterfuge, sending records to CIT only when in an acceptable combination of modules, holding back enrolments from one year to another, and rationalising enrolments for participants who had started on short courses then progressed to the diploma. Essentially the TEC staff managed their own enrolments, occasionally updating the CIT files when it was an opportune time to do so.

EFTS funding

Our issues relating to EFTS funding were also ongoing. The Ministry initially provided fifty dedicated EFTSs for a programme of one year full-time equivalent, at the lowest funding window.

It was difficult to reconcile any of our processes with EFTSs. The formula is based on classroom teaching, where there are a number of students together on a defined programme. Where participants move through the programme at their own pace and without strict time constraints conventional EFTS classification processes break down. We tried to equate it to hours, days, or weeks and each calculation produced different figures.[7]

The EFTS formula concerned us for a number of reasons:

- The money for the programme or yearly components of the programme normally became available on enrolment for the year of enrolment. Any programme money left over at the end of the year went into a central account and was lost as a budget for the following year. With our programme people enrolled throughout the year and worked at their own pace, so we needed a system flexible enough to provide funding when it was needed, rather than in the year of enrolment.
- The course funding is allocated by the Ministry of Education on the basis of national priority and a bidding system. In this case they had allocated dedicated money based on a year long programme; we were aware that our programme would be more than a full-year equivalent.
- The funding bears little relation to the complexity of delivery of the programmes. Under the funding formula the diploma attracted the lowest category of funding at the A/X rate (and less than half the funding of courses in Colleges of Education). Indeed it was funded on the same basis as a distance learning programme providing correspondence packages, despite the resource intensive nature of the mentoring process.
- EFTS funding is attached to particular programmes. Thus participants who attended workshops or CAT courses before enrolling on the diploma received different rates of funding, and the funds went into different accounts.

- Assessment of Prior Learning attracts no EFTS funding, even though that too may be resource intensive.
- EFTS funding can only be applied to courses which are not separately paid for through government funds. As the initial tutor training costs were supposed to be paid for out of polytechnic bulk funding, then that component of the diploma was supposed to be fully charged to polytechnics.[8]

Resourcing

One of the problems with the management of a programme so dependent on quality one-to-one relationships, in a system that values mass education and common outcomes, is that it is never sufficiently resourced. Each lecturer needs to maintain a mentoring cohort of around 75 participants working at different stages of the diploma. Such a large number places an uneven and unpredictable burden on lecturers, who may suddenly be inundated with reports, or may at times be reluctant to maintain contact. In June and July 1994, for instance, I had 87 recorded contacts with participants, often involving more than one person, and generally lasting 30 minutes to an hour.[9] Because they are so unpredictable they tend to be added on top of regular workloads, with the result that less immediate tasks are often put off for long periods.

The difficulty with juggling competing demands in an environment where there is insufficient resourcing is that longer-term goals are frequently sacrificed to the exigencies of the moment. Actions then become ways of averting crisis, rather than being carefully thought through. The resourcing issue is more extreme when a small organisation is in a state of growth, because resources, especially staffing, are always stretched. This has led to a situation where publications are invariably in draft form, distance learning resourcing has been patchy, and mentoring response times have often been long.

Moving on

Gradually the programme evolved into its present form. The described length of modules was increased to incorporate self-directed study and time for assessments; the number was reduced to eight at Stage One and six at Stage Two. The Stage Three module was first a student-directed self-and-peer review process akin to supervised teaching practice. It then evolved further to an analysis and evaluation of the process itself. Its time was reduced to six weeks, partly to fit the entire diploma into a one-year timeframe.

Under the first draft, the introductory module was given the title **The Reflective Practitioner**. Increasingly we realised that the skills required to undertake reflective practice were complex and developmental, and would only be given form at Stage Three. We subtitled the three stages of the diploma **The Informed Teacher, The Independent Teacher**, and **The Reflective Teacher.** In this way they mirrored processes of reflective practice: that one needs to know what one is doing, to operate from a consistent internal philosophy, and to monitor one's practice through self and peer assessment. It started to take a coherent developmental shape, which could be expressed in terms of the growth of independence, the development of a research philosophy, an increasingly self-critical evaluation of practice, or evolution from received wisdom to shared understandings.

But through the task of producing the diploma were woven other important and exciting achievements. The most important of those was the way we welded ourselves together as a team. We worked in non-hierarchical ways with little role definition, so developed a collegiality that respected and catered for individual differences, and exploited the strengths of each member of the team. We had to clarify and question our own values and philosophies, and developed powerful tools to engage in this critique. We had to strategise together to overcome internal problems and external threats. We had to learn to trust each other. We were willing to turn any situation to our advantage. We had a new confidence that we would survive whatever happened.

Chapter 4: Professional competence

Introduction

One of the unanticipated consequences of the diploma was that it led us to reflect a great deal on the processes we used in our teaching. At the outset TEC lecturers considered themselves to have considerable expertise as open facilitators. Much of our experimentation revolved around enabling participants to take increasing responsibility for meeting their own needs within a facilitated programme. This in itself was a challenge both to traditional pedagogy and to other more closed facilitation styles.

The role of facilitator has since taken on a range of new aspects, including providing participants with structure and skills to enable them to manage their own programmes and the processes required from the diploma. Lecturers have also increasingly been called upon to facilitate courses within the environment of participants, and especially working with Maori participants in small training centres and marae.

But it is in the areas of mentoring and assessment that the major challenges have lain. Both of these areas were new to the lecturers, who had to learn as they went which techniques worked and which needed change. When the diploma was in development there were a number of breakthroughs in our thinking which led to major reconceptualisations of parts of the programme. Since then critique and change have been ongoing, to the extent that what we do now bears little resemblance to our first bold efforts.

In this chapter I focus on the three areas of facilitation, mentoring and assessment. There could have been others, such as the development of student contracts, reflection, resourcing, publications and work with Maori. All have engaged us in steep and powerful learning curves, in which we have attempted to reconcile traditional approaches with our philosophy or values. All continue to intrigue and challenge.

A process curriculum

Stenhouse (1975) outlines three different approaches to curriculum design – outcomes, process, and research. Most polytechnic courses have a stronger emphasis on outcomes, while on the diploma outcomes are defined in terms of processes leading towards independent research.

The differences are important in terms of delivery and assessment. In an outcomes based course students are expected to attain a common standard, which is set in advance. While creativity and idiosyncrasy may be tolerated or even encouraged, credit is usually given only for reaching the pre-set standard. Individual differences and particular circumstances are also discounted, as are factors such as whether the course meets the needs of participants.

While such a curriculum may have validity where graduates need to meet common professional standards, Stenhouse argues convincingly against its application to other forms of curriculum. It is based on the conviction that there is a certain well-defined commonly accepted body of knowledge and skills to which all students need to subscribe. Thus it reinforces strongly the world-view of those who define the curriculum, and provide little opportunity for disagreement or innovation. These

assumptions about the content of the curriculum also often have embedded assumptions about how it should be taught and assessed. The result is that whatever attempts to enable it to meet the needs of students, its main effect is to ensure dependency and uncritical acceptance.

By contrast, process curricula recognise the importance of developing appropriate processes in the achievement of quality. It is interesting that few organisations regard understanding of a body of knowledge or of job specific techniques as major factors in staff recruitment. Instead they list a variety of skills or processes of learning. Juchau's research is typical (Juchau, 1990). He describes the educational needs of fifteen professions in the United States; all identified general transferable skills as most useful. A result of the research was a move to have professional education programmes with greater emphasis on the 'disciplines of the mind'. All Alverno College's degrees have been for twenty years assessed according to eight generic 'abilities' (Timperley, 1992).[1]

An outcomes based approach to curriculum assesses the product, not the skills that led to the product. A process curriculum, on the other hand, measures the ability to use a range of appropriate skills to arrive at a solution. Emphasis is on coaching, problem-solving and analysis of personal skills; solutions may be diverse and idiosyncratic.

The diploma as process

The diploma has a process curriculum. The 'content' of it is the development of good processes. And good processes cannot be taught through traditional pedagogy, but only through experimentation, trial, coaching and practice. TEC lecturers are at the same time explaining, showing, modelling, challenging and supporting participants through changes in their processes, and so they need to be expert not only in teaching processes themselves, but also in the processes required to enable participants to learn how to improve their teaching.

Outcomes for modules at Stage One relate specifically to the content of the module. But they are defined in terms of critical abilities, rather than specific skills. They are guides to the parameters of the module rather than a definition of a body of knowledge.

The assessment questions define the processes. They are the same for all modules and refer to the skills of defining, analysing and evaluating practice. Before participants can undertake these processes they need to understand theories and practices relating to the subject area. The assessments, then, review the participants' ability to make sense of their practice, using the knowledge they possess.

At Stage Two and Three the process curriculum is reflected directly in the outcomes, which themselves refer to the processes of action research the participants undertake. These processes are taught and refined through mentoring and coaching. Thus the outcomes are met on completion of a research report. The assessment criteria at Stage Two have however moved towards the evaluation of the quality of the research, which is measured in terms of its personal and professional benefit, rather than its adherence to research guidelines. Participants produce a report in which they themselves evaluate the effect of the project on their personal and professional practice. This report is then critically reviewed by the mentor and another lecturer.

At Stage Three participants are responsible for the whole process of developing a critical self and peer review process which evaluates both the environment in which they work and their roles in it. The effectiveness of the process depends on their ability to evaluate their professional practice and changes they make. The TEC assessment is a matter of asking critical questions about the processes the participants develop.

Teaching skills for a process curriculum

The process curriculum and its development into research-based assessments require different teaching skills from those emphasising content-specific outcomes. Teachers need to have understanding of the processes and research components, and ability to integrate those into their practice. They also need to be free of assumptions about content. Much of the work of TEC lecturers involves modelling and coaching students through processes of teaching practice and research.

There are various levels at which skills can be learnt. The first level involves the raising of awareness about the variety of skills available. On another tertiary programme, for example, topics such as 'group work' were undertaken through, first, an

hour-long lecture within each syndicate of seventy students, which explored, in interactive mode, advantages of students working in small groups and various ways of organising groups. In seminars immediately following the lectures students related the technique to their own experiences.[2]

Such an approach is valuable to those who have thought little about the skills of teaching. It heightens the observational and analytical capacities of students. It may not however increase their own skill levels. Working in small groups is by no means suitable for every situation, and where it is suitable different approaches produce different results. The technique can be facilitated badly or well, and may benefit some students over others.

There is considerable skill involved in teaching using small groups. Teachers need to be able to gauge what is happening in the groups, possess a range of small group techniques they can call on, have a clear understanding of possible effects of using different techniques, and have the confidence to adapt to meet the needs of the situation. They need to use small group work for particular purposes, not merely to provide variety.

To become adept practitioners participants need to observe, experiment, practise and critically reflect on the processes, so that they start developing a second-level awareness. Their teachers, therefore, need to model appropriate techniques, discuss what they are doing, coach, provide theoretical frameworks, evaluate and support.

A major emphasis at TEC is on lecturers themselves developing this expertise. Most have participated in programmes on facilitating, group development and leadership, accelerated learning, collaborative assessment, organisational learning and action research.

Facilitating and experiential learning

While at Stage One there is some delivery of information or theory, there is a strong emphasis on facilitation, to the extent that participants are largely responsible for defining the content, as well as working out solutions relating to their own situations.

Each workshop reflects the subject being explored and the temperament and skills of the tutor, as well as the composition of the class. Nevertheless, most have common features:

- The format of the workshop provides a framework within which participants explore their own issues.
- The content of the workshop provides theoretical frameworks which can be used in the explorations.
- There is strong emphasis on participants' own experiences.
- The workshop moves quickly from action to reflection to theory and application. Each activity is both reinforced and extended by the following one.
- Participants work towards some kind of resolution or change within their teaching practice.
- The facilitator/tutor both informs the group with considerable knowledge and understanding of the issues and engages them to analyse and evaluate those issues.
- As the workshop progresses the participants increasingly take responsibility for the workshop and its outcomes.

Boud's conception of reflection as the process of creating meaning from an experience (in Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985, p.7-17) provides facilitators with a dual role. First, they need to work with the learners' experiences, enabling them to seek out common ground and explain differences. This may be called 'contextualising' the experience. Second, this occurs within a learning environment which itself provides common ground, challenge and 'critical dissonance', which move learners out of their normal way of perceiving their experiences.

John Heron's definition of experiential learning (Heron, 1989) involves four forms, each of which is reinforced by different styles of facilitation:

> *"We encounter the world (experiential learning); identify patterns of form and process in it (imaginal learning); these become the basis for development of language and knowledge (conceptual learning) which is applied in a wide range of skills (practical learning). Henceforth, I use 'experiential learning' to refer to the whole hierarchy. This hierarchy states what kind of learning rests*

epistemologically on what other kind. But a formal learning cycle can take different routes." (p.13).(fig 4:1).

Heron proposes a conceptual grid consisting of six dimensions of facilitation distinguished by the purposes or intentions of the facilitator, who may work within three political modes to create eighteen options of facilitative style (fig 4:2). *The Facilitator's Handbook* explores a range of facilitation techniques which characterise each option. In his own workshops, Heron actively experiments with different techniques, modelling them in ways which provoke responses at different levels. He thus models and coaches in facilitation, at the same time as describing and analysing theories.

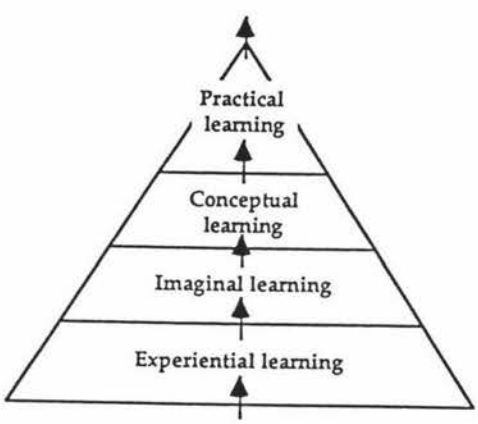

Fig 4:1 Heron's experiential learning model (from Heron, ibid, p.13)

Heron's facilitation techniques have made us more conscious of a variety of options for responding to any teaching situation, whether at the course planning level or in terms of individual interaction. Most workshops at TEC are now conducted mainly in co-operative mode, where outcomes and components are negotiated and renegotiated throughout the programme. Within this framework we are often called upon to move to hierarchical mode, where we take responsibility for major decisions about content and process, but just as frequently we enable participants to work autonomously, on programmes they design and implement themselves.

Workshop facilitation has been one of the areas where TEC has been forced to make rationalisations and compromises, to the extent that we offer neither the extent nor the depth of workshops we once did, though we have by and large resisted attempts to reduce it even further. Before 1992 people enrolling on the programme had an allocation of up to twelve weeks of tutor training in their first two years, and were able to choose their own programmes from a variety of parallel workshop options. In 1995 diploma enrolees and those undertaking initial tutor training may undertake up to a four-day workshop programme in each of the eight areas of the Stage One modules.

	Planning	Meaning	Confronting	Feeling	Structuring	Valuing
Hierarchy	1	4	7	10	13	16
Co-operation	2	5	8	11	14	17
Autonomy	3	6	9	12	15	18

Fig 4:2 Dimensions and modes of facilitation (from Heron, ibid, p.23)

Mentoring

Stage Two and Three rely on what we call 'mentoring'. The Concise Oxford Dictionary definition of 'mentor', as an "experienced and trusted adviser", has been translated into practice in at least two distinct ways. Many people speak of the mentors who have guided and promoted them along a career path. This is the way the term is used, for instance, in Mollie Neville's *Promoting Women* (1988). Each of the senior female educators she interviewed identified at least one person whose personal interest in her career ensured that she moved up the promotional ladder.

The other meaning of mentor is broader, involving a range of skills designed to help people become more autonomous. This is a catch-all term which includes facilitating, advising, coaching, supporting and critiquing. This aspect of our work has been revealed as more complex and problematic the more competent we become; we are developing

• Informing	-knowledge of diploma elements and processes -use of appropriate language and vocabulary -checking of understanding
• Counselling	-listening skills -non-directive support -asking clarifying questions -setting boundaries/keeping focus on diploma -offering options
• Coaching	-helping develop skills -motivating through inspiring, confidence building, encouraging & reinforcing -values clarification -giving feedback -clarifying -extending
• Supervising	-clarifying expectations -giving feedback -being a confidential listener -advising -modelling appropriate behaviour
• Globalising or overviewing	-understanding context -exploring links -extending creativity
• Planning (part of coaching)	-understanding of action research -breaking down into steps -goal setting -defining parameters -understanding of all requirements -translating requirements -using guide books and other references -checking on the validity of projects -negotiating
• Assessing	-judging -giving feedback supportively -reading between the lines -making and testing assumptions -understanding assessment criteria -explaining judgements -engaging in dialogue (exploring and clarifying)
• Inspiring	-being positive -acknowledging -reframing -telling stories - 'how about...' -networking (tapping into other resources) -believing in full potential of students -standing beside
• Challenging	-confronting fears -asking why -extending comfort zone -judging -saying no

Fig 4:3 Mentoring aspects and tasks

ways of evaluating and monitoring each other's mentoring to become more skilled in a variety of approaches and to ensure that we are appropriate in the process.

In February 1995 the TEC team set aside some time to analyse what we meant by mentoring. We identified ten aspects, each of which involved distinct and often complex skills. As we clarified what we meant, each lecturer was able to identify ways in which they preferred to work and areas for improvement. Many lecturers regarded the 'challenge' area as particularly challenging (fig 4:3).

This analysis served to motivate staff to analyse and diversify their own mentoring styles and reinforced our resolve to supervise and support each other through the process. With some aspects we started exploring appropriate applications to the diploma. For instance, we looked at how we could challenge participants to evaluate their personal changes in a deeper way (fig 4:4). Lists of questions such as this serve as triggers during the process of mentoring.

The analysis also clarified the complexity of mentoring. Mentors need to make decisions about the appropriateness of different types of intervention on the spur of the moment, and the decisions they make often affect the direction of the relationship from then on.

- How are you different?
  - -What do you do now that you didn't do before?
  - -What do you do differently from how you did it before?
  - -What would you like to do differently or better?
  - -How do you feel different?
  - -Do you understand yourself or your interactions better?
- How does this make you more effective personally or professionally?
- What have you learned?
- What insights have you gained about learning?

Fig 4:4 Challenging questions for personal evaluation

Heron (1990) has again provided a framework for approaching interventions. His six-category model gives a range of options for responding in each situation; the more each

is practised consciously the greater the repertoire of automatic responses can be built up. Although I have certain preferred sorts of intervention myself, I have often been aware that they may not be the most suitable. By consciously taking other lesser used categories I have greatly increased my confidence in mentoring (fig 4:5).

Mentoring is a different process at Stage Three, and harder to define. The mentor often spends considerable time at the workplace of the participant in the early stages, discussing possibilities and ensuring that adequate self and peer review processes are in place. The extent of the mentor's involvement after that time depends on the participant's situation. In some workplaces processes of quality management and peer review are normal practices, in which cases the mentor will be rarely called upon. In others the mentor becomes an ongoing adviser on the planning, implementation and review processes, as well as an assessor of the final report.

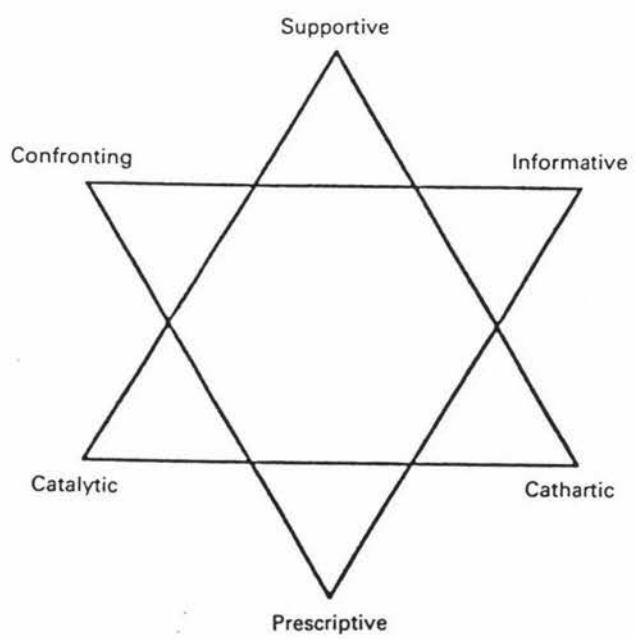

Fig 4:5 The six categories of counselling intervention (Heron, ibid, p.5)

Mentors are less in control at Stage Three because the processes used by participants must be defined by them in relation to their environment. The mentoring role is largely confined to advising about possibilities for action, interpreting the module requirements in terms of the particular situation, and checking that the processes decided on are safe, ethical and appropriate. There is no blueprint for action; each Stage Three process has been unique.

