

PRE-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE POSTMODERN STATE

Submitted by

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Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material published elsewhere or extracted in whole or in part from a thesis by which I have qualified for or been awarded another degree or diploma.

No parts of this thesis have been submitted towards the award of any other degree or diploma in any other tertiary institution.

No other person's work has been used without due acknowledgement in the main text of the thesis.

All research procedures reported in the thesis received the approval of the relevant Ethics Committee (where required) or a relevant safety committee if the matter is referred to such a committee.

Signature:

Date: 5th February 2013

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For those who are currently writing a thesis or about to embark on one, may I suggest you heed the words of Thomas A. Edison . . .

“Our greatest weakness lies in giving up. The most certain way to succeed is always to try just one more time.”

Dedication

For my beautiful niece Claire who always took such an interest in the progress of this thesis. Alas she never lived to see it completed.

Abstract

Over the past thirty years more than one hundred teaching and teacher education inquiries have been published in Australia. Despite each of these documents having made recommendations for reform it has been claimed that change has been limited. Moreover, teacher educators have been criticised for lacking the ability to change. The author of this study challenged this assertion and sought to investigate its accuracy.

To explore the claim of minimal change the researcher framed the study design around pre-service teacher education reforms. The following three questions underpinned the investigation. 1) What recommendations were made? 2) What recommendations were implemented? 3) Why were some recommendations implemented and others not?

To find answers to the first question, three Commonwealth government inquiries into pre-service teacher education were examined for their recommendations. Once these were identified they were analysed using techniques associated with grounded theory. During this stage of the research, five themes emerged. In order to ascertain answers to the second question, university Handbooks and supplementary teacher education policies were examined for confirmation of change. To investigate the third question, three life histories were gathered from three teacher educators. As with the policy documents, the interview transcripts were analysed using grounded theory techniques and again five themes emerged. However, only one of the five life history themes corresponded with the five policy themes.

Combining document and life history research offered the researcher an innovative and novel approach to identify barriers to change in teacher education. The findings of this study address the claim that change to pre-service education has been limited and adds to the existing body of literature centred on policy formation and implementation in teacher education.

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Publications by candidate relevant to the thesis

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CHAPTER ONE

Background to Research

After seventeen years teaching in primary and secondary schools, in 1990 my career took a different direction when I was offered the position of 'Lecturer in Education'. My new employer was the Institute of Federal Education, an institution that had developed as a result of the amalgamation of four teachers' colleges in the state of Victoria. This amalgamation, which occurred in 1974, was supported by those responsible for the colleges, as the college boards believed that the status and viability of the teachers' colleges depended on their gaining admission to the newly formed institution known as the 'State College of Victoria'. Joining forces was considered necessary as it would provide access to Federal government funding enabling the colleges to expand their course offerings, purchase new resources and undertake much needed building projects (I.C.E., 1984, p. 54). Up until this period, the colleges had only received funding from the state government.

Given the purposes of this research, acknowledging the aforementioned development is important as it was at the time of my appointment that teacher education began to be subjected to extensive change. As teacher training institutions became reliant on Commonwealth money, the Federal Government was able to manoeuvre itself into a position where it was able to increase its influence over the operation and content of pre-service teacher education programs. Moreover, this development added to the complexity of State/Commonwealth relations concerning teacher education. A major feature of this complexity was that the State Governments were responsible for the accreditation and employment of teachers while the Commonwealth government increasingly provided the funds for the pre-service training of teachers. This anomaly, which still exists today, is peculiar to Australia and has proved to be problematic with regards to the policy process concerning pre-service teacher

education. Tensions have arisen between the Commonwealth and the state regarding recommendations for change and financial arrangements.

In 1991, one year after I commenced my position, the Institute of Federal Education was to be subjected to another amalgamation. This time it was to be part of a national restructuring whereby it would be amalgamated with three other Institutes into a new university. The genesis of this development originated from the document *Higher Education: A Policy Statement* by the then Federal Minister for Education, John Dawkins. This document was to become a turning point for change in higher education in Australia. Two major directions being promoted within the new policy were to have dire consequences for the Institute of Education. The first was that the government wanted to oversee the collapse of the binary system that existed in higher education in Australia. In the existing system “teacher training” institutions were classified as Councils of Adult Education (CAEs) and operated independently from the university sector. Associated with the collapse of the binary system was the second major consequence for the Institutes. The Federal government was no longer prepared to fund institutions with an enrolment below 4000 students. For the Institutes of Education, this meant that if they were to survive, they had to amalgamate. Finding compatible institutions with which they could amalgamate became the key question.

Eventually, it was decided that the Institutes of Education, situated along the eastern seaboard of Australia, would combine and establish themselves as ‘Australian Federal University’ (AFU). This resulted in a university that stretched across three states and one territory. To place the distance between campuses in perspective, it is as far as London is from Budapest. At the time of inauguration, the University had eight campuses and approximately 8000 students. Since then the number of campuses has been reduced to six and the student body currently totals over 10,000 students.

Accompanying the inauguration of Australian Federal University was the organising of a new administrative hierarchy, the establishment of faculties and, an expanding number of courses. For staff involved in pre-service teacher education it also meant the rewriting of a new degree course and constituent units.

For the pre-service education students it meant a change in qualification from a “three year diploma” to a “four year degree course”.

In addition to the broader institutional changes which saw the collapse of the binary system were changes to the curriculum which constituted the pre-service teacher education course. When originally I was appointed to the Institute of Education, the relevant state curriculum policy documents upon which I based my teaching were the *Frameworks* documents produced by the Victorian Ministry of Education. There were eight *Frameworks* documents covering eight areas of the curriculum and I specialised in the *Language Curriculum Framework*.

Three years later, the *Frameworks* Curriculum documents had been superseded by a new set of policies known as the *Curriculum Standards Framework (CSF)*. Like the previous set of curricula, these documents consisted of eight texts with each covering a particular area of the curriculum. During this period I was kept very busy getting acquainted with the CSF documents and endeavouring to incorporate the content of the CSF texts into my lectures. At this time, what I had failed to appreciate was the link between the curriculum documents and broader social, political and structural developments that lay behind them. In 2005 the *Victorian Essential Learning (VELS)* documents replaced the CSF curriculum documents. Constant policy changes had made me more alert and by now I had begun to appreciate the interplay between political ideology and school curriculum policy. Unlike the introduction of previous curriculum policies, I found myself less willing to take these new policies seriously after so much chopping and changing and became more interested in critiquing their origin rather than in merely slavishly adapting my unit content to the new demands of the VELS material.

Since the establishment of the Australian Federal University changes to the content of pre-service teacher courses have been extensive. Traditional units such as Philosophy of Education and History of Education have been deleted. Eight units of language have been collapsed into six. Eight units of mathematics have been reduced to six. Several allocated three-hour time-slots have been reduced to two hours. One hundred and forty days of field experience has been reduced to eighty-five days. Lecturers within the faculty of education have constantly been

asked to review courses, rewrite units, cut back on the number of units offered and minimise face-to-face teaching time. Lecturers at Australian Federal University have responded diligently and creatively to cost-cutting measures by having increased numbers in lectures and tutorials, taking on extra administrative duties, teaching in different curriculum areas and having to be flexible in their approach to the delivery of courses. All this has been accomplished despite a considerable reduction in the number of permanent staff employed. These developments have not been limited to AFU; indeed they have been mirrored in faculties of education across Australia.

Given my response and those of my colleagues to these constant restructurings of the institution, the courses and the curriculum, it came as a surprise for me to discover that not all in the educationist establishment agreed with my positive perspective regarding lecturers' ability to respond to change. Indeed, the perspective of these educational critics was (and still is) that those involved in pre-service teacher education courses have failed to rise to the challenges posed by the need to transform teacher education because they are unequal to the task.

In the policy document, *Quality Matters, Revitalising teaching: Critical times, critical choices*, Gregor Ramsey notes, "there have been ... more than 20 reviews of teaching and teacher education over the past two decades ..." (2000, p. 14). Yet despite the large number of reviews, their impact has been minimal. Indeed,

The limited impact of past reviews of teacher education over two decades carries a stark lesson. Telling evidence was gathered over that time about the need for change to develop a quality profession focused on delivering effective learning. Why was it that those with responsibility to transform teacher education and the quality of teaching did not meet the challenges? Why was it when so much was asked for, so little was given?

(Ramsey, 2000, p. 213)

Whilst the quotation indicates Ramsey's negative perception of reforms to pre-service teacher education for me, the questions he raised are confronting. Given my teaching experience of the past fifteen years has been in lecturing to pre-service teacher education students, I cannot help seeing myself as one of those

Ramsey charges with failing to develop a quality profession. Reflecting upon not only my lecturing but, also that of my colleagues; I was aware that we felt we had been continually responding to demands for changes to our courses and were in fact offering quality education to our students. So why did Ramsey believe otherwise?

In the same policy text, *Quality Matters*, Ramsey also claims:

Almost unwittingly, responsibility for change was placed in the hands of traditional systems, both of schools and teacher education. These had become so focused on perpetuating themselves that they proved unequal to the task. They had become so divorced from teachers and teaching that they were incapable of creating the conditions in which the required changes could flourish. Had these challenges been met as they arose over the past 20 years, this Review would have been unnecessary.

(Ramsey, 2000, p. 213)

Again I found Ramsey's words confronting and again I reflected on his claim. Had my colleagues and I become divorced from teachers and teaching? Were we incapable of accommodating changes within our courses? Were we only interested in perpetuating ourselves and thus resistant to any suggestion for change? In an attempt to answer these questions I reflected on my personal experience of having been directly involved in teacher education since 1990.

What I had witnessed and experienced was how I and my colleagues, were constantly responding to changing conditions and were allowing change to flourish – albeit sometimes begrudgingly. In restructuring our courses we had attempted to be creative in our design of units and up-to-date in what we offer, and at all times we endeavoured to maintain a quality course. Ramsay's analysis reached conclusions that jarred with my experience. As a result I have felt the need to respond, hence this thesis.

CHAPTER TWO

The Literature Lens

Introduction

The focus of this project is to investigate the accuracy of two claims made by Gregor Ramsey (2000) in regard to teacher education policy. As noted above, the first claim he makes is that the number of reviews on teacher education in Australia the 1980s and 1990s have had only a limited impact. The second claim is that those charged with the responsibility of bringing about change were incapable of creating the conditions which would enable the required changes to flourish. Ramsey is confident in his belief that changes to pre-service teacher education have been limited. But is this correct? He is also confident in his belief that change has been limited because of the lack of capability of people involved in teacher education. However, is this too simplistic? If change has been limited, is Ramsey's explanation why both adequate and accurate? Could he have failed to identify other factors which have resulted in recommendations for change not being adopted? Finding answers to these questions is the objective of this thesis.

Before investigating the validity of Ramsey's claims and seeking answers to the questions they raise, it is first necessary to examine the existing literature related to the broad areas of education policy and the recent changes to which it has been subjected. However, in endeavouring to understand the field, one should keep in mind that the best literature review is not necessarily the most exhaustive. (Bruce, 2001). Boote and Beile analysed the literature reviews of thirty dissertations submitted in the United States in 2000. Upon completing this task, Boote and Beile conclude, "the best reviews were thorough critical examinations of the state of the field that set the stage for the authors' substantive research projects" (2005, p. 9). Within the field of education this is not an easy task, for, as Berliner (2002) observes, problems in education are much more complicated and messy than in other discipline areas thus making it more difficult to generate significant research

that simply builds on prior scholarship. Hence, the challenge for education researchers is to “develop more sophisticated literature reviews” (Boote & Beile, 2005, p. 3).

According to Boote and Beile, (2005), part of this sophistication is associated with the need to locate the research already undertaken in the field within its historical context. Lather (1999) suggests that this is an aspect of the literature review that assists the researcher in identifying what has already been done within the context of the topic and what still needs to be done.

A further aspect of a sophisticated review is the inclusion of an examination and critique of the methodologies and research techniques various writers have employed to analyse the topic. As Boote and Beile commented, “very sophisticated literature reviews might recognize the methodological weaknesses of a field of study and propose new methodologies to compensate for those weaknesses” (2005, p. 9).

I will defer my critique of various methodologies adopted in the literature to my third chapter. My reasons for so doing revolve around meeting word limits for each chapter and achieving tighter coherence within the thesis. Additionally, it will allow me to provide the reader with a more comprehensive sample of the relevant but targeted literature.

The literature and associated methodologies to be examined in this study, are concentrated broadly in the area of education policy; but more specifically policy related to pre-service teacher education. Either a broad or specifically focused review of previous scholarship in these fields reveals that education policy in general, and pre-service teacher education policy in particular, are highly complex and strongly contested areas. In an attempt to capture this complexity and the existing differences and disagreement in a coherent manner, the theme of dissonance will be employed throughout this chapter so as to provide a framework which allows for a comprehensive but focussed review of the literature.

Centring the review around the theme of dissonance also provides an opportunity for the researcher to synthesize in a systematic manner the large body of existing literature relevant to the topic of policy. Identifying the inconsistencies and tensions can enable the uncovering of gaps and silences in the literature, thus creating the conditions for a new perspective to evolve.

The three major areas of dissonance to be explored in this literature review are as follows:

1. dissonance in perspectives on policy definitions, formation and analysis;
2. dissonance in perspectives on macro forces shaping education policy changes; and
3. dissonance in perspectives on micro forces shaping pre-service teacher education policy changes.

Dissonance in perspectives on policy definitions, formation and analysis

Policy definitions.

The lack of coherence in perspectives within the policy field is highlighted by Haynes (2002), who has written extensively on Australian education policy. He claims, “If there is one generalisation to be made about the present state of educational policy analysis, it is that the field is marked by a lack of consensus on basic terms of reference” (p.16). A lack of consensus regarding a definition of the term ‘policy’ is the first area of dissonance most striking to the researcher engaging in any form of policy analysis. This could in part be explained by Considine’s observation that, “Policy is a deceptively simple term which conceals some very complex activities” (1994, p. 2). Considine’s view is evident in Dye’s definition of policy which is simply “whatever governments choose to do, or not to do” (1978, p. 2). This definition is somewhat simplistic as it regards policy as a top-down, linear process which belies the complexity of policy development and implementation. Moreover, it recognises governments as the only stakeholder in the process.

Critics of this standard view as a policy definition are more willing to accept the inherent messiness and problematic nature of policy. One of the critics of the linear model, Considine, claims policy is a fluid process. “Policy is the continuing work done by groups of policy actors who use available public institutions to articulate and express the things they value” (1994, p. 4). He views policy as never being fixed for any length of time, as the problem which a policy sets out to solve is constantly changing. Considine further argues that policy can never be viewed as simply a study of decisions or programs. Supporting but extending Considine’s view, whilst at the same time recognising the complexity of policy, Stephen Ball (1994) adds two other dimensions to the concept of policy. Ball emphasises both the implementation stage and the local conditions, both of which he saw as crucial to any understanding of policy. “Policy is both text and action, words and deeds, it is what is enacted as well as what is intended. Policies are always incomplete insofar as they relate to or map on to the ‘wild profusion’ of local practice” (p. 10).

Also rejecting the standard definitions of policy are Australian academics Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard and Henry who believe “policy is much more than a specific policy document or text” (1997, p. 24). In their conceptualisation, “policy involves the production of the text, the text itself, ongoing modifications to the text and processes of implementation into practice” (1997, p. 24). Hence, they support Considine’s notion of policy as being fluid in nature as well as Ball’s emphasis on the implementation stage of policy. It is for these reasons that Taylor, *et al.*, stress the view which sees policy as process rather than product. According to these authors, because policy is continually in process, it “helps to explain why policy is so difficult to explain” (1997, p. 24). Regarding policy as process means accepting the complexity such an approach naturally emphasises. This complexity is recognised by Jenny Ozga who, like Taylor *et al.* views “... policy as *process* rather than a product, involving negotiation, contestation or struggle between different groups who may lie outside the formal machinery of official policy making” (Ozga, 2000, p. 2).

A definition which sees policy as process is adopted throughout this project. The relevance to this thesis in adopting such a perspective is the issue of interpretation defining what actually constitutes policy. In the introduction to this thesis, Gregor Ramsey was quoted as complaining that despite the high number of reviews on teaching and teacher education prior to 2000, very little changed. This raises the question of whether Ramsey views policy as a fixed product rather than as a fluid process.

Policy formation.

A further area of dissonance relates to how education policy is formed. Haynes (2002) has discussed the respective models of policy formation that come under the umbrella of 'rational models' and which are based around a technical, scientific approach to policy. "This 'scientific' view relied on Carnap's logical positivism and espoused technical rationality applied to problems chosen on the basis of values" (as cited in Haynes, pp. 17-18). However, in recent years, this uncritical stance to policy formation and analysis has been the subject of debate, particularly within the education policy field. This is in large part due to the rational models' tendency to prescribe policy formation, rather than an explanation of how stakeholders, such as those expected to implement the policy, engage with it in the institutional context. The rejection of the concept that policy is a rational, technical process is evident in the work of policy models devised by Philips.

David Philips (2005) focusses on five common models of policy formation to describe how recent changes to the education system in his country have taken place. These five models are as follows:

- a) The *technical-rationalist* approach "asserts that education change is a rational consequence of logical steps taken to solve identified problems" (p.127). This approach is indicative of most of the general literature dealing with policy analysis. However, Philips identifies weaknesses in the approach claiming it

implies policy decision-makers have all the relevant information to hand, but does not take into account social-cultural contexts, the dynamics of collective decision-making or the impact of a powerful individual who may be a member of a decision-making elite, such as, a cabinet minister or, a chief executive; whose views might outweigh the 'rational' evidence. (p. 127).

b) The *logical incrementalist* model depends more on a progressive process “that improves the quality of available information, establishes critical elements of political power and credibility, creates needed participation and psychological commitment and thus, enhances both the quality of strategic decisions and the likelihood of their successful implementation” (Quinn as cited in Philips, p.128). Wolman describes the outcome of this model as “marginal adjustments to existing policy” (1992, p. 42).

c) The third model of policy formation is referred to by Philips as *policy stream*. This approach to policy develops “when the driving forces for a policy change coalesce at an opportune time and confirm a preferred policy option, even though logical steps may not have been followed. It gives greater weight to problems, possible solutions, participants and choice opportunities than the previous models” (p. 128). Kingdon commented, “The separate streams come together at critical times. A problem is recognized, a solution is available, the political climate makes the time right for change, and the constraints do not prohibit action” (as cited in Philips, 2005, p. 128).

d) The *garbage-can* model is one which engages in an ad hoc decision-making process, thus suggesting “that policy-making is often a chaotic activity characterised by a variety of agenda, with the winning one being simply a result of expediency” (p. 129).

e) Finally, the *conflict model* was proposed by Philips in 1998 as it proved a better explanation of how some of the education policies in New Zealand were developed. Within this model account is taken of

the governments' policy changes since the mid 1980s and the principles on which they were built, as well as neoliberal assumptions about human and organisational behaviour (Codd, Gordon & Harker; 1997; Kelsey, 1997; Lauder, 1991). These include the focus on individual choice and responsibility, inter-agency competition and provision of contestable advice to the government, the splitting up of key functions into separate agencies, and market-based approaches towards education. This model also accounts for the role of key individuals in influencing the shape of policy, strategies used by bureaucracies to maintain a leading role in a policy domain and consequences for potential policy actors.

(2005, p. 129)

Identification of these multiple models of policy formation is evidence of the dissonance in perspective on how policy is formed. Philips makes the point that “While such models do not readily account for the contestable nature of much of educational policy-making . . . they are helpful for explaining some recent policy formation activities” (2005, p.127).

Haynes (2002) supports the contestable nature of educational policy formation by favouring what he describes as the ‘open model’ that is, a model that is not limited only to the formation and adoption process. He contends,

As anyone involved in a social organisation knows, policies can be ignored, modified or contravened by those who are supposed to implement them. Thus there can be a difference between official or stated policy and that actually carried out in the organisation So the policy-making process does not stop with the official announcement of a policy and is not necessarily restricted to those in highest authority in the central office. (p. 20)

Taking this characterization of policy formation into account it would be wise for any policy researcher to heed Philips’ observation on policy development in New Zealand. “No single model of policy formation is likely to explain all government, social or even educational policy-making’ (2005, p. 130). Philips’ perspective on

policy formation raises another question regarding Gregor Ramsey's perspective; namely, does he consider there is only one model of policy formation.

Policy analysis

The open model suggested by Haynes brings into focus the tensions that exist in the field of policy. Whilst some authors have emphasised the role of the state as paramount in policy development, others have emphasised the role of those charged with implementing the policy recommendations as either an equal or, a more important factor for analysing policy. Sometimes described as macro versus micro, this issue of which stakeholder has the most influence on policy, the producer or the implementer, is a major area of dissonance in the education policy literature.

With respect to the state and its influence on policy development, Davis *et al.* interpret the state as being "... a complex structure which defies precise definition, but which remains of crucial importance in understanding the contours of public policy. It is a crucial starting point because the state translates values, interests and resources into objectives and policies" (1993, p. 19). Crowson and Boyd emphasised how, "the state is more than just another actor" (1995, p. 205) because it is able to employ legitimate coercion, shape other institutional features, define and enforce conditions of ownership and control, and fuse the collective will. Therefore, they argue, a central position should be allocated to the state in policy analysis.

Ozga believes that a statist framework is a worthwhile means of investigating "the sources, scope and pattern of any education policy, the operation of the state apparatus, its internal contradictions and conflicts, the historical antecedents of policy structure, content and culture" (1990, p. 361). Roger Dale has written extensively about the influence of the state on education policy (1989, 1991, 1992, 1994, 1999; Dale & Ozga 1993). He maintains that "a focus on the state is not only necessary, but the most important component of any adequate understanding of education policy" (1992, p. 388).

Against this view of the state being the most influential stakeholder in policy development a number of writers emphasise other stakeholders as being equally or more influential. *Politics and Policy Making in Education* (Ball, 1990) and *Reforming Education and Changing Schools* (Ball, Bowe & Gold, 1992) are two seminal texts which emphasise the micropolitics associated with policy development. The former book deals with how micropolitics are played out within the state during the production phase of the policy text. The second book emphasises how the micropolitics of educational policy is enacted in the context of the school. In the 1992 text, the authors propose a view of policy as a continuous cycle which caters for recontextualisation in three primary policy contexts. These were: the context of influence (where interest groups struggle over the construction of discourse); the context of policy text production (where texts represent policy, but may contain inconsistencies and contradictions); and the context of practice (where policy is subject to interpretation and recreation). In each of these three contexts there exist multiple arenas of action, and each involves some tension between competing interests. This policy cycle approach stresses agency, particularly within the context of practice in educational institutions where policy is subjected to refraction, accommodation, contestation and resistance. It is an approach with which Raab (1994) is sympathetic, as, like Ball, he too believes policy is subject to refraction and slippages at the implementation stage. In his writing about the policy process Raab claims, "... the pudding eaten is a far cry from the original recipe" (p. 24).

The Australian academic Bob Lingard has critiqued the writing of two well known policy writers whose work has been discussed above, namely Stephen Ball and Roger Dale. With respect to the policy cycle, Lingard (1993) is uncomfortable with what he describes as the 'washing away' of the role of the state, particularly in Ball's later work which focuses on local sites of policy practice. Believing state structure is a mediating influence at both the central and local sites, Lingard argues the need for a more sophisticated theory of the state to be incorporated into Ball's notion of a policy cycle. But Lingard (1993) is also critical of the way Roger Dale gives little attention to local context and over-emphasises the state. This leads Lingard to conclude Dale's work is too theoretically driven which leads to an overplay of the state's influence. Although this debate is now somewhat

dated, and both Ball and Dale have conceded to the weaknesses in their respective approaches, summarised by Lingard as the ‘state control’ approach to policy versus a ‘policy cycle’ approach, it remains relevant for this thesis.

First, the significance of this debate highlights the dissonance, complexity and tensions associated with policy definitions, formation and implementation. Second, it raises a question in regard to the degree Gregor Ramsey considered the state in policy formation and its impact on policy implementation before he embarked on his critique of teacher educators not being able to rise to the challenge of implementing change.

Importantly, however, the above debates around policy pose a challenge for the researcher, who must develop a theoretical framework, a methodology and a means of analysis that can give justice to the role of the state in education policy and at the same time recognise the influence of actors beyond the state apparatus, thus acknowledging the local context.

Dissonance in perspectives on macro forces shaping education policy change.

In addition to the lack of consensus on policy definitions and policy formation and analysis, there exists in the literature conflicting views regarding the very nature of the state. If the role of the state is to be recognised as a key stakeholder in policy analysis, as has been suggested by the aforementioned authors, then the nature of the contemporary state needs to be understood. Whilst the decline of the welfare state in Western democracies is widely recognised and agreed upon within the literature, how the contemporary state operates remains a point of contention. This is in large part due to the influence of changing structural forces, three of which will be discussed in this section of the literature review. These are

- i) a reconfigured state,
- ii) globalisation and
- iii) the new economy,

Despite arguments concerning the degree of influence of each structural change, their relevance to teacher education policy is not widely recognised outside of academic circles. But all three serve to explain a shift in emphasis within pre-service teacher education.

A reconfigured state

A number of writers (Apple, 2000; Ozga, 2000; Lingard, 2000) have recognised the major role of the state in influencing policy. However, following the lead of Dale and Ozga (1993), their writing took a shift away from the importance of the state in education policy to the workings of the state. Dale and Ozga began to write about a reconfigured state, one which operates along two contradictory ideological stances, neoliberalism and neoconservatism.

Neoliberalism, or economic rationalism as it is known in Australia, is an ideological orientation underpinned by the notion of a weak state. Over the past thirty years, neoliberalism has become the dominant hegemony throughout much of the world (Harvey, 2005). During this period, the classical liberalism that defined Western economic and social policy during the nineteenth and early twentieth century has been revitalized, intensified, and its scope has been extended (Baez, 2007; Turner, 2008). This has resulted in drastic cuts to state-supported social services and programs, the extension of an economic rationalism to cultural, social, and political spheres, and the redefinition of the individual from a citizen to an autonomous economic actor (Baez, 2007; Lemke, 2001; Turner, 2008). It has also resulted in a redefining of the purpose and role of social, cultural, and political institutions according to market logic and the prioritization of economic outcomes (Apple, 2001; Aronowitz, 2000; Giroux, 2005; Harvey, 2005; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

Ozga describes neoliberalism as the "... belief in the unfettered free market as economically beneficent allied to political ideas stressing the importance of individual freedom and the need to curtail state intervention and interference in individual lives" (2000, p. 59). Terminology such as: deregulation; efficiency; privatization; performativity; accountability; competition; best practice; quality

assurance; evidence driven; international best practice; consumer choice and user-pays, are characteristic of the language that permeates policies supportive of a neoliberal ideology. Commenting on the discourse patterns of neoliberals, Bates writes,

The current rhetoric informing attempts to restructure education and teacher education involves concerns with ‘the new economy’, and the need to ‘remain competitive’ through ‘world class’ institutions and ‘quality assurance’ ‘benchmarked’ against ‘best practice’. This is the rhetoric not only of business elites but also of the governments they appear to have captured (2004, p. 118).

Apple (2000) has identified a number of variants associated with neoliberalism which relate to education. One of these is a tighter linkage between education and the economy. Lingard describes this development as “the move from the social democratic framing of education, linked to social goals and economic nationalism, to a focus more on the economic benefits of education to nations and individuals in the context of a globalized economy” (p. 96). Apple identifies a second variant of this ideology as the willingness of the state to spend more money on reforms in education, but only if those reforms “meet the needs expressed by capital” (Apple, 2000, p. 62). A third variant within neoliberalism is the elevated status given to the ‘consumer’ to the extent that “for neoliberals, the world in essence is a vast supermarket. Consumer choice is the guarantor of democracy” (Apple, 2000, p. 60).

Relating neoliberalism to education policy, Ozga writes, “The fundamental aims of policy makers who adopt these agendas in education are to remove costs and responsibilities from the state, while simultaneously improving efficiency and individual and institutional responsiveness, and thus raising standards of performance” (2000, p. 60). Acker-Hocevar *et al.* describe the changing role of the state in education as changing “from one of providing support and resources to one of monitoring and ensuring compliance to its mandates and regulations” (2010, p. 121). These observations made by Acker-Hocevar *et al.* and Ozga are

aligned to Lyotard's (1993) notion of performativity, which favours an input/output equation over the goal of truth, and can be identified as another variant inherent in neoliberalism.

Supporting Ozga's perspective and believing neo-liberalism to be the dominant discourse of the current macro-political setting, Grimmett *et al.* (2009) writes "neo-liberalist thought has been able to extend its hegemonic socio-economic reach into the public sphere to redefine roles and responsibilities in education . . ." (p. 11). These authors argue that the changes to the traditional role of universities is related to the onset of neo-liberalism which now sees universities "refashioned around academic capitalism to support economic development and global competitiveness" (p. 11). As a result of this development these same authors believe "teacher education is constrained by these macro pressures . . ." (p. 13).

Authors Fitz and Halpin (1991) are more cautious than the above authors as they warn identifying neoliberalism as the sole cause of changes in education policy can be an injudicious leap. Fitz and Halpin (1991), when analysing a British education policy tied closely to the ideology of the 'free' market, wrote

Interpreting policy via a reading of a correspondence between ideological preferences and concrete proposals is a hazardous procedure, and one which may overlook the complexities, contingencies and competing interests which we believe are so much a part of the policy-making process. (p. 135)

This observation by Fitz and Halpin suggests that researchers who engage in policy analysis should not limit their investigation to merely examining the philosophy and recommendations of the document. What these authors do suggest is the need for policy analysts to probe deeper in order to consider the underlying tensions and multifarious aspects inherent in policy development and implementation. An observation of this nature has implications for the design of this research thesis.

Tensions in policy are exemplified by a second ideological orientation, neo-conservatism which is at the core of a number of policies that support a more influential role for the state. Thus terms such as back-to-basics, standards, evidence-based and excellence permeate those policies associated with a neoconservative perspective (Apple, 2000). Proposals for national testing programs, national curriculum and a return to the cultural canons associated with Western tradition lie at the heart of education changes related to neo-conservatism. A significant element of this orientation is the interventionist and regulatory state, a development that has a number of consequences for teacher education policy. In explaining the role of the interventionist and regulatory state for education Apple (2000) cites the example of the change from “licensed autonomy” to “regulated autonomy” regarding teacher’s work. With respect to the former, he refers to past practice, in which teachers received their qualifications to teach and were thereafter relatively autonomous to use their own judgment with respect to the content and methods of their teaching. With the rise of “regulated autonomy”, teacher’s work is more closely scrutinised, particularly in terms of processes and outcomes. As a result, teachers’ professional judgement is no longer trusted, and they are seen by the state as needing to be controlled. Whilst Apple’s observations are about teachers and schooling, their applicability to developments in higher education is noteworthy.

Thus it can be seen that the two orientations of neoliberalism and neoconservatism embody radically opposed conceptions of the state’s role in the organization of society. The former supports the state’s withdrawal from involvement in public institutions such as the economy, welfare and education, while the latter sees a role for increased state control. Cochran-Smith describes this phenomena as “the contradictions of simultaneous regulation and deregulation” (2005, p. 4). Yet both orientations have had a marked influence on government policy for a number of decades which serves to create tensions for education, as it must operate within a context whereby the state adopts practices of governance that are not complementary. Apple’s observation of such a development is noteworthy. At the same time “... neoliberal and neoconservative policies that are seemingly contradictory may mutually reinforce each other in the long run” (2000, p. 72).

The perception of how the two ideologies can paradoxically reinforce each other is extended by Saunders (2010) and Baez (2007) who acknowledge how a reconfigured, neoliberal state does not necessarily translate into a weakening of the state. As its former functions are redefined, the state remains strong, though the use of its power is now channelled in different ways, using the different logic of economic rationalism (Baez, 2007). According to this logic, “State power should focus on facilitating the operation of the market and the securing ability of individuals to operate freely within it” (Saunders, 2010, p. 47), including creating new markets, establishing free trade agreements between countries, and restructuring the tax system and regulations to support business. “These are all legitimate uses of state power within neoliberal ideology, and all require a strong state” (Saunders, 2010, p. 47).

Fitz and Halpin (1991) and Levin (1998) also sounds a note of warning, suggesting the issue involves more than simply developing policy along the lines of a particular ideology. Levin writes “the road from ideological belief to political commitment to formal policy to actual practice is rarely a straight one. For one thing, ideology itself is seldom free of inconsistencies and contradictions” (1998, p. 134). Factors influencing the move from ideology to outcome can range among “beliefs, political factors, feasibility, resource limits, bureaucratic routines, time and the personalities of key actors” (Levin, 1998, p. 134). Whilst this thesis must heed Levin’s warning, it must nonetheless consider directly the role of the state and how it operates as the question of whether the two contradictory orientations operating within teacher education can help explain Ramsey’s observation; that being, the success of pre-service teacher education policies in Australia has been limited.

Globalisation

A second debate within the literature revolves around the identification of globalisation as a macro structural change which has been influential in the formation of contemporary education policy. Delandshere and Petrosky claim “there is no simple or single answer to how globalization has affected or is affecting education reform policies with regard to teaching, learning, and

curricula” (2004, pp. 22-23). Nonetheless, according to these authors it is important for those involved in education to understand “how reform policies and practices might result from and feed into globalization and the global economic ideology” (p. 23). But just as in the discussions already noted the role of the state in policy formation, consideration of issues arising from globalisation reveal tensions in the education policy literature between those who value and those who find fault with the impact of the forces of globalisation on education policy. Joseph Stiglitz recognises this dissonance around globalisation when he raises the question of why “it has been subject, at the same time, to such vilification and such praise?” (2002, p. 9). This section of the literature review attempts to answer Stiglitz’s question by first addressing the questions of what constitutes globalisation and how it operates. Following this will be a discussion on the dissonance among academic writers as to the nature and extent of globalisation’s impact on education policy.

What is globalisation? “Put simply, globalisation could be described as a set of processes which in various ways – economic, cultural and political – make supranational connections” (Taylor *et al.*, 1997, p. 55). Somewhat more extensively, Joseph Stiglitz defines it as

The closer integration of the countries and peoples of the world which has been brought about by the enormous reduction of costs of transportation and communication, and the breaking down of artificial barriers to the flows of goods, services, capital, knowledge, and (to a lesser extent) people across borders. Globalization has been accompanied by the creation of new institutions that have joined with existing ones to work across borders. (2002, p. 9)

Waters (cited in Taylor *et al.* 1997), suggests that it is in the domain of ‘instantaneous’ and ‘stateless’ financial markets that globalisation is most advanced (p. 35). Hinkson (2005) argues that “The fuller meaning of globalization cannot be adequately conceived in the simple terms of global economic markets” (p. 5). Rather than limiting the process of globalisation to the economic realm, Appadurai (1990) develops the notion of ‘scapes’, which he uses to analyse global cultural flows. He identifies five dimensions of cultural flows: ethnoscapas,

technoscapes, financescapes, mediascapes and ideoscapes. With respect to education, ideoscapes are paramount in understanding the influences on contemporary policy development. Appadurai describes ideoscapes as a major dimension of the globalisation process whereby there is a flow of ideas and ideological trends across the globe. These ideas are often very influential and can act as a catalyst for change at international, national, and local levels.

In exploring how the ideas concerning education are spread globally Levin (1998) identifies the increasingly internationalised media, academic and quasi-academic connections developed through conferences, sabbatical leave, exchanges of papers, the Internet and the World Wide Web as all being influential. In addition he cites politicians and political managers and policy staff of political parties many of whom are connected to various think-tanks and other policy organisations. World economic conferences can foster political connections across the globe and trips by a variety of leaders to countries that appear to be doing ‘interesting’ things. Ball (2008) cites the example of Finland doing ‘interesting things’ which supports what Levin argued. He notes that when the three-yearly Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) study results was undertaken in 2003, it “identified Finland as the industrialised world’s most successful education system, [thus] the country received an enormous amount of attention by policy makers from many different countries to what Finland is ‘doing right’” (p. 35). This supports Levin’s view that foundations and international organisations also play a part in the spread of ideas relevant to education policy.

Ball (2008) identifies three international organisations that have been influential in the development of education policy. First is the World Bank, an organisation Ball claims has “for the past two decades . . . increased its economic and ideological influence in setting the educational policy agenda, particularly in relation to less developed countries” (p. 32). The second international organisation Ball identifies is the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD):

The OECD's educational policy work is based mainly on research and supranational information management – the instruments of which are published country-by-country and as comparative analyses, statistics and thematic reviews the OECD has developed an advisory role to policy makers at the highest level and thereby exerted a widespread influence on the social and economic policies of its member states in multiple but indirect ways. (p. 34)

The third powerful international organisation identified by Ball is the World Trade Organization (WTO). Based in Geneva, and comprised of 142 member nations this multilateral group “provides a legal and institutional framework for international trade . . . Specifically it aims to create a ‘level playing field’, thereby avoiding discrimination against foreign corporations entering national service markets like education” pp. 35-36).

In light of the above it is not surprising that Ball argues, “education policy is increasingly thought about and made within the context of the ‘pressures’ and requirements of globalisation” (2008, p. 1). This new global context creates a heightening of pressure for change, resulting in what Ball describes as ‘policy overload’ (p. 2) or what Dunleavy and O’Leary call ‘hyperactivism’ (1987). The result is that over the last three decades the ‘depth, breadth and pace of change’ and ‘level of government activity’ in education is ‘unprecedented’ (Coffield, 2006, p. 2). The impact of these developments upon those responsible for implementing policy change was noted by Ball. “For teachers and FE [further education] lecturers in particular, policy is currently experienced as a constant flood of new requirements, changes, exhortations, responsibilities and expectations” (2008, p. 3).

Nonetheless, despite globalisation and the spread of ideoscapes through policy means such as borrowing, transfer, convergence, copying, appropriation, assimilation or importation, the translation of ideology into policies and practice is regularly mediated by national contexts, thus “the pressure of local circumstances come to the fore, so that what looks like similar policies end up being quite different practices” (Levin, 1998, p. 135). Phillips supports Levin, arguing,

The notion that policy can simply be transplanted from one national situation to another is of course simplistic, though it is by no means uncommon to hear politicians and influential bureaucrats – usually on a short fact-finding tour to another country – expounding the advantages of foreign models and their potential for incorporation into the home context (Phillips, 2000, p. 25).

Despite the observations made by Levin and Phillips, Lingard's (1996) observation on globalisation and education policy should not be dismissed: "... many of the developments in educational policy framed within states are, at one level, also linked to processes of globalization" (p. 86). Thus there is an interplay between global and local. Appreciating this interplay leads Taylor *et al.*, to claim, "a consideration of globalisation factors needs to be incorporated into any policy analysis of national developments" (1997, p. 61).

Given the above discussion regarding the link between globalisation and education policy, it needs to be acknowledged there are a number of academics who are not as convinced as others that globalisation is critical to understanding contemporary educational changes. As Ball writes,

Globalisation can be used to 'explain' almost anything and . . . is ubiquitous in current policy texts and policy analysis. It is certainly possible to overstate the case and succumb to what Weiss (1997) calls, the "myth of the powerless state" (2008, p. 29).

Ball cautions, "the analysis of the flow and influence of policies between nations needs to be addressed with care. Ideas, knowledge, culture and artefacts are not assimilated uncritically or unreflexively into diverse national settings" (p. 29). Finally, Ball adds the caveat ". . . nations are positioned differently in relation to the structures and effects of globalisation" (p. 29).

Welch is one such author who believes some observers over-emphasise the impact of globalisation on education. Citing a mid nineteenth century example of how

history can usefully inform contemporary policy he writes, “among other things, it ... serves as a timely warning to current hyper-globalists, who insist that the impact of globalisation effects on current policy agendas is an entirely novel phenomenon. Importing policies from the UK, or elsewhere, is by no means new!” (2007, p. 15).

Another group of commentators who call on history to challenge the hyper-globalists has been identified by Held *et al.*, (1999), who labelled them as the *sceptics*. Bray (2005), paraphrasing Held when comparing hyper globalists and the sceptics, writes

The *sceptics*, by contrast . . . consider the hyperglobalist thesis to be fundamentally flawed and politically naive since it underestimates the enduring power of national governments to regulate international economic activity. The sceptics recognise the economic power of regionalisation in the world economy, but assert that by comparison with the age of world empires the international economy has become considerably less global in its geographical embrace. (p. 36)

Nevertheless globalisation will be considered an important element in this thesis for the analysis of policy and for the scrutiny of interviews and other literature. When so doing, however, Lingard’s observations of the interplay between the global and local and the critiques of the sceptics and of the hyper-globalists will be kept in mind. Also worth noting is Roger Dale’s (1999) observation that some policy arenas in education are more highly charged than others with respect to globalisation given their explicit links to the economy.

In summary then, in their discussion on globalisation, education policy and politics, Ozga and Lingard arrived at three broad conclusions regarding contemporary education policy:

1. That at an international level a coherent set of policy themes and processes (globalised policy discourses) has emerged, through

which policy makers (at national, international and transnational levels) seek to reshape education systems.

2. That there has emerged a globalised education policy field situated between global pressures and local vernacular education policy responses.
3. That these globalised policy agendas and processes interact with traditions, ideologies, institutions and politics that have developed on national terrains, resulting in vernacular education policy outcomes. (2007, p. 69)

The foregoing has focused on globalisation and the discord among academic writers regarding contemporary policy formation within a global and international context. A number of writers who believe globalisation is influential on how policy is constructed and enacted (Ball, 1998, 2008; Dale, 1999; Lingard & Ozga, 2007; Taylor *et al.* 1997; Taylor & Henry, 2000; Delanty, 2001; Sabour, 2005; Zajda, 2008) extend this interplay of policy and globalisation by arguing that, today, policy is much more driven by broad economic considerations and that, unlike past eras, contemporary education policy is heavily influenced by the logic of the global market. Lingard and Ozga noted this emerging interplay between education policy and the global economy when commenting on the reframing of the role of education as the “reshaping of educational purposes to develop human capital for the information age and national economic competitiveness” (2007, p. 69).

Significant to, and underpinning the reshaping of education policy, is what has become known as ‘the new economy’. Why this has occurred and how it has eventuated is the focus of part three of this section of the literature review.

The new economy

The relevance of the new economy for education has been put succinctly by Yeatman who argued that “policy options in other domains are framed and constrained by these new economic imperatives” (cited by Rizvi *et al.*, 1997, p.

58). Hence the need to understand what is meant by the new economy and how it works. The new form of the economy, regularly referred to as the “knowledge economy”, is “a much-used term in relation to contemporary education policy but as a concept it is elusive and misleading” (Ball, 2008, p. 19). The term is often used as an over-arching one, in conjunction with, or as a substitute for, other terms such as: “digital economy”, “information economy”, “knowledge-based economy”, “learning economy”, “knowledge market”, “postmodern market”, “knowledge organisation” or “knowledge management”.

Although unpacking what is meant by the term ‘knowledge economy’ is not an easy task, Stephen Ball described it succinctly when he wrote, “the development of the knowledge economy can be understood in terms of the increasing role of knowledge as a factor of production and its impact on skills, learning, organisation and innovation” (2008, p. 20). The inter-relationship between production, skills, learning, and innovation has been well recognised by Korres (2008), who links new management practices and a highly skilled workforce as vital elements for innovation.

Writing in *Arena Magazine* and *Arena Journal* (two influential Australian publications) John Hinkson has commented extensively over the past three decades on the new type of skills required of workers operating in the new economy. He describes the shift in emphasis to training, life-long learning and the development of flexible skills. But the training takes a new form and the skills to be learnt are different from those required in the previous industrial era; “training is increasingly abstract training in analytical skills – as one might expect if the abstract intellectual nature of high tech is reflected upon This emphasis on intellectual training is enormously influential in education today” (1991, p. 31).

Significant to intellectual training is a new form of technology known as ‘high-tech’. In the industrial or modern era, the type of technology employed was related to a style of work sometimes referred to as work of the hand. In the post-industrial or postmodern era, the form of technology which has revolutionised both the style of work and the new type of worker is known as work of the head. Unlike the previous era, which depended on the physical labour

of the individual, within the postmodern era, physical labour has been widely displaced in developed economies by high-tech production which is reliant on the mental skills of the worker. Drucker (1969), who first introduced the idea of the knowledge economy, described the difference as follows: manual workers work with their hands and produce goods or services. Knowledge workers work with their heads and produce or articulate ideas, knowledge and information (pp. 2-3). Knowledge workers who engage in high-tech production are central to the new economy, as was noted by Korres who wrote, “Technological progress has become virtually synonymous with long-run economic growth” (2008, p. 40).

Associated with high-tech production is the communications and information revolution, hence the term ‘Information Age’ is sometimes employed to describe the contemporary era. Rifkin noted, “Information and communications [are] the raw material of the high-tech global economy” (1996, p. 237). Hinkson (1991; 1999/2000; 2005) describes the new economy as a manifestation of the advent of postmodernity, and like Rifkin, he argues that it is inter-related not only with high-tech production but also with the information and communications revolution. This led Hinkson to use the phrase ‘postmodern market’ (1993, p. 30) when writing about the new economy. He described this form of the market economy as having three distinct characteristics:

The first . . . is the sheer speed of the transactions which the new technologies facilitate A second characteristic . . . is a radically enhanced flow of commodities, commodities increasingly generated by high technological processes A third crucial characteristic is not so obvious: a new power of the postmodern market to assimilate spheres of activity which have always been within the realm of non-market relations. (1993, p. 30)

Education is one such sphere of activity which is today incorporated into the market in a manner different from how they were incorporated in the past. Indeed, within the recent context of Australian higher education, Denise Bradley completed her report into the university sector in 2008. The objective of the review was to “examine whether the sector is structured, organised and financed

to position Australia to compete effectively in the new globalised economy” (Santoro *et al.*, 2009, p. 137). Commenting on similar developments in universities in other Western nation-states, Grimmett writes “the traditional role of universities in knowledge formation and cultural reproduction is no longer central to the nation state. Rather, it has been re-fashioned around academic capitalism to support economic development and global competitiveness” (2009, p. 11).

A second sphere that once stood aside from the market but is often not recognised as fundamental in the new economy is that of public management practices. Korres (2008) argues strongly how the need for constant innovation is a major driving force for the new economy. He identifies new management practices and a highly skilled workforce as vital elements for innovation. This leads him to conclude,

Human resources are thus the essential factor. In this respect, initial and ongoing training plays a fundamental role in providing the basic skills required and in constantly adapting them. Many studies and analyses show that a better-educated, better-trained, and better-informed workforce helps to strengthen innovation. (2008, p. 38)

In his text *The Education Debate*, Ball (2008) discusses how management styles have altered, labelling the public management practices now adopted as ‘policy technologies’. These involve “the calculated deployment of forms of organisation and procedures and disciplines or bodies of knowledge, to organise human forces and capabilities into functioning systems” (2008, p. 41). He describes how the

‘policy technologies’ of education reform are generic in two senses: as part of a global convergence in reform strategies, . . . and as deployed across the public sector as a whole. They constitute a ‘one-size-fits-all’ model for the ‘transformation’ and ‘modernisation’ of public sector organisations and systems. They interrelate and complement one another and work on individual practitioners, work groups and whole

organisations to reconstitute social relations, forms of esteem and value, sense of purpose and notions of excellence and good practice.

(2008, p. 42)

Grimmett (2009) discusses how universities in Western nation-states are being reinvented as corporate entities, in large part through processes of managerialism.

In many universities it has led to a corporate structure that casts faculty in the role of an academic proletariat and administration in the role of New Public Managers. Such a change has led to faculty too often being seen as self-interested individuals, undermining the notion that they act with professional responsibility; that is, the capacity for self-governance through collegial decision making is seen as an anathema to the effective use of public funds. This is at odds with the modernist relationship between the nation state and the university that supported professional responsibility and self-governance as a form of delegated authority to bodies possessing expertise. (pp. 11-12)

In summary, the impact of the 'new economy' and its constituent elements is perhaps best characterised by Deborah Wince-Smith, the former Assistant Secretary for Technology Policy in the United States.

New technology is reshaping every product, service and job. It is providing us with capabilities that we could have only imagined at one time. We have witnessed traditional modes of production . . . become obsolete. In parallel, we have begun to recognise that the management and work organization systems that parallel these obsolete production systems have to be completely changed as well. (1993, p. 191)

Not all academics are convinced that the linkage of education policy with the knowledge economy is a positive development for education. A review of the literature on the inter-relationship between the knowledge economy and education reveals a number of policy analysts who are critical of this emerging relationship. Australian authors in particular have been vociferous in their criticism of the

relationship between education and the element of neo-managerialism which is embedded in the new economy.

The new style of management has been described as ‘new public management’ (Ozga & Lingard, 2007), ‘corporate managerialism’ (Marginson, 1993; Blackmore & Sachs, 2000; Marginson & Considine, 2000; Considine, 2001; Yeatman, 1987) and ‘policy technologies’ (Ball, 2008). Lingard (1993) employs the term ‘corporate managerialism’ to describe the restructuring of public sector bureaucracies and claims it is a means of achieving greater outputs for given inputs. “What is required is a leaner, tighter, more precisely defined management structure, and more precisely articulated policy goals, as well as the devolution to the service agencies at the work face” (p. 30). Considine (1988) claims managerialism is about getting more for less by demanding greater outputs for given inputs and more precisely defined management structures. He also sounds a note of warning claiming that employing a corporate managerialist framework in the public sector “... appeals to a small number of key ministers in central portfolios who are able to use the premises to exercise their own control” (as cited in in Porter, 1993, p. 44).

Likewise, Blackmore and Sachs (1998) are critical of the neo-managerial systems which have evolved from the new-market orientation. They argue that the corporate style of management imposed upon the education sector has led to a burgeoning of accountability measures. This has resulted in a reduction of “professional autonomy, changing the nature of what it was to be professional and be a professional in education” (Blackmore, 2000, p. 22). Blackmore further argues,

. . . these accountabilities have led to an emphasis on performativity – being seen to perform – that in the long term detracts from the core work of teaching, researching and leading. The performativity regimes of corporate education in turn produce ‘designer’ employees, who continuously ‘re-invent’ themselves for organisational purposes. This is a far more subtle form of managerial control than old bureaucratic forms.