The major difference between mentoring at Stage Two and Stage Three is that of trust. At Stage Two mentors can be quite directive if components of the process are not completed adequately. They can guide, model and coach in a process in which they have sure understanding. In Stage Three they need to trust to the expertise and goodwill of participants to develop their own appropriate instruments.

Coaching

Schön's (1987) concept of 'coaching' has clarified for me what happens when we mentor participants and also in our collegial relationships. It explains why, despite ambiguity and inconsistency in our interpretations of our roles, our students report a high degree of satisfaction. While we may advise that we find a topic inappropriate, or we may suggest alternative ways of approaching an issue, the decision always rests with the participant. It is not our role to explain how the research should go, but to coach participants in the development of their own abilities.

Schön considers that all teaching involves coaching. By this he means that essential parts of learning cannot be taught, but can only be developed independently by the learner. The teacher cannot even articulate what these parts are, because they are unique to the learner. The only thing teachers can do is coach learners in how to develop their own repertoire of learning. In a sense then, what we are doing is modelling and advising on processes that may be used to develop skills of self-reflection.[3] Satisfaction with the programme may not reflect what the mentor has done at all, but what the participants have done. They may even be satisfied despite their relationship with their mentor, whose goading and critique may well be viewed as an obstacle for them to overcome. Many participants may well succeed whatever their mentor says or does.

Of course such speculation is hard to prove. It is an area that needs to be researched further; there are as many different responses to mentoring as there are approaches to mentoring.

Assessment

One of the questions that has absorbed much of our attention over the last couple of years concerns how to provide fair, rigorous, valid, useful and efficient assessments for the diploma when participants move through in individual learning paths, at different times and paces, and in different contexts. How can a young newly appointed polytechnic lecturer with little teaching experience be assessed on the same unit as a senior Salvation Army officer or a PTE tutor working in isolation in a small country town, so that their assessments are of equivalent value? How can the experiences of nursing lecturers and art teachers be rated appropriately?

A particular difficulty we found was how to develop an assessment process for people taking a variety of workshops for a variety of purposes, while taking into account the need for them to make their own assessments about changes in their practice. The assessment processes have been formed to suit the different needs of participants taking different diploma pathways.

A further challenge is that we are assessing participants at Stage One on a set of outcomes related to particular areas of teaching, yet those outcomes need also to relate to the particular circumstances of each participant. To what extent, for instance, does a counsellor working on a one-to-one basis with students need to know about the theory of course design? The outcomes have been written in a non-prescriptive way as far as possible, although there are some requirements in terms of understanding teaching theory.

The assessments are not really about achieving the module outcomes. They are about the extent to which participants interpret the outcomes in their teaching. The assessment criteria relate to the ability of participants to make sense of their teaching. The basis of the assessment is then not that practitioners are able to apply a certain set of skills that they have learnt on workshops, but that they are aware of reasons why they make certain teaching decisions and the effect of those decisions on students and others.

In practice the assessments are more complex. In the action plans or planning notes participants first interpret the outcomes of each module in terms of their particular circumstances. By meeting their own outcomes they also meet the outcomes of the module. Participants must meet three requirements: respond to the outcomes of the module, which are written broadly and with a mixture of content and process terms; meet the specific outcomes they have set themselves within the module outcomes framework; and demonstrate not only their ability to describe and analyse what they do, but also to evaluate it and determine possible changes.

Assessment is in a sense a component of mentoring. If the mentoring and coaching of the participant at Stage Two has been adequate the assessments should be expected to be unproblematic. This is rarely the case in practice. Participants are often required to revise, review, or add more material, and in those cases the report is considered a draft.

Process assessments are often more in the form of an audit of evaluations participants themselves make of the processes they use. In the first year of the diploma's operation we were extremely unsure about what that meant. On reflection the main consideration we looked for was that the research had been useful in terms of the participant's personal professional development. Our emphasis on defining problems and difficulties, recognising and analysing insights, and determining avenues for development meant that we were not satisfied with merely technical changes, but changes in conception and interpretation of the participant's roles, skills and approaches to education.

The problem that has remained with us is the articulation of this concept of reflective practice in a form which makes sense to participants who in the main have been educated and continue to work in a model of education which emphasises technical solutions to complex issues. Many participants define their needs in terms of specific skills of teaching, rather than a problematising of their job.

Stage One

At Stage One we expect participants to process the information obtained in workshops and especially through their relationships with other participants and make sense of it in terms of their own situation. The questions we ask are designed to move them from

description to analysis and evaluation. In assessment interviews we probe for ways in which conventional assumptions are being questioned and new insights are discovered. Some of the clues we look for include:

- Ability to present actual examples from practice, rather than general statements about practice. To a person who says, "I always tell my students what we are going to cover in the class", we may ask, "Describe one time when you did that. What did you say?"
- Congruence between what is said and the words used. For instance, a participant may tell us he has always been an advocate of student-centred learning, but then uses 'I' statements to describe the class situation.
- Coherence between parts of what is said. Genuine advocates of action research, for instance, will find examples in whatever they undertake.
- A clearly articulated philosophy of education.
- Ability to note ways in which they may improve their practice.

We are wary of certain words and phrases which often occur in assessments. Some have accrued metaphorical significance, in that they tend to characterise approaches to a range of teaching tasks:

"I always treat everyone the same."

"But my subject is different."

"There's little I can do."

"The syllabus won't let me."

"My course is only at Level 1."

Stage Two

At Stage Two assessments are not so much on the results of the research or of its adherence to plan, but of the learning that has taken place on the way and the processes used to gain the learning. While we ask to see the project described and supported by evidence, our questioning concerns interpretation of data and drawing conclusions from it. Participants are expected to systematically change their practice and evaluate the changes they make. Our assessments should do no more than confirm that they have undertaken that evaluation, so is a check on the evaluation process

itself. In a sense our assessments are an indication that participants are ready for assessment in that they have completed their self-evaluations.

We are very much aware of the subjective nature of the assessments we make, and the extent it depends on the ongoing facilitation or mentoring relationship we have with the participant, so we have implemented where possible a system whereby all assessments are undertaken by two assessors, one of whom is able to be more objective. It is still surprising, even when assessors agree, the extent to which their emphasis and interpretations are different.

Stage Three

While the Stage Two assessments are frequently returned for modification or addition, such a process is much more difficult at Stage Three. The Stage Three processes are so idiosyncratic and bound into the developmental processes of a particular group of people that our assessments have had no explicit criteria, but have been more an open response to the reports they have presented. Our questioning is usually in the form of clarifying the processes involved and the ability to understand why matters took the form that they did.

In mid 1995 a series of general questions were formulated for the guidance of participants, and at the end of 1995 a checklist of processes was devised, which provides a triple focus for the assessment – personal, group, and the processes themselves. This latter category ensures that the participants not only use the processes of self and peer assessment to evaluate their own performance, but that they are able to evaluate the effectiveness of the processes they have used (see **Appendix F**).

Assessment is not necessarily concerned with making a judgement about whether a participant has passed or failed a course. It would be presumptuous ever to fail a participant on the Stage Three process, as the results of the process are so dependent on environmental factors, such as the willingness of others to take part, the nature of relationships, and even the extent to which participants are able to discuss their workplace. Instead the assessments take the form of probing critique of the processes engaged in, and the ability of those taking part to themselves analyse and evaluate both their situation and their own process.

Participants usually – though by no means invariably – choose to present a written personal report from which TEC assessors formulate questions to provide a basis for an oral group presentation. The presentation itself gives opportunity for further questioning. The assessors' report attempts to outline the main issues covered, as well as providing a basis for further debate.

In a sense the criteria for assessment derive from the decisions and conclusions of the participants, rather than from external guides. If their processes have been ineffectual – perhaps concerned more with support than with critique, or indulging in 'blaming' rather than 'owning' behaviour – then the assessors will normally challenge the results. On rare occasions participants have been asked to take their process further. But participants are unable to fail the module.

The Stage Three assessments are the ultimate result of the 'process curriculum'. Participants engage in a process which they need to define in terms of their personal roles and work environment. Their involvement in the process demands that they take responsibility for developing a self and peer critique, and this requires complex processes of relationship and self-assessment. Whatever results they demonstrate confirm that they have taken that responsibility.

The responsibility of TEC mentors for the success of Stage Three lies in two places. First they determine the readiness of the participant to engage in the process, and second they 'start off' the process with the participant, perhaps in the form of interviews and discussion, or more often by attending the first meetings and contributing where necessary.

Other roles and tasks

These three roles of TEC lecturers, though vital, by no means constitute their sole or even their main job. Informal observations and surveys indicate that a lecturer's day is divided between professional reading, attending meetings, writing materials, administration and course preparation, as well as direct work with participants. Despite the generous time we spend in course development and review, it is difficult to find one day a month when all lecturers are able to be together. At least once a

fortnight two or three lecturers will be working in a different part of the country, running CAT programmes, mentoring and assessing. About sixteen weeks of workshops a year are run at TEC, each involving up to four lecturers. Staff are involved in CIT committees and union meetings. Considerable time is spent in consulting with other organisations, negotiating contracts and programmes.

Over three random weeks in 1995 a workload survey was conducted. Preliminary results indicate that the three largest categories for time spent at TEC were in 'other' (ie. non-diploma work), 'research and development' and 'administration'. For those on trips, travel time took up to a third of the total trip time.[4]

Conclusion

Much of staff discussion about the diploma centres around the three processes I have explored in this chapter. Despite our developing expertise in these areas, it is surprising the extent to which we feel they are still largely uncharted territory. The more we critically evaluate our microskills of facilitation, mentoring and assessment the more problematic they become. The essence for us is that these are defining skills for the building and maintenance of our relationship with the participants, and dependent on that relationship is their motivation to explore the complexity of their own processes.

The next chapter focuses on some of the problems, issues and difficulties we have experienced with our processes, the models we use and the assumptions we make. A critical perspective is brought to bear on the current educational climate, and I critically examine my own development and role.

Chapter 5: Looking at ourselves

Assumptional analysis

There comes a time when we all need to question our dreams. Right through 1992 we had kept that dream alive. We believed so thoroughly in our vision of education, and the strange vicissitude that allowed us the indulgence to convert it to reality in the form of the Diploma in Tertiary Teaching. We had been so caught up in the 'rightness' of the cause that we had found our way around seemingly insurmountable obstacles, had guided the diploma through approval and accreditation processes, and had even earned, by September, 27.5 EFTSs out of the 50 that had been allocated by the Ministry of Education.[1]

Commitment to a vision can come at the expense of questioning of assumptions. From the start we had subjected ourselves to questioning about the processes and how to translate our vision into reality; we questioned other people's assumptions; we rarely questioned

our own. What if our vision was not really shared by more than a handful of others? What if reflective practice was too dangerous for some people? What if we were making it hard for people to obtain skills they could get simply through lectures?

Five years on, in 1996, the questions are different. From the feedback we have received, from the interest and excitement it engenders among participants, and from the support given by organisations, we are convinced that the diploma provides a vehicle for personal discovery and professional improvement that meets the needs of a wide range of people. It provides a framework for teachers to pursue their professional interests and explore their most perplexing questions.

This chapter is an attempt to critically examine our processes and philosophies. It starts with the recognition that there are many areas of the diploma which are of concern, and many others that work, it seems, mainly through good faith rather than good management. In some places the vision has been lost, or rather converted by practice into something different. In others, what we set out to do has been overtaken by events.

Once again I focus on the particular areas of facilitation, mentoring, assessment, and resourcing. This means that many other areas of concern are not considered. One of those is the increasing critique of the diploma by Maori. This has arisen in a number of ways:

- Concern about the slow progress through the diploma by some Maori participants.
- Maori raising issues relating to models and focus.
- Maori on workshops challenging lecturers about process.
- Maori staff raising questions about the degree of commitment shown by TEC to biculturalism and tino rangatiratanga.
- A desire by TEC staff to integrate Maori issues more fully into both the diploma and their ways of working.
- A series of staff meetings through 1994 and 1995 to try to develop a bicultural policy for TEC, which led to considerable disagreement and soul-searching.
- Debate about the content of the Human Rights module.

If I have avoided this particular issue it is not for lack of interest but because it merits a study in itself. The diploma processes and our culture have found an empathy with Maori which has enabled the debate to continue with good will and common cause. In a sense the debate constitutes in itself resolution of cultural issues. In another way the issue of the cultural appropriateness of the diploma for Maori has been a catalyst for more widespread critique.

This chapter more than any other involves analysis not only of the public debate at TEC but also my personal doubts and insights. These are in the nature of open questions which remain often despite public affirmation. My attempts to analyse and explain these personal responses are not intended to exclude other explanations, for instance, that I am unaware of the range of effects of my mentoring interventions, or that I give too little credence to the interpretive abilities of participants.

This particular focus is central to the study. It is from these personal doubts, insights and questions that new ideas flow. Many of course need to be checked out with others, but a great deal of what we call competence is not subject to public verification but is the result of people acting on their hunches, often without clearly articulating the basis of their actions.

Diploma feedback

We have had confirmation of the value of the diploma in many ways. Most important are the comments of the participants themselves. More often than not these occur incidentally, while reporting on their projects or in conversation about other matters. There has been more systematic feedback as well, but only of parts of the course, through Stage One workshop and assessment evaluation sheets. CIT has carried out independent monitoring, both through the annual 'satisfaction' check and, in 1993, a more substantial assessment. [2]

The value of the programme has also been affirmed through its adoption by a number of organisations as their national training programme. In some cases this has been achieved through open tendering, and in others through advocacy by key people. But in many instances the employees themselves have acted as advocates, after having

attended some of the workshops. Some of our most powerful support came when we sought comment on a proposal to develop the diploma into a Bachelor of Education degree. When we asked all participants on Stage Two or Three for their response, more than half of the respondents gave unequivocal support (fig 5:1).[3]

Yes, I'm definitely interested in studying towards a BEd degree from CIT	59
I'm not sure, but would like more information	33
No thanks, not interested at this stage	10
No response by 26 May	101
Total surveyed	*203*

5:1 Support for degree

The 'black hole' syndrome

This positive feedback is no grounds for complacency. There is also evidence that for a number of participants the diploma does not work. The most obvious way this is shown is when we receive no response to any of our letters or phonecalls. In 1994 we initiated a policy of letting enrolments lapse if there has been no contact for two years; twice a year letters are sent to all participants regarding their intentions and less than a quarter normally respond. A number of enrolments have lapsed since the last contact letter was sent.

This 'black hole' syndrome, where there is no response to repeated overtures, is to me one of the most frustrating elements of the diploma process, partly because without feedback we are never sure what is going on, and partly because, even when we can surmise the cause of the behaviour, we are unable to do anything about it. We are in a dilemma. We hesitate to provide too much direction in case we maintain dependence, yet participants seem to be shying clear of developing their own independent course of study.[4]

Within Stage One

There are two places where the syndrome occurs most frequently. The first is during Stage One itself. Participants unable to attend Stage One workshops rarely contract to undertake modules on their own and apart from in workshop courses the Stage One action plans are seldom used. Indeed, the most common way for people at a distance to obtain their Stage One modules is by assessment of prior learning (APL). A number of people have gained some modules, often as a result of CAT courses, but seem unwilling or unable to seek help to complete their Stage One or to undertake APL for their remaining modules.

There could be many reasons for problems at this stage. I believe we may set up conflicts within participants when we emphasise the need to become autonomous learners. At Stage One many participants show signs of insecurity, low self-esteem, and dependence. They enrol (or more commonly are enrolled) in a programme which is supposed to develop in them the skills of being a good teacher, yet after enrolment they may be given little help, other than to attend workshops in Wellington or CAT courses in their region. They are expected to critically evaluate what they do yet they are given few tools to do so. Their insecurity and negative assessments of themselves may be reinforced by expectations that they are in no position to meet, yet they are unable to admit their need for direction in a programme where they are meant to provide their own. They are unable, in short, to talk to us.

If such a scenario is real it means that the diploma programme may be reinforcing low self-esteem and dependency, and creating a defensiveness that is a barrier to reflective practice (Bunning, 1992). If we are to provide reasonable tuition to people throughout New Zealand, not to mention internationally, there may be urgency about the need to develop distance learning resources for all modules in Stage One. The resources need to be highly interactive and responsive to individual needs; they need to develop in participants the confidence and competence to evaluate their practice objectively. In other words, they need to provide the same sort of supportive attention as the workshop programme does.

For the resources to be successful, distance participants need to engage in an active programme planning process, where they diagnose areas of need and identify resources

to help them meet their goals. They need to develop their own action plans, with the coaching of their TEC mentor.

Of course the issue also lies with the expectations and inclinations of the participants themselves. For many, teaching is no vocation but instead a temporary, bread-and-butter job. In the current climate teaching is increasingly a part-time affair, with staff contracted year by year or even course by course. It is understandable that such teachers may be reluctant to commit themselves to long periods of training.

Among others we find an obduracy that acts as a barrier to disclosure about their teaching. These are the ones who do not wish to change. They may participate in workshops but in the end see no relevance to their own teaching.

Inequities within the programme

There is often an inverse relationship between what we offer and the state of need. Increasingly the ability to leave work for a week to attend workshops is a luxury afforded by only those polytechnics or other organisations that have integrated our programmes into their plans. Attendance at the workshops is not always to meet participant needs but to fit with the convenience of the employing authority. With small PTEs in country areas, where the programmes are often more urgently required, there is little opportunity to attend. Courses are frequently run end-to-end as the responsibility of a sole teacher; there is neither the facility nor the resource capacity to appoint relief teachers.[5]

For those participants the input of TEC is often confined to CAT programmes and unstructured additional course materials sent in the mail. Because the CAT courses are intended to provide an introductory overview to the programme and are facilitated in an experiential way there is also danger that participants leave the programme with a greater opinion of their own competence than might be warranted, thus creating a resistance against more in-depth exploration of the Stage One topics.

Movement between Stage One and Stage Two

The 'black-hole' syndrome more usually occurs between Stage One and Stage Two, where participants move from a programme with content areas defined by us to one where they develop their own content. They have frequently been assessed on Stage One modules as a result of their experience and knowledge of teaching and without having attended many module workshop programmes. Evidence from three or four institutions indicates that the major problem participants have at this stage is that they do not know how to engage in independent action research – the issue we were going to address in our initial plans by providing a kitset and a workshop.

One of the reasons for this is our APL processes, which credit participants with Stage One modules on the basis of what they say about their teaching. Evidence from some PTEs in particular has been that APL has given the benefit of the doubt to people who are inexperienced and unsure of their jobs. To address this issue we have included a new assessment criterion, 'that participants can understand theories and concepts'. This at least ensures that they justify their practice in relation to sound principles. We have also agreed to be more rigorous in our adherence to the criteria. We now ask for supportive evidence, which, in the case of the research paper, must include a research report.

The issue might be considerably more complex than this. The advantage of using broad-based criteria, that they can be interpreted to suit a variety of contexts, is also their biggest disadvantage. It is often difficult to know whether in an interview a person understands concepts, or the difference between analysis and evaluation. Assessors certainly disagree as to their interpretation of particular words spoken, even if they agree on the module assessment.

Even the words are ambiguous. 'Analyse why you do it' to some people means "describe in greater detail" rather than "give reasons for", while a common understanding of 'evaluate' is "make a value judgement about" rather than "explain why it works or doesn't work". This problem is more complex than it appears, because the words are able to be interpreted logically within whatever paradigm the participant understands, and so it is difficult to explain any alternative meanings.

This is an area which requires more research. As more and more people become qualified to assess Stage One, questions of consistency will certainly become exacerbated unless thorough coaching is done on how to interpret the criteria.