(2000, p. 22)

Adding to the negative case, Stephen Ball (2008) discusses how the analysts who are critical of the newly emerging link between education policy and the new economy can be divided into three groups, with each group having a particular set of responses. He suggests, “each . . . treats the idea of the knowledge economy differently in terms of its reality, and if it is real, its effects” (p. 21).

The first group of analysts are critical of an approach which sees the economy as the new dominant for education. They believe that such a shift results in the narrowing of the curriculum and the purposes of education. According to Taylor and Henry, “The incorporation of education into economic policy has served to promote a highly instrumental and vocational ethos within institutions and among students” (2000, p. 4). Analysing the university within the knowledge economy Peters believes “Western governments have begun the process of restructuring universities by obliterating the distinction between education and training . . .” (2002, p. 147). Bates believes developments such as the aforementioned are indicative of “the shift . . . away from principles of engagement and social democracy that might serve cultural ends towards principles of corporate management directed to economic ends” (2007, p. 6). Hinkson (1991) writes of the weakening of the integrative function of education within what he terms postmodernity. Commenting on this shift in relation to the purposes of education Cowen (1996) describes it as the “astonishing displacement of ‘society’ within the late modern educational pattern” (p. 151).

Supporting the views of the aforementioned critics is Ball who writes, “The social and economic purposes of education have been collapsed into a single overriding emphasis on policy making for economic competitiveness and an increasing neglect or sidelining (other than in rhetoric) of the social purposes of education” (2008, p. 22).

The arguments of the second group of analysts critical of the new interplay between the economy and education revolve around the issue of the real impact of the new economy for society in general, and workers in particular. Ball (2008) suggests,

The empirical evidence for the knowledge economy is still weak at best. Keep (1997, p. 461) makes the point that : ‘Research suggests that the impact of globalisation on the British economy and the job market is being both over-emphasised and over-simplified ... many parts of the domestic economy, especially in the service sector, remain relatively insulated from global economic competition’. The main areas of recent economic growth and expansion of jobs in countries like the UK and the US rest not on knowledge but on ‘service’ (pp. 23-24)

In the Australian context, a review of the labour force statistics undertaken by the Australian Bureau of Statistics in June 2009, (see appendix B) which gives comparative figures according to industry for total persons employed, shows a similar development to that in the United Kingdom and the United States; namely the services sector dominates the employment figures. In the study, *Australia and the Global Economy*, *Ciro et al.*, note, “In the ten years to 2008, the value of Australia’s services trade doubled. In 2008, Australia’s exports of services were valued at \$A53.2 billion, and its imports of services at \$A53.8 billion” (2009, pp. 76-77). Noteworthy is that education’s main service industry is worth \$12.2 billion (*Ciro et al.*, p, 78).

The issue for the third group of critics who write negatively on the newly emerging link between education and the new economy is based on matters of equality. Ball (2008) writes,

developments in relation to the knowledge economy, both in terms of technological developments, investments in innovation and research and in educational expansion, are together reinforcing systematic social inequalities and exacerbating economic and social polarisation. In part this is the point that there is a ‘wired world’ and an ‘unwired world’ – many people and many countries are not ‘connected’ electronically and do not participate in a real sense in the economy. These gaps and inequalities are evident within as well as between countries. (p. 24)

Supporting Ball and making the link between globalisation, the new economy and education, Zajda (2008) acknowledges the resulting polarisation among countries around the world. He is critical of supranational organisations such as the IMF and the World Bank which he claims

have seriously affected some developing nations and transitional economies in delivering basic education for all. The poor are unable to feed their children, let alone send them to school. This is particularly evident in Sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America, Asia, Central Asian Republics . . . and South East Asia. (2008, p. 51)

Zajda continues by also being critical of the policies of the OECD, UNESCO, the WTO, and GATS, all of which “operate as powerful forces, which, as supranational organisations, shape and influence education and policy around the world” (2008, p. 51). Finally, he claims

that in the domains of language, policy, education and national identity, nation-states are likely to lose their power and capacity to affect their future directions, as the struggle for knowledge domination, production and dissemination becomes a new form of a knowledge and technology-driven social stratification (2008, p. 51).

The above discussion in this second section of the literature review dealt with the dissonance in perspectives on three key macro level structural forces shaping education policy: a reconfigured state, globalisation and the new economy. The degree to which these forces have impacted on policy documents related to pre-service teacher education will be key elements of analyses to be undertaken in subsequent chapters of this thesis.

Dissonance in perspectives on micro forces shaping pre-service teacher education policy

Thus far in this review has examined two major areas of dissonance. The first dealt with the conflicting tensions around policy definitions, formation and analysis. The second area highlighted the tensions in perspectives on macro forces shaping education policy changes. Following the over-arching theme I now turn to the third major area regarding forces shaping pre-service education policy change, namely, the tension in micro forces shaping pre-service teacher education policy.

Commenting on contemporary issues in teacher education, American academic Cochran-Smith observes that in the United States of America “the question of how the nation’s teachers are recruited, prepared, and retained has become one of the hottest topics in the public and academic discourse regarding education” (2005, p. 3). Australian academic Richard Bates observes, “Teacher education is under scrutiny in virtually every country. . . .” (2007, p. 2). A review of the literature on changes to pre-service teacher education over the past thirty years bears out both Cochran-Smith’s and Bates’ observations.

O’Donoghue and Whitehead (2008b) edited a text which was a “comparative study on teacher education across ten major English-speaking regions of the world” (p. 1). The authors note the historical development of teacher education and the current concerns facing each country regarding the preparation of teachers reveals many similarities thus transcending national boundaries. Reflecting on this development led one Scottish academic to describe developments in teacher education in her country as “travelling policy” (Munn, 2008, p. 66). By this she means policies are mirrored or copied across countries. It should be noted however, that not all changes were implemented in every country, nor were they implemented to the same degree or within the same time frame.

Across the globe, “Educators have argued over whether teaching is an art or a science, or both, and the debate still goes on. Likewise, there have been major differences of opinion as to whether student teachers should be ‘trained’ or ‘educated’ and whether their preparation should be centred in schools or

universities” (O’Donoghue & Whitehead, 2008b, pp. 1-2). These tensions are reflected in Australian debates that have occurred regularly over the past thirty years regarding how best to train teachers.

Most recommendations for change revolve around three broad aspects of teacher education. The first centres on the changing models for teacher education; the second deals with reform to pre-service teaching courses; and the third relates to the changes in control of teacher education. However, changes both advocated and instituted are not without their critics, and as the following discussion highlights, dissonance abounds among all stakeholders as to the shape and form pre-service teacher education should take.

Changing models for teacher education

According to O’Donoghue and Whitehead. “From a historical point of view, . . . teacher preparation has progressed through a series of stages, namely, what can be termed ‘the teacher-apprenticeship stage’, ‘the college-based teacher training stage’, and ‘the college, or university-based teacher education stage’”(2008a, p. 192). As the following investigation of the literature will show, this has certainly been the case in Australia.

In the first stage, where most aspiring teachers were put through an apprenticeship model, students were expected to learn on-the-job from practicing teachers, and the focus of their learning was on the basic skills necessary to instruct and control large classes. Under this model of training, “there was one way to teach, just as there was a uniform schooling for all” (O’Donoghue & Whitehead, 2008a, p. 192). At the start of the twentieth century, there emerged throughout the Western world, moves towards a more formal style of education for pre-service teachers (Aspland, 2008).

In this second stage, teacher training began to take place in the colleges. In the Australian context, “teachers’ colleges [were] controlled and funded by state governments and staffed by state government employees, the majority of whom had been teachers” (Tisher, 1995, p. 38). In analysing the function of the teachers’

colleges Vick (2003) perceived them as being craft-oriented, in that their prime purpose was to develop appropriate techniques and skills for teaching. Hence, a craft-approach to teaching dominated the content of pre-service training up until the late 1980s. Aspland comments, “that . . . the curriculum was more concerned with teaching methods and content than with the promotion of the ongoing personal-professional qualities of the trainees” (2008, p. 179), thus it was “technocratic and reductionist in its orientations” (2008, p. 180). The compulsory practicum, which required student teachers to go into schools to be supervised by practicing teachers, was considered by both students and teachers in schools the most important part of the course. This was in spite of the colleges having little control over the practical work required by the students (Aspland, 2008). “Teacher training programs, despite their perceived autonomy within independent tertiary institutions, were dictated to by school teacher demands” (Aspland, 2008, p. 180).

Prior to the 1970s, most pre-service teacher college courses were two years in length however, this was to change in the early 1970s when three-year diploma courses were introduced. The result encompassed little more than extending the existing two-year course to include “some discipline-based electives in addition to the traditional curriculum based on methods and psychology” (Aspland, 2008, p. 180) plus an extension to the practicum. This era of college-based teacher training has been summarised by Aspland as one where, “There was little recognition of research-based practice or the balance between deep content and pedagogical knowledge, and little regard for teaching as a profession” (2008, p. 180).

In Australia in the late 1970s, “the umbilical link between state governments and teachers’ colleges was broken. The colleges, which were now funded by the federal government, became independent units within a Colleges of Advanced Education sector, with the right to grant undergraduate degrees” (Tisher, 1995, p. 38). Tisher contends the aim of the Colleges of Advanced Education (CAEs) “was to give trainees an understanding of the substantive and syntactical nature of the subjects; an understanding which teachers could then foster in their own pupils” (1995, p. 38). But this change of focus was not without its critics. “Some teacher educators and many practicing teachers argued that the replacement of the

craft focus with a more academic program was detrimental to teacher development” (Aspland, 2008, p. 180). Although the amalgamation of the colleges was also aimed at giving them more autonomy Aspland claims it did little to “shift the curriculum away from state government school syllabus requirements. Consequently, teachers’ colleges . . . continued to coexist as partners in ‘training teachers’ for local state-based education systems” (Aspland, 2008, p. 180).

In Australia, in 1983 the Hawke Labor Government came into power, and five years later, the then Labour Minister for Employment, Education and Training, John Dawkins pursued a policy of amalgamating higher education institutions. This led to the CAEs becoming amalgamated into the national university system. With all teacher education now being situated within the universities, the nature of pre-service teacher education was to undergo a major shift in focus and the third phase of teacher education (no longer training), the university-based stage, sometimes labelled as a scholarly approach, was to unfold.

Associated with this third phase was the introduction of a four-year teaching degree as well as the widespread introduction of dual degrees for pre-service teachers. One example was the Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Teaching, whereby both degrees could be studied concurrently. More recently, other pathways into primary pre-service courses have been offered, an example being an initial university degree from a faculty other than education, followed by a pre-service pedagogical award taken over one year.

Reflecting on the placement of teacher education within the university system, Tania Aspland (2008) notes that a more scholarly approach to teacher education has been evident as a consequence of the emergence of a national system of higher education in Australia. Teacher education in Australia has repositioned itself within the reconstructed domain of higher education resulting in

the movement of teacher education away from the traditional craft orientation to one involving a predominantly scholarly approach. In this way university academics, as teacher educators, can confront the

technocratic inadequacies of the craft approach that values atheoretical approaches to teacher development and the ongoing persistence of 'reflective practices of and on teaching' that is often considered a decontextualized and atheoretical process of professional learning. (Aspland, 2008, p. 188)

In further reflections, Aspland claims contemporary models of teacher education are more flexible as they attempt to "reflect the multiplicity of needs within increasingly diverse student cohorts" (Aspland, 2008, p. 187). Moreover, "Teacher education courses are being enacted not only on university sites but also across a number of diverse education sites, work sites and communities" (Aspland, 2008, p. 187). In addition she writes, "Teacher education is being actively delivered in collaboration with significant stakeholders" (p. 187) with the result that field experiences, practice, internships and associate-teacher programs have become central to teacher education courses (p. 187). Hence Aspland concludes that the current models of pre-service teacher education programs embed academics, practicing teachers and the student teachers as "learners and researchers in practice" (2008, p.188).

Interestingly, in her historical review of teacher education in Australia, Aspland concludes, "Despite these developments Australia is on the brink of returning to an apprenticeship model returning to a situation reminiscent of the 1850s when schools and school teachers were the central players in teacher development" (2008, p. 174). It is her contention "that teacher educators in Australia may well be forced to return to a highly centralized government mandated school-based approach to teacher education" (2008, p. 174). In Canada, a similar retrograde movement is unfolding by those who support deregulation and want to "remove teacher education from the corporatist university setting" (Grimmett, 2009, p. 13). Zeichner (2005) is alarmed by the prospect of a similar development being adopted in the United States of America and argues passionately against such a move. "It would be a terrible mistake, in my view, to continue on the path of deregulation and to destroy college and university teacher education and to lower standards of entry into teaching" (p. 336).

Changing reforms for pre-service teaching course.

Debate over what should be included in pre-service teaching courses has been contested for many decades. As O'Donoghue and Whitehead observe, "What student teachers should know and be able to do before they are certified to become fully-fledged members of the profession is another major talking point" (2008b, p. 2). This area of tension has arisen in many countries and has not been confined to only English-speaking nations. Writing on reforms of teacher education in the Asia-Pacific region Cheng, Chow, and Mok conclude

How teachers can be prepared and empowered to take up new roles and effectively perform teaching to meet the challenges and expectations raised from education reforms and paradigm shifts in school education is a crucial concern in policy and implementation of teacher education in Asia-Pacific. (2005, p. 3)

Agreeing with these authors is the American academic, Zeichner (2006), who claims that in the United States, since the introduction of formal programs for teacher education, ". . . there have always been debates about the knowledge, skills and dispositions that teachers need to begin teaching in the public schools" (p. 60). What is particularly interesting is the cyclical nature of the debates and accompanying reform movements within teacher education which Zeichner identifies as reflecting a) the professional agenda reform, b) deregulation reforms, and c) social justice reforms.

The first reforms, the professionalization agenda, "emphasized the articulation of a knowledge base for teaching in the form of competencies or standards that address many different aspects of teaching" (Zeichner, 2008, p. 7). According to Zeichner, the development of competencies is part of a historical attempt to "establish a 'scientific' basis for the teacher education curriculum which has continued since the early twentieth century. Its re-emergence in the latter half of the 20th century occurred in the 1960s, which was a tumultuous period in education in the United States. Extensive demands for curriculum reform, large investment of federal funds in curriculum development and a concurrent dissatisfaction with teacher training were features of the education climate when Competency Based Education and Training (CBET) emerged. Calls for greater

relevance in the training of teachers and for a more visible accountability to the taxpayer were also prominent (Tuxworth, 1989, p. 11).

The early models of CBET training had certain characteristics including the precise specification of competences or behaviours to be learned, the modularisation of instruction, evaluation and feedback, personalisation, and field experience (Swanchek and Campbell, 1981). The models concentrated on pupil achievement and, as Swanchek and Campbell note; “for many, it easily and simplistically followed that there must be a connection between teacher competence and pupil learning. (as cited in Tuxworth, 1989, p. 11)

However, Tuxworth notes, Competency Based Education and Training was not without its critics. The two main areas of concern were,

- 1) That the conception and definition of competence is inadequate – the competent person has abilities and characteristics which are more than the sum of the discrete elements of competence derived from job analysis;
- 2) There is a lack of research evidence that CBET is superior to other forms of education/training in output terms. (1989, p. 17)

In the 1980s, a revamped performance or competency-based education (P/CBTE) movement emerged again in the United States “in the form of performance-based assessment in teacher education programs based on standards presented to teacher education institutions by their state education departments” (Zeichner, 2008, p. 9). However, unlike in previous decades, this new form of P/CBT did not consist of a long list of competencies that must be achieved by those undertaking pre-service teaching programs but rather it relied on standards, which were elaborated according to knowledge, dispositions and skills. These standards encompass what Darling-Hammond (2000) calls a learning-centred and learner-centred approach to teaching (as cited in Zeichner, 2008, p. 12). They focus on adapting instruction to individual students and on the understanding of content.

The second reform agenda identified by Zeichner was deregulation, which

focused on the importance of content knowledge and verbal ability in teaching and has asserted that most of the professional content about pedagogy, learning, and classroom management, can best be learned on the job through an apprenticeship rather than in a teacher education program (2008, pp. 7 - 8).

Proponents of this reform consider general intelligence and knowledge of academic content are the key components required by a pre-service teacher. Zeichner explains that since the 1980s in several states of the USA there have been attempts “to increase the emphasis on liberal arts and academic subject matter courses and to reduce credits in professional education courses” (2008, p. 14). Some states in the USA have introduced laws to limit the number of professional courses that can be located within pre-service teacher education programs (Imig, 1988) and in most states today students are required to undertake examinations of the academic content knowledge in the discipline which they wish to teach.

Zeichner observes

Both advocates of the professionalization agenda and deregulation agendas have agreed on the importance of these measures of teachers’ knowledge of academic content. Where they disagree is on whether there is additional professional education content that teachers need to have prior to assuming responsibility for a classroom (p. 14).

Another point of contention between the two groups is that the addition of more academic content in a pre-service teacher education programs does not necessarily address the acquisition of the pedagogical content knowledge that is needed to be able to teach the academic content to diverse learners (Shulman, as cited in Zeichner, 2008, p.14).

A final issue that none of these authors consider is whether the academic content taught in a liberal arts degree is appropriate preparation for a professional education degree. A parallel case is how engineering degrees now incorporate

their own teaching of mathematics and science subjects, rather than relying on the general teaching of these subjects by science faculty.

The third reform agenda revolves around social justice and “intercultural teaching competence among teachers to enable them to teach the increasing diverse population of pupils in U.S. public schools” (2008, p. 8). Significant to this reform are those educators “who have tried to connect teacher education to the building of a more just and humane society” (2008, p. 15). Cochran-Smith, a committed supporter of this reform agenda, identifies the role pre-service teacher education can take in attempting to reconstruct a more socially just society.

one important role of the college/university is to help prepare teachers to challenge the inequities that are deeply embedded in systems of schooling and in society. Underlying most versions of this argument is the assumption that teaching and teacher education are fundamentally political activities and that it is impossible to teach in ways that are neither political nor value-laden. (2001, p. 3)

This social justice reform agenda is aimed both at reducing the achievement gap in schools throughout the United States as well as delivering social-justice-oriented teacher education programs that attempt to prepare teachers who will work in the broader schools and societal contexts for social changes (Zeichner, 2008, p. 17). However, as with the preceding two reforms, the social justice reform movement also has its detractors.

Steiner and Rozen (2004) believe that the emphasis on social justice undermines attention to academic rigor and does not prepare prospective teachers for the real world of the classroom. In his analysis of this movement Zeichner (2008) argues that there is an overall lack of clarity about what is meant by ‘teaching for social justice’. He also considers that this movement caters for specific groups such as African Americans thus denying a more general approach to cultural inclusivity, sensitivity and competence. Another criticism is the practicality of the social justice reform movement which Zeichner believes too often is reliant on reading material rather than engagement with different cultural groups. Finally, he

questions “the degree to which the program models the kind of culturally responsive teaching it seeks to impart to its students” (Zeichner & Hoeft, 1996 as cited in Zeichner, 2008, p.19).

Zeichner concludes by identifying the link between macro structural changes and reforms to teacher education programs.

The history of teacher education in the United States has involved a continuing struggle among the advocates of these different notions of teacher expertise and teacher education. During different political and economic moments in the country’s history, different resolutions of this struggle among these competing visions have emerged. (2008, p. 17)

In a more recent historical overview that nuances the emergent dissonance, Cochran-Smith examines teacher education reform in the USA from the perspective of three ‘problems’. In so doing she recognises that reforms since the 1980s have taken a new form which differentiates them from past attempts at restructuring the training of teachers. Additionally, Cochran-Smith identifies the positives and negatives of the current reforms affecting teacher education in the United States of America:

During the 1960s and ’70s and the early ’80s, the problem of teacher education in the United States was defined primarily as a training problem By the 1980s, however, teacher education came to be defined as a learning problem – understanding how prospective teachers learned the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed to function as school professionals [Currently] the new teacher education is . . . being constructed as a public policy problem. (2005, p. 4)

Commenting on the continuous cycle of reform and critique that has always existed within the field of teacher education, Cochran-Smith notes “there is something new emerging out of a convergence of current social, economic, professional, and political trends that is qualitatively different from previous calls for improvement” (2005, p. 4). In discussing current reforms she identifies three

fundamental components of what she calls, the 'New Teacher Education'. These are a) teacher education as a policy problem; b) teacher education based on research and evidence; and c) teacher education driven by outcomes. For each of these elements Cochran-Smith describes the component and discusses the strengths and weaknesses of the policy element.

According to Cochran-Smith teacher education constructed as a policy problem is underpinned by a consistent theory of reform which believes that "the implementation of appropriate policies regarding teacher education will solve the teacher supply problem and enhance the quality of the teachers being prepared for the nation's schools, thus leading to desired school outcomes, especially pupil's learning" (Cochran-Smith, 2005, p. 6). The positive in this argument is the acknowledgement that teachers matter and that there should be a link between research and policy. In addition it extends "the general shift in notions of education accountability from inputs to outcomes" (p. 6), a move which helps promote the legitimacy of the teaching profession, which should be held accountable for its work. On the negative side of the argument, "an exceedingly narrow version of teacher education as a policy problem is being promoted by some public officials and the foundations and think tanks allied with them" (p. 6). Cochran-Smith concludes by recognising that, when the 'New Teacher Education' is defined as policy problem, it takes a "linear view of the impact of policy coupled with a circular view of teacher quality and its grounding in a market-based approach to reform" (2005, p. 6).

The second component of the 'New Teacher Education' is teacher education based on research and evidence. The central tenet underpinning this component "is that with clear goals, more evidence, and more light, practitioners and policy makers at all levels will make better decisions, and teacher quality will improve" (Cochran-Smith, 2005, p. 8). This American academic also observes that this is a significant departure from the reforms of previous eras. She claims past reforms undertaken in the 1980s and 1990s such as those making teacher education more rigorous and coherent, or the push for teacher education reform to be based on socio-ethical agendas, were reforms never based on evidence. Cochran-Smith argues that throughout America,

more and more of the people engaged in teacher education are also engaged in assembling evidence about their practices and their graduates. This is partly to satisfy their evaluators, but it is also to see whether programs are measuring up to their own standards for excellent teaching.

(2005, p. 8)

The positive arguments to support evidence-based reforms are that it is better for education to be driven by cutting-edge research and solid evidence than by tradition, fashion or ideology. Moreover, as Cochran-Smith notes, as teacher educators themselves engage in inquiry teaching that fosters a more evidence-based form of teaching, there emerges “the potential to transform the culture of teacher preparation by shifting the focus of accountability from external policy only to external policy plus local internal practice” (2005, p. 8). But there is a negative side to this reform. The evidence-based education movement originated from the medical model in the United Kingdom. Heralded as providing a paradigm shift within medicine, more recently, faith in this approach has weakened (Cochran-Smith, 2005). When applied to teacher education, the narrow version of evidence-based practice does not offer a new paradigm either. In fact, many of the underlying assumptions are quite similar to those of the training model of teacher education, prevalent in the 1960s and 1970s. Whilst evidence can be very informative and worthwhile, it cannot account for educators who “still need to make decisions based in part on values, moral principles, priorities, available resources, trade-offs, and commitments” (Cochran-Smith, 2005, p. 9). Quoting Patti Lather’s words (2004), Cochran-Smith writes, “evidence-based practice ‘reinscribes the idealized natural science model . . . [and] disavows decades of critique. At the end of the day, with the very narrow focus of evidence-based education, the new paradigm may well be the old paradigm” (p. 27). Erickson (2005) suggests that the current, narrow view of scientific research employed in education which “focus on prediction, explanation and verification are inappropriately overriding questions of description, interpretation, and discovery” (p. 8). Finally, Cochran-Smith warns.

As we gather more and more evidence in teacher education . . . we must not forget to ask: Evidence of what? For what purpose? Collected by whom and under what circumstances? In order to serve whose interest and (perhaps) ignoring or disadvantaging whom? (2005, p. 9)

The third component, teacher education driven by outcomes, is considered by Cochran-Smith as part of a larger sea-change regarding educational accountability whereby there is a shift from inputs to outcomes (2005). Prior to the mid 1990s, teacher education was concerned with process: that is, learning how to teach, changing beliefs and attitudes, learning the pedagogical and cultural content necessary to be an effective teacher, and understanding the contexts that supported their learning. During this period, assessment of teacher education “focused on what is now retrospectively ‘inputs’ rather than outcomes – institutional commitment, qualifications of faculty, courses and fieldwork, and the alignment of all of these with professional knowledge and standards” (2005, p. 10).

However, of late, a more ‘outputs’ focus has been the focus of the new teacher education. The philosophy behind this move is that the results of school children’s state assessments are the best means of evaluating the quality of teacher education programs. As Cochran-Smith writes, “The central tenet of an outcomes focus is that the effectiveness of teacher preparation programs and pathways can and ought to be assessed in terms of their affects on outcomes, especially pupil’s achievements” (2005, p. 10). She sees this as a positive step as this information will lead to improved teacher preparation. Another positive aspect of an outcomes driven approach to teacher education identified by Cochran-Smith is that those responsible for the preparation of teachers are now actively re-considering the goals of their programs and are “inventing new ways to trace their impact all the way to the ultimate destination – the nation’s schoolchildren. This is virtually unheard-of in professional education” (2005, p. 10). Another consequence of an outcomes approach is how it promises to reduce the gap which previously existed in teacher education, that is, it pursues a program of research “that connects what happens in teacher preparation to its consequences in classrooms and in the world” (2005, p. 11). On the negative side, however, Cochran-Smith is critical of the reductionist characterisation of outcomes which has been adopted in the U.S. as it focuses almost exclusively on pupils’ test scores as the means of evaluating

teacher education. Discussing what she calls the ‘outcome traps’, Cochran-Smith writes “the questionable theory that evaluating teacher preparation programs on the basis of graduates’ annual impact on pupils’ test scores and reporting those evaluations publicly will bring about change and – ultimately – solve the teacher quality problem” (2005, p. 11). She pursues her argument by identifying three “springs” in the outcomes trap. The first is the premise that teachers are the critical components in boosting pupil’s achievement. This both fails to acknowledge the broader reality; which is that problems in the U.S. go far beyond teachers and schools; it also makes teachers the scapegoats for all the American education system’s ills thus ignoring other factors and agents. The second spring in the trap relates to teacher education for impoverished urban areas. This spring is illustrated by quoting research undertaken by other American educationalists on the ‘Teach for America’ program. Their report concluded,

The consistent pattern of positive or zero impacts on test scores across grades, regions, and student subgroups suggest that there is little risk that hiring TFA teachers will reduce achievement, either for the average student or for most subgroups of students”. (Decker *et al.*, 2004, p. xvi)

Cochran-Smith retorts by claiming:

the premise of studies like this one: that the goal of policies for high-poverty, hard-to-staff, and minority schools is to provide teachers who will do no harm because they are ‘good enough’ to maintain or slightly increase existing very low levels of achievement – rather than to invest in approaches that interrupt the cycle of inadequate resources, low expectations, and poor achievements. (2005, p. 12)

The third spring in the outcomes trap is the “assumption that the primary purpose of education in our society is to produce the nation’s workforce in keeping with the demands of a competitive and increasingly global and knowledge-based society” (Cochran-Smith, 2005, p. 12). Critiquing this assumption, Cochran-Smith argues that when the economic role becomes the overwhelming dominant in education, and when this is combined with an over-emphasis on testing, then the

democratic ideals of education are undermined. She concludes that because the new teacher education is both narrow and reductionist, education for fostering democratic ideals are compromised: “all teachers need knowledge, skills, and dispositions to teach toward the democratic ideal, and all teacher preparation programs need to be measured – at least in part - by their success at producing teachers who teach for democracy” (Cochran-Smith, 2005, p. 12). Finally, Cochran-Smith concludes, “the new teacher education is complex, especially when understood in terms of the larger educational, economic, social, and political conditions in which it is emerging” (2005, p. 13). Thus, like Zeichner, she acknowledges that to fully understand reforms to teacher education, the influences of the broader social whole needs to be appreciated. Hence, the micro reforms are influenced by the macro structural reforms.

Reminiscent of the three reform agendas identified by Zeichner, namely, a) the professional agenda reform, b) deregulation reforms, and c) social justice reforms, are the tensions identified by Cochran-Smith, which she claims have arisen as a result of the emergence of the new teacher education in which policy is constructed as a policy problem, based on research and evidence, and is driven solely by outcomes. These tensions involve the

trade-offs between selectivity and diversification of the teacher workforce, the balance between subject matter and pedagogy, the competition between the university and multiple other locations as the site for teacher preparation, and the contradictions of simultaneous regulation and deregulation at both state and federal levels (2005, p.12).

So far the argument regarding micro reforms, specifically related to teacher education, has focussed on literature from the U.S. However, the reforms to teacher education in the United States as described by both Zeichner and Cochran-Smith resonate with reforms implemented in other countries around the world, particularly English-speaking countries. A brief examination of the literature surrounding the dissonance regarding reforms in Canada, England and Australia provide evidence that this observation reaches far beyond the shores of the U.S.

Reforms to the pre-service teacher education in Canada are in congruence with those which took place in the United States of America. Grimmett, a Canadian academic who also takes an historical approach to discussing reforms of teacher education, notes “Teacher education in Canada has been soundly criticized in every decade since the Second World War” (2008, p.24). In identifying three phases of change in his country, Grimmett suggests each one took place because of the theory-practice chasm. The first phase is from 1960 to 1980, the second from 1980-2000 and the third from 2000 to the present.

The first phase is described by Grimmett as ‘Teacher Education as Training’, and many of the changes that occurred in these two decades were influenced by researchers in psychology, “whose involvement in the practice of teacher education was minimal” (Grimmett, 2008, p. 28). Concern for developing technologies for training effective teachers “was linked to the competency-based teacher education movement of the 1970s that focused on observable behaviours and competencies” (2008, p. 28). The focus in teacher education as training . . . led to . . . training procedures – such as microteaching, interaction analysis, behaviour modification, lecture and demonstration (2008, p. 28).

The second phase, from 1980 - 2000, is described by Grimmett as ‘Teacher Education as Learning to Teach’. During this phase teacher education programs focussed on reflective practice which superseded direct instruction.

Teacher learning was more than formal preparation; it included the beliefs, knowledge, and experiences that pre-service teachers brought with them into teacher education; it included their understanding of subject matter knowledge and how to connect it pedagogically; the way they made sense of their course work and field experiences in light of their own school experiences as students; and ways in which they developed professionally through observing other teachers’ practice, talking with them about it, and generally engaging the ‘joint work’ that made them colleagues. (Little, 1982, as cited in Grimmett, 2008, p. 29)

Phase three is identified by Grimmert as extending from 1990 – 2010 and is described as ‘Teacher Education as Policy’. This phase stemmed from the inadequacy of the previous phase where the emphasis on learning did not address the issue of outcomes. Hence there began a shift from teacher learning to teacher quality and public accountability. Advocates of this shift became proponents of deregulation for teacher education, and there evolved in Canada “an unremitting concern for standards and accountability” (Grimmett, 2008, p. 30).

As with Zeichner, Grimmert concludes by recognising the link between macro-structural changes and developments in teacher education. Indeed he writes, “My thesis is that when policy makers align their thinking about education with market forces, the ‘beast’ of harsh political imposition emerges” (Grimmett, 2008, p. 40).

Commenting on reforms to pre-service education in England and Wales, Robinson suggests that from the period of the late 1980s there evolved

an increasingly prescriptive approach, with the introduction of a mandatory national curriculum for trainees and a standards-driven model of assessment for the final award of qualified teacher status, monitored and reviewed by various new government agencies, including the Teacher Development Agency (TDA) and the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED). What was perceived by the government as overly theoretical approaches to teacher training, which once dominated university and college-based courses, have now been replaced with greater emphasis on relevant practical classroom skills and techniques, and more recently, professional values. Moreover, the range of routes into teaching has been significantly expanded with a greater emphasis on work-based placements and the flexible PGCE”. (2008, pp. 49-50)

Worthy of note in Robinson’s comments is the similarity between reforms to pre-service education in England and Wales to those of the United States and Canada. Issues concerning the theory and practice divide, the emergence of a variety of routes into teaching programs, the scrutinizing of teacher education curriculum by national bodies, the increasing role played by schools in the preparation of

teachers and the increased emphasis on practical teaching skills, standards and outcomes, appear to dominate current reforms in teacher education across the globe.

Although in the Australian context not all reforms are as advanced as in other English speaking countries, teacher education reform in this country could be heading in the same direction. For the present, however, Aspland believes reforms in Australian teacher education programs indicate how teacher education has “repositioned itself in the education domain” (Aspland, p. 187). After examining pre-service teacher education programs in universities across Australia, Aspland has identified a set of propositions that create a particular paradigm which underpins new teacher education programs. These include: the construction of courses around outcomes, a tighter link between theory plus practice and research and practice, teaching what is relevant for teaching in the field, both nationally and internationally, more flexible models of teacher education to cater for diverse groups, an emphasis on reflective practice, catering for student teacher learning beyond the university, the delivery of programs in collaboration with significant stakeholders, the development of interdisciplinary teaching teams, a new emphasis on active learning and student self assessment (Aspland, 2008).

Embedded in this list of propositions, which Aspland perceives as comprising contemporary teacher education courses in Australia are elements which are similar to programs in other English speaking nations. For example, the involvement of a number of stakeholders in teacher education, diversity in the delivery of courses, flexibility of programs, catering for diverse student cohorts, and an emphasis on outcomes and attitudes. What presently distinguishes Australian teacher education from many other countries in the English speaking world is the diversity of programs and the flexibility afforded education faculties in the compilation of their programs. But change is in the wind, and as Aspland acknowledges,

Recent news also suggests a move toward a centralized set of professional standards for teachers across Australia and the introduction of a national teacher education accreditation authority. With the release

of the final report of the commonwealth government's report into teacher education it has become evident that a return to school-based teacher education remains high on the government's agenda.

(Aspland, 2008, p. 189)

Changes in control of teacher education

Commenting on the control of teacher education throughout English-speaking countries, O'Donoghue and Whitehead write, "issues of widespread debate centre on the role of government in determining how teachers should be trained and /or educated and how universities should be held accountable for the courses they offer" (2008b, p. 2).

In Australia, as in a number of other western countries, prior to the 1980s, teacher training remained the province of the colleges and had little to do with the universities. However, in the late 1980s, the then Minister for Employment, Education and Training, John Dawkins, who had previously headed government portfolios in finance and trade, proposed a number of strategic initiatives which were to change the face of Higher Education in Australia. In the economic realm of the time, policies of economic rationalism, privatisation, competition and efficiency were underpinning reforms being implemented throughout the country, and under Minister Dawkins, higher education did not escape being subjected to this new economic ideology. "Dawkins made it clear from the outset that higher education would have to become 'more efficient and competitive', that it would 'have to be better integrated with national economic priorities' and would 'have to do more with less'" (Watts, 2006, p. 236). According to Watts, "Australian tertiary education since the appointment of John Dawkins . . . in July 1987, has seen a rate of change in policy and practice unequalled in Australian experience" (2006, p.235).

Aspland identified three major outcomes that affected the tertiary sector at this time:

- The amalgamation of 47 Colleges of Advanced Education with 19 existing universities to create 38 universities (two of which are privately funded);
- The introduction of a Higher Education Contribution Scheme that requires all domestic students who gain a place in a university course to pay a uniform charge to the Commonwealth government on completion of their course and when financially capable of doing so;
- The encouragement of universities, mainly due to funding reductions, to become increasingly financially autonomous by generating increased private funding through competition for students, research grants, and entrepreneurial business initiatives.

(2008, p. 183)

So extensive were the Dawkins reforms that Watts wrote, “Given the scope and spread of change it does not seem like hyperbole to speak of the ‘Dawkins revolution’” (2006, p. 237).

But not everyone considered the reforms brought positive results. The effects of the government’s determination to reform were noted by Watts,

The number and diversity of tertiary institutions appears to have been considerably reduced. The bulk of the 40 or so CAEs have disappeared into the maws of some twenty-one, more or less bigger, universities. All institutions now have a direct funding relationship with DEET, bypassing the older state funding authorities. Individual ‘service agreements’ between DEET and each institution based on ‘Institutional profile’ which outline specific operational objectives which then get funded have become the norm. Partial tertiary fees have become again an accepted part of the student experience. Increased student intakes and completion rates – not matched by any increase in funding – seem to have increased average class contact [sic] time and teaching loads for most academics.

(2006, pp. 236-237)

By the 1990s teacher education in Australia was situated in the universities, and academics in faculties of education found themselves having to compete for resources and funding with colleagues in other faculties. Likewise, Deans of Education had to compete against Deans of other faculties for resources, funding and research. With teacher education embedded with the university system, new challenges arose for teacher educators. These have been articulated by Grimmatt *et al.*

Neo-liberalist economic rationalist pressure makes university-based teacher education programs susceptible to academic drift as a result of mimetic isomorphism. Mimetic isomorphism creates tensions for university teacher educators who, in seeking to adopt the values of research-intensive academics, sometimes forget their ontological roots in practice. Their challenge is to establish contiguity both with the orientation and traditions of research at the university and with the specific values and practices of the field of teaching. In doing the former, they establish their legitimacy within the university; in doing the latter, they establish their identity in the field. (2009, p. 13)

Within the Australian context, another level of control was layered over teacher education with the establishment of state organisations known either as ‘Institutes of Education’ (Victoria and New South Wales), ‘Professional Teaching Council’ (Western Australia) or ‘Colleges of Education’ (Queensland). These institutions, all of which are state-based, mirrored those which were already operating in both Scotland and Canada. O’Donoghue and Whitehead (2008b) point out that these regulatory authorities have now become widespread in English-speaking countries and have proved influential in regulating teacher education programs. According to Grimmatt *et al.*

All these professional bodies have two broad purposes:

- To regulate the profession of teaching by maintaining and improving the standards of the professional conduct among teachers, in the interests of the public; and

- To ensure that all members of the profession, including those joining it, meet professional standards that ensure the quality of learning for students.

This second purpose gives the professional bodies a role to play in the governance of teacher education. (2009, pp. 9-10)

Concerned about the growth and influence of the state accreditation bodies in Australia, the editors of the *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education* make the following observations.

the regulation and standardisation of education continues with the growth of accreditation agencies Will the diversity of teacher education programs be subsumed under the accreditation juggernaut? Although the impetus of the Institutes and Colleges of Teachers was, in part, to support the teaching profession, the emphasis on standardisation may strip the profession of the diversity it needs to develop and prosper.

(McMaugh *et al.*, 2009, p. 1)

Writing on current developments in Canada with respect to their regulatory bodies, Grimmett *et al.*, note,

Things are now falling apart because the competition between professionalization and deregulation policies is making the governance of teacher education very difficult for universities and professional bodies alike. The delicate balance between professional control and institutional autonomy has not always been attended to with care. Consequently, the centre of professional self-regulation is not holding. (2009, pp. 9-10)

Analogous to what is happening in the aforementioned countries, developments concerning the accrediting or licensing of teachers in the U.S. is, on one hand, taking a comparable direction, but on the other, is more extreme than what is presently occurring in countries such as Australia. According to Zeichner, the current situation in the United States is that teachers need a licence to teach from the state in which they are employed. Presently though,

Linda Darling-Hammond, . . . [chair of one of the panels of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE)] has proposed . . . a new national examination that would be taken by all graduates of teacher education programs as the basis for mandatory national accreditation of teacher education programs. (2008, p. 10)

Zeichner describes how five states in the USA have joined together to recognise The American Board for the Certification of Teaching Excellence (ABCTE) which can accredit individuals to teach in those states provided they “pass two paper tests, one on academic content, and the other on professional education content. Absolutely no teacher preparation is required by the ABCTE” (2008, p. 15). A number of critics of contemporary US teacher education programs which take place in either the colleges or in universities, “have gone so far as to call for the elimination of state licensing of teachers and would give the public schools the right to hire whomsoever they wish” (Zeichner, 2008, p. 10).

Another form of control over teacher education programs that has emerged recently in Australia is a more market-oriented approach to the training of teachers. Once the province of the university, the Federal government is now responding to the Bradley Review (2009) by supporting a more deregulated approach. Advocating for this approach in Australia follows a similar market driven style of teacher education that has already been instituted in New Zealand.

It was during the 1990s that teacher education institutions in New Zealand were required to adapt to a deregulated and competitive environment which encouraged competition for students and funding. This resulted in a growth in provider numbers and the existing colleges had to compete with the newly established private providers. Likewise all the institutions had to compete for funding, which was granted on the basis of EFTS (Equivalent Full Time Students), hence there arose a scramble to take in students from a limited pool. The effect of having to operate in a deregulated and competitive market, was that “college principals underwent a metamorphosis from professional leaders heading a staff of teacher

educators, to chief executive officers in charge of multimillion large-scale business enterprises” (Openshaw & Ball, 2008, p. 168).

Interestingly, very recently in Australia, some TAFE colleges have already incorporated teacher education courses into their course offerings. The changing nature of control over pre-service teacher education unfolding in this country, the constant dissatisfaction with various contemporary models of teacher education and the rapid restructuring of both courses and content provide little certainty for teacher educators. As Aspland observes, “teacher educators can no longer take anything for granted and are rapidly learning to live with uncertainty and complexity” (2008, p.184).

To conclude this section of the literature review, it is worth noting the observation made by Tania Aspland (2008). “Public interest in pre-service teacher education programs in Australia has been prompted by many factors, including current school reform literature, technological change, issues of globalization, the predicted crisis in teacher supply, the intensification of teacher’s work, changing pedagogies, and new education organizational structures” (p. 174).

Hence, as Grimmer and Zeichner noted in the previous section, Aspland recognises that changes in pre-service teacher education have not arisen in isolation. Indeed they are often related to developments and ideological positions occurring at the macro-level of the social whole.

Conclusion

As discussed in the opening section of this review, Gregor Ramsey (2000) makes two major statements regarding change in teacher education. In the first he observes the limited impact of numerous teacher education reviews that have taken place in the 1980s and 1990s. In the second, which follows from the first, he observes that the limited impact of these reviews arose from the inability of those charged with bringing about change to create the conditions which would enable the required changes to flourish. Hence, the focus of this chapter is to review the existing literature related to the broad areas of policy and change in the area of

education, in particular, teacher education. In so doing, three relevant areas of the literature and the competing arguments they comprise have been examined

Given the competing perspectives in the academic literature which debate macro and micro forces' influence on teacher education, and the lack of agreement on how best to prepare future teachers, the issue that arises for the researcher concerns the most appropriate theoretical perspective that can be employed to further the investigation of the two issues relevant to the topic of the project. In choosing a theory, it is important that the researcher ensure that the theoretical perspective is broad enough to a) accommodate the historical time frame covered within this thesis, b) encompass the breadth of elements needed to thoroughly investigate Gregor Ramsey's claims, and c) serve as an appropriate analytical tool which will provide the lens to find answers to the accuracy of Ramsey's observations.

CHAPTER THREE

The Theoretical Lens

Introduction

This chapter discusses critical theory, the theoretical perspective that underpins this thesis. The chapter is positioned here between the review of literature and the discussion of methodology since, although critical theory was alluded to from time to time in the review, a far more extensive expression of this perspective is needed for the methodology and results of this thesis to be appreciated fully. Hence, it begins with a brief discussion on the purposes of theory and is followed by an exploration of the elements that comprise the broad notion of critical theory. The particular strand of critical theory which will serve as the framework for this project is that of the postmodern. Terms significant to the postmodern will be discussed along with a comparison of the modern/postmodern binaries. Importantly, those structural features which distinguish the postmodern, or to be more accurate, postmodernity, from other areas of critical theory will also be explored. In addition, the issue of how the emergence of postmodernity is inter-related with changes in education, particularly teacher education, will be discussed by asking from time to time questions that can arise using these set of lenses.

The purposes of theory

According to Crotty, the theoretical perspective centres on “the philosophical stance informing the methodology . . . thus providing a context for the process and grounding its logic and criteria” (1998, p. 3). According to Cox, theory serves two purposes.

The first purpose gives rise to *problem-solving theory*. It takes the world as it finds it, with the prevailing social and power relationships and the institutions into which they are organised, as the given framework for

action. The general aim of problem-solving is to make these relationships and institutions work smoothly by dealing effectively with particular sources of trouble

The second purpose leads to *critical theory*. It is critical in the sense that it stands apart from the prevailing order of the world and asks how that order came about. Critical theory, unlike problem-solving, does not take institutions and social and power relations for granted but calls them into question by concerning itself with their origins and how and whether they might be in the process of changing. (as cited in Ozga, 2000, p. 45 - 46)

When selecting a theory applicable to policy analysis Stephen Ball (1994a) advocates an open and creative approach which emphasises finding the appropriate theory and concepts for the task at hand, rather than narrowly applying a particular theory which may close off possibilities for interpretation. Ball continues by suggesting, “The task . . . is to examine the moral order of reform and the relationship of reform to existing patterns of social inequality, bringing to bear those concepts and interpretive devices which offer the best possibilities of insight and understanding” (1994a, p. 2).

In examining developments in teacher education policy in the USA Cochran-Smith relied on a multidisciplinary theoretical framework. Using this approach she examined teacher education not only from the intersection of research, policy, and practice but also from a social, ideological, rhetorical and political practice. Explaining her reasons for adopting this method Cochran-Smith wrote, “examining teacher education through social and ideological lenses means identifying the larger social structures and purposes within which it is embedded, as well as unpacking the cultural ideas, ideals, values and beliefs to which it is attached” (2005, p. 3). Throughout her analysis, Cochran-Smith assumes that teacher education is “inherently and unavoidably political in that it involve[s] the negotiation of conflicting values about the purposes, roles, and content of schooling” (2005, p. 3).

Like Ball and Cochran-Smith, Vidovich (2002) also takes a broad theoretical approach to researching policy. She calls for a balanced consideration of macro-constraints and micro-agency perspectives while also incorporating the global dynamics of the policy processes. Vidovich suggests there needs to be “a more productive theoretical dialogue of selective coupling of different approaches in order to draw on the strengths and overcome the weaknesses of individual approaches” (in Griffiths, Vidovich & Chapman, 2005, p. 6). Thus she proposed in her work the use of a

hybrid of critical theory and post-structuralism to better illuminate the policy process in its entirety, which involves a recognition of agency at all levels of the policy cycle, yet a concern with the power of hegemonic structures in relation to policy dynamics. There is thus a dynamic between intention, interpretation, and enactment, and policy must therefore always be understood within its unique context. (in Griffiths, Vidovich & Chapman, 2005, p. 6)

By taking these writers’ approaches into consideration the researcher is able to avoid a narrow approach and can achieve a broader interpretive stance which both captures and unpacks the ideological perspectives and hegemonic structures which underpin policy. In addition, the wider scope of theoretical discourse allows the researcher to incorporate those aspects of dissonance discussed in the literature review that revolve around policy, the reconfigured state, globalisation, the new economy and teacher education. Finally, combining critical theory with a methodology that gives voice to those whose role it is to implement policy means both macro- and micro-levels can be considered, thus allowing all aspects of the policy dynamics to be covered. Hence a more open and balanced interpretation can be achieved.

Critical theory

Critical theory emanated from a group of writers associated with the Institute of Social Research founded in 1923 at the University of Frankfurt. Despite the many disagreements among its members, the term “Frankfurt School”, became synonymous with a highly influential body of political, economic and social theories that dominated academic discourse on those subjects during the twentieth century. This group of writers were deeply influenced by the work of Marx and through his thought sought both an improved understanding of the world and a way of fostering a more just and free society.

As a label, the term ‘critical theory’ masks a number of differences among a very disparate body of theorists. However, in discussing critical theory Gibson (1986) identifies a number of fundamental features significant to the theories that come under this umbrella term. Listed below are these features and a brief explanation of each:

This first concerns the notion of theory itself. Critical theorists believe theory and practice are indivisible. Hence they are fundamentally suspicious of approaches that privilege practice over theory.

The second feature is the rejection of what theorists regard as naive notions of ‘naturalness’. “Critical theorists argue that in human affairs all ‘facts’ are socially constructed, humanly determined and interpreted, and hence subject to change through human means” (Gibson, 1986, p. 4). As a consequence what appears as ‘natural’ too often embodies the views and beliefs of particular interest.

The third element relates to critical theory’s commitment “to provide enlightenment as to the actual conditions of social life” (1986, p. 4). This is achieved by constantly asking the question, “In whose interests?” In taking such an approach critical theory concerns itself with tension and conflict within the social realm rather than seeing it as harmonious and conflict free.

Fourth is the emphasis critical theory places on emancipation. In so doing, it “attempts to reveal those factors which prevent groups and individuals taking control of, or even influencing, those decisions which crucially affect their lives” (1986, p. 5). Through identifying these factors critical theory seeks to afford people more control of their social world, thus emancipating individuals.

The fifth element relates directly to a new way of looking at Marxist theory. In economic terms, Marx focussed on the interrelationship between underlying economic factors and the social structures they inform, arguing that the former determine the latter. Put another way, “economic relationships determine the form and content of all other aspects of life” (1986, p. 6). The Marxist paradigm, which gives precedence to economic determinism thus allowing the denial of human agency, is one which critical theory calls into question.

The sixth characteristic of critical theory is its frequent questioning of instrumental rationality, which “represents the preoccupation with *means* in preference to *ends*. It is concerned with method and efficiency rather than with *purposes*”. (1986, p. 7). Significant to this instrumental rationality is the need to “control and dominate, to exercise surveillance and power over others and over nature” (1986, p. 7). Also significant is the preference given to the intellectual over the emotional. Critical theory draws attention to the ways in which this valuing of instrumental rationality over more subjective elements of human experience presents itself as natural and inevitable.