Even if the criteria were appropriately assessed participants might still have difficulty moving on to Stage Two. Although it was an intention of Stage One to prepare them with the skills of self-directed study and action research together with experience in contracting and reflecting, results cannot be guaranteed. If they obtain Stage One through APL many may have little ability to undertake Stage Two. We certainly underestimate the coaching and modelling components of our workshop courses, and students who choose not to participate in them may have a good theoretical understanding but less ability to translate theory into practice.

Many participants have commented on how much easier they find the processes of action research when they follow the steps in the Stage Two Guidebook. We have found it surprising how few have actually used the Guidebook, even when urged to do so. There are others who still find writing the action plan a daunting task even when they are guided as to what to write. Transition workshops are of some benefit, but need to be followed up by individual planning sessions.

It is possible that other factors have a major influence. Stage One may be for many people the most they wish to undertake for a while. They are considered competent and qualified teachers at that point. They have finished their probation. They now want to breathe a sigh and consolidate.

Action research and Stage Two mentoring

The Stage One assessments are not the only area where there are inconsistencies of approach between TEC lecturers. It has been apparent for some time that different lecturers accept different sorts of proposal as appropriate Stage Two research projects. There are certainly differences of degree and emphasis, such as whether "familiarity with a new computer programme" is a sufficient personal goal. There are also absolute differences. For instance one lecturer may be happy with a project which diagnoses causes of teaching problems, while another may insist that the participant needs to

instigate and evaluate changes to their teaching arising from the diagnosis. One lecturer may accept a project after much of the work has been completed, while another may reject retrospective research.[6]

Inconsistencies also occur in what is accepted as an action plan and an appropriate research methodology. They are apparent in the assessments, which are normally carried out independently by at least two lecturers. At times differences have been so great that a report considered needing only minor additions by one lecturer has been rejected out of hand by another, who may have added that the project itself did not constitute action research.

One of the issues is that, even after many revisions, the proposal and contracting forms are ambiguous and interpreted in a variety of ways by both participants and mentors. A problem with the proposal form is that though it seeks to address ethical issues by asking for the interests and involvement of others to be declared, it nowhere specifies what level of involvement requires written consent, and what purpose the consent will serve. The action plan is misinterpreted in a number of places. One of the most confusing is the use of the term 'outcome' in relation to action; it is not clear whether the action results from setting the outcome or the outcome is derived from the action.

As an attempt to overcome this the Stage Two Guidebook takes participants step-by-step through the contracting process, giving examples at each step. While it has clarified the process for many participants, my experience is that it has not greatly lessened the number of ways in which the forms are interpreted. There is still a great deal of confusion, as well as a sense that the action plans are inappropriate for some kinds of research.

We have clarification to do among ourselves before there is any real consistency of expectations, since many of the questions relating to individual research pose queries about what we understand by action research itself. For instance, to what extent should it be a problem-solving process rather than a problem-posing process?

At the end of 1995 TEC hired an external consultant to undertake a review of Stage Two. Her report identified a number of matters to address. She found a great deal of inconsistency of approach throughout Stage Two (see **Appendix E**). The major issues raised in discussion included these:

- Is Stage Two a developmental process? If so what development do we look for? In what directions?
- Do we have any final common standard for people to reach? If so of what sort? Are there common understandings they need to have? Do we inform them of these?
- Are we expecting participants to engage in real research? To what extent should we challenge about the topics they undertake? Is research permitted which does not fall into the category of action research?
- Which model of action research are we using?
- Is it appropriate to ask for evidence of personal change and development in all cases, especially if participants are engaged in a research project with a strong task focus?
- Is oral feedback a suitable way of reporting on the research?
- Do the proposal forms and action plans help the planning process? Do they predispose participants towards one particular way of viewing their Stage Two tasks? How can they be improved?
- What understanding do participants need when they start Stage Two? How will they get it?
- Should we expect participants to have read about the theory of research and action research?
- To what extent should mentors challenge participants?

As we have seen in Chapter Two, action research is hard to define as a methodology. Some advocates conceive of it as a series of steps, while others define it as a set of principles. It may be research which actively involves a range of participants or research which leads to some kind of action. If experts cannot agree as to what exactly is meant by it, or rather, if they are content to accept a wide variety of opinion, then there is bound to be disagreement between practitioners.

I prefer to think of action research as a means to an end – the improvement of teaching. Whatever leads teachers to question, to experiment and to evaluate what they do in a systematic way is a legitimate topic for Stage Two. Whether or not it strictly fits the guidelines we have set for action research matters less than that participants are committed to a challenging process of professional development. If they show that commitment I would call what they undertake action research.

This definition leads to questions about who should determine the value or legitimacy of a topic. Should we determine what teachers need to learn or should we accept whatever participants decide? Some mentors are more interventionist than others, and insist on the production of clear personal and professional goals before the research starts. In what ways is their guidance directing participants to undertake research of a certain type on certain topics, rather than encouraging them to expand their conception of the achievable? On the other hand, if no clear goals are laid out, have we the right to challenge participants to provide clear personal and professional assessments?

Increasingly mentors define their roles through discussion with their participants, thus being able to insist on greater levels of challenge as modules progress. Yet even this is unsatisfactory, in that participants are rarely in a position where they feel they can question the mentor role.

The diversity of our student base means that mentors have to be flexible in the breadth and depth of topics they accept. While one participant may be challenged by the production of a budget, or by setting an end-of-course evaluation, another might produce an exquisite book analysing the use of mindmaps, or develop, implement and evaluate a new assessment system.

If it is appropriate to work with the capacities and potentials of participants, rather than to a set of agreed criteria, questions arise about our ability to make judgements as to what people are able to do or are capable of. One participant took more than a year to produce a second draft of a proposal after it had been suggested that he revise it. He later said that he just could not face the 'rejection' of his initial proposal. Others **demand** questions, debate and challenge.

When I sense that our mentoring and assessment processes are hit-and-miss, I am able to justify them to myself. Most other forms of assessment, despite presumptions of objectivity and infallibility, are equally subject to arbitrariness and bias. Research indicates that our assessment process is probably more accurate, appropriate and monitored than many other forms of assessment (Jones, 1981; Wilson, 1990).[7] Participants know the assessment criteria when they design their programmes, and one of the checks we make in our initial approval of their proposal is that their projects

will enable them to meet the criteria. Assessments are made by participants themselves and are normally audited by the mentor and at least one other lecturer.

Through acknowledging the differences between the mentoring styles of the different lecturers we are able to develop a more assured competence; we are also more able to capitalise on the strengths of each member of the team. Nevertheless we should be concerned if the inconsistencies continue to be great, because this will raise questions of fairness and quality. It will also challenge our competence to undertake mentoring and assessment.

The contradictions implicit in mentoring

If there is no certainty about what we are asking our participants to undertake in the action research process, there is little wonder that there is inconsistency in our ways of mentoring and assessing. The extent of my personal ignorance and lack of competence constantly intrigues me, especially in mentoring. I am often at a loss when participants send me a Stage Two proposal form or action plan. The problem is not what they have written but what we expect of them. I approach mentoring with a problem-finding mentality, partly to have something to say in response. This goes against my inclination to accept whatever participants set for themselves except where it is clearly inadequate or unethical. I often sense that something is ill-planned but have neither the perspicacity to understand the grounds for my unease nor the language to explain it to the participant. Increasingly I find the need to ask a colleague before even formulating my own ideas.

Mentoring to me seems to be built on contradiction. Under the model of action research advocated by Elliott (1991), Winter(1989) and Stenhouse (1985), then any intervention we might undertake to ensure participants are on the right track is in fact an imposition of requirements which 'lead' responses into a direction appropriate for us but perhaps less helpful for the participant. Not only that, but the very process, or the permission to intervene, causes conflict with the action research process itself. By defining the validity of a process beyond the experience of the participant the intervention can deny the validity of the participant's own experiences.

What then might happen is that our challenges provoke a 'safe' response, in that participants do not choose topics that themselves challenge them, but ones which will satisfy our requirements. Elliott regards as a precondition for people engaging in action research that they want to improve their practice. Thus practitioner action research is driven by the desire for personal and professional change, rather than by the desire to obtain credentials or to fulfil requirements of a course. If that desire is strongly present then that can determine the content and form of action research. It unifies thinking about professional development, teaching and action research. The testing of hypotheses in particular situations becomes inseparable from evaluation of teaching.

Courses such as the diploma are at best merely a vehicle, therefore, for professional practice. At worst they become, with their extrinsic rewards, their requirements to meet certain outcomes and criteria, and the managerial and 'expert' interventions of those responsible for the programme, examples of the 'technical rationality' that action research sets out to challenge.

The diploma has to straddle the two worlds. All courses are required to be defined in terms of outcomes and assessment criteria, yet it is in the realm of paradox to express practitioner action research in those terms. As Elliott says: "In this context the practice itself constitutes an interpretation of its ends in a particular practical situation. The ends are defined in the practice not in advance of it" (p.51). The diploma sets to assess the competence of teachers to evaluate and change their practice, yet that assessment of competence depends on the imposition of a definition of the processes used to evaluate and change practice. Participants' capacity to reflect on their own practice is diminished by the need to check on that capacity.

So it is understandable that I have doubts every time I undertake mentoring. What should my role be? How often do I judge whether a project is suitable, a proposal contains enough 'consultation', an action plan discusses appropriate tools for evaluation, a report has expressed personal learning? How often do I work genuinely with participants to provide them with ways forward? How often are my interactions in terms of the Stage Two requirements?

To some extent Schön's (1987) concept of 'coaching' comes to the rescue. The mentor's role is to provide guidance and critique, while the professional skills are developed

through trial and error. In that way the skills of the expert are recognised, but are used in a way that enables learners to develop their own expertise, thus creating a community of peers. The point of Schön's examples is that there is no one-to-one correspondence between the skills of the coach and those of the novice. What is being learnt is a complex of practice, knowledge and evaluation to enable the novice to become independently expert. So Schön's concept of coaching is irreconcilable with current reductionist educational doctrine, which presumes a one-to-one relationship between what is taught and what is learned.

Facilitation

Facilitation and 'student need'

In our week-long workshop programmes for Stage One there is considerable conflict between our agenda and those of our participants. At the start of the week we enter a planning process with the participants, asking them to determine their needs, while at the same time both indicating the outcomes and criteria for the module and providing a variety of options they might like to choose from. (We have of course already discussed the workshop programme among ourselves and determined roughly what form it will take – how can one plan otherwise?)

What we offer is a presumed choice, the appearance of freedom, while we maintain tight control on the actual agenda. We justify the approach in a number of ways:

- From previous groups we have developed a good idea of expectations.
- The group is often diverse. In this way they will all at least get a grounding in the concepts.
- Many in these groups don't really know what they want.
- There is always freedom to change the programme or opt to undertake independent work.
- Within the workshops participants will have plenty of opportunity to determine their own learning pathways.

We in fact end up facilitating a programme with which we are familiar and one which we are able to resource. In other words one which meets our needs as much as those of our students. The outcomes and criteria for the module determine the parameters of student

choice. They provide a conceptual framework which determines what is and what is not acceptable. The workshops are normally couched in the language of need with which participants are familiar – the language of the current ideological environment. Their responses are usually couched in the same language, because that is their commonplace language of conceptualisation. There is a supposed agreement of needs and wants which disguises that there has been little questioning of the TEC conceptual frame.

Because of limited timeframes the workshop programme is in fact highly selective in what it covers, and the selection is ours, rather than that of the participants. Take the **Assessment** module, for instance. A menu of suggested workshops is provided in advance (Fig 5:2) and at the first session participants are asked first to develop their own list of needs, and then determine their programme from the offered menu. The programme probably considers the current discourses about assessment, and, to a more limited extent, provides a conventional theoretical background for some of the ideas. Through discussion of the experiences of the participants and lecturer and selective presentation of research some kind of critical perspective is obtained, but one founded in many assumptions about the nature of teaching and the role of assessment which themselves go unchallenged.

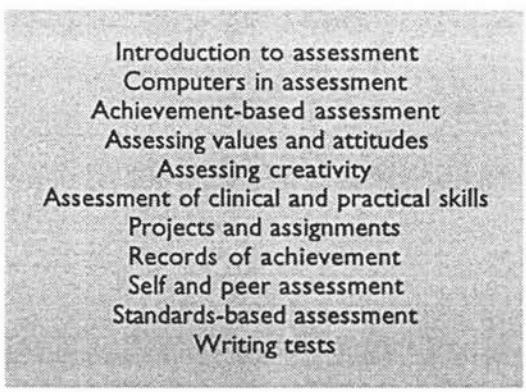

Fig 5:2 1996 assessment workshops

Facilitator as expert

So despite the appearance of a negotiated workshop agenda the facilitator's role and view of reality are dominant, and perhaps even more so than in conventional lecturing. Not only are the parameters and agendas set in advance, there is little ability for

participants to question them or offer alternatives, because of their lack of understanding about the topics and their view of the facilitator as an expert in the field.

It is of course impossible in four days of workshops to 'cover the field' of assessment or any other major topic. The module outcomes provide some guidance as to the orientation of the workshops, and they usually cover understanding of a range of ideas and their relationships, together with evidence of making appropriate decisions (fig 5:3). And in a sense the agenda does not matter, provided the facilitator is skilled enough to draw out issues and questions from the participants.

- Describe the values underlying different forms of assessment
- Design appropriate assessment programmes
- Justify your choice of assessment methods
- Evaluate the quality of your assessment programme

Fig 5:3 Outcomes for assessment module

But nagging questions remain. To what extent should we help participants work within current policies and frameworks rather than provide critique? To what extent are we leading participants to accept our point of view? How open are we about where we stand on issues? To what extent do we rely on our subject expertise to lead participants to our point of view?

We end up in an experiential trap. On the one hand, if we use our expertise, participants start relying on our judgements, our models, and our critique rather than developing their own. There are many dangers here. One of them is that the expertise of the facilitator can be inflated by the naivety of participants. If we use Bloom's taxonomy, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, or Kolb's experiential learning cycle without acknowledging that these are just interpretations of reality then participants who have not themselves a background of educational debate to rely on believe that our perspectives constitute reality. In this way our extremely selective use of models and ideas serves to foster dependency and uncritical adoption of the ideas we espouse. Far from our workshops providing resources in an objective manner, they may well replace one orthodoxy with another.

On the other hand the facilitator often has much greater subject expertise than participants, but does not like to reveal it because it means that participants do not make use of their own experiences. Unless there is a facility to move participants beyond their normal way of viewing the topic, there may be a pooling and reinforcing of ignorance, with no new understanding taking place.

Reinforcing or challenging current doctrine

I think that others often see me as cautious about accepting change. To me it is more a matter of having my antennae out. I do not accept changes merely because others are enthusiastic about them, but only after I have considered implications and ramifications.

I am particularly cautious of new ideas that take the form of fads. A current one is 'accelerated learning'. I am cautious about it for a number of reasons. First, it appears to be no more than a range of teaching techniques, together with exhortations on people to try them. The techniques are not new, though it is refreshing to have them described coherently. Second, it seems to be based on the idea that greater variety and stimulation necessarily leads to greater learning, and that if one is not sure of the learning styles of one's students, one offers a smorgasbord of techniques in the hope that you will please everyone.

Another caution is that I have seen several instances of teachers saying that they are using accelerated learning (with a presumption therefore that their teaching must be good), while at the same time displaying great insensitivity to the needs of students.[8]

However my greatest reservation is that it tends to convert arguments about purposes and ends to arguments about means. For me a primary ethos of teaching is that what is being taught is intrinsically good, in that it is honest and leads to the betterment of people. If accelerated learning techniques help with that process well and good. But if teaching is merely a matter of technique – if understanding of questioning, the use of colour, the engagement of students in team-work constituted the work of teaching – then we may be unwittingly engaging in brainwashing. The ability to enable students to question themselves and others must be an essential element.

I admire the efforts of one enthusiast to check things out. She has a range of musical extracts which she uses at different times in her teaching, and she is investigating the actual effect of them on her students, through both observation and discussion. This is of course what it required. Accelerated learning techniques do not **necessarily** improve teaching. They may do so in particular situations, with particular teachers and learners. What they may do well is improve the awareness of teachers of the learning situation and their choice of response to that situation.

Too often we as facilitators operate within current frames of reference. We offer workshops on accelerated learning partly because they are popular with our participants, partly because they fit well with our concept of catering for the learning styles of students, and partly because the concepts have to a large extent re-invigorated our facilitation. Yet by doing so uncritically we are in danger of proposing something as unproblematic, whereas in reality it is open to question both as to content and as to context. Rather than endorsing the ideas we need to examine them for their validity and for the values embedded in them.

Assessment

The confusion between functional and perceived roles are even more pronounced when it comes to assessment. Although we talk of our assessments as being merely a confirmation of the processes that they go through, in fact for participants there may be little appreciation that our approach is any different from other people's. However much they undertake their own evaluations of practice, they still submit those evaluations for our scrutiny and comment. At any time we may request further evidence before accepting a Stage Two report; at Stage One we frequently indicate that in our opinion the participant is 'not yet ready' to receive the module. Even at Stage Three, where 'passing' is a formality, participants go to great lengths to impress us with what they have achieved and eagerly await our formal response.

The diploma has confirmed for me that teachers should not be making judgements about their students. Such a process enhances the teacher's power while diminishing that of the student. The form of assessment determines the course, as Wilson (1989) points out, and no matter how much one espouses student-centred approaches, if the assessment is

in the form of a teacher judgement of the student's performance, then the student will not really be able to act autonomously. That one act removes the power from the student and enhances the power of the teacher. The more arbitrary the assessment seems the more power is given to the teacher.

Indeed, the very idea of autonomy has embedded in it the concept of self-assessment, since it is an essential component of autonomous decision making. If education is to lead learners to function autonomously, to make or change their own decisions based on reflection and self-assessment, and to justify their behaviours to others, as is a normal requirement of employment and indeed of living, then the primary responsibility of teachers is to ensure that their students are able to make their own accurate assessments of themselves and their work.

Nevertheless the idea of assessment as judgement is fiercely embedded in our educational mind. No matter how much a qualification relies on student self-assessment, the teaching body needs to sanction and justify the result, and it is normally insufficient to show that the participant has 'gone through the process'. The concept of 'audit assessments' still imply judgements relating to the quality of evaluation undertaken by the participants.

So it is not surprising the ease with which we move to judgemental mode. When, as mentors, we advise participants how they might develop a Stage Two project, our advice has usually considerable authority and it is rare for it to be discarded. This may because for participants the role of mentor is inextricably tied to the role of judge at the end of the process, no matter how much we intend it to be otherwise.

The issue may be overcome by having standards negotiated from the start, so that agreement can be reached at the end about whether they have been met. In practice we have found that standards in the area of critique and self-evaluation are open to a wide variety of interpretation, and any attempt at defining common standards creates dependence on the form of the research, rather than on its significance in terms of the professional growth of the participant.[9]

Conclusion

The issues discussed in this chapter are of course common to most educational situations, but are usually regarded as unproblematical. The major difference is that in the diploma programme the emphasis is on the development of student autonomy. This calls into question the processes which enable teachers to maintain control and authority. Although the lecturers at TEC have explored and developed processes that should ensure that students both accept responsibility and have the tools to embrace critical self-reflection, results are ambiguous, because of environmental factors and role assumptions of both lecturer and learner.

Inevitably, then, the diploma provides a challenge to the dominant educational discourses in New Zealand, and especially the ideology of competition, reductionism and vocationalism which exercises hegemonic effect through government agencies, funding mechanisms and 'capture' of the language of education (Hales, 1991; 1992).

The next chapter considers some of these broader issues, including concepts of 'academic' and 'vocational', the binary divide, openness and student-centredness, and the National Framework. It notes that these are becoming increasingly overtaken by new issues, such as 'distanceless education', 'work-based education', the use of interactive media, and educational globalism. In this new environment the diploma sits more comfortably.

Chapter 6: The wider context

Vocational and academic learning

Although all TEC programmes have had a strongly pragmatic, work-based focus, the diploma is not 'vocational' in sense the word is usually used. Participants do not necessarily set out to learn skills specific to different aspects of teaching. They do not necessarily learn how to project their voice or conduct group work or write well on the whiteboard. Most, if not all, participants do in fact develop skills that improve their technical competence as teachers, but there is no set programme to ensure that they do. The programme is then a challenge to those who define professional skills in that way. In particular it provides a critical commentary on the reductionist policies of NZQA, as well as definitions of 'course' and 'qualification' used by the Ministry of Education.

On the other hand the applied nature of the programme is at odds with the hierarchy of skills and thinking implied in many university courses. This was most clearly expressed through the approval process for the Bachelor of Education (Applied) in December 1995, but was previously articulated in different forms. Manifestations of

such a critique are questions about the ability of participants without academic qualifications to undertake research, attempts to impose certain models of action research on projects, and the constantly resurfacing argument that the research must be written up in 'acceptable' form.

The diploma reflects dilemmas within both these traditions. While NZQA gives voice to student-centred learning, the outcomes model it uses ensures that students cannot determine their own programmes. And both in Britain and New Zealand the need for more than technical skill is becoming apparent, with both countries now trying to develop generic type modules to ensure some kind of coherence to their qualifications. In New Zealand the dilemmas are also reflected in assessment processes, which need to relate to ongoing workplace improvement but are in fact bound into the meeting the specific 'standards' of the units.

The 'academic' debate is in fact reflected in the writing about action research itself, where some writers urge that for the research to be valid it must be subjected to the scrutiny of academic peers (Bunning, 1994) while others insist that its only validity rests with its meeting the needs of the participants (Elliott, 1991; Dick, 1996). The debate is tied to issues of assessment: whether participants should or can validly assess their own work, or whether it should have 'objective' external scrutiny.

In the long run, both debates are the same. They are about whether a course leading to a qualification should also be concerned with 'real' things and issues, or if on the other hand it should be about learning **about** the real world, as though in a laboratory. In the diploma participants learn to understand and interpret their own practice, and the results are measured in terms of changes in their practice. In other courses students undertake exercises about reality, and may go on work practice or teaching sections to show how they can apply what they have learnt, but there is no guarantee that such skills will translate readily into practice. Mere application of theory or skill is no substitute for working things out for oneself in a real situation.[1]

In this way the diploma is closest to an apprentice system, whereby participants are encouraged, supported, mentored and assessed in their actual work.

In other ways, too, the diploma has challenged traditional policies, sometimes, indeed, leading the way to structural and administrative reform. It is ironic that the

diploma arose from the polytechnic sector, which has always had a philosophy of vocationalism and instrumentality, and which has by and large embraced managerialism without difficulty. Motivating factors in the diploma development were moves to make TEC self-funding, competitive and entrepreneurial. The centre has survived through showing its ability to adapt to fit with the new environment. Indeed many decisions were made out of pragmatism.

It is perhaps ironic too that the programme, so antithetical to the outcomes-based courses arising from vocationalism, has proven so successful in improving the practice of participants. By focusing on the professional, enduring skills of the intellect and the heart, rather than the more specific skills of the hand, it provides the tools to cope with complexity, change and ambiguity which are so much a part of the teacher's everyday task. By concentrating on the processes of self-evaluation the programme both ensures its own quality and also the quality of teaching of the participants.

Education for capability

Demand for life-long education is being fuelled by propaganda about New Zealand's low adult participation rates, the need for training to get employment and the 'seamless' system. One of the major messages given by NZQA is that the Framework will enable people to pursue individual programmes of instruction and gain qualifications from them. Part of the reframing of education is to assert that there is no difference between education and training. It is an approach readily supported by the business and polytechnic sectors. The division between universities and polytechnics is asserted to be one of class, power and arrogance. The finger is pointed at law, engineering, accountancy, vocational subjects all, and evidence is given that they are able to be taught as well at polytechnics as they are at universities.

Yet there are differences between the aims of universities and those of polytechnics, or at least between two types of education that they once represented. Polytechnics came into being to prepare students for an industrial workforce, and their emphasis has been on developing specific skills. University graduates also entered the workforce, but with general capabilities rather than with specific skills. They often needed to undertake professional training after they left university. Universities were supposed to give the

skills of research, conceptualising, planning and critique. They were meant to give a broad understanding of theories and relationships. Engineers produced at polytechnics could actually **do** things when they left; graduates of universities planned and designed but did not get their hands soiled (see Scott, 1984).

Of course there has been confusion between **purpose** and **status**, and this has beleaguered job demarcations. A graduate in classics or history, especially from Oxbridge, used to find no difficulty in finding jobs in the civil service or in business. The status of a qualification was often in inverse proportion to its direct usefulness. Thus the binary system and all its ramifications neatly supported social class in both Britain and New Zealand. Its effects are increasingly being challenged, but they are still with us.

The main challenge to the binary system comes from movements such as the capability movement, which argue that generic, transferable skills should form the basis for vocational programmes. These should aim to develop the potential of individuals, rather than lock them into a cycle of redundancy and retraining. They argue for an integration of intellectual and practical abilities. They argue that all people have capabilities, and so facilities need to be made accessible for all.

The capability movement in Britain arose out of industry demand for employees with initiative, imagination, and versatility rather than specific job training. Education needed to start, not with specific and competing demands from occupational groups and education systems, but from the interests and skills of the individual, which would engender the generic skills valued by employers (Stephenson, 1990; Burgess, 1986).

Thus the argument against the binary system advocated that vocational courses should adopt the skills that had traditionally been the preserve of universities, that both academic and vocational courses needed to change to the development of individual potential. However the argument has led to an increasingly reductionist and vocational view of the purposes of all education, to the extent that government support for non-vocational programmes has dropped both in New Zealand and in Britain. Funding is also being withdrawn from traditional education providers and channelled into industry groups, user-pays is becoming a by-word, and education is becoming more a matter of meeting sets of outcomes in a plethora of modules (see Bell and Wade, 1993; Edwards, 1993; Marshall, 1991; Sieminski, 1993).

It is interesting that in New Zealand the rhetoric of the unitary system has been used to argue for the worst form of vocationalism, where employment tasks are broken down to their smallest components, each of which is individually assessed in terms of performance rather than understanding or critical perception. The divisive effects of the binary system are also clearly present in classification of knowledge into eight 'levels', with the clear implication that intellectual or generic skills are an evolution from practical skills, and superior to them.

One of the ironies of the current moves to vocationalism is that they fulfil the needs of neither the individual learner nor the employer. The concept of lifelong learning is in many ways the opposite of the idea of constant retraining. The first is a process of broadening one's horizons through developing the skills to enhance one's power to learn. On the other hand, retraining is a disempowering process, which implies that the vagaries of the employment market are due to lack of skills on the part of employees (Kincheloe, 1993).

The diploma is an attempt to satisfy the needs of both individuals and teaching. It fulfils the concept of capability in that through their reflective practice participants improve their teaching, while they are determining their own programme. It aims to show that people who have in the past shown little aptitude for academic study are able to theorise, critique, research and self-analyse, at the same time as they improve their practical skills.

The effect of reductionism on educational thinking

Many of our clients, working within the reductionist frame of current national education policy, see their roles as delivering units from the framework. Often their purpose in joining the diploma is to obtain the credentials to continue teaching. They wish to do this in the quickest and easiest way possible. "Tell us what we need to do", they say, "and we'll do it."

This is of course part of the facile nature of credentialling. Undertaking a course is considered the same as getting skills, with a certificate to prove it. Participants pay for us to give them those skills, not to be put through a process of self-reliance which, if

they were independently motivated, they may have organised for themselves. When the person has received the credential they are deemed to be 'qualified', which for many means that they have proved their worth and need to undertake nothing more, whereas one of the values of action research is that it leads to continuous challenge and improvement.

This conflict is at the heart of the diploma. Deference to and dependence on the expertise of teachers and educational specialists form the basis of the education system from the first. Children are taken out of their natural learning environment and placed in schools, where they learn skills from experts which they are then expected to apply back in the natural environment. The model is based on and reinforces the power of the political, economic and social decision-makers at the expense of culturally and socially disenfranchised.

Open learning and NZQA

The diploma processes also challenge traditional thinking in terms of their open nature. There is an assumption that open learning systems are more complex to administer and organise than traditional courses. That may be so if they need to fit with recording and accounting systems designed for traditional courses.

Open learning becomes more complex the stronger the requirements that all people achieve the same thing to the same standard by the end of a programme. Then students' freedom of choice is bounded by provisos designed to ensure that experiences are similar. It is considered inequitable if some people take a shorter time than others or if two students both pass when their work is of different standard. Thus there is tension between trusting students to decide what is appropriate for them and ensuring that students all meet externally decided course requirements.

However traditional course structures can also put huge administrative burdens on students and staff. Attendance requirements are built into most programmes, as well as set dates for assignments and assessments, starting and finishing. There are requirements to check up on what students are doing, if they are experiencing difficulty, and if they have all received the same material.

Adoption of open and student-centred learning processes require massive changes in perception and organisation. Research into thirty one colleges of further and higher education in Britain that are in the process of transition concludes that institutions need to be both philosophically committed to change and that open and student-centred approaches require changes in every aspect of the institution's operation. The Further Education Unit publication *Access to Learning and Qualifications in Further Education* (FEU, 1993) that resulted from the research gives a detailed account of changes that need to be made by organisations, teachers and systems when moving to a flexible learning system. Under headings such as 'marketing and outreach', 'flexible access to learning', and 'flexible access to assessment and accreditation' the publication presents checklists comparing 'the course-based college' with 'the learner-centred college'. It then details strategies and steps that institutions need to take in order to successfully make the transition (see also Unwin, 1990, for analysis of changes in staff roles).

Many systems which go by the name of 'open' are open only in one or two respects. For instance, they may provide learners with a choice of assessment processes or with optional ways to meet prescribed outcomes. A course which makes both lectures and tutorials optional can be considered open in relation to programmes where attendance is compulsory. Yet none of the options may give opportunity for the student to take responsibility for the learning that takes place.

In particular, open learning is often confused with **distance learning**. It is true that many systems of distance learning have developed a number of 'open' features. Students may be able to enrol at any stage and take as long as they need to complete the modules. However, the course packages themselves often provide little room for student self-direction. They can be less flexible than may be the case with face-to-face teaching.

No matter how personable or exciting the distance learning package may have become, with cartoons, interactive exercises, and language which promotes personal relationship, the teacher-centred nature of many courses is still apparent. The courses generally have set outcomes, content and assessment processes, which rarely take into account the personal circumstances and needs of the student.

More particularly in England, open learning has become synonymous with **flexible learning**. Flexible learning usually refers to a system where the learner can make a

choice between a smorgasbord of modules which, accumulated, constitute a qualification. This might also mean that the student chooses the mode, venue and pace of delivery. The key to flexible learning is that the learner chooses between options.

In early conceptions of the New Zealand qualifications framework, it was envisaged that learners would be able to put together their own qualifications through creating new modules for themselves as well as choosing from a variety of courses offered by established providers. By defining outcomes and content of their modules, they would be able to negotiate the level and credit value of the programme, which would then be recognised through a national credit system (Hood, 1989).

Even this liberal conception of flexible learning is not necessarily very **open**. There are major problems fitting people's aspirations into modular frameworks, with defining outcomes and criteria, and especially with assigning levels and credit value to individual programmes (Ashworth and Saxton, 1990; Ashworth, 1991; Bell and Wade, 1993; Jonathon, 1987).

In his analysis of the failure of the Open Tech in Britain, Fay (1988) points to a provider-centred approach, based on an ideology of industrial need, where the subject matter is divided into discrete and disconnected packages, where human interaction is minimised, and students gain a new dependence on the 'surrogate lecturer of the package' (p.18). He indicates that such a way of delivering education can become enormously costly and may work against the development of student-centred approaches.

These problems mean that in many cases either learners pursue their own interests and have them accredited through a recognition of prior learning process, or that their choice is in fact limited.

The New Zealand Qualifications Authority no longer gives a pretence of offering the flexibility it once considered. Units of learning are predefined, their elements and criteria are specified in narrow, behaviourist terms, and their levels and values are predetermined. While students may obtain credit for a range of units, they are usually taught and credited only as part of a prescribed course of study. Whatever flexibility there is is often confined to a limited range of choices about providers and modes of provision.[2]

What is more alarming is that in powerful ways the qualifications framework attempts to define comprehensively what ought to constitute valid knowledge and skills. Its power lies in its role as the sole national accrediting authority, in its ability to sanction other programmes only if they meet their criteria, in the 'authority' it brings to its processes through use of industrial advisory groups, and, most importantly, the tying of government funding to compliance with its requirements (see Apple, 1979; Evans, 1985, for the ideological underpinning of this).[3]

Kincheloe describes this as 'one-truth epistemology' (Kincheloe, 1993, p.3). He considers its damaging effects on both learners and teachers, where neither can make real decisions about what is important, what should be, or how one can resolve problems, and where critiques are no more than unsubstantiated opinion. It is a systematic process of deskilling of teachers, where they have "little input into what to teach, how to teach it, or how to judge the outcome". This means that whatever choice is offered is not substantial at all; it is a choice of means rather than ends. "Such a definition (of a good teacher) **demands** that teachers utilise methods of direct instruction, assumes that there is nothing problematic about the knowledge covered by the tests, and covertly imposes, in the name of neutrality, a particular vision of educational purpose, which assumes that schools exist to transmit culture without comment" (p.12, author's emphasis).[4]

Although NZQA has colonised much of the language of openness and student-centredness, the limited flexibility being provided through the national framework derives from the corporate ideology of the New Right. Learners have choice only between predefined options, where they and the educational organisations they work through have to compete for resources. The emphasis is on competence in discrete skills relating to specific vocational areas. Learners are increasingly less free to pursue their own goals or fulfil their own potential. Intrinsic motivation is replaced by external systems of credit and qualification. As Long says: "While it appears to offer choices, it in fact is narrowly prescriptive, by catering for the existing, rather than the potential interests on one hand, and on the other for the supposed needs and requirements of society" (Long, 1990, p.26). This type of flexibility is the opposite of open learning.[5]

Meeting student needs

Within NZQA and polytechnics there is a great deal of talk about 'meeting student needs'.[6] However student needs are more often than not presumed to have been met by courses which have been determined by the 'needs of industry' as interpreted by Industry Training Organisations. It is rare that students are ever consulted about the design either of the national unit standards or of specific programmes. The unit framework may be viewed as a national system to determine what constitutes valid knowledge and what relevant value it has. That system, too, is founded on the idea of dependency leading later to a limited form of independence.

There is a question as to whether 'meeting student needs' is in itself a valid goal, especially if student needs are often defined by students in relation to the ideological discourses relating to work, education and epistemology. Boud and Walker (1990) define the role of a facilitator as "taking learners out of their normal way of seeing things". If we agree with them, teachers may need to challenge student conceptions of their needs, or perhaps give students, despite themselves, the tools and desire to challenge their own assumptions. So in order for diploma participants to assume the responsibility for determining their own programme, rather than relying on conventionally or externally defined conceptions of need, paradoxically TEC lecturers may need to challenge and guide from within a framework of authority, thus maintaining dependency.

Questions about action research

Analysis of problems experienced by participants leads to more fundamental questioning of action research itself, and especially whether it achieves what it purports to achieve. From the literature on action research and its application in case studies one is tempted to draw the conclusions, firstly that action research can mean whatever one wants it to mean, secondly, that there is usually a wide gulf between 'espoused theory' and 'theory in use' (Argyris and Schön, 1978), and that while Carr and Kemmis's (1986) useful distinction between 'technical', 'practical' and

'emancipatory' action research is widely accepted, many practitioners, whatever they undertake, put themselves in the 'emancipatory' category.

Elliott (1991) places the origins of educational action research not in the theories of academics but in the processes engaged in by some secondary modern schools in Britain, under the leadership of Stenhouse, to try to develop an appropriate syllabus for their students. They engaged in wide consultation with students and community to establish needs and programmes, and in doing so found that the very processes they were using became educative, in that they developed skills, knowledge and understandings within the community. As he states:

> *"I learned as a teacher that theories were implicit in all practices and that theorising consisted of articulating those 'tacit theories' and subjecting them to critique in free and open professional discourse." (p.6)*

The process became a part of the curriculum content. Later Stenhouse applied similar principles in the design of the Humanities curriculum, as well as several other innovative programmes. The participants in the design of the Humanities Project did not work with objectives, but with procedures derived from the processes they adopted working together. The critique thus moved from consideration of the content to examining their pedagogical processes and the contexts in which they worked.

Elliott raises questions of university capture of the action research process. The original processes involved people working in 'common cause' and finding a process which would enable them best to reach the results they were seeking. Part of their common cause was their opposition to the 'academic' curriculum of the grammar schools which was to form the basis for the new secondary moderns. Thus their common cause had values of co-operation rather than imposition, practice rather than theory, democracy rather than authority. These principles imbued both their results and the processes they used to reach their results. However, the writing of their research by others reformulated it into a set of research principles which constituted 'action research'. The question Elliott raises is whether action research is a way of researching that is applied to situations, or a way of researching derived from the situation (fig 6:1). The first leads to a form of imposed research and change. In the second practice itself becomes a form of inquiry (see also Stenhouse, 1985; Winter, 1989).

The debate finds echoes throughout the action research literature. Brookfield (1991) asks whether action research requires people to enter with a certain democratic orientation, rather than necessarily leading to democracy or emancipation. Articles in *Educational Action Research*, an international journal with a strong focus on case studies, constantly raises questions about what happens in practice.

Academic action research:	research —>change strategies
	reflection —> action
Experiential action research:	problem —> change strategies
	action —> reflection

Fig 6:1 Two types of action research (based on Elliott, ibid, p.18-23)

Resource development

My reading and experiences of innovations in New Zealand and overseas have convinced me that technological advances will over the next three or four years change the whole face of education. Already in New Zealand pupils at some high schools are issued with an e-mail address when they enrol; schools in rural areas of the South Island are combining to offer a range of subjects through video conferencing; audio-graphics links and CD-ROM are limited more by equipment and available resources than by understanding of how to use them. The use of Internet is now widespread.

My visit to Wirral Metropolitan College in Birkenhead, England, in December 1993 was an eye-opener. When given a choice between traditional methods of learning and interactive computer-based learning, 80% of students chose the computers. Within four years the college had installed 800 computer terminals, had more than doubled its student population, and its pass rates had soared. From being a struggling institution in one of the poorest parts of industrial England, it has now, six years down the track, developed as the leader of a consortium of colleges with networked resourcing systems and international links.

A keynote address to the 1995 Distance Education Association (DEANZ) Conference brought groups of people from throughout New Zealand into the lecture theatre through video and audio linkups. Another address was presented via long-distance linkup with London. The AGM debated whether the term 'distance education' still had real meaning. Conference speakers debated the relevance of the 'distance learning package', restrictions on entry and exit from programmes, and the ability to create personal learning programmes.

As with many innovations, rhetoric seems to be further down the road of change than reality. At present, it seems, many people are excited about the possibilities of accessing greater amounts of more up-to-date information through the technological super-highway. Yet, as Toffler pointed out as long ago as 1970, we are increasingly being submerged in information which we cannot effectively process. Increasing information flow may serve to distort reality in favour of those who massage the information for mass consumption, and may increase the dependence of the receiver of the information. Many CD-ROMS, for instance, present as instruments for discussion and problem-solving, yet for all the freedom they appear to give, they really give no more than choice from a variety of options.

Within three years I hope that TEC will provide all its programme resourcing and mentoring through interactive technology. This means not only a massive reorganisation and transforming of resources to make them accessible in a variety of forms, but also the development of a system of genuine interaction, where participants explore and discover their own answers instead of being dependent on us.

CIT already has the facilities to produce computer discs that can be converted to video and print form, but these processes are costly, cumbersome and reliant on more sophisticated equipment than many of our client groups possess. While they may be suitable for our storage requirement, we may need to reconvert them ourselves into forms suitable for course participants. E-mail, video-conferencing and video mail seem to offer more immediate solutions. For information packages that are based on individual needs, we are exploring the possibility of having a number of format templates which will fit a variety of resources. Eventually these could be available on a disc library, so that a package can be put together by simply calling in the appropriate components.