The seventh element is critical theory’s frequent focus on the relationship between the individual and the society. Critical theorists often look to emphasise a degree of individual agency in social relationships by pointing out how uncritically received default values are so-called ‘common sense’. Critical theory shows how common sense can distort and conceal true interests, thereby fostering injustice by preventing those being oppressed or dominated from recognising the agendas and methods of their oppressors. The theory argues, “to grasp that taken-for-granted beliefs are not as ‘natural’ as they appear to be is the first step towards enlightenment and emancipation: the realisation of true interests” (1986, p. 11).

The final element is the prominence of aesthetics with one of the philosophical tenets of critical theory being that art, architecture, literature and drama deconstructs society. This is done through the search for “deeper structures underlying surface appearances” (1986, p. 12). For this reason “critical theory sees art as an inherently emancipatory activity, but one which is frequently used to serve other interests” (1986, pp. 12-13).

Further justification for the relevance of critical theory to this thesis is found in the view of Paul Hirst (1983), who argues that it provides the means to deepen our understanding of how we may rationally justify educational policy and practice. Gibson, on the other hand, takes Hirst’s analysis a step further when he observes that whilst critical theory “attempts to explain the origins of everyday practices and problems” (1986, p. 3), it in fact goes further than this with its philosophical belief that “individuals and groups should be in control of their own lives thus enabling people to determine their own destinies” (1986, p. 2). Gibson’s perspective also has relevance to this project, as the issue of who wields what sort of control over the work of teacher education has been influential in the methodological design which is outlined in the following chapter of this thesis.

Importantly, Gibson makes the argument that “there is no such thing as a unified critical theory. Rather there are critical *theories*” (1986, p. 34). Failure to recognise this leads to misunderstanding and confusion a point appreciated by Wright, who contends that “postmodernism and poststructuralism often appear to be used interchangeably in education writing and research” (2004, p. 34).

The particular strand of critical theory adopted as the theoretical framework in this thesis is that associated with the postmodern. In the first chapter of his book, *Consumer Culture and Postmodernism* (2007) Mike Featherstone suggests, “Any reference to the term ‘postmodernism’ immediately exposes one to the risk of being accused of jumping on a bandwagon, of perpetuating a rather shallow and meaningless intellectual fad. One of the problems is that the term is at once fashionable yet irritatingly elusive to define” (2007, p. 1).

Like critical theory itself, there is not one unified interpretation of the term “postmodern” or derivatives of the term such as “postmodernism”,

“postmodernisation” and “postmodernity”. Nor is this strand of critical theory without its’ critics. However, despite many different interpretations of the terminology, what the postmodern strand of critical theory does offer the researcher is a new and creative lens through which to examine developments within teacher education policy.

Unpacking the terminology

Crotty writes “Postmodernism is the most slippery of terms” (1998, p. 183). He suggests its usages vary embracing “a broad variety of developments . . . in philosophy and social science . . . architecture, the arts, literature, fashion and many other spheres of human endeavour” (p. 183). Dear claims the term “postmodern” “is akin to a tease” (2000, p. 25) and continues, “Its seductive surfaces seem to promise much, but when you succumb, it appears insubstantial, unsatisfying. Simply stated, it’s hard to know what postmodernism is” (p. 25). Featherstone argues the term postmodern is relatively ill-defined due to our culture merely being “on the threshold of the alleged shift . . . [thus] we are not in a position to regard the postmodern as a fully fledged positivity which can be defined comprehensively in its own right” (2007, p.3). Nonetheless, for this thesis the importance of understanding the differences in terminology and the associated concepts is imperative. The work of Featherstone (1990; 2007) is instrumental in unpacking the terms and associated concepts. Put succinctly, most authors read the terms “modern” and “postmodern” in relation to the aesthetic, for example, in the analysis of literature, film, art and architecture, whereas the terms “modernity” and “postmodernity” are employed by authors writing on the structural elements of the social whole.

When writing on the ‘postmodern’ it is common practice for most scholars to interpret the term by establishing a binary framework whereby it is contrasted with the ‘modern’. What follows here is an exploration of the literature dealing with the binary divisions of the concepts modern/postmodern. After examining the terms, each concept will be exemplified by a discussion on the style of art and architecture indicative of the two periods and how they act as signifiers to interpret changes to the broader social realm. For, as noted above, Gibson claims

that one of the philosophical tenets of critical theory is that aesthetics offers a means of deconstructing society. This is done through the search for “deeper structures underlying surface appearances” (Gibson, 1986, p. 12). The relevance to this thesis is linked to the use of binaries to deconstruct changes in teacher education as a means of uncovering the deeper structures influencing policy producers to make particular recommendations for change.

Modernism refers to basic assumptions, beliefs, and values that arose in the Enlightenment era. Modernism relies on logical reasoning; it is optimistic about the future and believes in progress, it has confidence in technology and science, and it embraces humanist values Modernism holds that there are standards of beauty, truth, and morality about which most people can agree (Neuman, 2006, pp. 103-104).

Modernism in art

In the art world, modernism is a term used to describe the style and theory of art from the period beginning in late nineteenth century and lasting into the mid mid-twentieth century. The modernist movement is closely associated with modern art, both being characterized by a departure from emphasis on literal representation. The advent of photography and its power to represent scenes literally drove artists to search for new ways of visualizing and thinking about the nature, materials and function of art.

It is generally agreed that Edouard Manet was the first modernist painter, and his work *Le Dejeuner sur l'herbe*, (The Luncheon on the Grass) (see Figure 3.1) is considered an early landmark in the era of modernism.



Figure 3.1: *Le Dejeuner sur l'herbe* by Edouard Manet

The composition revolves around “the juxtaposition of two formally-dressed males chatting with a nude female bather” (Grbich, 2004, p. 12). When first exhibited in 1863, this work caused great controversy. The shock value of a naked woman, casually lunching with two fully dressed men, was an affront to the propriety of the time. One interpretation of the work is that it depicts the rampant prostitution practiced during this period and which took place in the Bois de Boulogne, a large park on the western outskirts of Paris. Whilst the practice of prostitution was common knowledge in the capital city, it was considered a taboo subject unsuitable for a painting. In addition to the choice of subject being controversial, Manet’s painting technique, as was evident in *Le Dejeuner sur l'herbe*, also broke with the artistic norms of the period as he did not try to hide the brush strokes: indeed, the painting looks unfinished in some parts of the scene. Furthermore, such large canvases were normally reserved for grander subjects. Later on, other well known artists of this period such as Pablo Picasso and Henri Matisse also broke with the academic traditions of the time and sought “to change the form of art and illuminate the hypocrisy of social norms by the juxtaposition of signifiers (culturally recognised signs) and by introducing innovations such as Cubism where multiple perspectives were used” (Grbich, 2004, p12).

Awarded a privileged status by being institutionalised in the academy, the museum and the art gallery, high modern art valued autonomy and emphasised beauty rather than reality. Boundaries between high and low culture were clearly defined, the former being the domain of a small elite, the latter being aligned with

mass culture. Huyssen refers to this period in art as “the great divide” (1986, p. vii). The signalling of the end of the high modern began when

the focus was a rejection of tradition in favour of experimentation, the introduction of new ways of seeing and the development of new forms. Radical novelty was common but the strengths of past structures often meant that change was narrow in focus, easily marginalised, or quickly bounded by labels and boxes (Grbich, 2004, p. 15).

Modernism in architecture

As with art, architecture also took a particular form under modernism. The functional, utilitarian style of architecture, a characteristic of the late modern era, was manifested in the building of straight-sided, minimalist skyscrapers and high rise public housing projects where the exact same style of building was repeated within the city or across the estate. Le Corbusier’s Manhattan Stuyvesant housing project, is regularly quoted as a model of modernist architecture. In Melbourne, Australia, the minimalist, straight-sided, rectangular and repetitive, high rise housing estates in the inner suburbs, such as Debney Park in Flemington or Atherton Gardens in Fitzroy, plus those in Collingwood and Kensington, embody the functional form characteristic of modernist architecture. David Harvey refers to such buildings as “regimented super-blocks (1990, p. 76) whilst Jacobs describes them the “Great Blight of Dullness” (in Harvey, 1990, p. 75). This style was not without its critics, even when it was at its most popular. The preoccupation with functionalism and economical building meant that ornaments were done away with and the designs were restricted to a stark, rational appearance. Many felt the buildings failed to meet the human need for comfort both for body and for the eye, and that modernism did not account for the desire for beauty. Huyssen writes

modernist architecture was largely deprived of its social vision and became increasingly an architecture of power and representation. Rather than standing as harbingers and promises of the new life, modernist housing project became symbols of alienation and dehumanisation, a fate they shared with the assembly line” (1984, p. 12).

Grbich describes this period as a stepping stone to “a series of substantial and widespread critiques in the development of an awareness, which would eventually provide the foundations of a much larger change” (2004, p. 15). That change is termed “postmodern”.

Postmodernism in art

According to Kohler (1977) and Hassan (1985) “the term postmodern was first used by Frederico de Onis in the 1930s to indicate a minor reaction to modernism” (in Featherstone, 1988, p. 203). By adding the prefix, “post” to the term “modern”, it signifies a break or rupture. According to Featherstone (2007) “the term ‘postmodernism’ is more strongly based on a negation of the modern, a perceived abandonment, a break with or shift away from the definitive features of the modern, with the emphasis firmly on the sense of the relational move away” (p. 3). In the 1960s New York artists, writers and critics adopted the term postmodernism as a reaction to the exhaustion of high modernism. Throughout the 1970s and 1980s the postmodern movement gained expression in both Europe and the U.S. Characteristic features of the postmodern within the arts include:

the effacement of the boundary between art and everyday life: the collapse of the hierarchical distinction between high and mass/popular culture; a stylistic promiscuity favouring eclecticism and the mixing of codes; parody, pastiche, irony, playfulness and the celebration of the surface and depthlessness of culture; the decline of the originality/genius of the artistic producer and the assumption that art can only be repetitious. (Featherstone, 2007, p. 7)

Illustrative of Featherstone’s definition of the distinguishing features of the postmodern aesthetic is the work of artist Cyril Christo who is renowned for his installation art. This form of art usually requires a large exhibition space in which the art can be displayed. The components of the installation which can consist of such things as machinery, chairs, suitcases, cars, express an idea when arranged in a particular way. One of Christo’s creations, *The Umbrellas*, (See Figure 3.2) is one such example of installation art.



Figure 3.2: *The Umbrellas* by Jeanne Claude and Christo 1991

Constructed across two valleys in two countries on either side of the Pacific Ocean, Japan and the USA, it consisted of a construction of 3,100 yellow and blue umbrellas. The umbrellas were manufactured by eleven manufacturers in Japan, the USA, Germany and Canada. Each umbrella was assembled in Bakersfield, California, and from this location 1,340 blue umbrellas were shipped to Japan. After several months of installation, the umbrellas, which were six meters high and 8.66 meters in diameter, were opened at sunrise on October 9th 1991. The general public were able to see, approach and enjoy the artwork, either by car from a distance or closer as the construction bordered the roads. Many were able to view the installations by walking under their luminous shadows. The umbrellas remained opened for a period of eighteen days after which they were dismantled. The temporary nature of the artwork is a characteristic of the postmodern and indicative of the disjuncture between this period and that of the modern; the latter being the era of the poet Keats who wrote, “a thing of beauty lasts forever”. Harvey suggests postmodern art is concerned with image, the appearance, the spectacle [all of which] can be experienced with an intensity . . . made possible only by their appreciation as pure and unrelated presents in time” (1990, p. 54). He continues by raising the question; what does it matter? Answering his own question Harvey writes, “The immediacy of events, the sensationalism of the spectacle . . . become the stuff of which consciousness is forged” (1990, p. 54).

This question raised by Harvey needs to be asked in regard to changes to teacher education. Is there a possibility that this field of specialisation is now more concerned with engaging in the immediacy of events and the sensationalism of the new to the degree that the development of the consciousness of teacher educators now bears little resemblance to the traditional manner in which teachers were formed?

A further element of postmodern art is reflected in the artist's notion of space. For Christo, the idea behind his installation, *The Umbrellas*, was to create a new environment as the free standing dynamic modules reflected the availability of the land in each valley, creating an invitational inner space, as houses without walls, or temporary settlements. The limitations of space resulting from the confined gallery, is redefined in postmodern art and adds to 'the magic' of the impact on the viewer of the artwork. Traditional boundaries, whether they be those relating to an art gallery or a nation state are effaced as art becomes international and cross cultural.

Christo is perhaps more well known for his '*wrappings*'. With his wife Jeanne-Claude, they have wrapped silver polypropylene fabric around eighteen constructions, including the Reichstag building in Germany and the Pont Neuf Bridge in Paris.



Figure 3.3: The Reichstag in Berlin by Jeanne Claude and Christo 1995

The viewer sees in this art what Gehry describes as the old "now packaged in this new skin" (as cited in Jameson, 1991, p. 109). This alludes to the tensions in both postmodern art and architecture whereby the aesthetics of the outer wrapping is in

conflict to the inner aesthetics of the building. Authors such as Jameson (1991) and Harvey (1990) employ the techniques of critical theorists who analyse literature. In regard to the wrapping of the Reichstag they would suggest there emerges a set of binaries such as old/new, solid/fleeting, permanent/temporary, stable/unstable, depth/surface, inside/outside and historical/contemporary. Binaries such as these not only serve as a means of interpreting the modern from the postmodern, they also serve as indicators for the emerging character of the wider social form.

With respect to education, in particular teacher education, the aforementioned binaries can serve as a means of interpreting contemporary changes to both policy and curriculum. Hence the study of postmodern art provides a novel avenue for understanding postmodern education.

Christo sees his wrapping as an attempt to reconstruct reality. He claimed,

The effect is astounding. To be in the presence of one of these artworks is to have your reality rocked. You see things you have never seen before. You also get to see the fabric manifest things that cannot usually be seen like the wind blowing, or the sun reflecting in ways it had not before.

The effect lasts longer than the actual work of art. Years after every physical trace has been removed and the materials recycled, original visitors can still see and feel them in their minds when they return to the sites of the artwork.

There is no other way to describe that [sic] the feeling of that effect other than to say it is magical. (Christo and Jeanne-Claude, retrieved 2008)

Christo's wrappings are an example of what Jameson refers to as "the waning of effect" (p. 15). By this he means the cultural products of the postmodern fail to create the same intensity of feelings. The new 'intensities', a term attributed to Lyotard, "are now free-floating and impersonal and tend to be dominated by a peculiar kind of euphoria" (Jameson, 1994, p. 16). For Christo, both the seen and

the unseen sensory experiences are more important than the artist's meaning or the viewer's interpretation. As Grbich writes, "Sensation and surface replace depth and interpretation. Participation by the audience becomes paramount" (2004, 23).

Can this waning of effect which originates from sensation and surface depthlessness have parallels in contemporary teacher education developments? Are tertiary institutions being seduced by the sensory experiences offered by the new technologies of the communication revolution whereby novelty is prioritised over traditional forms of interpretative knowledge?

Postmodernism in architecture

Postmodern architecture became a movement around the late 1970s and Dear suggests "most cities have, by now, been tainted or blessed by postmodern architecture" (2000, p. 33). The term postmodern, "was used to mark an architectural departure from the modern style. The search for the new was associated with a revolt against the formalism and austerity of the modern style, epitomized by the unadorned office tower" (Dear, 2000, p. 33). As discussed above in Featherstone's definition of the postmodern, architecture embodying this style contains characteristics of playfulness, where reference and ornament have returned to the facade, hence replacing the aggressively unornamented modern styles, eclecticism or neo-eclecticism. In this new form of architecture there exists unapologetically diverse aesthetics, with non-orthogonal angles and unusual surfaces. Styles collide, form is adopted for its own sake and new ways of viewing familiar styles and space abound. Additionally, postmodern architecture often addresses the cultural context in new ways, with buildings regularly standing in stark contrast to those surrounding the postmodern constructions. Hence, postmodernism seeks new meaning and expression in the use of building techniques, forms, and stylistic references.

Charles Jencks has described architectural postmodernism as dialoguing on a range of fronts, as being pluralist or double coded, "one half modern the other as something linked with an attempt to communicate with both a wide public and a dedicated minority, mostly architects" (Jencks, 1993, p. 32). Grbich notes that

“To Jencks (1980b), buildings comprise signifiers – or signs that can be read. This capacity to emit multiple and contradictory messages is what makes a building postmodern” (2004, p. 22). Jencks argues that postmodern architecture and urban design tends to be shamelessly market-oriented because that is the primary language of communication in our society (in Harvey, 1990, p. 77).

A local example of postmodern architecture is that of Federation Square in Melbourne, Australia (see Figure 3.4).



Figure 3.4: *Federation Square*

Built over a disused railway station the complex is situated on a major intersection on the edge of the central business district. This overly large, postmodern construction covers an area of 3.2 hectares and stands as a massive contradiction to the three heritage buildings on opposite corners of the intersection. One of these buildings is Flinders Street Station which was built in 1910 and is a monument to Edwardian baroque architecture. Moreover, it serves as a symbol of the importance of the railways to the growth of the city and expanding suburbs. Diagonally across from the station is St Paul’s Cathedral. Completed in 1891, this Gothic, sandstone structure, with its grand spires and imposing knave, symbolises the importance of religion during the modern period. On the corner opposite St Paul’s is a less imposing structure, the hotel, Young and Jackson. Opened in 1861 the hotel was taken over by two successful Irish gold-miners, Henry Young and Thomas Jackson who became the licensees. Over the following fifty years various buildings abutting the hotel were incorporated into the hotel proper and altered to

create a unified appearance. Today, Young and Jackson's can be read as a signifier for the history and social life of the city at the time as well as being a signifier for the basic human need of belonging to a place. Diagonally opposite the hotel is what now colloquially known as "Fed Square".

The major architects of Federation Square were Donald Bates and Peter Davidson from London and local architects Bates Smart. The original design caused great controversy at the time as it included several five-storey "shards", two of which were free-standing on the north-western edge of the precinct. These two structures were intended to provide a framed view of St Paul's Cathedral from the St Paul's Court part of the new plaza, accentuating its size in a similar perspective inspired by the piazza of St. Peter's Basilica. This could be described as historicism: not historical but an illusion to a present out of real history or what Harvey refers to as a "pandering to nostalgic impulses" (1990, p. 87). It can also be interpreted a form of postmodern architectural technique whereby the building is in the city yet at the same time repels it. However, these aspects of Federation Square were not to materialize as outrage among heritage advocates who claimed the view of the heritage buildings would be obstructed because of the positioning of one of the shards won out, and the original plans were redesigned. Perhaps it is a case of the modernists and modern values winning out.

Designed as a mixed-use development, Federation Square is centred around two major public spaces, the first including the open squares referred to as St. Paul's Court and The Square, and the second being a covered atrium. The complex of buildings forms a rough U-shape around the main open-air square, oriented to the west. The eastern end of the square is formed by the glazed walls of The Atrium.

The main square in the complex is paved in 470,000 ochre-coloured sandstone blocks the aim of which is to invoke images of outback Australia. The paving is designed as a huge urban artwork and gently rises above street level, containing a number of textual pieces inlaid in its undulating surface. Here we see evidence of postmodern art forms which are so often overly large but we also see Harvey's concept of "drawing a veil over real geography through construction of images" (1990, p. 87). But the interpretation of this paved artwork is the appropriation of

an Australian geographical identity that seeks to mirror the deserts of outback Australia. Yet it is a fake identity as the geographical space of the Australian desert is related to concepts of isolation, a space with scarce inhabitants, a geography that challenges survival of the human species. Juxtaposing artwork of this nature in Federation Square, a city space thriving with a transient population, means the effect of the desert metaphor wanes in significance and becomes depthless, thus doing little other than creating a form of nostalgia.

A key part of the plaza design is its large and fixed public computer screen, which is used to broadcast major sporting events such as the football grand final and the FIFA world cup and local and world news. This serves as a metaphor for a new form of extended social relations which are abstract in nature and mediated by the screen. Symbolic of the computer screen and the loose networks now available because of the information revolution any interchange between people is of a temporary and fleeting and has little relationship to place. Commenting on this development Hinkson notes, “our relations take on some of the character of the moving image itself” (1991, p. 22).

With its multiple exits and entrances, the postmodern design unfolds as the interior and exteriors meld together. There is no specific entrance space created by doors that demarcate the outside from the inside. The lack of customary features such as linear corridors, straight sided walls and windows, centre stairwells, elevators on side walls, which when combined allows the visitor to employ traditional cognitive mapping skills to find their way round, prove extraneous in attempting to locate oneself once inside the confines of Federation Square. For postmodern writers, this restructuring of space is interpreted as indicative of information flows on computer networks.

Both the interiors and exteriors are deconstructivist in style, with modern minimalist shapes interspersed with geometry and angular slots. The website for Federation Square describes the main bulk of its buildings as “following a similar theme with a complex geometrical design featuring a mix of zinc, perforated zinc, glass and sandstone tiles over a metal exoskeletal frame in a complex geometrical pattern composed entirely of scalene triangles” (retrieved March 2011). Three shards frame the square space. The eastern and southern shards are completely

clad in metallic surfaces with angular slots. Adjoined to the southern shard is a hotel which features the wrap around metallic screen and glass louvers. This type of postmodern architecture is described by Jencks as having its “roots in two significant technological shifts. The first, refers to the ability of contemporary communications to remake both space and time boundaries which allow for “a new internationalism and strong internal differentiations within cities and societies based on place, function, and social interest” (1990, p. 75). Harvey refers to this as “produced fragmentation” (1990, p. 75). The second shift revolves around “the new technologies (particularly computer modelling) that have dissolved the need to conjoin mass production with mass repetition, and permitted the flexible mass production of ‘almost personalized products’ expressive of a great variety of styles” (1990, p. 76).

Another major public space in the precinct is the atrium:

It is a laneway-like space, five-stories high with glazed walls and roof During summer nights, cold air is pumped in the combed space, cooling down the concrete, while heat absorbed during the day is pumped out. The following day, cold air is pumped from the labyrinth out into the atrium through floor vents. This process can keep the atrium up to 12 °C cooler than outside During winter, the process is reversed, whereby warm daytime air stored in the Labyrinth overnight, to be pumped back into the atrium during the day. (retrieved March, 2011)

Here we have reached the science fiction stage where human beings exist in a rarefied air hence making fantasy a reality. In this artificial environment, the controlled climate becomes a signifier for the control of interaction between human beings.

Housing a number of shops, bars, cafés and restaurants, Federation Square signifies a key characteristic of the postmodern, that is the patrons become constituted as citizens of consumption where the sense of self is interwoven with where we eat, what we buy, where we socialize and what we own. Other facilities include a theatre which has a seating capacity for 450 people, and which has an

internal design consisting of geometrical patterns thus mirroring other interiors in the complex. An art gallery which is an extension of the National Gallery of Victoria is housed in the Ian Potter Centre which is a further part of the complex. In addition, the Australian Centre for the Moving Image has two cinemas that are equipped to play every film, video and digital video format, with attention to high quality acoustics. This can be read as a signifier for the shift to a postmodern society; that is one where “high-tech dominates the cultural life of society” (Hinkson, 1991, p. 35). It is also indicative of the postmodern shift of the move away from print based mediums “to a medium grounded in information and image” (Hinkson, 1991, p. 35). The screen gallery, built along the entire length of what was previously a train station platform, is a subterranean gallery for experimentation with the moving image. This section of Federation square can be interpreted through the writing of Grbich who draws on the work of Baudrillard to discuss how our lives are influenced by images and the media. “The boundary between image and reality implodes (breaks down) and a world of hyper-reality is created where the distinctions between real and unreal are blurred” (Grbich, 2004, p. 20).

Developments such as Federation Square have been described by Harvey as “An architecture of spectacle, with its sense of surface glitter and transitory participatory pleasure, of display and ephemerality, of jouissance” (1990, pp. 90-91). Participation was a major aim of the Melbourne City Council who commissioned the development in the hope that it would revitalize a particular city space and orchestrate the bringing together of a community within the confines of the city. Their hopes have been realized as Federation Square has gained in popularity to the extent that it is now the State of Victoria’s second most popular tourist attraction, experiencing 8.41 million visitors in 2009. Hence, MacCabe’s assertion that architecture is the traditional art “most fully integrated with the economy” (as cited in Dear, 2000, p. 183) is certainly borne out with what has become a postmodern icon in the city of Melbourne.

Given the objective of this thesis is to explore changes in teacher education policy, how can the architecture of Federation Square be used as a signifier to deconstruct changes to teacher education?