The CIT library has been in discussion over the last year regarding new systems of indexing and cataloguing. The AWAIRS system has the possibility of cataloguing material under a variety of formats and varying access according to different lock-away systems. Such a programme can be accessed by our participants over e-mail, so that they can either make direct library bookings or order through TEC. The programme also enables students to access file copies of materials directly by entering our file records. Such a system means that building individual learning packages may be simpler than we imagine. The initial format will probably involve materials chosen with appropriate set exercises – as we produce more of our own materials the presentation can become more sophisticated. This may be coupled with a sort of video-mentoring process, similar to that undertaken by the architectural design courses at The Open Polytechnic (Wilkinson, 1995). These low-tech strategies will provide us with a laboratory where we can experiment with possibilities for development.

The changing face of education

Concepts such as 'distanceless education' and 'the global classroom' signal far more profound developments in education than those envisaged within current changes to curriculum and assessment. Information is becoming nobody's property and access to it everyone's right, a point which is emphasised by the impotence of censorship and copyright laws in face of the World Wide Web. In one way it is a democratising process. Boffins retain their status under the present system by a process of allowing selective access to parts of their knowledge, often to people who have earned their right to it through appropriate offerings of money and assignments. In the future any person can become a specialist, without having to attend the rites of passage. Access will depend only on their ability to afford the equipment and to use it.

The Wirral experience indicates just how powerful these trends are. Not only did the student population more than double within three years when the institute moved to computer-based programmes, but the standards also rose markedly. Students felt liberated; when freed from attendance requirements their motivation increased. Lecturers who had relied for years on a captive audience had to change their style or

lose their jobs. Other institutions quickly tried to emulate the College, and many who did not found they were being left behind.[7]

Not only does the information revolution free students from lecturers and institutions, but it also frees them from traditional notions of what constitutes skills and knowledge. Stephenson's vision of an education system where any person could go to any institution and that would provide a doorway to whatever they wanted to learn is already out of date. Part of its conception was that learners would have their learning needs formalised and packaged by the institution into modules leading to qualifications. Learners now need no institutions, and soon qualifications will probably be obsolete as well (Stephenson, 1990).

As for the New Zealand Qualifications Framework, well-intentioned as it may be, it is surely heading down the wrong track. Education is seen as a means to a job, and is defined prescriptively by those who hold the power of boffins in particular industries. It is a system in which there is little room for people to be creative or become expert. There is no facility for recognising that the same subjects can be revisited at various degrees of complexity, and minimum competencies become target competencies.

The result may be that the Framework produces workers who have specific skills, with little ability to reconceptualise their own job or transfer to another, and who are doomed to a continuous cycle of retraining. The reality of market forces in New Zealand is that many people experience much less job security now, and in their jobs they have if anything less say than in the past. There is, in contrast, a consolidation of power and money at the top.

The worst of it is that it is defined according to the world as we know it, and a restrictive view of the world at that. The information revolution not only affects education but the entire conception of work, economics, nationhood and the relation of people to each other. Industries are asking for workers who are adaptable and possess initiative in order to cope with profound and continuous change. To survive the changes, people will need to have both specialist skills and transferable skills that will enable them to quickly adapt to new situations and learn new skills. In particular they will need to learn how to learn for themselves in an autonomous way. The people who will

get ahead will be those with new ideas, with the ability to critically assess their own situation and move on.

Implications for TEC

One of the strengths of TEC has always been its vulnerability. One of the first meetings I attended when I first joined in July 1989 was a planning meeting which focused on speculations about the future and possibilities different scenarios might bring. At that stage TEC was an independently funded unit attached to CIT for administrative purposes; the staff were trying to anticipate and strategise to survive through the profound changes that they knew new government policies were going to create. At the meeting eight or nine options were analysed, and policies were set into place to ensure its best chance of survival.

The planning process took account not only of governmental policy but what we speculated were trends in education, employment and technology. We anticipated, for instance, that in the future polytechnics would no longer be a major part of our market, and that we would need to rely more on workplace delivery than on attendance at workshops. We anticipated a global marketplace where modular structures meant that courses were no longer tied to specific qualifications but could be portable and designed to meet individual student needs.

In the end none of the scenarios we discussed eventuated. However our planning each year has enabled us to anticipate whatever uncertainties the future holds. For instance our close relationship with the army, which has led to most of the Military Studies Institute personnel and other trainers choosing the diploma, and our enduring links with Maori trainers, derive from the establishment and mantenance of relationships from before the diploma was considered.

The planning enabled us to avert several attempts to have us disestablished, absorbed or converted to an unsubsidised business unit.[8] It also enabled us to respond within ten days to the Education Ministry's initiative in 1991 with a diploma proposal.

The diploma itself was conceived within this broader, speculative context. We envisaged it as a qualification framework, on which could be hung cloths of many colours. One of its strengths was that the Stage One modules determined the area of specialisation, and these could be multiplied or altered to suit individual needs. The rest of the diploma was a process which could be applied to professional development in any area. We foresaw that other providers would gradually take over the delivery of Stage One, using their own style and means, and that eventually our task might not be to run the programme but to engage with institutions to manage their own staff development, with the diploma being used as the vehicle.

The speculation has led to ongoing planning of programmes for allied staff, for school principals, for psychologists and police trainers and trustees. It has led to other organisations, such as the Open Polytechnic and Christchurch College of Education, taking over the delivery of parts of the programme. It has enabled TEC to reach training providers in areas of New Zealand unserved by other programmes, and to work contractually with organisations to develop their own systems of professional development.

The most important new venture has been the extension of the diploma to a degree, a Bachelor of Education (Applied), by the addition of a Stage Four. We have tried to provide the broader theoretical grounding absent from the diploma programme, without sacrificing its student-centred, applied, flexible nature. Participants contract within a **set** (of three or four members) to mentor and supervise each other's research, with the oversight of TEC advisers. The sets form part of a **cluster** of participants, which has the responsibility for skill development and monitoring of the programme.

Like the diploma the degree programme raises many questions about the nature of learning and education. Like on the diploma the first enrolees in Stage Four are pioneers over new uncharted territory; their struggles will enable roads to be built for those who follow. Like the diploma the degree has already attracted great interest, with more applicants than we are able to accept.

In the longer term the emphasis on autonomy and critical reflective practice, on work-related skills and open learning will be increasingly accepted as mainstream. Already CIT has moved to accept the challenges of resourcing students at a distance and on

individual learning plans. Moves are being made to rationalise programmes, so that staff and students can move more readily between different courses and even between faculties and institutions. The establishment of new campuses in Wellington and Auckland, and moves to amalgamate with Auckland College of Education and Auckland Institute of Technology mean a new emphasis on flexibility of options and a strong move into continuing professional education.

TEC has already established the concept of the 'skeleton qualification', where the delivery is entirely undertaken by others, with CIT being responsible only for enrolment, quality assurance and certification. We are developing qualification pathways more like a skein of wool, where students can determine their own specialism through a range of choice at all levels. We are starting to work within organisations, where the EFTSs generated by enrolments at various parts of the degree programme pay for a lecturer to work within the institution on a complete progressional development programme.

The speculations of five years ago are now becoming reality.

Reflective conclusion

This study has embraced the full life of the Diploma in Tertiary Teaching. From 1997 all new students will be enrolled on the degree, of which a new-look diploma will be the first half. In a sense the diploma will have lost its identity – it will be, to a new generation of participants and TEC staff, just the way the programmes have always been delivered. For them the challenges will perhaps lie in the Stage Four and in the move to using interactive electronic media as the main mentoring and facilitation mode. And in a few years those too will have lost their pioneering edge.

So the excitement of moving into new areas is tinged with regret. It is in the forging of new directions that the vision is clearest and the sense of common purpose draws all together. The team that welded the diploma is already dispersed and those who have replaced them have different visions and understandings and work now within a different environment.

The ideas, however, do not die. They have been embraced by other organisations and in other programmes throughout New Zealand. They evolve into new forms which we have never conceived. The diploma has played its part in developing the place of action research and critical reflective practice as vital in programmes of continuing professional development and education.

Notes

Preface

1 The two programmes I am most familiar with are those offered by Eileen Piggott-Irvine at Unitec and by Gwen Gawith at Auckland College of Education. Both of these courses work within a triple-loop action research frame which we have also proposed as a model for the BEd (Applied). However both courses are post-graduate and entry to the programmes is restricted. Gawith points out that they both consciously rejected the 'emancipatory' model of Carr and Kemmis (1986). Action research papers are also available in other undergraduate and postgraduate programmes, but often with an emphasis on research technique rather than on change of practice.

The Ministry of Education lets 'action research' contracts from time to time to evaluate the success of new syllabuses or other innovations. By this they seem to mean no more than that the research needs to involve widespread consultation in its design and implementation.

2 This is essentially Knowles's debate over 'andragogy' and 'pedagogy' (Knowles 1975; 1980). See pages 37-39 for more detailed analysis.

3 Results of an informal survey conducted over a week in early 1992.

4 Analysis of staff workloads, 1995. All staff monitored their activity over three separate weeks in 1995, recording by ticks on a grid the dominant activity category over each quarter hour of the week. Staff were also invited to comment on the nature of each activity. The survey did not produce the desired detail, partly because of difficulties in categorising activities. Staff meetings, for instance, were variously classified as 'administration' and 'planning'. It was also hard to place travel within other parts of New Zealand. This often occurred outside the normal working day.

It was intended from the survey to determine more appropriate classifications. However, roles and tasks have since changed so much that the research may need to be reconceptualised before being attempted again.

5 The New Zealand Qualifications Authority was set up in 1990 with one of the express aims of rationalising the delivery of education nationally. The way it decided to undertake such a task was to convert the entire system, from early childhood education to trades training and university degrees, to a modular structure which would enable learners to move between institutions, to design their own courses and to gain credit for informal and ongoing education. The National Qualifications Framework, or NQF, took its lead from the Scottish system, known as Scotvec.

Initially designed as a system which would maintain quality but at the same time enable students to design their own learning and gain credit for it, increasingly the Framework has become the domain of industry interest groups and a vocational, outcomes-based orientation to education.

The NQF provides an interesting point of comparison with the Diploma in Tertiary Teaching, in that although the language (and much of the original philosophy) of both is similar, conceptually and practically they are far apart. Pages 118-121 provide a brief critique of the NQF.

6 This view was given by at least two polytechnic CEOs as the reason for withdrawing from using TEC in 1992.

Chapter I: The diploma experience

1 In 1994, for instance, TEC was approached by one of the secondary schools in Wellington offering continuing education about whether the CAT courses it ran for its staff could lead into the CIT diploma. While their programme was well-designed and sound it was structured so differently that we could find little common ground.

2 Wellington Polytechnic offers a degree programme, Palmerston Advanced College of Education (PACE) offers an advanced diploma by distance from Palmerston North, and Waikato and Manakau Polytechnics are also developing programmes.

The AIT diploma, now also called 'advanced', is offered by Unitec and other polytechnics.

Universities, too, have been attracted to the area, with the advantage that they are able to offer a postgraduate programme, and so attract a higher rate of funding, by providing credit for experience equivalent to an undergraduate degree. Victoria, Otago and Waikato Universities are planning such programmes.

There is still a strong need for national co-ordination. To rationalise some of the diversity, the Wellington Adult Teacher Education Network (WATEN) has now developed a database for programmes offered in the Wellington region, and similar rationalisations are occurring in other parts of the country.

3 This comment has been more common in the verbal feedback sessions that occur at the end of each week of workshops. It refers not only to the ways we make use of student experiences, but more frequently to how we involve the participants in planning and facilitation of their own programme. For many years workshops have been planned according to the experiential learning cycle and adult learning principles, and each year the staff meet to discuss their common philosophies and practice.

TEC has tried many different sorts of feedback sheets for workshops. Some have had rating scales for different facilitators, workshops, or organisational aspects. These have not proved as helpful as we had hoped, because there is little consistency and often no reasons are given for a rating. Other forms ask for comments. Most responses stress how useful and challenging the workshops were, and many provide enthusiastic endorsement.

Here is one of the more fulsome:
I came to the course with the desire to learn to be a better teacher. I walked into a dark room and somebody switched on the light. Each day was exciting and a learning process. By the end of the course the light shone so brightly that I could identify the taonga which would help me to better convey mythoughts and teaching methods to my students. Thank you for a wonderful experience enhancement of my teaching skills.

Over 1995 Certificate of Adult Teaching feedback sheets included a rating scale relating to whether each workshop 'met our needs'. The satisfaction rate across 1924 responses was 96.4%. While a similar exercise has not been undertaken regarding the diploma workshop feedback, a more informal 'satisfaction rate' in 1993 produced, out of a sample 122 responses, only 17 who failed to tick the box (none expressed dissatisfaction).

4 There are numerous examples where participants have given their work in Stage Two and Three the credit for promotions, new professional directions or lifestyle changes. The confidence one participant received over completing his first piece of 'research' for Stage Two led him to successfully submit a paper to the Polynesian Society journal. He is now one of the research advisors at his polytechnic. Other participants have produced books on mind-mapping and study skills. One resolved conflict with his son through investigating the causes of the boy's reading difficulties.

5 A **set** is a group of three or four peers who meet with the purpose of acting as 'critical friend' to each other. They contract to challenge and critique each other's ideas in the times when they are acting as members of the set. (See Bunning, 1993:2; Revans, 1982; Weinstein, 1995)

Chapter 2: The conceptual framework

1 One of the aims of the National Extension College which pioneered open learning in Britain in the 1960s was to do things differently from the correspondence courses then in existence. Experiments involved local support groups, mentoring, and many other interesting innovations. These new processes were concerned with a supportive framework within which students could develop their own ideas and try them out. From the enormous success of this initiative came Open Tech and Open University, Flexistudy and the Open College, Open Access Centres, and the first attempts at interactive distance learning kitsets.

Even in the 1990s the Open College still maintains programmes throughout Britain and in many other countries. Its distance learning materials offer process rather than content, and its students work with mentors to create programmes tailored to their own needs (see Paine, 1988).

2 A 'unit of learning' constitutes a module in terms of the National Qualifications Framework. It consists of two components, the 'unit standard' and the 'unit delivery'. The 'unit standard' is the part recorded on a national register. Essentially it is a set of learning outcomes (elements) and assessment criteria. If a student meets all the assessment criteria the student is credited with a 'unit of learning' at a defined level and credit value. The student can then accumulate the credits towards qualifications. See also Chapter 1, Note 5.

3 Shelton (1981) makes a fascinating analysis of how what started as a genuine student development of appropriate programmes in environmental design after five years became a choice from a smorgasbord of teacher offerings.

4 The CIT staff booklet, *Modularisation at CIT* (CIT, 1990), indicated that one student-centred option was lecturing. In its booklet on assessment, NZQA (1996) in no place considered the possibility of student self and peer assessment or any collaborative methods generally considered vital to student-centred learning. Farrington (1991) argues that in Britain student-centred learning is more rhetoric than reality.

5 Some of these issues are explored further in later chapters.

6 Carr and Kemmis (1986) puts this view clearly. Brookfield (1991) however questions many of the assumptions on which the thesis is based. He wonders if action research necessarily leads to greater democracy or participation. Walker (1995, p.18), states "...reflection on practice is not necessarily critical or radical, nor action research inherently transparent (or empowering or emancipatory) outside of

its location in particular discourses." She argues that emancipatory wishes can even be imposed on others through the zeal of the researcher.

7 The Gaia Hypothesis has as its basis the notion that the earth is a living super-organism, adapting to maintain its own existence, through the adaptive processes of the organisms that constitute it, and the sub-organisms that constitute them (Lovelock, 1979, 1988; Birch, 1990), The same ideas are embodied in organisational learning theory, where the adaptability of an organisation is considered to depend on the creativity and adaptability of its members. (Senge, 1992; Bunning, 1993:1)

8 Action research has an appropriate parallel with chaos theories. Scientific research attempts to reduce complexity to simplicity by the expedient of controlling or eliminating variables. It needs to be tested in the field to see if it stands up to 'real' situations. Chaos theories arose from investigation of the nature of scientific error and of uncontrolled variables. Research was undertaken into the complexity of eddy patterns, for instance, or the nature of the change from water into steam. What was found, by many scientists working independently on a range of unrelated projects, was that there was a range of natural phenomena which were never repeated but which nevertheless formed regular patterns. The molecules in an eddy, for instance, never went along exactly the same track, but all would move in the same predictable way forming an ever more complicated skein (Gleick, 1988).

Some similarities are:

- Processes go through the same pattern, but never exactly repeat themselves.
- The same processes occur at macro and micro levels; there is a sort of reflexivity about processes. Perhaps they define themselves only in their terms.
- Accepting this way of looking at education calls into question almost all other education processes, leading to difficulty even with the language of education.
- Traditional education has tried to simplify the complex, and put it into sequential mode; our role has increasingly been to see and explain the complex underlying apparent simplicity.
- Challenge to traditional methods provokes reaction, protectiveness, and denial.

9 The irony is more poignant when teachers are prevented from pursuing creative approaches to a subject because it has been defined at a low level on the Framework. Particular instances of this happening have been in language courses and art and design.

10 According to Stone (1988), far from being the midwife of ideas, Socrates acted more as the one who gave birth, merely letting his devotees play mother for a little while. He argues that through his questioning techniques he obtained the answers **he** wanted (see Grob, 1984).

Chapter 3: Developing the diploma

1 Letter from Lyall Perris, Senior Manager, Charters and Funding (Tertiary), Ministry of Education, to D. Griffin, Director, CIT, on 24 October 1991.

2 See Don Griffin's fax to Central Region Polytechnic Chief Executives, Nov 4 1991, in which he states: "There is at this time some question as to which Diploma should be used. Clearly it needs to be validated and the Auckland Diploma is currently with the Qualifications Authority and might be the safest option to follow, at least for 1992. However, there is currently being developed another Diploma sponsored by ASTE, APNZ and some of our regional polytechnics and thinking within the Centre is that this is in fact a more suitable programme than even the Auckland one. I have had it secondhand that ATI themselves are considering a possible switch to this programme at a later time."

The ATI (Auckland Technical Institute, now the Auckland Institute of Technology) diploma developed devolved delivery processes through many of the polytechnics in the North Island, but its future was placed in doubt as a result of an internal audit by the polytechnic in 1995. Its current status is uncertain.

3 In 1989, when I joined the staff of TEC, the Centre had already a thorough commitment to experiential learning, action research and student-centred approaches to education. This was shown through our sponsoring and organising special workshops run by John Heron, David Boud and other overseas practitioners, the participation of two lecturers in the First International Action Learning, Action Research and Process Management Conference in 1990, and in the philosophy behind the workshops we ourselves ran.

The ten-week programme of workshop courses which led to the Certificate of Tertiary Teaching itself consisted of a number of options, with students able at any stage to undertake an 'independent learning contract'. The final two weeks was termed 'Extended Experience' and consisted of a student-designed project. TEC experimented with the idea of an 'autonomy lab' (based on Heron's work) whereby students worked out their own programme based on workshops they were prepared to deliver as well as those they wanted to participate in. There was even one attempt at a mini-conference without agenda or invited presenters.

Workshops were planned and evaluated as a group process, and staff members regularly observed each other's presentations and swapped workshops, so that each staff member could take most of the programme.

The workshop programme of 1989 and 1990 evolved into Stage One of the diploma programme and has survived surprisingly intact up to the present.

4 Between 1989 and 1994 both academic and allied staff had considerable training in processes of reflective practice, ranging from John Heron's workshops on self and peer review in 1990 and 1991, to training as co-counsellors. Three lecturers participated in the Mini-Conference on Reflective Practice, held before the Second International Action Learning, Action Research and Process Management Conference in Brisbane in 1992.

In addition all academic staff enrolled on the diploma and mentored each other through the processes.

5 In 1993 I lectured briefly on the pre-service graduate tertiary teacher training programme at Greenwich University. This highly respected course had many student-centred modules, as well as periods of supervised practice where responsibility was progressively handed over to students. It was highly structured in terms of content progression, with lectures and seminars being the norm for the college-based component. It was also administratively complex, with detailed records of attendance and hours spent in various activities.