Harvey employs the term 'historicism' to explain postmodern architectural designs and describes many of them as "pandering to nostalgic impulses" (1990, p. 87). Is it possible that changes to teacher education over the past thirty years have resulted in the content of current courses being so altered that they now merely pander to past elements of the courses, thus creating nostalgic impulses? Likewise, the main public space in the Federation Square complex where ochre-coloured sandstone blocks have been used to invoke images of outback Australia. Can this be a signifier for a form of geographical historicism within teacher education whereby the contemporary university with its emphasis on mixed-mode delivery of courses remakes the once geographically bounded institution? The multiple entrances and exits into and out of 'Fed Square' signify the multiple pathways available to prospective students to enter and leave teacher education courses. Can the atrium section of the complex where the most up-to-date technologically advanced heating and cooling systems are utilised to produce an artificial environment signify a remaking of space with respect to how universities today operate in the artificial space of 'the network'. In addition, can the interlocking, honeycombed walls of the atrium and the general complex geometrical design of Federation square itself signify the changed construction of teacher education in this postmodern period; a change to integrated modules? Recalling that within the Federation Square complex is the Centre for the Moving Image which has a reputation for its high-tech application and a reliance on the moving image, can this be read as a signifier for the shift to a postmodern form of teacher education that becomes high-tech dominated? Can the fact that the centre is the most visited site by tourists and locals alike, suggest economic prosperity, thus signifying the increasingly important relationship between teacher education and the postmodern economy?

Since his earliest work on the postmodern, Fredric Jameson has stressed the significance of architecture in unravelling the meaning of social change. Likewise David Harvey suggested, "Whatever else we do with the concept, we should not read postmodernism as some autonomous artistic current. Its rootedness in daily life is one of its most patently transparent features" (1990, p. 63). As the following will show the cross-over of the postmodern features of art and

architecture finds a restructured structural form affecting the social whole. For the benefit of this thesis, a focus on how the postmodern impacts on education, specifically teacher education will be explored.

Modernity/postmodernity terminology and concepts

A second binary recognised by numerous authors (Featherstone, 1998; Harvey, 1990; Hinkson, 1991, 1993; Jameson, 1991; Lyotard, 1993) is that of modernity and postmodernity. Sedunary describes the former as

an historical epoch of western societies (dating at least from the eighteenth century and full-blown by the late nineteenth to mid-twentieth centuries) characterized in particular by the valorizing of progress and scientific rationality, the spread of print literacy, the rise and consolidation of the nation-state, the predominance of industrial capitalism and the quest for human emancipation. (1996, p. 390)

Juxtaposed against modernity is postmodernity which suggests a break with modernity; a shift so major that it can be described as epochal. This shift extends far beyond the aesthetic as it is associated with the transformation of the broader social whole, that is the cultural, social, economic, political and geographical realms. Sedunary describes postmodernity as being

understood as an historical transition (occurring from the late twentieth century) characterised in particular by heightened ephemerality, the communications revolution, abstract productive technologies, accelerated economic and cultural globalization, and the rise of dissentient aesthetic, intellectual and subjective positions ('post-modernism'). (1996, p. 390)

Two writers who make the distinction between modernity and postmodernity, Harvey (1990) and Hinkson (1991), claim the break between the eras can be explained by differences in terms of how we produce, distribute and consume goods. Thus these authors believe there is a changed structural basis between modernity and postmodernity. What follows is a discussion on a number of writers who have explored different aspects of the make-up of these structural

changes and have contributed to the debate surrounding the emergence of postmodernity. The relevance to this thesis of interrogating the key arguments of these authors is that their work helps to explain why specific changes have been advocated in education policy documents. To put it succinctly, education is being reframed to support the changed structural basis of the social whole. As will be shown in this project the restructuring of the university sector, specifically teacher education, is interlinked with changes to broader structural developments significant to the emergence of postmodernity.

Structural changes associated with postmodernity

Despite there not being one over-arching theory of postmodernity, most authors have tended to concentrate on one of the dimensions which they claim helps to distinguish the new epoch from previous periods. For example, John Hinkson (1991; 1993; 2005) has written extensively on the changing economic sector within the historical period of postmodernity. Writing on the postmodern market, Hinkson identifies three characteristics that demarcate it from its previous forms. The first “is the sheer speed of the transactions which the new technologies facilitate. In this respect it is a market which is more powerful globally by virtue of its ability to traverse space in an instant” (1993, p. 30). The second characteristic of the postmodern market is “the radically enhanced flow of commodities, commodities increasingly generated by high-technological process, which it draws upon and facilitates” (1993, p. 30). The final characteristic relates to the “new power of the postmodern market to assimilate spheres of activity which have always been within the realm of non-market relations (1993, p. 30). What Hinkson means by this, is that the new form of the market provides solutions to a variety of problems which were once not available to direct technological intervention. Exemplifying this perspective Hinkson claims, “What is unique in the postmodern market is the way identity and the cultural lifestyle are tied up with technological developments in the mass media which allow easy transmission of the image”.

Supporting the concept of a shift from modernity to postmodernity, Hinkson argues, “the momentous nature of the ruptures . . . is reflected in the inadequacy

of our familiar interpretative frameworks” (1993, p. 23). As a result, much of Hinkson’s writing is based around the argument that a new framework is required to fully comprehend the structural changes relevant to the postmodern market. He further argues,

this emergence of the postmodern market is integral with a larger shift which takes in the mode of production as well. Profoundly affected by technological changes and the increased role of intellectually grounded practices, our whole way of living is undergoing a transformation which calls for a recasting of the mode of social interpretation. (1993, p. 26)

Supporting Hinkson’s view of an increase in intellectually grounded practices is Australian social theorist, Geoff Sharp (1983, 1985, 1988, 1992, 1993, 1994) who contends that those whose work relies on intellectual practices are part of a new social grouping which he calls, “the intellectually trained”. It is this dimension of postmodernity that is the focus of much of his writing. In the article, “Constitutive Abstraction and Social Practice” Sharp (1985) describes the *modern intellectual* as part of a privileged elite whose cognitive abilities were associated with reflective interpretation. However, after World War 2 and the growth of science based technologies, the role of the intellectuals began to change and expand, a development paralleling the change from production which relied on the machine and the physical labour of the working class, to modes of production reliant on the new science-based technologies. Scanlon (2005) describes these workers as “people who are not intellectuals per se, but are trained in the techniques of intellectuality” (p. 134). The changing role of the intellectuals meant their work began to intersect with commodity production. New forms of production were created which relied on abstract, extended relations. The development and functioning of what is now known as knowledge-based industries is dependent upon the skills of the intellectually related groupings; skills such as those associated with the computer. These skills bear little resemblance to the manual skills of the traditional working class which involved a direct relationship between the ‘hand’ and material transformation. According to Sharp (1993) it is the rise of the intellectually trained grouping, their use of intellectual techniques and their reliance on abstract, extended relations that are central to the shift to

postmodernity. However, to assume that the intellectually related groupings and the application of their intellectual technique is limited to the production process alone, would be a failure to understand the influential role played by this group in the reshaping of all areas of contemporary society. As Sharp noted, “Now those groupings which once drew upon intellectual perspectives more directly embody them; they are socially formed by institutions which are themselves reconstituted in part by practices of the intellectually related groupings” (1985, pp. 50-51). This has a direct consequence for schools, universities and teacher education as their traditional curriculum which catered for a different form of knowledge is reconstructed to support intellectual practices which underpin new forms of work and new forms of social relations which rely on extended interchange. Sedunary writes, “With education now a vital factor in national economic restructuring, the rhetoric of ‘a productive culture’, ‘the clever country’ and ‘worlds’s best practices’ valorizes instrumental, internationally oriented intellectually-based practices” (1998, p. 393).

The ideas of Hinkson and Sharp are complemented by the work of Jean Baudrillard, who Best and Kellner describe “as one of the most high-profile postmodern theorists” (1993, p. 109). Baudrillard claims, “we have reached a stage in social and economic development in which it is no longer possible to separate the economic or productive realm from the realms of ideology or culture, since cultural artifacts, images, representation, even feelings and psychic structures have become part of the world of the economic” (as cited in Storey, 1993, p. 162). In addition, and supporting Hinkson and Sharp, he contends “there has been an historical shift in the West from a society based on the production of things to one based on the production of information” (as cited in Storey, 1993, p. 162).

Baudrillard writes extensively on postmodernism as a culture of ‘simulacrum’ which he describes as an identical copy without an original. He contends “that the very distinction between original and copy has itself now been destroyed” (as cited in Storey, 1993, p. 162) a process he calls ‘simulation’. By this he means “the generation by models of a real without origins or reality: a ‘hyperreal’ (as cited in Storey, 1993, p. 162).

Hyperrealism is the characteristic mode of postmodernity. In the realm of the hyperreal, the distinction between simulation and the 'real' continually implodes; the 'real' and the imaginary continually collapse into each other. The result is that reality and simulation are experienced as without difference – operating on a roller coaster continuum. In fact, simulations can often be experienced as more real than the real itself. (as cited in Storey, 1993, p. 163)

Baudrillard further contends that it is not just a blurring of the boundaries between reality and simulation “but a situation in which simulation becomes more real than reality” (as cited in Storey, 1993, p. 163). Although Disneyland is the favoured site among academics for demonstrating simulacra and hyperreality, perhaps more relevant to this thesis is Baudrillard’s example of the ‘Watergate’ scandal. He argues that this well known incident which took place in the USA during the Nixon era

had to be reported as a scandal in order to conceal the fact that it was a commonplace of American political life. This is an example of what he calls a ‘simulation of a scandal to regenerative ends’. It is an attempt ‘to revive a moribund principle by simulated scandal . . . a question of proving the real by the imaginary; proving truth by scandal’. (as cited in Storey, 1993, p. 164)

The relevance of Baudrillard’s ideas to this thesis is that it raises the question, do policy producers and education commentators engage in a simulation of scandal, or at least hyperbole, for particular regenerative ends? Was there a more manipulative reason behind Ramsey’s claim that those charged with the responsibility of bringing about change were incapable of creating the conditions which would enable the required changes to flourish? Could the constant attention paid by global think tanks and politicians throughout the western world to such matters as a drop in literacy and mathematics standards be an attempt to create a scandal or crisis so as neo liberal governments can create regenerative strategies whereby education can be restructured to support national economic priorities and policies?

Baudrillard's writings are both complemented and extended by those of the French scholar, Jean-Francoise Lyotard. The work of Lyotard is helpful in providing insightful interpretations which assist the researcher in finding answers to the three questions underpinning this thesis, i) what changes have been advocated?, ii) what changes have been adopted?, and iii) why were some changes adopted and others not? Lyotard's writings focus more specifically on the changing nature of education, in particular, tertiary education. Much of his writing centres on the merging relationship between education, namely higher education, and the broader social whole.

In his text *The Postmodern Condition*, (1984) Lyotard discusses the role of knowledge in postmodern society and outlines how universities no longer stand outside mainstream culture but have been reconstituted to support the performativity demands of the wider social system. Within the university "the transmission of knowledge is no longer designed to train an elite capable of guiding a nation towards its emancipation, but to supply the system with players capable of acceptably fulfilling their roles at the pragmatic post required by its institutions" (Lyotard, 1984, p. 48). As Lyotard points out, neither higher education nor the state concerns itself with the question of "Is it true?"; instead, they are concerned with the question "What use is it?". That which is good or bad, right or wrong, once the *raison d'être* of a good university education is beginning to dissolve as education collapses into training for particular skills rather than a particular set of ideals.

Described as the "performativity principle" (1984, p. 50), Lyotard claims higher education is restructured in order to satisfy a new goal

... no longer truth, but performativity – that is the best possible input/output equation. The state and/or company must abandon the idealist and humanist narrative of legitimation so as to justify the new goal: in the discourse of today's financial backers of research, the only credible goal is power. Scientists, technicians and instruments are purchased not to find truth, but to augment power. (Lyotard, 1984, p. 46)

Also importantly for this thesis is Lyotard's observation of the collapse of the grand narratives or as Grbich (2004) describes it, metanarratives. Lyotard (1984, p. 37) has suggested that there is now

'Incredulity toward metanarratives' that 'the grand narrative has lost its credibility' regardless of whether these are derived from speculative or emancipatory origins. Considerable scepticism should now be observed, particularly towards the meta-narratives of religion and economic theory, which are seen as ahistorical epistemologies with no capacity to provide privileged discourse or universal explanations. These meta-narratives, says Lyotard, 'have suppressed differences in order to legitimate their own vision of reality' and to maintain established power bases. Ironic deconstruction of these narratives', is viewed as one important way of removing their power (1979, 37). (as cited in Grbich, 2004, pp. 25-26)

The significance of Lyotard's observations for this thesis is the issue of shifts in teacher education policy that result in a move away from a broad emancipatory vision for education to a narrow, instrumental vision. In addition, the issue of this shift away from metanarratives associated with education raises the question of whether this facilitates a reframing of teacher education and the work of teacher educators so as the profession can advance the power base of a particular group of elites who are aligned to a particular ideology.

Supporting and extending Lyotard's analysis of the changed nature of the university is Zygmunt Bauman. In his article, *Is There a Postmodern Sociology?* (1988), Bauman centres his discussion on the current crisis of status faced by the university intellectual elite. He argues that in the reorientation of their work they no longer find themselves fulfilling familiar roles and the demand for their services is diminishing. This leads to a 'status crisis'. Where once status was gained from the service they provided in giving "authoritative solutions to the questions of cognitive truth, moral judgement and aesthetic taste" (1988, p. 219) today the demand for such services is in decline. The relevance of Bauman's observations to this thesis can be linked to Gregor Ramsey's observations cited in the opening paragraph of the literature review in this project, "Why was it that

those with responsibility to transform teacher education and the quality of teaching did not meet the challenges?” and b) “Why was it when so much was asked for, so little was given?” (Ramsey, 2000, p. 213). Could it be that the type of transformation of teacher education sought by Ramsey required resources for change to be implemented?; resources that were not forthcoming. Or could the reason for teacher educators not rising to the challenge for transformation have less to do with pragmatic reasons and more to do with ideological dissonance?

Bauman suggests three reasons which account for the erosion of the status of the modern intellectuals. First, the decline of superiority of western culture, which was grounded in universal standards. Second, older means of state legitimation relied on the intellectuals. Today the state has at its disposal cheaper and more efficient means of legitimation, thus the need for authority becomes obsolete. Third, seduction and repression are the means by which state power maintains domination thus making the need for legitimation irrelevant. As claimed by Lyotard, “the notion of a ‘university franchise’ now belongs to a bygone era” (1984, p.50).

What both Lyotard and Bauman are alluding to are the distinguishing features between the modern and postmodern university. Lyotard discusses these differences in even more detail by characterising the differences in the types of skills being taught to students entering the university.

Because of performativity demands, education today aims to develop in students those skills which support the global economy. These skills fall into two groups. “The first kind are more specifically designed to tackle world competitions. They vary according to which ‘specialities’ the nation-states or major educational institutions can sell on the market” (Lyotard, 1984, p. 48). The nature of these skills is applicable to science, business, computers and mathematics. Because of their marketability it is these faculties within universities that will attract the highest funding. The second set of skills universities will be expected to develop in students are those required by the social system. “... higher learning will have to continue to supply the social system with the skills fulfilling society’s own needs, which centre on maintaining its internal cohesion” (Lyotard, 1984, p. 48).

Lyotard's comments are reminiscent of Sharp's concept of the social group which he calls, 'the intellectually trained'. For this thesis, the importance of Lyotard's observations is that they offer explanations for why educational reform over the past thirty years has shifted to a new direction. That direction is one that embraces intellectual practices and extended interchange for it is these techniques and form of social relations that underpin a broad economic shift, that is, from the traditional Keynesian economy to what is referred to as the postmodern or new economy.

Twenty years after Lyotard's comments Grbic (2004) made similar observations to the French theorist claiming that the current post-fordist forms of production relies on a multi-skilled, flexible workforce. She further argues this new form of production is linked to a new form of skill and a rise of the service worker. Moreover, these developments have direct consequences for education. "As the service sector increases, the practical aspects of skills and training become more highly valued than the older styled, broad general education. The skills now most highly valued include those that facilitate the production and consumption of commodities – managerial, computing and electronic, plus those of skilled service providers" (Grbich, 2004, p. 20). The issue which both Grbic's and Lyotard's comments raise for this thesis is whether or not teacher education is today being reconstituted to provide skilled service workers as opposed to autonomous professionals.

Conclusion

In this chapter the researcher examined the purposes of theory and then explored the specific elements significant to critical theory. After justifying the writer's selection of the particular strand of critical theory known as the postmodern, there followed a discussion regarding the associated terminology. Next there occurred an exploration of the aesthetic cultural shift from the modern to the postmodern through an analysis of changes in art and architecture ensued. Following this was an examination of the structural shifts associated with the change from modernity to postmodernity. The work of social theorists such as Hinkson, Sharp, Baudrillard, Bauman, Lyotard and commentators such as Grbic suggest there has

been a complementary shift in education which is linked to the teaching of new types of skills which support new forms of work. If this is so then changes should be reflected in the policy documents dealing with teacher education as well as in teacher education courses. The following chapter provides the data to better examine whether or not teacher education policy and practice has been reconstituted to accommodate the emergence of postmodernity.

CHAPTER FOUR

The Research Design

Introduction

The intention behind this study is to investigate the observation and questions raised by Gregor Ramsey in the policy document *Quality Matters, Revitalising teaching: Critical times, critical choices*. In this review, Ramsey commented on the number of reports on teaching and teacher education over the past twenty years. He observed, “despite the large number of reviews, their impact has been minimal” (2000, p. 14). Later in the same review he raised two questions:

- a) “Why was it that those with responsibility to transform teacher education and the quality of teaching did not meet the challenges?” [and]
- b) “Why was it when so much was asked for, so little was given?” (Ramsey, 2000, p. 213).

In considering Ramsey’s comments the following three questions were developed in order to investigate the accuracy of the statements made. These questions are as follows:

1. What recommendations were made?
2. What recommendations were implemented?
3. Why were some recommendations implemented and others not?

What follows in this chapter is a discussion on how the methodology for this thesis has been designed. It begins with a discussion on the dissonance in the literature regarding perspectives on methodology. This is followed by an examination of the epistemology, theoretical perspective, methodology and the methods selected for gathering the data.

Dissonance in perspectives on methodology

As was shown in the literature reviewed for this thesis, academic writers fail to agree in nearly every aspect of policy. Similarly, there is a lack of agreement between researchers as to the most effective and appropriate forms of methodology. Hence the first section of this chapter involves three parts. First, a discussion on the dissonance in academic circles regarding research methodology; second an analysis of the quantitative/qualitative divide in education; and third, an examination of the dissonance within the academic literature on how to undertake policy analysis.

Dissonance in perspectives on research methodology

A major, long standing point of contention in contemporary research revolves around the quantitative/qualitative divide. Quantitative research is described by Cresswell (2009) as “a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures” (p. 4). Put somewhat more simply by Punch, he describes quantitative research as “empirical research where the data are in the form of numbers” (2005, p. 3). In contrast to quantitative research, Strauss and Corbin (1998) define qualitative research as

Any type of research that produces findings not arrived at by statistical procedures or other means of quantification. It can refer to research about persons’ lives, lived experiences, behaviours, emotions, and feelings as well as about organizational function, social phenomena and interactions between nations. (1998, pp. 10 - 11)

Marshall and Rossman contend “Qualitative researchers are intrigued with the complexity of social interactions as expressed in daily life and with the meanings the participants themselves attribute to these interactions” (1999, p. 2).

Cresswell (2009) and Punch (2005) both discuss the evolution surrounding the two methodologies and the subsequent academic divisions for which

understanding of choosing appropriate methodology for a study is the better. Historically, quantitative research dominated the social science research agenda up until the 1960s. After this period, interest in qualitative research began to flourish along with the advancement of mixed methods research. This development produced a divide in the field between advocates of quantitative research and those who favoured qualitative research. Punch describes this tension as follows;

A prolonged quantitative-qualitative debate ensued, sometimes described as the 'paradigm wars'. Much of that debate was characterized by either-or thinking. Some thought that only quantitative approaches should be used to study human behaviour. Others were just as emphatic that only qualitative approaches are appropriate. More recently, however, there have been moves towards a detente, and an increased interest in the combination of the two approaches. (2005, p. 2)

Silverman (2000) responds to critics who take an either/or perspective and who perceive research as only being worthwhile if limited to one mode of data collection and interpretation by arguing that both quantitative and qualitative approaches can be properly criticized or found insufficient. He continues by suggesting, "it is sensible to make pragmatic choices between research methodologies according to your research problem" (2000, p.12). Strauss and Corbin (1998) argue, "Qualitative methods can be used to explore substantive areas about which little is known or about which much is known to gain novel understandings" (p. 11).

Given the three questions driving this thesis, the decision to employ a qualitative approach was considered the most appropriate for this project. The first influence for this choice was the view expressed by Silverman who wrote, "The methods used by qualitative researchers exemplify a common belief that they can provide a 'deeper' understanding of social phenomena than would be obtained from purely quantitative data" (2000, p. 8). The second influence for taking a qualitative approach stems from the translation of the comment made above by Strauss and Corbin to an investigation of teacher education policies; novel reasons to explain

the lack of policy implementation, hitherto unidentified in the research, can be unmasked through employing a qualitative approach. However, in selecting this approach, the author of this research notes Silverman's remark that "qualitative research should offer no protection from the rigorous, critical standards that should be applied to any enterprise concerned to sort 'fact' from 'fancy'" (Silverman, 2000, p.12).

I conclude this section by noting that research strategies to be employed in this thesis are characteristics of a qualitative inquiry in general. Drawing together a list of attributes using the previous work of authors (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Eisner, 1991; Hatch, 2002; Le Compte & Schensul, 1999; Marshall & Rossman, 2006), Cresswell notes the following basic characteristics:

- Qualitative researchers tend to collect data in the field at the site where participants experience the issue or problem under study.
- Qualitative researchers collect data themselves through examining documents, observing behaviour, or interviewing participants.
- Qualitative researchers typically gather multiple forms of data, such as interviews, observations, and documents, rather than rely on a single data source. Then the researchers review all of the data, make sense of it, and organize it into categories or themes that cut across all of the data sources.
- Qualitative researchers build their patterns, categories, and themes from the bottom up, by organizing the data into increasingly more abstract units of information. This inductive process illustrates working back and forth between the themes and the database until the researchers have established a comprehensive set of themes.
- In the entire qualitative research process, the researcher keeps a focus on learning the meaning that the participants hold about the problem or issue, not the meaning that the researchers bring to the research or writers express in the literature.

- The research process for qualitative researchers is emergent. This means that the initial plan for research cannot be tightly prescribed, and all phases of the process may change or shift after the researchers enter the field and begin to collect data.
- Qualitative researchers often use [a theoretical] lens to view their studies.
- Qualitative research is a form of interpretive inquiry in which researchers make an interpretation of what they see, hear, and understand.
- Qualitative researchers try to develop a complex picture of the problem or issue under study. This involves reporting multiple perspectives, identifying the many factors involved in a situation, and generally sketching how the larger picture emerges.

(Cresswell, 2009, pp. 175 – 176)

Dissonance in perspectives on the quantitative/ qualitative divide in education

Relating the quantitative/qualitative divide to methodology for education and education policy, Anthony Welch (2007) discusses research in light of the present contemporary trend in education, namely performance indicators. He writes:

Qualitative assessments of policy outcomes – slower to do, but often richer, and more meaningful and effective in getting at the experience of pupils, their parents and teachers . . . are almost never part of the proliferating panoply of performance indicators. Not only are they too slow and costly, it is argued relative to quick, quantitative measures, they are often wrongly thought to be too ‘unscientific’. (p. 14)

Pettigrew gives a different insight into why education is over-reliant on quantitative studies: “...the ‘makers’ of education policy, more often than not prefer outcomes to be reported in quantitative terms which they judge to be more trustworthy and capable of replication” (as cited in Halpin, 1994, p. 199).

Biesta (2007) who is critical of the weakness of relying on quantitative research in education, particularly in the contemporary context, claims that the weakness of quantitative research which is currently favoured in the present trend towards evidence-based education, results in an over-emphasis on a “*technological model of professional action*” (p. 4). In discussing the link between research, policy and practice Biesta suggests it should not be restricted to technical questions, hence he calls for research that can “provide different understandings of educational reality and different ways of imagining a possible future” (p.10). He continues by making the observation that “evidence-based education seems to be unaware that research can play both a technical and a cultural role and that both can have very real and practical consequences” (p. 10). When both a technical and cultural role are adopted in research, Biesta claims it is “an indication of the democratic quality of a society” (p. 10). He continues by stating, “This is why the current climate in which governments and policy makers seem to demand that education research plays only a technical role can and should indeed be read as a threat to democracy itself” (p. 10).

Given the comments of the aforementioned commentators, three significant justifications for selecting a qualitative approach emerge, particularly in view of this thesis focussing on an educational issue. The first reason transpires from Welch’s comment that despite qualitative studies taking longer to complete, they are often richer, and more meaningful. The second reason stems from the writing of Biesta who argues the need for a technical and cultural approach to research which will result in a more democratic approach to research and to society. Also stemming from the perspective of Biesta, is the third reason for choosing a qualitative methodology. He believes that because a qualitative method is not limited to a technical viewpoint of the issue, when seeking to establish the links between research, policy and practice, the qualitative method allows for different ways of understanding education reality and a different way of thinking about the future.

Dissonance in perspectives on how to undertake policy analysis

Commenting on the use of qualitative research to study changes in education, Ozga (1990) was critical of the trend that developed in the 1980s which she considered had become preoccupied with gathering rich descriptions concerning people's experience of change in education but steered away from any agendas that focussed on theorizing the role of the state in policy education studies. She believed that to study one area at the expense of either, limiting or at times ignoring altogether the influence of the state, resulted in a failure to develop a complete understanding of the change processes inherent in policy. Feeling strongly about this issue, she admitted to being preoccupied with "the need to bring together structural, macro-level analysis of education systems and education policies and micro-level investigation, especially that which takes account of people's perceptions and experiences" (1990, p. 359). Ozga's argument is a further reason for selecting a qualitative methodology to investigate the questions driving this thesis.

Ozga's observation of the need for a balance between macro-level and micro-level analysis when investigating policy is reminiscent of the appeal made by Vidovich *et al.* in the previous chapter for a more productive "theoretical dialogue of selective coupling of different approaches in order to draw on the strengths and overcome the weaknesses of individual approaches" (as cited in Griffiths, Vidovich & Chapman 2005, p. 6). In order to achieve this, a qualitative study is required, hence there emerges another reason for employing a qualitative methodology whereby the research strategies selected will complement the theoretical framework of postmodernity.

However, the dissonance of the mechanics of how to analyse policy still remains. According to Australian academics, Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard and Henry (1997), the different approaches to analysing policy can be accounted for by the questions which drive the analysis. In examining the major approaches, these writers identify the three major traditions in policy analysis as being positivism, interpretivism and critical policy analysis. They argue that "most of the early American literature tended to be positivistic in its methodology and functionalist

in assumptions” (p. 38). Recent American policy analysts take a more critical perspective and their work can be categorised as interpretivism, hence it takes an “anti-positivist methodological stance” (Taylor *et al.*, p. 37).

But first I discuss the still prominent ‘rational models’ of policy analysis. According Carley (as cited in Haynes 2002), these models are based on the idea of rationality which have:

Five sequential activities undertaken by the idealised ‘rational man’ [sic].

1. A problem which requires action is identified and goals, values and objectives related to the problem are classified and organised.
2. All important possible ways of solving the problem or achieving goals and objectives are listed – these are alternative strategies, courses of action, or policies.
3. The important consequences which would follow each alternative strategy are predicted and the probability of those consequences occurring is estimated.
4. The consequences of each strategy are then compared to the goals and objectives identified above.
5. Finally, a policy or strategy is selected in which consequences most closely match goals and objectives, or the problem is most nearly solved, or most benefit is got from equal cost, or equal benefit at least cost. (p.18)

These rational models view policy as fixed, linear and unproblematic. As Haynes claims, they are “more a prescription for policy formation, not a description of how people actually do this in real situations” (2002, p.18). Indeed they are so far removed from the complexity of the real world, one might be loathe to call them ‘idealised’ models.

In response to the inadequacy of rational models of policy analysis and the complex nature of policy, in more recent times, contemporary models of policy analysis have evolved. Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard and Henry have developed a tool

for analysing policy which they describe as ‘critical policy analysis’ (1997, p. 23). Building on the work of the English policy writers, namely Ball (1990, 1994) and Bowe *et al.* (1992), this approach, in contrast to traditional forms of analysis, examines all the stages involved in the policy process, as it sets out to investigate questions revolving around three key areas. The first is the context of influence which deals with the antecedents and pressures leading to the gestation of the policy. The second addresses the text production, an area focussing on the ideology underpinning the policy, the discourse employed, the gaps and silences within the text and the competing interest groups associated with the policy. The third deals with the consequences of the policy, that is, the success or otherwise of the implementation process. This critical policy approach, which finds similarities with Philips’ (2005, p. 129) *conflict model*, as outlined in the literature review, (see page 27) differs in that it calls upon the work of the theorists connected to the Frankfurt school who favoured “neo-Marxist approaches utilising conflict rather than functionalist perspectives” (Taylor *et al.*, p. 38).

British author Troyna (1994) is one who supports the critical approach and argues that it is not enough to simply investigate what is going on and why but it should include a call to action. Thus he argues for critical social research that “includes an overt political struggle against oppressive social structures” (1994, p. 72).

Stephen Ball, another British policy writer, suggests that the task of the policy analyst “is to examine the moral order of reform and the relationship of reform to existing patterns of social inequality, bringing to bear those concepts and interpretive devices which offer the best possibilities of insight and understanding” (1994a, p. 2). Thus Ball suggests there is a need for policy analysts to be creative in their approach rather than taking a narrow approach which can result in the possibility of stifling new possibilities for interpretation.

It is this form of analysis that will be favoured here. A critical policy analysis is able to accommodate both the macro and micro levels of analysis, needed in this thesis. Moreover, it is complementary to a qualitative methodology and will allow for a balance between theoretical, interpretive and holistic lenses therefore providing a more complete analytical picture of the multiple sources of data

collected. Hence two further reasons emerge for the researcher’s decision to choose a qualitative methodology for this project.

The qualitative paradigm

Whatever paradigm is selected, Crotty (1998) argues the importance of the need for the selected epistemology, theoretical perspective, methodology and methods to be related to one another. Hence the four elements (see Table 4.1) chosen for this research have been selected with complementary factors in mind.

Table 4.1

The Four Elements Directing this Research Project

Epistemology	Theoretical perspective	Methodology	Methods
Constructionism	Critical Inquiry	Critical Ethnography	Document analysis Life histories

Epistemological foundation

The term epistemology “comes from the Greek language, with *episteme* meaning knowledge and *logos* meaning theory” (Grbich, 2007, p. 3). Crotty elaborates on this definition claiming, “It is a way of understanding and explaining how we know what we know” (1998, p. 3). The particular form of epistemology relevant to the design of this research project is that of constructionism, a stance which Crotty (1998) claims is one regularly favoured by qualitative researchers, hence its relevance for this thesis. In explaining constructionism Crotty states, “It is the view that all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context” (1998, p. 42). Thus the constructionist stance is one which acknowledges meaning is constructed rather than discovered and that people construct their understandings as they engage with the world.

In developing the notion of constructionism Crotty also believes that it encompasses the view that

There is no objective truth waiting for us to discover it. Truth, or meaning, comes into existence in and out of our engagement with the realities in our world. There is no meaning without a mind. Meaning is not discovered, but constructed. In this understanding of knowledge, it is clear that different people may construct meaning in different ways, even in relation to the same phenomenon. Isn't this precisely what we find when we move from one era to another or from one culture to another? In this view of things, subject and object emerge as partners in the generation of meaning. (1998, p. 3)

This concept of people's different construction of meaning as they move into another era or culture is particularly relevant to this thesis. As discussed in the literature review there are competing views regarding the basic question of what constitutes policy. Could the answer be linked to different constructions of policy whereby people understand it differently depending on the social and cultural level one operates at within a particular institution, for example, education?

Theoretical perspective

Crotty contends epistemology and theoretical perspectives should complement each other; consequently for this study a theory capable of explaining the generation of multiple philosophical stances is required. It is for this reason that postmodernity, strand of critical theory, was selected as the theoretical perspective. It is anticipated that the explanatory possibilities of using this theory as a means of interpreting both teacher educators and policy writers' responses to change within their field of pre-service teacher education may prove insightful.

Methodology

The methodology chosen for this study is critical ethnography. Grbich (2007) makes the distinction between classical and critical ethnographic approaches. The former has links to anthropological traditions in which observation of a particular

cultural group takes place *in situ* e.g. a hospital or a tribe. According to Grbich, the purpose of this approach is to study the whole culture and the role taken by the researcher is that of neutral observer. On the other hand, critical ethnography is concerned with issues of power in society. This methodology is underpinned by questions such as, Who has the power? Who are marginalised? How is power maintained? Grbich writes, “critical ethnographies tend to favour the more intuitive analytic end of the scale, with preliminary data and thematic analysis dominating; here, issues of power and the problem of how to correct unequal situations and empower participant are key foci” (2007, p. 53). Critical ethnography complements the epistemology and theoretical perspectives underpinning this thesis. One of the foundational questions at the heart of critical theory, is that of, in whose interests? relates to the issue of power which is basis for critical ethnographies.

Research methods

According to Crotty, *methods* refer to “the techniques or procedures used to gather and analyse data related to some research question or hypothesis” (1998, p. 3). Within this thesis three sets of data will be gathered. The first will be from three policy documents dealing with teacher education in Australia. The second will be three life histories of three teacher educators.

Policy documents

The importance of analysing policy documents as part of this research relates to the first question driving this project; what were the recommendations made? Given that from 1979 to 2007 there were 103 government inquiries into teacher education or related issues, recommendations for changes have been substantial. However, an important question to raise at this juncture is the issue of why there have been so many inquiries, reports, reviews and policies into teacher education. An Australian academic documented a shift in the purposes of education policy in 1990 when he wrote,

Educational policy has ... become a bureaucratic instrument with which to administer the expectations that the public has of education. Stephen Kemmis (1990b, p, 1) has suggested that policy is increasingly replacing educational theory as a source of guidance for practitioners. What Kemmis means by this is that education is no longer discussed in terms of broad visions and ideals but in terms of what governments believe to be possible and often expedient, and what interest groups feel they can persuade governments to do. The language of educational policy, according to Kemmis, is thus linked to political compromises between competing but unequal interests. (Taylor *et al.* 1997, p. 34)

A central aim of this project is to examine the recommendations made in the teacher education policies. However, word limitations prevent an analysis of each of the 103 documents. Hence, three Commonwealth policies, one from each of the past three decades will be examined for the recommendations made. The first policy, *Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education* or more colloquially referred to as the Auchmuty Report, (Auchmuty being the chairperson for the Inquiry), was published in 1980. The second policy, *Improving Teacher Education: Report of the Joint Review of Teacher Education* was published in 1986 and the third policy, *Top of the Class*, published in 2007, the latter being the result of a national inquiry into teacher education and was chaired by Luke Hartsuyker.

University Handbooks

Another central aim of this project is to investigate what recommendations were implemented. One means of answering the issue of policy implementation is to examine and compare the institutional handbooks so as to unpack the changes made to teacher education courses. It needs to be recognised that from publication of a policy to implementation of the recommendations made, there is always a time lag. Hence, the handbooks examined will be those published three to four years after the publication of the report. For example, because *Top of the Class* was published in 2007, the University Handbook from 2010 will be scrutinized for changes to the make-up of the teacher education courses.

Document analysis

The first issue when using document analysis is to ensure the documents to be analysed are appropriate for the research questions posed. Justifying selection of the three policy inquiries was discussed in the above sections. However, the second issue, how the analysis is undertaken requires some explanation. Applying the techniques associated with grounded theory the data is broken down by using what is termed, “open-coding” and the categories or themes emerge from this coding method. After this, the same data is reconstructed using “axial-coding”. Each document will be analysed in this manner.

Life histories

Up until the 1980s the gathering of life histories had not been a popular method used in research, hence some background to the method is explored. First a brief historical development of the life history method is undertaken, followed by a discussion on the justification for the incorporation of life histories in this thesis. A further discussion then follows on the strengths of employing life history method in conjunction with other methods; in the case using life histories with document analysis. As is typical of all methods employed in research there are inherent weaknesses in the life history method which are acknowledged in this chapter and which this researcher has sought to overcome in developing the thesis. Finally a discussion on the inter-relationship between life history method and theoretical perspectives will be included.

The study of life documents is associated with the University of Chicago. Established with the financial support of John Rockefeller, the university became the first in America to institute a department of sociology. According to Plummer, “It was in this new city, new university and new department that the personal document was to be given a proper symbolic birth” (1983, p. 51). Robert Par (1864-1944) a leading intellectual and sociologist within the Chicago School was noted for this “profound reverence for the common man and his common struggles along with an abhorrence for the pretentious The self-conscious intellectuals and social climbers who deliberately separated themselves from the

majority” (Matthews 1977, p. 17). Not surprisingly those who adhered to the Chicago philosophy had an “unrelenting focus on the importance of the subjective viewpoint: it is this which the life document critically embodies” (Plummer, 1983, p. 53).

From the mid 1930s onwards, the popularity of life documents began to recede as more scientific approaches took a higher profile in social science academic research. However, since the mid 1980s there has been a resurgence in the life history method among sociologists of education (Goodson, 1992, 2001, 2003, 2008, 2011; Middleton, 1993, 1997, 1998, 1999; Witherell & Nodding, 1991). Plummer describes three images which are the legacy of the Chicago School and which are firmly embedded in contemporary life history research: “The first image highlights life as a concrete experience; the second views life as an ever-emerging relativistic perspective; the third captures the inherent marginality and ambiguity of life” (1983, p. 53).

Support for these three images can be found in the writing of Goodson who makes a distinction between a life story and a life history. In discussing the use of life history research on teachers, he argues that the former is the “story we tell about our life; the life history is a collaborative venture, reviewing a wider range of evidence The crucial form for life history work is to locate the teacher’s own life story alongside a broader contextual analysis” (1992a, p. 6). Hence a life history is always situated within a broader frame. With his commitment to ‘life history’ over ‘life story’ Goodson believes that if the contextual analysis is missing then the researcher is placed in an ethically questionable situation of *valorizing the subjectivity of the powerless* in the name of telling *their story*: “This would be to merely record constrained consciousness – a profoundly conservative posture” (1992b, p. 240). Similarly, Gorelick (as cited in Sparkes, 1994) notes that “in terms of feminist methodology just ‘giving voice’ is not enough because although the telling of life stories may describe the world as perceived by the persons involved, it may also confine them within these perceptions and so provide them with little that they do not already know” (1994, pp. 165-6). It is for these reasons that the type of life document employed in this thesis is that of the life history.

Why use life history study?

The first reason for the inclusion of a life history is the need to acknowledge the role of human agency. One of the tensions which surround a number of academic debates is the binary polarisation of structure versus human agency, a tension which can too often result in a simplification and misinterpretation of the reality of human existence. As Plummer argues, “by taking one side and denying the other – of championing system over agency, discourse over doing, structure over consciousness – runs the risk of developing accounts of the world that are simply wild and wrong, untempered as they are with the concrete historical yet human experiences out of which societies are invariably composed” (1983, p. 5). Consequently, more than any other method, the life history allows the researcher to gain a more accurate, well-rounded and in-depth understanding of the totality of life.

A second reason for the inclusion of a life history method is the opportunity it provides for the researcher to move beyond previous explanations of change that too often have focussed on abstract and neatly bounded interpretations. The life history method caters for the ambiguity of personal meanings and the complexities of ordinary lives to layer over interpretations which can otherwise collapse into narrow, neat and abstract explanations. Kincheloe and McLaren recognise that “individual identity and human agency form such a chaotic knot of intertwined articulations” (1994, p. 146). Incorporating life histories as part of the methodology allows the researcher to unravel this knot of articulations. However, Kincheloe and McLaren, like so many proponents of the use of life history, warn that the particularity of the subject should be read in dialogue with the totality of social relations (1994, p. 146).

Consequently, the inclusion of a life history requires the researcher to weave the subject’s life experiences between the development of his or her own biography and the correlating external factors. As Goodson writes, “Life history and historical methods link the personal, the practical and the theoretical in new ways that operate at all three of these lives” (2008, p. viii). He relates this approach to developing ‘middle ground’ theory, “the arena between structural organization and policy of political contexts and the micro-detail of daily life in classrooms and

teaching. Middle ground theory seeks to combine the view from below with a focus on strategies and organizational forms that respond to changes in macro-level organizational structure and policy context” (2008, p. viii). Despite Goodson’s work centring on teachers and classrooms, his work has much relevance for the tertiary sector.

A fourth reason for utilising life history methodology, and one relevant to education today, is identified by Goodson (2008) who believes that the work of educators is both socially and politically defined. He argues that in the contemporary context political forces are redefining education in a manner which perceives teachers as “practical fundamentalists”.

In many ways ‘the forces of the market,’ as articulated by the politicians of the New Right, is seeking to turn the teacher’s practice into that of a technician, a routinized and trivialized deliverer of a pre-designed package. To accept those definitions and to focus on ‘practice’ so defined is tantamount to accepting this ideology. (Goodson, 2008, p. 3)

In order to move from this narrow perspective which Goodson believes is dominant in education research today he calls for new forms of research which would take the initiative for defining the research agenda away from the politicians and bureaucrats. Hence he claims, “Far more autonomous and critical research will be generated if the research community adopts wider lenses of inquiry for the teacher as researcher” (2008, p. 3). Goodson goes on to state that if research methods focus only on the personal and practical, then teachers abdicate “the right to speak on matters of social and political construction”. Thus he claims,

In studying the teacher’s life and work in a fuller social context, the intention is to develop insights ... into the social construction of teaching. In this way, teachers’ stories of action can be reconnected with ‘histories of context’. Hence, teachers’ stories, rather than passively celebrating the continual reconstruction of teaching, will move to

develop understandings of social and political construction. It is a move from commentary on what *is* to cognition of what *might be*.

(Goodson, 2008, p. 5)

Goodson's observations on research and teachers being limited to the personal and practical resonates with current developments in the tertiary sector in Australia. Research for instrumental purposes is dominant within the university system however, with a greater focus on life history methodology, researchers and teacher educators can move beyond limiting themselves to the current narrow focussed domains. By so doing, they too can develop insights into the social and political construction of teacher education.

A fifth reason for examining developments in education through the broader lens offered by life history research is that it allows the researcher the means of understanding the restructuring and reform processes aimed at teacher education. The work of Butt, Raymond, McCue, and Yamagishi, L. (1992) deals with the notion of a 'crisis of reform' whereby initiatives for reform and or restructuring are developed by political imperatives outside of the institution but imposed as prescriptions in the classroom, or in the case of this thesis, in university education courses. Goodson (2008) believes interventions of this nature "develop from a particular view of the teacher, a view which practical genres of study often work to conform" (p. 5). The strength of the life history method is that it allows the subject and researcher to move beyond any uncritical acceptance of a reform and to challenge and contextualise simplistic political pronouncements.

A final reason for employing life history methodology which extends the aforementioned comments relates to another of Goodson's arguments. He articulates "a need for a counter culture which will resist the tendency common in research studies to leave teachers 'in the shadows'" (Goodson, 2008, p. 6). Thus Goodson is convinced there is a need to research the life and work of teachers in a manner which places them at the centre of the research action, a move that would give voice to teachers. "The proposal I am recommending is essentially one of reconceptualising education research so as to assure that the teacher's voice is heard, heard loudly, heard articulately" (Goodson, 2008, p. 36).

One of the major aims of this thesis is to conduct a research project that will give teacher educators a voice; hence, bring them out of the shadows. It is anticipated the life history methodology will provide the broad lens for lecturing staff, in conjunction with the researcher, to give a critical and autonomous appraisal of the third question which is the focus of this thesis; why were some changes implemented and others not?

Combining life history and other methodologies

One of the most advantageous uses of the life history method is invoked when it is utilised as an adjunct to other methods. Within this thesis, a second method, that of document analysis is employed. The combination of the two methodologies, life histories and document analysis, create the conditions for a more balanced interpretation of the data to emerge as the tools of objectivism are combined with the tools of subjectivism (Plummer, 1983). The need for a balanced perspective within the field of policy analysis is also argued by Middleton who is critical of the over-reliance researchers place on policy texts as data. She claims, “Whether one supports or critiques the policies one analyses, by engaging exclusively with such texts one’s object of analysis is “the view from the top” (1998, p. 54).

Middleton further argues that the result of taking a one-sided approach is that other voices, such as those of teachers and students are rarely heard. Translating Middleton’s observations to the tertiary sector, one of the key values in employing life history as a complementary methodology, is that it will give voice to those who are currently rendered silent within pre-service teacher education policies. In the case of this thesis, it will be argued that it is the voice of the pre-service education lecturer that is rarely heard.

The appeal for combining the two methods of life histories and policy document analysis has been made by Jenny Ozga. In her text, *Policy Research in Educational Settings Contested Terrain*, she argued that there is a need to hear the voices of those who have experienced transitional stages in education and that the field of policy research

... would benefit from more work on policy making that uses extended or life history methods, or even oral history and biographical or autobiographical accounts. In particular, there is a need for the gathering of such data from educational workers who have lived through periods of transition, and whose experiences would provide a source for the better understanding of the experience of change in education. . . . It also has the potential to contribute fundamentally to the understanding of education policy, through its documentation and analysis of the ‘voices’ of some of the major ‘actors’ in the system. (Ozga, 2000, p. 128)

In an attempt to redress the top-down approach to policy studies dealing with change in schools, authors such as Ball have adopted a view of policy that is concerned with process rather than text. Ball views policy as “both text and action, words and deeds, it is what is enacted as well as what is intended (1994a, p. 10). The issue of how schools and teachers mediate policy documents at the implementation stage has received a good deal of attention in Ball’s work. Using case studies, including interviews with principals and teachers, he has positioned teachers as active agents within the policy cycle rather than the mere recipients of policy. Such an approach has enhanced the voice of teachers. However, whilst in recent years empirical studies which focus on teachers and policy abound, qualitative research of this nature has not transferred to the tertiary sector. A review of the literature, a search of the education data bases, plus a study of the *Bibliography of Education Theses in Australia*, reveal that whilst much has been written about what policy makers thought, said and wrote, there is a dearth of qualitative study which focuses on the ordinary and everyday lives of university lecturers in Australia whose work involves the education of pre-service teachers. The dual level study undertaken in this thesis seeks to redress this gap in the literature by synthesising two methodologies, the life history and the critical document analysis of both policy documents and University Handbooks.

The lack of attention devoted to the lecturer’s perspective on policy positions them in terms of what Middleton calls “‘sponges’ who soak up the government line” (1998, p. 55). Within this thesis the notion of teacher educators as “sponges” will be challenged. The inclusion of three life histories will serve as an exemplar,

positioning the lecturer as an active strategist, who creatively constructs his or her interpretation and implementation of policy within the constraints and possibilities of his or her circumstances. Such an approach allows for an in-depth study enabling the researcher to identify and illuminate the interactions, gaps, silences, coherences and dissonances associated with the study of policy in pre-service teacher education.

Supporting Middleton's perspective and the use of life history research Smith appeals for more research that is concerned with a greater emphasis on subjectivity over objectivity. He argues,

biography, with a concern for the way a specific individual perceives and construes the world also moves the sociological interpreter toward the subject's perspective rather than the observer's point of view, a major issue labeled [sic] by the anthropologist Clifford Geertz as 'experience near' versus 'experience distant' conceptualizations. (1994, p. 298)

By incorporating an 'experience near' narrative within this thesis, it is not only hoped that the subject's perspective will be focussed upon, it is also anticipated that insights into the possibilities for future change within policy development will emerge. It is for this reason that Smith supports the inclusion of the personal narrative believing that "insights for change exist in the life-writing narratives and critical reflections upon those stories" (1994, p. 299).

Life history and theoretical perspectives

A major benefit in using the life history method concerns its relationship to the theoretical aspects of the thesis. The rich detail of the life history will be used to complement and exemplify the theory. In so doing, "the life history can be a major tool in overcoming the theoretical fog which obfuscates so many studies" (Plummer 1983, p. 73). Moreover, it provides the researcher with a vehicle to interweave life's specifics with theoretical generalities. Specific themes extrapolated from the life history data should illuminate the tensions that arise when the concrete is contrasted with the abstract, the unique is placed against the

general, the personal against the broader social, and the descriptive against the theoretical. By analysing life history data through a theoretical lens, the researcher has an even more effective tool to gain authentic insights which allow for the identification of the interactions, gaps, silences, coherences and dissonances that arise within the policy process.

Dissonance within life history research

Whilst the aforementioned explored issues of justification for the inclusion of a life history research it needs to be recognised that life history as a methodology is not without its critics. A common criticism of life history studies is associated with the issue of generalisation. Scepticism concerning the use of an individual life, to act as an exemplar of the profession as a whole, is often questioned. This is particularly the case of those who are committed to more positivistic approaches. Responding to criticism of this nature Jones writes, “In order to understand other persons’ constructions of reality, we would do well to ask them ... and to ask them in such a way that they can tell us in their terms (rather than those imposed rigidly and *a priori* by ourselves) and in a depth which addresses the rich context that is the substance of their meanings” (1985, p. 46). Supporting the use of the interview as the main data collection tool in qualitative research Punch sees it as “a very good way of accessing people’s perceptions, meanings, definitions of situations and constructions of reality. It is also one of the most powerful ways we have of understanding others” (1998, p. 175).

Another criticism of the life history method is that it neglects theory. In reply to this observation Plummer lists a number of the better known life histories which he claims “are infused with theoretical insights from start to finish” (1983, p. 120). Whilst he acknowledges that these personal documents are not framed by abstract theoretical schema, he nonetheless points out that the life history researcher is

willing to comment upon, interpret and organise ‘the stories’ into a more unified whole. Theorising becomes commentary, criticism, synthesis, theme, metaphor. The concerns are always dual: a concrete case will have wider implications, and the outward manifestations must be

apprehended from within. If there is one dominant motif in this kind of study it is a naturalism that documents yet comments, is faithful to reality yet critical of it that appreciates subjective diversity while aware of broader canvasses. In this general sense, theorising is rarely far away. Grand theory ... is absent; and so too are the more rigorous deductive systems associated with positivism But it is important to see that a concern with theorising, often in modest guise, is a feature of a great deal of this documentary tradition. (Plummer 1983, p. 120)

Blumer (1979) believes that one means of answering critics of the life history method is for the researcher to be explicit about the type of life history being conducted. Allport (1942) outlined three types of life histories. They were: *the comprehensive life document* which attempts to grasp the totality of a person's life and to capture the essence of the development of a unique human being; *the limited life document* which confronts a particular issue; and the *comprehensive topical personal document* which organises the material around a particular theme that is not related to the full life span of the subject. Given that this latter form attempts to throw light on a particular topic or issue, the topical life document is the most appropriate for this thesis.