The Auckland programme largely relies on teacher-centred week-long modules for the first stages, with limited research and teaching practice later. Wellington Polytechnic has a strong component of workshops supplemented by assignments.

6 Schön (1987) uses the term 'practicum' to mean a coaching session, where a student practises certain techniques. This could indeed be a valuable tool for teacher education.

7 *"For funding purposes TEC has been granted 50 EFTS for 1992. The generation of this figure can be calculated by different means according to the duration of the course. The number of tutors required to attend TEC to produce this funding depends on which method is used for the calculation.*

Officially there are three basic units for the EFTS: a one year course which generates 1.00 EFTS, a one week course which generates 0.03 EFTS and a one hour course which generates 0.0015 EFTS.

The implications for the different calculation methods are as follows:

One year course
'...a full time student taking a typical year's work equals 1.00 EFTS unit'. This quote from the Ministry of Education brochure The EFTS Funding System *gives no indication of the duration of 'a typical year's work'. Taking a year as being three 12 week terms then, to generate the 50 EFTS, TEC must provide 1,800 tutor weeks.*

One week course
If each part of the programme is considered to be of 'one week' duration and each week generates 0.03 EFTS for each tutor attending, then TEC would need to provide 1,667 tutor weeks to generate the 50 EFTS.

One hour course
Since the TEC course is structured in days, and 'one day' has no EFTS equivalent, each day must be considered as six hours. Each hour generates 0.0015 EFTS. Five 6 hour days will produce 30 x 0.0015 or 0.045 EFTS. On this basis the 50 EFTS could be generated from 1,111 tutor weeks.

From this it can be seen that for TEC to operate with reasonable patronage it is essential that all courses be approved on the basis of 'hours' rather than 'weeks' or 'years'.
(Memorandum from Enda McBride, 25 November 1991)

In practice we were required to calculate the programme in terms of 'years'.

8 The 'double dipping' issue came to a head at the end of 1993, where we were asked to produce an alternative programme, an Initial Tutor Training Award, for polytechnic tutors in their first two years of employment, because such a programme was a requirement of their employment. This led us to call the same course by two names and develop two different fee structures depending on the length of time participants had been employed. Such a scheme relied on the honesty of the institution sending their staff to us – there was no way in which we could be held responsible for monitoring it. It also led to complications in how we recorded and billed the different programmes.

9 Recorded in my work diary. These numbers remained relatively constant across briefer periods of recording over 1994 and 1995.

Chapter 4: Professional competence

1 This form of assessment, in New Zealand called 'achievement based' assessment, has recently been trialed as the major form of assessment at the sixth form level, and was proposed in *Designing the Framework*, (NZQA, 1990) as one of the two alternative forms of standards-based assessment. NZQA has since indicated that it regards it as inappropriate for assessing framework units.

2 This example refers to the preservice graduate programme at Greenwich University but is typical of teacher education programmes here and in Britain.

3 None of this 'tacit knowledge' is of course acknowledged or given a place in the NQF unit standards, which presume a one-to-one relationoship between teaching and learning.

4 See Preface, Note 4.

Chapter 5: Looking at ourselves

1 Slightly more than 50 EFTSs were earned by the end of 1992.

2 This monitoring report, by a senior CIT staff member, confirmed strong motivation by participants and staff, but concern over lack of resourcing. See also **Appendix D**.

3 A survey in 1996 on the use of telecommunications resulted in an equally low response. This may may well have been due to informal way in which the surveys were organised, with the questionnaires being placed at the end of a newsletter, and an invitation, rather than a request, for a response.

4 During 1995 and 1996 a mixture of more frequent newsletters, phone follow-up and regular visits to institutions around the country led to a number of participants recommitting themselves to the diploma. Others were quite happy to move at their own pace and applied for leave of absence. There were few withdrawals.

5 In 1993 TEC won an ETSA contract to train teachers in Maori Training Establishments in the Nelson-Marlborough, Dunedin and Southland regions of New Zealand. While the Invercargill area for a while went successfully – partly because the PTEs had organised themselves into a regular study group – participants from the other areas made little progress. The reluctance could be partly because the participants had been enrolled without their consent, but more importantly because we were unable to provide the detailed face-to-face teaching they expected.

Our experiences with Maori training providers committed us to trying, in two separate initiatives, to help Maori groups develop a more suitable qualification for their own needs. These efforts have as yet been fruitless.

6 A case of this led to considerable disagreement among staff. A compromise was reached, whereby retrospective research was accepted provided the participant focused on current reflection on the research and the changes which resulted from it.

7 Parlett and Hamilton (1972) propose an alternative view of assessment, which they call 'illumination': "Its primary concern is with description and interpretation rather than measurement and prediction."

8 A recent example of this occurred when a participant, a strong advocate of 'accelerated learning', chose loud and inappropriate music for a reflective activity.

9 At a recent Advisory Committee meeting (June 1996) the question whether the mentor and assessor roles should be separated was hotly debated. In the end it was considered that they had to be closely linked – if they were separated, it was felt, the assessment could only then be based on the report, with little understanding of the context in which the research was done, the reasons for it, or the personal importance of it. The assessments would need to be against some external standard, which would inhibit participants from attempting innovative programmes.

Chapter 6: The wider context

1 The new byword is 'workplace assessment', where unit standards are indeed assessed in practice, often by peers or supervisors trained in assessment processes.

2 The NZQA model is now in widespread use through polytechnics and other educational and training establishments. Indeed, it has quickly become established as the only appropriate way of undertaking programme design. CIT insists that for all programmes other than the Diploma in Tertiary Teaching/Bachelor of Education (Applied) there is for each outcome a set of discrete performance criteria.

3 In their critique of the NZQA document, *Designing the Framework*, Codd, McAlpine and Poskitt (1991) point to the contradictions between central control and the flexible learning system NZQA proposes.

4 The issue is of course not new. In her analysis of the British Inspectorate, Willan (1988) indicates that through trying to avoid being political themselves, the inspectors actively endorse a view of teacher education where "the illusion of professionalism is maintained by encouraging teachers to critically evaluate themselves as practitioners, rather than engage in the critical review of educational policy" (p.85).

5 A number of British critiques cover this point well. While acknowledging potential benefits in the NVQ system, Edwards sees it as part of an assault on organised labour (see Edwards, 1993). Marshall (1991) argues that outcomes are constructed out of functions, so are tautological, and designed "to produce trainees with little or no cognitive abilities beyond those required to do the job" (p.62-3) (see also Codd, Gordon and Harker, 1990).

6 The CIT financial audit each year measures the 'success' of each programme through a 'student satisfaction scale'.

7 The proposed Manawatu Polytechnic campus in Palmerston North has been designed to include similar features.

8 Few of these attempts involved discussions with TEC. In one instance the first we knew of an attempt to close the centre down was when workers were sent in to measure up our buildings in preparation for new people to move in the following week. The most serious of them for us was a review initiated, incidentally, the same day that we heard from NZQA that we had approval for the diploma. In the course of that process all except three of the academic staff accepted voluntary redundancy or had their contracts terminated.

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Appendix A

Outline of reference materials

Outline of reference materials

The Diploma

Approval and accreditation documents; revisions to those documents
Diploma handbook, brochure, other publicity material.
Diploma working publications: guide books, planning sheets, action plans, assessment guides, etc.
Drafts and alternatives to the above documents
Report and review document on the Diploma completed by Pam Hyde for CIT
Annual reports and budgets
Reports of advisory committees
Correspondence with CIT, Ministry of Education, NZQA, Teachers Registration Board, polytechnics, private clients, etc.
Records of most planning meetings; documents produced at those meetings
Personal diary recording aspects of meetings and discussions
Workshop outlines; workshop notes
Course evaluations
Sample student action plans, planning notes, assignments
Sample tapes of student oral interview and presentation assessments
Copies of student feedback on aspects of the course

History of TEC, 1985-1991

Bond's A Performance Review of the Tutor Education Centre (Central)(1988): discussion documents, reports, and action plans
Articles on tutor education in Tutor and occasional papers; reports of seminars, etc.
Official reports and documents on tutor training, CIT policy statements, TEC policy papers and discussion papers
TEC course outlines and participant feedback
Meeting agendas, discussion notes and summaries (Many with personal notes attached)
Annual reports and financial statements
Correspondence with CIT and external bodies
Records of advisory bodies

TEC, CIT and other relationships 1991-1994

Briefing papers and notes on possible CIT merger with Hutt Valley Polytechnic
Briefing papers and note on CIT possible merger with The Open Polytechnic
Correspondence and papers on TEC possible merger with CITEC
Funding analysis and scenarios worked out between Head of TEC and the accountant
Notices and correspondence concerning Ministry of Education policy and funding
Notes on different funding options worked out with various consultants
ASTE papers and discussions
CIT corporate plans; business plans; operational plans
Minutes of Council; Academic Board; Staff Development Committee, etc
Minutes and discussion documents relating to Open Learning Taskforce

Political and educational framework

Massey University papers
- 36.451: Action and Research in Ed Organisations
- 36.452: Theory and Process in Ed Administration
- 36.453: Educational Policy Analysis
- 36.454: Evaluation of Educational Organisations
- 36.412: Research Methods

Treasury briefing papers, 1987
Department of Education reports and publications
Ministry of Education reports and correspondence
NZQA reports and publications
ETSA publications
ASTE reports and publications
Conferences and seminars
Professional associations

Feedback

Collegial and peer endorsement of diploma
Student workshop evaluation forms
Informal student feedback
Staff developers regional meetings
TEC Associates – a group of informal advisers
TEC Programmes Advisory Committee
CIT student satisfaction rating
Independent CIT monitoring of students at random
Internal monitoring of the diploma in 1993
External monitoring of Stage Two in 1995

Appendix B

Examples of diploma forms

ASSESSMENT

Throughout your course you will take part in self and peer assessment.

At Stage One you need to demonstrate your competence in teaching. For this you will rely on feedback from external sources as well as insights you have gained. You gain credit for the units when you show the ability to assess yourself accurately and meet the learning outcomes..

At Stage Two, you show how you initiate and evaluate changes in the way you work.

At Stage Three you establish and evaluate self and peer review processes in your workplace. You demonstrate the effects of these processes on your own practice.

STANDARDS

To be credited with a Stage One unit, you need to show you can:

- **understand** theories and concepts
- **describe** what you do
- **analyse** why you do it
- **evaluate** its effectiveness
- **identify** what you could improve

Your report may be in writing or orally presented, by interview, by assignment or self and peer assessment.

You will be given planning sheets to help you focus on these standards.

ENROLMENT

Enrolment forms and more information are available from:

The Education Centre (TEC), Faculty of Humanities
Central Institute of Technology, 158 The Terrace,
Wellington, New Zealand
Phone (04) 527 6354, Auto Attendant (04) 527 6397 Ext 6499
Fax (04) 527 6353

DIPLOMA INFORMATION

The Education Centre

CENTRAL INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY
Te Whare Wananga O Whitinaki

1996 Diploma in Tertiary Teaching

ENTRY

There are no academic entry requirements for the Diploma, but there are some practical considerations. You need to have:

- Access to an adult learning environment to do the practical research and assessment parts of the course.
- The motivation to do the planning, learning and reflection necessary.

GETTING STARTED

When you start the Diploma you will work with a TEC staff member to develop a learning programme.

While you are doing the Diploma you may have a number of different TEC staff working with you depending on your needs.

You will plan learning experiences, question, find resources, communicate, and evaluate your progress.

PRIOR LEARNING

Units for Stage One may be credited through prior learning. You report on how you currently put the learning outcomes into practice. This report may be oral or written. It should be supported by evidence.

Dec 95

DIPLOMA OUTCOMES

Stage One

As an informed teacher you will be able to:

Describe your understanding of the learning process and how you apply that understanding in your practice

Design and evaluate courses

Select and use appropriate teaching and learning strategies

Justify and use appropriate methods for assessing student progress

Demonstrate that your practice recognises and responds constructively to people's different values and belief systems

Select, prepare and use appropriate educational media

Apply basic principles of research and project design

Recognise opportunities for changing aspects of your teaching and select appropriate strategies and resources

Demonstrate appropriate communication skills with colleagues

INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING	• Describe, analyse and evaluate your teaching practice • Define how your personal values affect your teaching • Describe your preferred ways of learning • Define developmental goals for your teaching practice • Apply feedback from others to your teaching practice
THE LEARNING PROCESS	• Analyse student learning styles • Evaluate the effect of different teaching methods on learning • Describe different cultural perspectives on learning • Justify your choice of teaching methods • Demonstrate competence in teaching and learning strategies
COURSE DESIGN AND EVALUATION	• Design a course using appropriate design tools • Evaluate the design of a course • Design courses for open and student-centred learning • Organise courses to meet external guidelines
ASSESSMENT	• Describe the values underlying different forms of assessment • Design appropriate assessment programmes • Justify your choice of assessment methods • Evaluate the quality of your assessment programme
HUMAN RIGHTS ISSUES	• Identify educational issues of individuals and groups from different backgrounds • Identify particular issues of biculturalism and gender • Show how you meet the learning needs of individuals and groups
EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT	• Evaluate management structures and their effects • Apply effective management strategies in your work environment • Identify ethical issues in your work and in education generally • Implement processes of quality management
EDUCATIONAL MEDIA	• Plan, prepare and effectively use a range of learning media • Justify your choice of learning media
RESEARCH	• Describe research principles • Plan, implement and evaluate action research projects • Design teaching strategies that enable students to do research

Stage Two

As a self-directed teacher you will undertake six action research projects where you:

Identify an area you want to research and develop

Write an action plan outlining outcomes, methods, resources and evaluation techniques you will use in your research

Plan strategies for evaluating your learning at each stage of the research

Undertake the research project

Evaluate the effectiveness of the project in terms of your development as a competent teacher

Stage Three

As a reflective teacher you will be able to:

Analyse your work environment

Design a self and peer review process identifying strengths and possibilities for development of yourself and your work environment

Initiate changes in areas identified by the review

Implement and evaluate the review over a period of six weeks

Report evaluation

Changes I intend to make to the way I work

How these changes will improve my work as a teacher

What new questions do I now have as a result of doing this unit?

Follow up action required

Stage One Action Plan

1996
Diploma in Tertiary Teaching

The learning process

CENTRAL INSTITUTE
OF TECHNOLOGY
Te Whare Wananga O Whirinaki
The Education Centre

This action plan forms part of the Diploma learning contract between
The Education Centre
and

_____

Learning outcomes

- Analyse student learning styles
- Evaluate the effect of different teaching methods on learning
- Describe different cultural perspectives on learning
- Justify your choice of teaching methods
- Demonstrate competence in teaching and learning strategies

Assessment questions

In meeting the learning outcomes you will need to show you can:

- understand theories and concepts
- describe what you do
- analyse why you do it
- evaluate its effectiveness
- identify what you could improve

Date _____

Participant _____ Mentor _____

Unit Outcomes	Action	Resources	Assessment
Analyse student learning styles	Steps I will take to achieve my outcome Completion date		How I will show that I have achieved the unit outcomes
Evaluate the effect of different teaching methods on learning	Completion date		
	Completion date		
Describe different cultural perspectives on learning	Completion date		
	Completion date		
Justify your choice of teaching methods	Completion date		
	Completion date		
Demonstrate competence in teaching and learning strategies	Completion date		

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Te Whare Wanaga O Whirinaki

Diploma in

Tertiary Teaching

The Education Centre

Stage One Planning Sheet: The Learning Process

Outcomes:

- analyse student learning styles
- evaluate the effect of different teaching methods on learning
- describe different cultural perspectives on learning
- justify choice of teaching methods
- demonstrate competence in teaching and learning strategies

Give examples of how different students learn.
(Understand)

Give examples of the range of teaching methods you use.
(Describe)

Why do you use the teaching methods you describe?
(Analyse)

How have you changed your teaching methods to suit the needs of your students?
(Analyse, evaluate)

What do you believe about learners and learning?
(Understand)

What new skills would you like to develop?
(Identify)

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OF TECHNOLOGY
Te Whare Wananga O Whirinaki

Diploma in

Tertiary Teaching

The Education Centre

Reflection Guide

Name: _____

Workshop: _____

Date: _____

1. What are the 5 key points I have learned on this workshop?

   a.

   b.

   c.

   d.

   e.

2. Why have I chosen these points?

   a.

   b.

   c.

   d.

   e.

3. What further points do these raise for me?

4. What implications will these points have for my teaching?

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Te Whare Wananga O Whirinaki

Diploma in

Tertiary Teaching

The Education Centre

Assignment: The Learning Process

(approximately 10 hours)

Write brief notes or paragraphs, or use mindmaps for each of the following:

1. Describe how different students learn.

2. Give examples of teaching methods you currently use that meet students learning needs.

3. a) Explain how you meet the different learning needs of students of different cultures.

   b) How do you think the different cultural backgrounds of students affect the ways they learn?

4. Identify changes to your teaching that you would like to make to better meet the needs of your students. Give the reasons why you have chosen these changes.

The performance criteria for Stage One of the Diploma in Tertiary Teaching are that you show that you can:

- **understand theories and concepts**
- **describe what you do**
- **analyse why you do it**
- **evaluate its effectiveness**
- **identify what you could improve**

Please remember to PRINT your name and address on your assignment (so we know who it belongs to)

Please post your assignment to:

Assignment
The Education Centre
CIT House
158 The Terrace, WELLINGTON

CENTRAL INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY
Te Whare Wananga O Whirinaki

Diploma in

Tertiary Teaching

The Education Centre

Stage One: Module Assessment

Name of Module: _____

Have you understood concepts underlying the unit? ☐

Have you described what you do? ☐

Have you analysed why you do it? ☐

Have you evaluated the effects of what you do? ☐

Have you identified what you would like to improve? ☐

General comments:

Module credited ☐

Date: _____

Participant: _____ Mentor: _____

Stage One Interview Checklist

1995
Diploma in Tertiary Teaching

The
Education
Centre

CENTRAL INSTITUTE
OF TECHNOLOGY
Te Whare Wananga O Whirinaki

Date of assessment: _____ Name: _____

Introduction to teaching

Comments

- Describe, analyse and evaluate your teaching practice
- Define how your personal values affect your teaching
- Describe your preferred ways of learning
- Define developmental goals for your teaching practice
- Apply feedback from others to your teaching practice

Competence ☐

The learning process

- Analyse student learning styles
- Evaluate the effect of different teaching methods on learning
- Describe different cultural perspectives on learning
- Justify your choice of teaching methods
- Demonstrate competence in teaching and learning strategies

Competence ☐

Course design and evaluation

- Design a course using appropriate design tools
- Evaluate the design of a course
- Design courses for open and student-centred learning
- Organise courses to meet external guidelines

Competence ☐

Assessment

- Describe the values underlying different forms of assessment
- Design appropriate assessment programmes
- Justify your choice of assessment methods
- Evaluate the quality of your assessment programme

Competence ☐

Human rights issues

Comments

- Identify educational issues of individuals and groups from different backgrounds
- Identify particular issues of biculturalism and gender
- Show how you meet the learning needs of individuals and groups

Competence ☐

Educational management

- Evaluate management structures and their effects
- Apply effective management strategies in your work environment
- Identify ethical issues in your work and in education generally
- Implement processes of quality management

Competence ☐

Educational media

- Plan, prepare and effectively use a range of learning media
- Justify your choice of learning media

Competence ☐

Research

- Describe research principles
- Design teaching strategies that enable students to do research
- Understand the link between action research and professional development

Competence ☐

Stage One credited..... ☐

General comments

Future plans

Name: _____ Assessor: _____

Signature _____ Signature _____

Stage Two Action Plan

Project Goals What I want to achieve	Outcomes How I will achieve my goal
Personal goals How I hope to change	

Stage Two Action Plan

1996
Diploma in Tertiary Teaching

CENTRAL INSTITUTE
OF TECHNOLOGY
Te Whare Wananga O Whirinaki
The Education Centre (TEC)

This action plan forms part of the Diploma learning contract between
The Education Centre
and

_____

Title of project

Description of project

Purpose of project

Date _____

Mentor _____ Participant _____

Resources needed	Action
What help I need to achieve it	What I am going to do
	Completion date
	Completion date
	Completion date
	Completion date
	Completion date
	Completion date
	Completion date

Project evaluation	Personal evaluation
How I will assess that I have met my project goals	How I will assess the changes I have made

Presentation details

Presentation date

CENTRAL INSTITUTE
OF TECHNOLOGY
Te Whare Wananga O Whirinaki

Diploma in
Tertiary Teaching

The Education Centre

Stage Two: Proposal Form

Please complete the following form and return it to your mentor for discussion and approval *before* completing your Action Plan. Enclose drafts of any consent forms and questionaires you intend to use.

What do you want to do?

Why do you want to do it?

How will you go about it?

Who else will be involved?

What do you hope to learn?

Ethical Approval

Who needs to be told about your research?

How will you tell them?

Who will be involved in the research?

How will you make sure their rights are safe-guarded?

Who needs to give their 'informed consent' for you to carry out the research?

How will you gain their consent?

Date: _____ Approved: _____

Participant: _____

CENTRAL INSTITUTE
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Te Whare Wananga O Whirinaki

Diploma in

Tertiary Teaching

The Education Centre

Stage Two: Module Assessment

Name of Module: _____

Have you shown the results of your project? ☐

Have you analysed why these results occurred? ☐

Have you shown what you have learnt? ☐

Have you commented on personal insights and changes? ☐

Have you identified implications for your teaching? ☐

Have you identified future plans? ☐

General comments:

Module credited ☐

Date: _____

Participant: _____ Assessor: _____

Appendix C

The 1992 workshop programme

TEC Education Consultants

TEC LEARNING PROGRAMME 1992

A series of workshops designed to meet the needs of adult educators, technical trainers, managers and human resource people.
All workshops can be credited towards Stage One of the TEC Diploma in Tertiary Teaching. 5/8/92

Preparing for Teaching

Good Conditions for Learning
The particular focus in this workshop is on how people learn. You will develop strategies and methods that encourage student learning, practice specific methods and receive high quality feedback.
Course A: 12-13 May, 25-26 August

Values
This workshop explores the diversity of approaches to teaching. There will be opportunity to participate in values clarification exercises and discuss how cultural diversity in the classroom can enrich learning.
Course A: 14 May, 27 August

Maori Cultural Values
This half day workshop explores aspects of Maori cultural values through discussion, stories and experience.
Course A: Morning 15 May, 28 August

The Reflective Practitioner
In this half day workshop you will develop ongoing techniques of reflective self-appraisal, including mentoring, peer and self review, student appraisal, and the application of action research processes in the classroom.
Course A: Afternoon 15 May, 28 August

Teaching & Learning

Learning Styles
We explore a variety of approaches to learning through active participation and how to cater for these styles in your teaching. You will examine your own learning style and how this affects your teaching style.
Course B: 18 May, 31 August

Learning Styles II
This workshop revisits the concept of learning styles and developing strategies to meet the needs of the various styles.
Course C: 25 May, 7 September

Putting Variety into Teaching
These sessions help you apply a variety of teaching techniques including:
• buzz groups • projects • individual tasks
• clinical teaching • demonstrations • seminars
and gives practice in questioning skills.
Course C: 26 May, 8 September

Universal Classroom
Have you ever wanted to bring parts of the world inside the four walls of your classroom? In this one day workshop you will have the opportunity to explore ways of using the classroom outside those four walls.
Course D: 12 June, 18 September

Teaching Practical Subjects
This workshop will offer you the opportunity to share your ideas with others teaching similar subjects. You will catch up with recent developments in teaching methods suitable for your course. Teaching aids and assessment methods will also be part of the workshop.
Course I: 16 October

Literacy & Learning
This workshop helps you discover how literacy affects learning. Using your course materials we explore strategies to help your students develop their learning, literacy and study skills.
Course F: 24 March, 7 July, 10 November

Facilitation Skills
The ability to facilitate the learning process is a key teaching skill. You will learn the main elements of facilitation techniques, to enable your students to take more responsibility for their learning.
Course B: 21 May, 3 September

Self-Directed Learner
In this workshop we explore the increasing focus on the student as an active learner rather than as a passive receiver. We examine different ways of learning and how your teaching can encourage active learning. Please bring you courses to work on.
Course E: 29-30 June, 2-3 November

Student Teacher Interaction
This workshop is about you: how you can develop your own interaction style and become more effective in the classroom.
Course: D 10-11 June, 16-17 September

Extending Teaching Skills
Skilled teachers have a variety of teaching methods they can call on, and feel confident using. This workshop provides an opportunity for you to extend your range of teaching skills - and try something different!
Course E: 1-2 July, 4-5 November

Open Learning
This workshop examines ways we can set up and operate an open-learning system. "Open learning is learning which allows the learner to choose how, when, where, and what to learn as far as possible ..." (Paine, '88)
Course G: 29 September

Accelerated Learning
Participants will gain an experiential understanding of the principles and practice of accelerated learning. It will involve a review process through which participants will evaluate the applicability of the techniques to their own learning environment.
Course H: 7 October

The Independent Learner
Students need to take responsibility for their learning in any situation. This workshop covers the skills needed to support students moving from dependence, to independence in learning.
Course M: 18 May, 31 August

Presentation Skills (or taking the yawn out of lecturing)
Getting your message across to larger groups requires skill and imagination. In this workshop you'll have a chance to exercise both!
Course C: 29 May, 11 September

Developing Facilitation Skills
Facilitation require teachers to be aware of a variety of aspects in the learning situation. You will develop and practise skills to facilitate positive learning climates.
Course I: 30-31 March, 12-13 October

Experiential Learning
This workshop examines the concept of Experiential Learning (i.e. any learning that uses the direct experiences of the learner). The focus will be practical - how students and teachers can get the most out of this approach.
Course L: 29 July, 25 November

Implementing Experiential Learning
This workshop is for teachers who are familiar with the concepts of experiential learning and who wish to develop their expertise in putting it into practice.
Course G: 1-2 October

Drama & Role Play
Participants will explore the use of drama and games in the classroom. Role play processes will be outlined, leading to supportive experimentation.
Course H: 12-13 March, 8-9 October

Teaching Practical Subjects
This workshop will offer you the opportunity to share your ideas with others teaching similar subjects. You will catch up with recent developments in teaching methods suitable for your course. Teaching aids and assessment methods will also be part of the workshop.
Course I: 16 October

Learning through Adventure
A chance to try a variety of low risk adventure activities that promote individual confidence and group cooperation. You'll have lots of fun and learn about your risk taking and group involvement. This is ideal if you want to be different with a class, or use the outdoors.
Course H: 5-6 October

Lecturing Techniques
This workshop explores a variety of techniques you can use in your lectures to promote student learning, participation, retention and attention.
Course I: 1-2 April, 14-15 October

Course Design

Introduction to Course Design
Participants will workshop some of the processes involved in designing a course, reflect on them, and then apply them to their own work.
Course B: 20 May, 2 August

Tools for Course Design
This workshop examines a variety of course design models. We'll also look at various ways of carrying out Training Needs Analysis.
Course F: 26 March, 9 July, 12 November

Analysing Course Design
This one day workshop gives you the opportunity to critically examine the design of courses you are currently teaching. Bring along course information to work on.
Course F: 27 March, 10 July, 13 November

Modularisation
This workshop explores rationales, explodes myths and takes participants through processes of modularising their courses. Please bring a course outline to work with.
Course F: , 7 July, 10 November

Open Learning
This workshop examines ways we can set up and operate an open-learning system. "Open learning is learning which allows the learner to choose how, when, where, and what to learn as far as possible ..." (Paine, '88)
Course G: 29 September

Experiential Learning
This workshop examines the concept of Experiential Learning (i.e. any learning that uses the direct experiences of the learner). The focus will be practical - how students and teachers can get the most out of this approach.
Course L: 22 July, 25 November

Assessment

Assessment Concepts
In this workshop we investigates modern assessment theories and practices, with time for discussion of individual needs.
Course B: 19 May, 1 September

Learning & Assessment
This workshop explores two constructs of learning, the ladder and the playground. Values and processes deriving from these influence course design and assessment choices.
Course F: 6 July, 9 November

Self & Peer Assessment
This workshop examines various techniques of self and peer assessment, including keeping of journals, using different instruments and review processes, and Peer Review Audit.
Course M: 21 May, 3 September

Achievement-based Assessment.
This workshop takes you through the steps in developing achievement-based assessment, from setting objectives and criteria, to writing graded test exercises. Please bring a course outline to work with.
Course F: 25 March , 11 November

Affective & Creative Assessment
How do we assess student attitudes to their work, their involvement, the values they hold, and their abilities to relate to each other? We also explore the effectiveness of different models that have been used to assess creative work.
Course E: 3 July, 6 November

Writing Test Items
This workshop gives experience in writing objective and subjective test items. It explores issues of validity and reliability, and the use of tests in courses. Bring tests from your own teaching areas for analysis. You will also sit and set tests!
Course C: 25-26 May, 7-8 September

Teaching Students in the Workplace
This workshop examines the many roles of the tutor in clinical placements. Participants will analyse and plan strategies for effective facilitation of learning in diverse environments.
Course E: 3 July, 6 November

Educational Statistics
This day examines conclusions which may be drawn from test or examination results....and where necessary the reasons for, and methods of, weighting and scaling marks.
Course E: 1 July, 4 November

Computers in Assessment
This workshop investigates how a computer may be used to act as a markbook. This markbook can automatically apply different weightings and provide "straight line" scaling. The ideas behind combining and scaling marks will also be covered.
Course E: 2 July, 5 November

Cultural & Gender Issues

Maori Issues in Education
This workshop will address historical and contemporary issues in education. There will be an opportunity to explore past and present education policies and literature, and their effect on Maori today.
Course F: 25-26 March, 8-9 July, 11-12 November

Introduction to the Treaty of Waitangi
The aim of this workshop is to develop understandings of the Treaty of Waitangi in its historical and contemporary contexts. While not essential it would be useful to have done some reading about NZ history and Maori concerns before attending the workshop.
Course D: 8-9 June, 14-15 September

Equity Issues
What does "equity" mean, and why is it of importance in education? Using the position of women as an example we examine ways in which groups are discriminated against socially and through educational institutions.
Course D: 10 June, 16 September

Gender Issues
This workshop is intended to provide an introduction to the changing roles of both men and women in organisations.
Course D: 11 June, 17 September

Communication & Gender
The language used in a learning situation has a direct effect on student learning. This workshop will provide an environment to consider our own and our students' diverse needs and an opportunity to practise using gender-free language.
Course D: 12 June, 18 September

Te Tiriti o Waitangi
This workshop examines an historical perspective of the Treaty, the articles of the Treaty, events during and following the signing and recognition of the Treaty. A contemporary perspective of the Treaty will also be discussed, including Bicultural Partnership, strategies for educationalists, and strategies for your workplace.
Course G: 28-29 September

Students with Special Needs
The term 'special needs' will be discussed and identified. You will experience having disabilities and will develop strategies to enhance learning opportunities for this group of students.
Course L: 27 July, 23 November

Men & Power
Participants consider ideologies of domination and control, and how these reinforce male access to positions of power. Questions are asked about attitudes to women and homosexuals; issues of violence are explored.
Course L: 28 July, 24 November

Sexual Harassment
What is your institution doing about sexual harassment? This workshop explores what sexual harassment is and what can be done about it, relating it to issues of power and control.
Course L: 29 July, 25 November

Implementing Equity
This workshop is designed for you to plan and develop policies within institutions and classrooms that counter racism and sexism and promote equity.
Course L: 30-31July, 26-27 November

Working with Overseas Students
This workshop explores the needs of overseas students from the responsibilities of their tutors, and the support structures needed in polytechnics.
Course F: 27 March, 10 July, 13 November

Educational Management

Planning your Programme
The structure of the TEC diploma and the criteria on which it is based will be presented. You will develop your aims and objectives within this structure and design your learning programme for Stage One.
Course B & M: 22 May, 4 September

Mentoring
Participants will develop skills and processes to guide negotiation of effective learning contracts, taking into account prior learning, different learning pathways, and assessment procedures.
Course M: 20 May, 2 September

Effective Communication with Colleagues
80% of organisational problems are communication problems. This workshop explores ways you are responsible and how your communication can be more effective.
Course C: 28 May, 10 September

Personal Management Skills
We explore various tools for self-management including developing the will, integrating mind/body to give more control over your life, awareness of personal strengths and maintaining a balanced life-style.
Course D: 12 June, 18 September
Course G: 30 September

Performance Appraisal
This workshop examines different purposes, forms and methods of performance appraisal. A variety of tutor driven systems will be explored and analysed. There is opportunity to plan the professional development system that suits you best.
Course J: 15-16 June, 19-20 October

Change & Transformation
Involves you in identifying and analysing the effects of changes at both an organisational and personal level. This workshop is designed to assist you apply skills and strategies to positively facilitate change.
Course J: 17-18 June, 21-22 October

Management Skills
This workshop introduces you to key management skills including decision making, managing people, stress, and time management.
Course J: 17-18 June, 21-22 October

Transpersonal Psychology & Learning
The specific content and agenda for this workshop will be planned and implemented collaboratively with the participants. We offer transpersonal models of developmental psychology for your consideration.
Course L: 30-31 July, 26-27 November

Tutor as Vocational Advisor
This workshop explores the concept of work and the historical aspect of employment. Skills for the future are identified and we explore how you can help your students gain these skills.
Course G: 28 September

Networking

Have you ever wondered how some people always manage to find the right information or the right person for the task? This rarely happens by accident. In this workshop you will learn and practise the skills of networking.
Course J: 15-16 June, 19-20 October

Ethical Issues in Education

Ethical and values dilemmas are explored through discussion, case studies and role play.
Course F: 23 March, 6 July, 9 November

Quality Maintenance

NZQA is concerned to promote quality maintenance processes within institutions. These will help ensure programmes offered are of a high standard. Different types of quality control and maintenance are explored.
Course L: 28 July, 24 November

Educational Media

Introduction to Computers

This workshop covers the following topics:
•Terminology •Word Processing
•Computer Assisted Learning
Course I: 30-31 March, 12-13 October

Computer Tools

This workshop looks at computer programs that could help in the management of your teaching:
•Word Processing •Spreadsheets •Databases
Some basic knowledge of computer jargon is useful.
Course I: 1-3 April, 14-16 October

Using Educational Media

This introduces you to a variety of educational media available. While emphasis will be on the overhead projector, white/chalkboards, flip charts, handouts, video, photography or other media of interest will be investigated.
Course C: 27 May, 9 September

Creating Readable Handouts

Handouts can inhibit rather than assist learning. In this workshop we will investigate readability, layout, reproduction and application. Please bring some of your handouts and resources to work on.
Course D: 8-9 June, 14-15 September

Introductory Video

Topics covered can include production techniques, scripting, producing a story board, filming, motion picture grammar, and editing.
Course K: 22-23 June, 16-17 November

Video Skills

This workshop builds on the introductory video workshop Production techniques and editing are covered more fully.
Course K: 24-25 June, 18-19 November

Audio Visual Principles

This workshop enables you to develop audio visual resources based on 'sound' educational principles. Some material will be provided but bring source material with you.
Course E: 29-30 June, 2-3 November

Research Skills

Project Work

This workshop will help you to plan independent projects for your diploma. It includes reporting and assessment processes.
Course C: 29 May, 11 September

Research & Education

Participants consider different types and stages of the research process, reflect on research that has been carried out in the tertiary area, and design their own research project. This workshop should be considered for anybody contemplating doing research of their own.
Course L: 27 July, 23 November

Action Research

Action Research takes account of the values of the researchers and others involved in the research. It is a continuing learning process for all the participants. Examples of this type of research will be presented and participants will design an Action Research project .
Course J: 19 June, 23 October

Research & Project Work for Students

In this workshop you will be developing and writing independent research assignment topics for your students, and checking on the techniques and skills required to carry out the research. Please bring ideas you would like to work with.
Course G: 30 September

Writing Skills

How do you write memos, letters, reports, student testimonials, research projects? In this workshop participants explore good writing practices for different purposes.
Course G: 1-2 October

Training Courses 1992

Course A	Aug 25 - Aug 28	Course F	July 6 - July 10 Nov 9 - Nov 13
Course B	Aug 31 - Sept 4	Course G	Sept 28 - Oct 2
		Course H	Oct 5 - Oct 9
Course M	Aug 31 - Sept 4	Course I	Oct 12 - Oct 16
Course C	Sept 7 - Sept 11	Course J	June 15 - June 19 Oct 19 - Oct 23
Course D	Sept 14 - Sept 18	Course K	June 22 - June 25 Nov 16 - Nov 19
Course E	June 29 - July 3 Nov 2 - Nov 6	Course L	July 20 - July 24 Nov 23 - Nov 27

TEC
EDUCATION
CONSULTANTS

For more information please contact:
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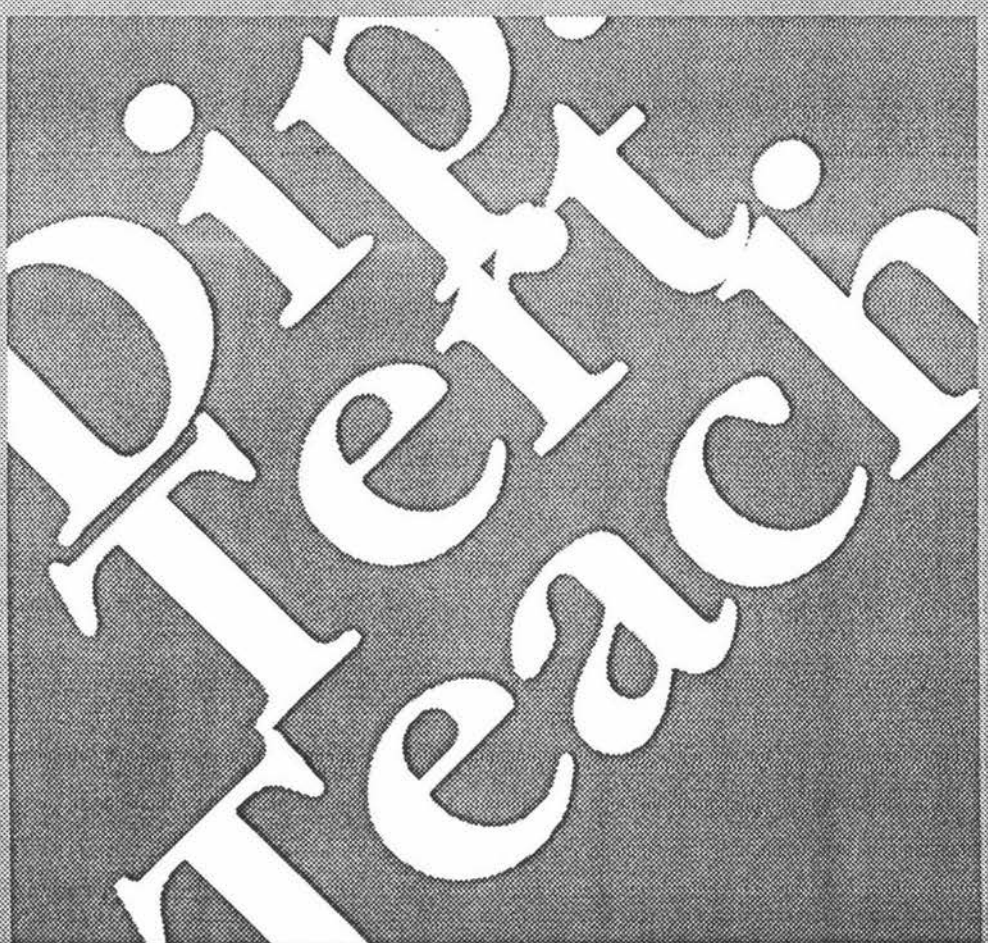
Phone (04)527 9273 FAX (04) 527 6353

Appendix D

A 1992 Stage One contract and action plan

Learning Contract

Diploma in Tertiary Teaching Stage One



The Diploma will be awarded when you have presented summary evidence that the assessment requirements of all three stages of the learning programme have been successfully completed.

TEC EDUCATION CONSULTANTS

Somme Road, Heretaunga, Private Bag, Trentham, New Zealand. Phone (04) 527 9273 Fax (04) 527 6353

Name	From
Date Started	TEC Mentor
Date Completed	

Learning Contract

Aims of the Diploma programme

The Diploma in Tertiary Teaching is designed to provide you with the theory, processes and skills to develop competence as a tertiary teacher who:

- is able to evaluate and develop your own standards of practice;
- acts consistently according to a professional educational philosophy.

The learning contract is central to the Diploma. This contract assists you in planning, carrying out and evaluating your progress towards meeting the Diploma requirements.

Stage One

Stage One of the Diploma provides a foundation in key theories, techniques and issues involved in becoming an **informed** tertiary teacher.

The programme consists of eight content areas:

Preparing for teaching
Teaching and learning
Course design
Assessment
Cultural and gender issues
Educational management
Educational media
Research skills

The achievement of learning outcomes for each content area is compulsory.

While TEC offers workshops and other resources to assist you achieve these outcomes, you may wish to use alternative resources.

In order to achieve the unit outcomes, you are required to demonstrate theoretical understanding as well as practical ability. The balance of theory to practice will necessarily vary from individual to individual.

The time taken for each content area will be approximately 90 hours of study. Of this a proportion (up to 45) will be spent on course work at TEC or other learning organisations, and the balance in independent study.

Contract overview

Learning outcomes Note 1	Resources and strategies Note 2	Evidence of achievement Note 3	Criteria for evaluating achievement Note 4	Workplace benefits Note 5	Diploma assessment requirements checklist Note 6 and: 6.1 | 6.2 | 6.3 | 6.4	Communicate achievement Note 7

Notes:

1. State what you need to learn to meet the learning outcomes for this unit.

2. State what resources you will use and how you will use them.

3. Describe the evidence of your learning.

4. Describe how you will judge the evidence of your learning.

5. State how the achievement of your learning outcomes will benefit your workplace.

6. Use this checklist to record when you have met Diploma assessment requirements:

   6.1 *Document learning events;*
   - 6.1.1 in a form that others can comprehend,
   - 6.1.2 in a manner congruent with the learning outcomes
   - 6.1.3 at a level appropriate for the Diploma

   6.2 *Describe significant learning occasions and insights;*
   - 6.2.1 stating why the particular occasions were significant and
   - 6.2.2 stating why the particular occasions gave rise to the insights

   6.3 *Describe how your learning contributes to meeting the Diploma outcomes;*
   - 6.3.1 explaining relationships between the learning occasion and the Diploma outcomes

   6.4 *Describe how the learning will be used in your teaching practice;*
   - 6.4.1 including, for example, lesson plans which contain the ideas gained from learning occasions.
   - 6.4.2 explaining how feedback on your teaching practice will be obtained.

7. Describe how you will communicate your learning to TEC.

Diploma outcomes

The major outcome of this Diploma is to produce **competent** tertiary teachers.

At stage one, the informed teacher is able to:

- describe their theoretical framework for understanding learning and how they apply it in their practice;
- design and evaluate courses;
- demonstrate competency in a range of teaching and learning strategies;
- apply appropriate methods for assessing student progress;
- demonstrate that their practice recognises and responds constructively to people's different values and belief systems;
- demonstrate communication skills appropriate for the learning situation;
- select, prepare and use appropriate educational media;
- apply basic principles of research and project design and interpret results of research conducted by others;
- recognise opportunities for changing aspects of their practice and select appropriate strategies and resources;
- demonstrate appropriate management and administrative skills;
- demonstrate appropriate communication skills with colleagues.

At stage two, the self-directed teacher is able to:

- develop in learners the skills of problem identification and definition;
- help learners develop ways of learning from their own experience;
- help learners understand their own method of learning and make it more efficient;
- help learners acquire the skill of finding relevant resources in their subject field;
- enable learners to take responsibility for their own learning;
- help learners identify their own learning needs;
- develop the learner's ability to accept criticism and to profit by it;
- develop the learner's ability to anticipate and respond to change and uncertainty.

At stage three, the reflective practitioner is able to:

- design and engage in processes of self-assessment, peer review and student feedback;
- describe and evaluate the effectiveness of their work environment;
- describe their on-going development of new skills and insights and how these are affecting their practice.

Peer review and assessment criteria

Throughout your study course for the Diploma, you will be involved in achievement-based self and peer assessment . You will use peer review processes to gather information about your performance. It is expected that at Stage One, you will largely rely on feedback from external sources (peers, colleagues, students and TEC staff). Satisfactory progress through the units will be indicated by your ability to accurately self-assess in the light of agreed criteria, and that such self-assessment is congruent with feedback from other sources.

As part of the peer review process criteria by which achievement is assessed are defined by you with others involved in your work environment. When you enrol on the Diploma programme, TEC in a sense, becomes part of your work environment, in that we join those who are defining competency.

Diploma in Tertiary Teaching Stage One

"The Informed Teacher"

Action Plan

Teaching and Learning

This action plan forms part of the Diploma learning contract between TEC and:

.....

Learning outcomes

By the end of this unit you will be able to:

1. describe your preferred ways of learning;
2. evaluate the effectiveness for learning, of different teaching methods;
3. justify your choice of teaching methods;
4. demonstrate competence in the use of a variety of teaching and learning strategies.

If you have additional learning outcomes they can be discussed with your TEC mentor and stated as part of this action plan.

Discuss with your mentor the forms of assessment you will use. List these as part of this action plan.

Learning outcomes	Resources and strategies	Evidence of
What do you need to learn?	What resources will you use and how will you use them?	What will yo evidence of y

ement	Criteria for evaluating achievement	Workplace benefits
duce as arning?	How will you judge the evidence of your learning?	How will the achievement of your learning outcomes benefit your workplace?

Diploma assessment requirements				Communicate achievement
Use this checklist to record when you have met Diploma assessment requirements. Refer to the notes in the contract				How will you communicate your learning to TEC?
6.1	6.2	6.3	6.4	

Tutor

Signed .....

Date .....

Mentor

Signed .....

Date .....

Appendix E

Moderation of Stage Two, Dec 1995

MODERATION OF STAGE 2 OF THE DIPLOMA OF TERTIARY TEACHING

Report by: Nancy Mills

7 December 1995

Introduction

The Education Centre of the Central Institute of Technology contracted an external moderator for Stage 2 of the Diploma of Tertiary Teaching. The following purposes of the moderation exercise were identified:

a) To identify if there is consistency between assessors in relation to the standards and processes in the proposals, action plans and reports.

b) To evaluate Stage 2 and give commendations, recommendations, and observations regarding issues and areas of concern.

The moderation process, then, was defined in terms of consistency of assessment and evaluation of the programme.

Names of approximately 40 participants who completed projects in the last six months were grouped according to assessor. Three names were selected from each group so that there would be a representative, random sample of projects. A total of 10, or 25% of the projects were selected.

- One assessor had assessed four of the projects.
- One assessor had assessed three of the projects.
- Three assessors had assessed two of the projects.
- One assessor had assessed one of the projects.

Assessment forms were compared in terms of comments on the content, nature (eg constructive criticism, probing, positive, negative), and format (length, style, readability). This information is presented in the following section.

All participants were interviewed by phone and asked the same questions. This information is recorded later in this report.

Six of the staff members were interviewed as a team by the moderator for 2 1/2 hours. The seven questions were:

- What are the main goals of Stage 2?
- Explain the participant process of beginning Stage 2.
- How are mentors role models?
- Describe the internal moderation process.
- Describe the assessment criteria.
- What are the plans for a Stage 2 participant evaluation?
- What are the strengths and weaknesses of Stage 2?

Results from this process are integrated throughout this report.

Assessment

a) To identify if there is consistency between assessors in relation to the standards and processes in the proposals, action plans and reports

Content

In all cases, the content of the assessors' comments was relevant to the content of the project and assessment criteria. It was evident by reading the comments that assessors had studied the projects carefully before completing the assessment form.

Nature

While some comments basically repeat the question -- Have you identified implications for your teaching? Yes, you have identified implications for your teaching -- the majority of comments are positive.

There is not much use of probing -- that is, posing questions for critical consideration. Most of the comments are expanded affirmations (not just brief comments of how the participant achieved each criterion). Constructive criticism is the style of, and effectively used, by some mentors. This adds considerably to the meaning of the assessment for the participant.

Format

On the assessment form, the six areas of assessment allow room for written comments in addition to a box to tick showing that the criterion has been met. Occasionally some of the comment areas were left blank.

Comments ranged, then, from nothing, to brief, to extensive (some actually flowing into the space of the next criterion, and sometimes hard to follow). All comments were handwritten. Some words were crossed out or hard to decipher. It appeared that some assessments were written in haste.

The presentation could be improved with typing. This would ensure:

- that the assessor is happy with the comment before committing it to paper,
- neatness,
- legibility, and
- that comments fit in the space provided.

Some mentors write comments on the on report which participants find helpful. If this occurs, copies of the reports *including the comments* should be kept with the assessments for moderation purposes. The same comments applies to conversations between the assessor and participant during which important assessment information is gained. A system of documentation should be designed so that this information can be kept with the assessment form.

Summary

There are always improvements that can be made to assessment methods and procedures. Overall, however, assessors are showing consistency, thoughtfulness and attention to the stated assessment criteria.

If we take an example of a university paper written for the same course and give to three different professors for independent marking, the comments and marks will vary. This does not mean that some professors are right and some wrong. Consistency, then, is perhaps not what we should be striving for so much as accuracy and honesty.

Perhaps this questions will be helpful: *What is the purpose of the comments on the assessment form?* By answering this question, it will help mentors decide what to write.

Evaluation

b) To evaluate Stage 2 and give commendations, recommendations, and observations regarding issues and areas of concern.

Commendations

1 is a well-organised and thought-out programme
2 is structured in a way that helps participants stay on task
3 is participant centred: relevant to their current employment, motivating,
4 has mentors who are thoughtful, helpful and responsive and act as role models to the participants
5 has a valuable resource book

6 uses a process that can be (and is) applied by participants outside of Stage 2 requirements

7 has a team that is well-balanced in terms of experience, culture, mentoring styles (but not gender) that enhances the programme

8 has a team that works well together, listens and respects each other

9 is flexible, allowing for reflection, on-going change

Recommendation

1 Require a course on action research in Stage 1. Show examples of well-done projects, and have a list of topics on which projects have been completed.

2 Provide staff training in the areas of needs analysis and questionnaire design.

3 Give students a copy of assessment criteria at the beginning of Stage 2.

4 Advise students if the scope of a project is too big, unrealistic, puts others at risk, you believe the participant is not qualified, or if you sense other problems.

5 Require all documentation of the results. For example, copies and results of needs analyses, questionnaires, peer approvals.

6 Revise the beige handbook.

7 Keep statistics on drop outs from Stage 1, Stage 2, and "lost souls" (those who fall into a black hole).

9 Establish a process for documenting conversations with participants that are relevant to the assessment of a project. This is important when you must justify giving credit based only on a project and assessment sheet, where a lot of important information is not in writing.

10 Develop an alternate process (perhaps someone could do this for an action research project?) for Maori participants who are not comfortable with some of the requirements of action research.

11 Ask present and past participants to complete an evaluation of Stage 2.

Challenges

1 Consider writing performance criteria that are not as open to interpretation as the current ones, so that assessment among two or more mentors can be more consistent.

2 Set standards for project presentation and organisation.

3 Evaluate the level of Stage 2 in terms of its relationship to a university course or NZQA's level criteria.

4 Re-evaluate the assessment form, its purpose, space available, how it is completed, whether it is acceptable to tick the box only, if it should be typed, etc.

5 Provide for alternatives to written reports and how you will document the results.

6 Provide options for the process. For example, do all six projects have to be done using action research? If so, why?

7 Consider the number projects. Is there any flexibility? For example, if someone spends 200 hours doing an excellent project, can it seen to be worth 2 or 3 projects? Is there a way you can determine equivalence to Stage 2 other than to complete 6 projects or varying size and depth?

8 Should participants be required to prepare at least one project for publication? What is the definition of publication?

9 Consider adding a requirement for documented research (bibliography) in the later projects so that there is more of a research base.

10 If two purposes of Stage 2 are professional and personal growth, how do you assess it?

11 Encourage group action research.

12 Consider peer assessment of projects.

13 Re-model the resource book so that it is more 'friendly'.

Weaknesses of Stage 2 as listed by TEC staff on 6 December

- Assessment criteria is unclear
- Is the assessment workload is too heavy
- Is there adequate resourcing – difficulty of measuring workload
- Do students have clear expectations/ information/ understanding about outcomes and progression?
- Lack of structure and guidelines
- Process depends on student and mentor
- Reliance on student being self–managing
- Irregular internal moderation process
- Weakness/ lack of experience of undergraduate students
- Does assessment form provide adequate feedback?
- Words have multiple interpretations, eg reflection, analysis, evaluation
- AR Model has difficulties (concept)
- Action Plan itself is a block for many
- Mentoring at a distance, skills, resourcing, access
- Lack of successful systems of monitoring
- Inadequate self and peer assessment process
- Process research conflicts with QA processes
- Flexible

Weaknesses of Stage 2 as expressed by randomly selected participants during phone interviews

1 It doesn't require any research into the literature.

2 The research can be laborious and become tedious. You don't know if you're doing something right or not, even after you finish, except if you compare it with your action plan.

3 It's really hard work in comparison with other courses.

4 You have to be self-motivated - some need to be pushed. If I didn't keep working on my projects, maybe my mentor would get after me?

5 I would have liked more face-to-face contact. Perhaps this should be at our own initiative?

6 Working alone is hard. I never saw anyone else's work and don't know how mine compared.

7 You have to find your own path (is this a strength, too?).

8 The mentor could ask more questions when s/he came, but maybe I didn't take advantage of their time when s/he visited.

9 Number of projects.

10 Should have recommended readings.

11 Would like to have taken a course on action research before starting - I didn't have a clue and thought everyone else knew what to do but me.

12 There is not enough depth to the research.

13 It was hard to choose a project that didn't cross over into previous projects.

14 There is too much emphasis on personal insight - you can only do it so long.

15 It is much too process oriented - doing everything according to the plan. Focus on the content is lost.

16 There should be more subject areas available to focus on.

17 No scope for using a different process - it's restrictive. Difficult to apply in some employment situations.

18 The literature on action research that I found was full of jargon and I gave up. It would be good to have something more about it that is understandable.

Strengths of Stage 2 as listed by TEC staff on 6 December

- Flexible caters for client's needs, abilities, interests, etc
- Students see it as exciting – success
- Student feedback positive
- Work related – not theoretical
- Provide opportunity for professional and personal development for students

- Provide opportunity for professional and personal development for TEC Staff
- Can see successful students
- Allows further work – start of a process developmental
- Treats as thinking professionals
- Pay-as-you-go
- Economic to run
- May be quantitative and qualitative
- Self-paced

Strengths of Stage 2 as expressed by randomly selected participants during phone interviews

1 Stage 2 allows individuals to research ideas and areas they need to catch up on or be knowledgeable about in their work.
2 Mentoring is a very good concept.
3 It acknowledged that I can do original work.
4 It is a good developmental tool.
5 It's good you can choose the style of presentation - not just writing a report.
6 You can get credit for what you're doing at work - this is practical, but may be an easy way out.
7 It is good that a handbook has been produced for guidance.
8 It is totally flexible - dynamic - versatile.
9 There is such a wide range of options - it doesn't even have to be about teaching.
10 The opportunities to talk through the projects.
11 The group work on the action project was great.
12 I'm able to produce a tutorial better by following action research.
13 Being forced to use action research, I came to understand and improve myself.
14 There is no pressure to fit into a time frame (I'm not sure if I have to finish within a time frame).
15 It's wonderful to do a project on what I'm currently working on - it's relevant, rewarding.
16 You can move into fields you wouldn't have done otherwise.

Interviews of the participants

Ten participants were interviewed on the phone and asked the same questions. Because of the variety of the answers, and the value of many individual responses, the information has not been combined, but in most cases quoted. Where there was short answer consensus, that is also given (eg yes or no, or number of hours).

Questions asked of participants:

1 What comments would you like to make about the action plan?

I'm happy to use it. Like the two types of goals (project and personal). Now I'm thinking more in cycles for my last project and it doesn't fit the form.

It keeps me on task. I keep referring back to it.

Once my mentor explained what the headings meant, I finally understood. It made the process much clearer and useful.

It could be improved but I couldn't say how. I don't like being confined to boxes. The wording is OK.

It isn't clear and concise and directive on how you do the projects. Seems like the course hasn't been going very long because it's disorganised. This is the most difficult part of action research. I refer to it and use the headings to check myself.

Not at first but after 2 or 3 I refer to it more - it becomes more clear.

It was quite a help for me and made me analyse what I was doing.

Wrote the same thing in some boxes. Some ambiguous questions.

It's hard to use without any cross-reference material or guidance.

Many of the categories could be combined. Responses are repetitious.

It's hard to twist what I do into action research.

2 Was your relationship with your mentor satisfactory?

Very good. The key is that I had to have someone I respected.

There needs to be the right balance between being self-motivated and getting pushed along by the mentor.

S/he pushed me along and picked up on things I can't do. Talks frankly.

Good, open, non-directive, ensured I was following the process correctly.

Fine. I like the little encouraging notes.

Couldn't be better. S/he makes me work and is fair. But asks for different things each time - seems like the goal posts move each time.

Yes. Prompt responses.

Good. Lucky to get who I did. S/he doesn't pretend to be the expert and respects everyone's views.

Mentor was accessible and responsive.

I would have liked more support and guidelines.

I had two mentors and they were very different.

Excellent, but hard to reach.

Perfect.

3 Approximately how many hours did you spend on the planning and completing of this project?

200-250; 80; 15-20; 25 or more; 20-25; 5-8; 200

Far too long. I could have gotten credit for several projects!

All year, and then I didn't complete it.

Hundreds!

4 Do you think that 6 is the right number of projects?

Yes - at least 3, because it takes that long to learn how to do action research.

I could have done less, but there would be some who would need to do 6.

If they are sequential, yes. If 2 or 3 are done at once, no, because then it's not developmental.

No. Stage 2 is too lightweight. There should be more theory and reading about action research.

No. Do less and in more depth.

The number is immaterial. What does it take to meet the hours and credit requirements?

Not for me - one too many.

5 Were you aware of the assessment criteria for the project?

No, not until the first project was assessed and we discussed the results. (Several answered similar to this.)

Yes, it's part of the action plan. (Several answered similar to this.)

The new booklet gave me a good idea.

No. The booklet doesn't give you enough information.

6 Did the assessment sheet give you adequate feedback?

Yes. (Several.)

I didn't need anything more as completing the project was my satisfaction.

No. The verbal feedback was the important part. (Several answered similar to this.)

I would like to have had more feedback and help deciding my next project

Yes. The comments are positive and clear.

Yes, but if it were more constructive it would have made me think more deeply.

7 Did the action research help you grow professionally?

Yes. It clarified what I was doing.

Yes - I integrate it into my work.

Yes - for selfish reasons. Now I work even harder and want more quality.

Not at first, but now.

Yes. I can use action research now even though in my work and have done some follow-up on my own.

It made me more analytical, reflective at looking at my own skills.

Yes, I've gotten good feedback from students.
Excellent growth.

8 Did the action research help you grow personally?

Yes. I have more self-confidence, more fun doing academic studies.
Yes, but I don't make a distinction between professional and personal.
I think so -- it's an achievement to complete a project.
Yes. I've taken new ideas on board.
Yes. It motivated me to look at my needs.
Yes, but now I'm reflecting too much!
Yes - the action research environment provides for this.

9 What are the strengths of Stage 2?

See section above.

10 What are the weaknesses of Stage 2?

See section above.

11 Is there anything else you would like to say about Stage 2?

It was a tremendous experience for me -- more powerful than doing single academic papers.
Don't let people jump around doing some of Stage 1, Stage 2 and Stage 3. They should be done in order with a suggested time frame
The Stage 1 workshops were really drawn out and twice as long as needed - it was frustrating.
The new beige booklet is much more useful and helpful than the first one.
It is so different from anything I've ever done - completely self-directed.
There is nothing written about what to do in Stage 3.
I was never told that there would be an interview at the end of Stage 3 and there were no terms of reference for the interview. Fear of the unknown...