However, engaging in qualitative research that relies on the gathering of an individual life history leads to one of the most common attacks on this method. This criticism "is that it fails to provide representative cases and thus hurls the reader into the eccentric world of the atypical – as story in itself, but no more" (Plummer, 1983, p. 100). This critique throws out a challenge to the researcher regarding the selection of a suitable subject for the life history. Given that an individual subject is to be representative of a particular group, selection of a subject for an intensive study should be neither random nor ad hoc. I now turn to this issue.

The three teacher educators

Given the aforementioned selection criteria, I approached Nicola (pseudonym) to be one of the life history subjects. Nicola was first employed by the Institute of

Federal Education twenty years ago (referred to in Chapter 1). She has first-hand experience of the transition from the Teacher Training College to the University. Being part of the restructuring and campus amalgamations strengthens the case for choosing Nicola as the subject. Additionally, the combination of factors including the fact she resides and works in Melbourne, her excellent verbal skills, and her reflective capacities proved influential in her selection. Unlike the other two participants selected Nicola teaches science, a discipline which does not have a high profile at Australian Federal University. Although our personal relationship is more that of colleague than friend, I am aware that within her personal and professional life she has a story worth telling! Most importantly however, is that significant to the choice of Nicola is that she is representative of those who struggle to have their voices heard within the University. Nicola's opportunities to have influence within the University are limited because of her personal circumstances and her classification as senior lecturer. Being a single mother and having three children means the time she can devote to the institution is curtailed.

Peter (pseudonym) is the second person I approached to be a subject for the life history project. He teaches in mathematics and is therefore associated with a core unit. Moreover, he has engaged extensively in research and experienced first-hand the amalgamation of the Teachers' Colleges into a new Australian Federal University. Not long after the amalgamation in 1993, Peter was promoted to the level of Associate Professor and has recently gained his professorship. He has served on numerous committees and boards within the institution and including on the Senate. It was because of his extensive knowledge and experience of education and schooling, his length of time working in the tertiary sector, in particular, at Australian Federal University, his position within the mathematics department and his in-depth knowledge and 'insider' view of how the University operates, that I considered Peter to be an ideal candidate for this life history research.

The third person selected is Aldo (pseudonym). Like the previous two participants Aldo lived through the amalgamation experience having been employed by the Institute and then the University. He is a senior lecturer and has always lectured in Languages other than English (LOTE). Whilst his involvement on committees

inside the University has been minimal his dedication to his subject is reflected in the number of LOTE committees he currently serves on outside the University. Aldo has published a series of textbooks on teaching Italian and currently teaches at the undergraduate level. Aldo was approached to be part of this research as LOTE has marginal status within teacher education courses. Moreover, he is one of a handful of lecturing staff whose teaching involves working across two faculties, Arts and Education. Although unknown to the researcher at the time of inviting Aldo to be a participant, cross faculty teaching has created difficulties for him, a factor that emerged during the life history interview.

All three participants are very conversant with the tertiary sector, in particular, with pre-service teacher education. In total their experience spans over sixty years in teacher education. The three of them are my colleagues and I have been associated with each person since my employment at the Institute of Education, twenty years ago. Knowing them on a collegial basis I felt satisfied that their contributions would be honest, direct and worthwhile. Moreover, I am aware that each of them has an interesting story to tell and could make observations that were analytical and insightful. Their experience, knowledge and commitment to teacher education gave me the confidence that their personal life history accounts would add depth and evocative illustration to this study. In addition, having three lecturers representative of three different disciplines allows for greater breadth within the data and provides an opportunity for a broader perspective regarding the three key questions that underpin this thesis.

Interviews

It was Punch who wrote, “The interview is one of the main data collection tools in qualitative research. It is a very good way of accessing people’s perceptions, meaning, definitions of situations and constructions of reality. It is also one of the most powerful ways we have of understanding others” (1998, pp. 174-175). The life history interviews conducted in this study required each participant to be interviewed three times, with each interview lasting approximately 45 minutes. Interviews were conducted in an office on the university premises and each interview was taped recorded and transcribed.

Fontana and Frey (1994) use a classification system that identifies three means of conducting interviews. These are structured, semi-structured and unstructured. It was the second type, semi-structured, that was the basis of the interviews conducted for this study. The reason for choosing this form of interview was the assumption that the less degree of rigidity in the interviewing process the more depth would be achieved in the interviews. However, to conduct interviews that are totally unstructured leaves open the possibility of the interviewee moving completely away from the topic resulting in the data gathered being irrelevant to the study. The questions used in each of the three interviews are listed below.

Interview questions

Interview One

1. Can you reflect on your personal life history beginning with how you got into teaching and ended up at Australian Federal University?
2. In your time in tertiary education what changes have you witnessed?
3. Of all the changes you nominated, which one was the most significant?
4. Do you think this change has been successful? If yes why? If not, why not?
5. What do you think was the driving force behind this change?
6. On a professional level, how did you personally, cope with this change?
7. On a personal level, how did you personally, cope with this change?
8. Were there any forces/conditions/situations/decisions within the university that either enabled (made it easier) or inhibited (made it difficult) you to cope with this change?

Interview Two

The second interview was also a semi-structure one, however the focus shifted to policy documents related to each interviewee's discipline. In the second and third interviews the first question allowed the interviewee to clarify statements made by the respondent in the previous interview.

1. Is there anything from the last interview you would like to change or elaborate on?
2. In your first interview you said Could you elaborate on this comment?

3. With respect to pre-service education what changes have you witnessed to the courses over the past 20 years?
4. Can you link any of these changes to specific policies produced at government level?
5. Why do you think these changes were advocated by the policy writers?
6. Why do you think these changes were implemented at ACU?
7. Other changes have been recommended in policy documents but not implemented.
8. Why do you think these changes were not implemented?
9. If you had control of teacher education what changes would you like to see implemented to courses?

Interview Three

1. Is there anything from the last interview you would like to change or elaborate on?
2. In your second interview you said Could you elaborate on this comment?
3. With respect to pre-service education and your specific discipline area of (LOTE maths science) what changes have you witnessed to the courses over the past 20 years?
4. What was the origin of these changes?
5. Have these changes been implemented successfully?
6. Are you aware of any changes being recommended for your discipline area and within pre-service teacher education that have not been implemented?
7. Why do you think these changes were not implemented?
8. What forces both inside and outside of the university are driving changes to your discipline area?
9. One policy writer on teacher education has claimed that there have been limited changes to teacher education courses over the past twenty years. He wrote that the reason for this was because that involved in teacher education were not up to the task. Do you believe he is correct?
10. If you had control of teacher education what changes would you like to see implemented in your discipline area?

A written transcription of the tape was made after each interview. Rowling (1994) and Boschma, Yonge and Mychajilunow (2003) recommend the return of interview transcripts to participants for confirmation as one technique which is aimed at protecting participants' interests. This recommendation seemed appropriate for this project as not only does it protect the interviewee but also the interviewer. Thus after each taped interview, and before the following interview, the transcription of the preceding interview was handed back to the participant. As can be seen from questions one and two, in the follow-up interviews, the interviewee was invited to comment, change or add anything to the transcript. On only one occasion did a participant request a change and that pertained to the incorrect use of a surname mentioned in the life history interview.

Once the interview data was collected and transcripts made, the text was then reformatted on a line-by-line basis. This made the data more manageable for the analysis stage. As was the case with the policy documents, both open coding (see Appendix D) and axial coding (see Appendix E). was used for the analysis of the interviews. Adopting the same means of analysis for both sets of data provided a consistent, logical and systematised approach. And again, mirroring the analysis of the policy data, with respect to the data collected from the interviews categories were identified, colour coded and grouped according to category (see Appendix D).

Dilemmas faced in the data collection phase

One of the major dilemmas faced by the researcher during this study occurred in the interview stage. Before conducting the interviews I had framed a tightly structured methodology which was neatly bounded. I had also analysed the policies and uncovered five major categories relevant to each of the documents. In looking forward to the life history interviews I was anxious to discover what the respondents thought of the five categories discovered in the policy analysis. During the first round of life history interviews I was taken aback to discover the emergence of an entirely new set of categories, only one of which related to those in the policy analysis.

Related to the above dilemma was a second that also occurred during the interview stage of the project. As a consequence of the lack of correspondence in the themes, during the interview process I had to constantly restrain myself from attempting to direct the interview so as the respondents had to talk about the themes identified in the policies. At the time I found the lack of congruence between what the policy writers saw as important and what the teacher educators saw as important as extremely disappointing. However, after analysing the life history interviews it became obvious that the dissonance in perspective regarding change in teacher education proved to be a major strength of the thesis.

Again another dilemma arose during the interview stage. Two of the interviewees, Nicola and Peter, constantly kept referring to changes in schools rather than take examples from developments in pre-service teacher education. Changes to pedagogy, curriculum and/or assessment were discussed from the perspective of a school. After the first interview I realised the need to emphasise at the beginning of the remaining two interviews that the thesis centred on pre-service teacher education. Although I did do this, I believe I was only partly successful.

Analysis of document data

The methodology employed to analyse the document data collected (both from the transcribed life history interview, policy documents and university handbooks) for this thesis relies on coding techniques associated with grounded theory. Two analytic procedures are basic to the coding process, “the first pertains to the *making of comparisons*, the other to the *asking of questions*” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 62). The first procedure is *open coding* which fractures the data and allows one to identify some categories, their properties, and dimensional locations. The second procedure, known as *axial coding* puts the data back together in new ways by making connections between a category and its subcategories.

As is illustrated in Table 4.2 there are four key stages in open coding. The first stage involves identifying *concepts*: “Data are broken down into discrete

incidents, ideas, events, and acts and are then given a name that represents or stands for these” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 105). The second stage involves identifying *categories*. Categories provide the means to classify the concepts: “This classification is discovered when concepts are compared one against another and appear to pertain to a similar phenomenon. Thus the concepts are grouped together under a higher order, more abstract concept called a category” (1998, p. 101). Once this has been achieved, the third stage within open coding is undertaken whereby the data are further broken down into *properties*. Properties are attributes of a category. In the final stage, properties are broken down into *dimensions*. Dimensions represent locations of a property along a continuum. It is important to recognise and systematically develop properties and dimensions because they form the basis for making relationships between categories and subcategories.

What follows is an example of how open coding was applied to the data relevant for this thesis. The following extract taken from one of the policy documents analysed for this project, *Teacher Quality: An Issues Paper*.

That in the context of award restructuring, the Commonwealth initiate discussions with employing authorities, teacher unions and higher education institutions concerning the most appropriate means of allocating payments for teaching practice supervision with a view to improving the effectiveness of such practice while recognising the contribution of supervising teachers. (Schools Council, 1989, p. 24)

The extract below was analysed according to procedures representative of *open coding*, thus the concepts, categories, properties and dimensions were identified. An example of open coding undertaken as part of this study is shown in Table 4.2.

Given that information pertaining to similar categories was scattered throughout the policy documents, once analysis of the whole document was completed, the data were colour coded according to the respective categories. For example, everything pertaining to ‘professional experience’ was colour coded red. Once this was completed all the red sections were grouped together. This made the

causal conditions which represent sets of events or happenings that influence phenomena. The second subcategory is *intervening conditions*. These mitigate or otherwise alter the impact of causal conditions on phenomena and often arise out of unexpected events. The third subcategory is known as *contextual conditions*. These have their source in causal and intervening conditions and provide the explanation for why a specific set of conditions arises at a particular time and place to create a set of problems or circumstances to which persons respond through actions/interactions. With respect to conditions, Strauss and Corbin strongly make the point that

The important issue is not so much one of identifying and listing which conditions are causal, intervening, or contextual. Rather, what the analyst should focus on is the complex interweaving of events (conditions) leading up to a problem an issue, or a happening to which persons are responding through some form of action/interaction, with some sort of consequences. (1998, p. 132)

The second component, *actions/interactions*, “are strategic or routine responses made by individuals or groups to issues, problems, happening, or events that arise under those conditions” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 128). This component both “denotes what goes on among individuals, groups, organizations, and the like ... [and] also includes matters such as discussions ... that occur in group situations” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 128). This component is represented by the questions whom and how. Two subcategories combine to make up this component. They are *strategic actions/interactions* which are purposeful or deliberate acts taken to resolve a problem. *Routine actions/interactions*, the second subcategory are more habitual ways of responding to occurrences in everyday life such as having an established protocol to follow. In organisations these would take the form of rules, regulations, policies and procedures.

The third component of axial coding, *consequences*, are the result of actions/interactions. Consequences provide answers to the question: “What happens as a result of those actions/interactions or the failure of persons or groups to respond to situations by actions/interactions, which constitutes an important finding in and of itself?” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 128). Consequences can be

intended or unintended. They can be singular or many. Moreover, they may be immediate or cumulative, reversible or not, foreseen or unforeseen. Finally, their impact may be narrow or widespread.

Table 4.3 gives an example of how the procedures relevant to *axial coding* have been applied to the same piece of text discussed in the example for *open coding* (see Table 4.2). Conditions were either causal, intervening, or contextual. These led to action interactions being either strategic or routine.

Table 4.3

An Example of Axial Coding

Conditions	Action/interactions	Consequences
Causal Developing a new means of payment for supervising teachers	Strategic action/interactions Supervision of pre-service student teachers be part of a new award restructuring whereby supervisors	Supervision would be less expensive for the Commonwealth Government and the Higher Education Institutions as new award
Intervening Payment to schools rather than individuals and this would provide finances for teacher development.	would not receive payment from the Higher Education Institutions but from the employers.	would result in the employers (State and Government) meeting the necessary expense. Less administration work for Higher Education
Contextual Fiscal constraints because of the economy	Routine actions/interactions Unions and employing authorities would have to agree before any award can be restructured.	Institutions. As a result of the new award restructuring process, supervision of pre-service teachers would be more effective.

As was the case with open coding, once the axial coding was completed, categories were then colour coded and reorganised according to the categories. Appendix E serves as an illustration of axial coding.

Other methodological issues

Reliability, validity and generalisability.

All research is subject to scrutiny and issues of reliability, validity and generalisability and must be given careful consideration. According to Yin (1984) case studies (or in the case of this thesis, life history studies) have been criticised for their “lack of rigour” resulting from the investigator [being] sloppy and

[having] allowed equivocal evidence or biased views to influence the direction of the findings and conclusion” (p. 21).

Reliability

Gibbs (2007) relates this concept to the researcher’s consistency across the project. In order to achieve this, Yin (2003) suggests the researcher documents as many of the procedural steps as possible. Within this thesis the following trustworthiness measures were adopted.

The first concerns the on-going data analysis which was conducted concurrently with the data collection. Throughout the researcher was constantly self-monitoring and re-evaluating the progress of the study. Second, upon completion of each of the nine interviews a typed transcript was produced. Each one was checked for transcription accuracy by both researcher and interviewee. The researcher also checked for accuracy in the definition of codes and as themes emerged from the data, checked titles for consistency. Third, as this research was an individual project a critical friend was invited to cross-check codes for consistency.

Within this project documentary data has been collected in conjunction with the interviews. In order to maintain consistency throughout the analysis and interpretation of the data, where appropriate the same reliability measures noted above were used.

Validity

Cresswell and Miller (2000) believe validity is a strength of qualitative research “and it is based on whether the findings are accurate from the standpoint of the researcher, the participant, or the readers of an account” (p. 27). Goetz and LeCompte (1984) suggest four elements of ethnographic research that demonstrates high internal validity. The first is that the research regularly involves continual data analysis that strengthens the link between constructs, findings or themes and participants themselves. The second is that interviews are closely aligned with the experiences of the participants and are less abstract or arbitrary than tools used in other research designs. The third element refers to data

collection carried out in naturalistic settings (p. 221). Finally, the ethnographic researcher is continually self-monitoring and re-evaluating the research. Each of these elements has been significant in testing validity for this study.

Specific procedural strategies were employed for this thesis to check the accuracy of the findings. The first was *member checking whereby* the researcher gave each participant a copy of the transcript themes and relevant data to those themes that originated in the interview. This was done after each transcript had been analysed using techniques of “open” and “axial” coding.

The second procedure dealt with *discrepant information*. This procedure required the researcher to draw the interviewee’s attention to discrepancies in the transcript. Thus at the beginning of interview two and three clarification was sought by the researcher when necessary.

The third procedure involved *spending prolonged time* in the field. Spending time with the interviewees in their work-place and discussing their opinions regarding teaching conditions, the current issues associated with their discipline, and changes taking place in the university and in the faculty allowed the researcher to gain deeper insights into her participants. According to Creswell, (2009) “the more experience that a researcher has with participants in their actual setting, the more accurate or valid will be the findings” p. 192).

The final procedure used for validity was for the researcher to engage in rich, thick descriptions of the themes and then show them to the interviewees. Each time this occurred in the project the interviewees became more focussed on the project and their interest heightened. Creswell (2009) commenting on this procedure writes “this procedure can add to the validity of the findings.

Given this project involves two data sources, documents and interviews, triangulation will be used when examining evidence from two sources to build a coherent justification for themes. Creswell (2009) writes, “if themes are established based on converging several sources of data . . . then this process adds validity to the study” (p. 190).

Generalisability

According to Creswell (2009), “qualitative generalization” refers to “the external validity of applying results to new setting, people or samples” (p. 190). He warns that the term is limited in use for qualitative studies given the intent of the study is not to “generalize finding to individuals, sites, or places outside of those under study” (p. 193). Nonetheless, Creswell contends “the value of qualitative research lies in the particular description and themes developed in context of a specific cite. *Particularity* rather than *generalizability* is the hallmark of qualitative research” (p. 193). He concludes by arguing that in qualitative studies the generalisation happens when others attempt to replicate the study.

Yin (2003) contends qualitative case study (life histories) results can be generalised to a broader theory. In this study the life history and document studies are linked to the broader theory of postmodernity.

Ethics

Research involves collecting data from people about people (Punch, 2005). As a result researchers are required to "protect their research participants; develop a trust with them; promote the integrity of research; guard against misconduct and impropriety that might reflect on their organizations or institutions; and cope with new, challenging problems” (Isreal & Hay). Before commencing the data collection each interviewee was required to sign an informed consent form before engaging in the research. Throughout the interview process data collected as a result of the nine interviews was safely stored in a secure place.

The researcher is well aware of the ethical guidelines associated with the university and all appropriate ethical procedures were undertaken. No interview data was collected before the ethical clearance was obtained (see letter of authorisation, Appendix A). Moreover, no complaint regarding the interview process was made by any of the participants.

Conclusion

This chapter began with an exploration of the major item of dissonance in perspectives on methodology: qualitative versus quantitative. The researcher considered the best means of finding answers to the three questions driving this thesis was to engage in a qualitative study. The tensions in the literature regarding how to undertake policy analysis were then briefly examined. This was followed by a discussion on the qualitative paradigm selected for this project. The epistemology chosen is that of *constructionism*. The theoretical perspective is *critical inquiry* whilst the methodology is that of *ethnography*. Document analysis and life histories are the *methods* to be employed for this study.

Following on from the above, a discussion on the justification for using life histories and the advantages of combining them with other methodologies was discussed. The literature on life history and theoretical perspectives was briefly analysed and the existing dissonance in academic circles regarding life history research was examined. The next section of this chapter introduced the three life history participants. The questions asked of the interviewees were noted as were dilemmas faced by the research during the interview stage of the study. After this issues concerning the analysis of using the techniques of “open coding” and “axial coding” were outlined. Finally issues of verification and ethics were discussed. The following chapter examines the second data source, the documents.

CHAPTER FIVE

Through the Lens of the Documents

Introduction

In this chapter the intention of the researcher is to analyse government policies related to pre-service teacher education. Two objectives underpin this task. The first is to seek answers to the pre-service question driving the thesis; *what changes to teacher education were recommended?* An investigation of the recommendations made in the various policies published from 1980 to 2007 provides some answers to this question. These same policy documents also provide insights into the second question related to this thesis which is also a focus of this chapter; *what recommendations were implemented?* Answering this second question necessitates a thorough interrogation of the documents to uncover evidence which confirms which particular recommendations were implemented. However, in striving to be both methodical and comprehensive in ascertaining evidence to substantiate that particular recommendations were implemented a second source of evidence will be examined. This second source is the *Handbooks* of Australian Federal University. Investigating *Handbooks* allows the researcher to explore more comprehensively the extent to which one institution changed its pre-service teacher education courses in light of the recommendations made in the policy documents.

Whilst the strategy outlined above appears to be a relatively straight forward process, upon beginning the investigation of the policy documents, the researcher soon discovered this was not to be the case. From 1979 to 2007, the number of reports dealing with teaching and teacher education produced by both the Australian States and territories, plus the Commonwealth Government, totalled 102 (see appendix C). Each of these 102 reports emanated from a government inquiry and was concerned with examining one or several aspects of Australian education, not necessarily, pre-service teacher education. Thus analysing all of the

policies would not only have been an arduous task, and well outside the scope of what is allowed for a PhD thesis, as it turned out after a cursory examination many of the inquiries covered similar ground and hence often similar recommendations were made. As a consequence the decision was made to choose only policies commissioned and published by the Commonwealth Government.

The decision to select Commonwealth documents in preference to State and Territory documents was based on two key reasons. First, the inquiries undertaken at state level were more parochial and therefore not representative of teacher education developments across the country. Two examples indicative of this parochialism are the 1980 Western Australia Committee of Inquiry into Teacher Education, *Teacher Education in Western Australia*, produced by the Education Department of Western Australia, and secondly the document published in 2004 by the Australian Capital Territory Legislative Assembly, Standing Committee on Education, *Teaching in the ACT: Shaping the Future*. The second reason was that many of the State and Territory government inquiries dealt with a specific area of teacher education rather than capturing a broad perspective. Two examples of policies which illustrate this characteristic include the 1997 publication compiled by the NSW Ministerial Advisory Council on the Quality of Teaching, *Computer Proficiency of Teachers*, and the 1987 document written by the Queensland Board of Teacher Education, *Teacher Education and the Arts in Queensland Primary Schools*.

Having decided to analyse only those documents produced by the Commonwealth Government meant the list of possible documents for analysis was culled from 102 to 54. But given the large number of remaining documents, once again analysing all of them would not have been a productive or realistic task given the limitations relevant to the size of a thesis. Consequently, a second culling process was required. Of the remaining 54 Commonwealth documents a number of them dealt only with teaching and schooling and were not specifically related to pre-service teacher education. Consequently, documents such as *Professional Development and the Improvement of Schooling: Roles and Responsibilities, a Report to the Commonwealth Government Schools Commission*, written in 1985 by Coulter and Ingvarson were deleted from the list. Other documents removed

from consideration for selection included those that were too limited in scope, for example, the *Policy Statement on Teacher Education for Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders*, produced in 1986 by the National Aboriginal Education Committee. Also not considered, because of their temporary nature, were interim reports such as the 1985 *Commonwealth Review of Teacher Education: Interim Statement by the Minister for Education*, produced by the then Senator for Education, Susan Ryan. In addition, unpublished reports such as that written in 2004 by the Ministerial Council on Education, Employment Training and Youth Affairs, Teacher Quality and Educational Leadership Taskforce, *Pre-Service Teacher Education in Australia* were also not selected for analysis. Surprisingly, removing documents of this nature reduced the list of policies selected for analysis from 53 down to just three.

These three remaining reports were broad in scope and the range of issues discussed in each was extensive. They were:

- 1) *Report of the National Enquiry into Teacher Education* [Auchmuty Report]. This policy document was produced in 1980 by the National Inquiry into Teacher Education (Australia)
- 2) *Improving Teacher Education: Report of the Joint Review of Teacher Education*. This review was published in 1986 and undertaken by the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission and the Commonwealth Schools Commission.
- 3) *Top of the Class: Report on the inquiry into teacher education* [Hartsuyker Report]. This report was published in 2007 by the House of Representatives Standing Committee on Education and Vocational Training.

Whilst these three documents were analysed in-depth using the techniques of grounded theory (see chapter four), when appropriate the evidence gathered was supplemented by references to additional Commonwealth policies in the original list of 102 documents (see appendix C). This approach allowed the researcher to construct a broader, chronological timeline of the recommendations made, and the extent of implementation. Using these supplementary documents in this way

provided the researcher with access to additional factual evidence as well as a more insightful perspective. For example, as will be shown, one of the themes concerning pre-service teacher education in each of the core documents is that of recruitment. In the period 1990-1991, three reviews were written that dealt exclusively with the topic of recruitment, and in 2003 another review was published that dealt with the issues of attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers. Combining information contained in both the core and supplementary documents assisted the researcher to obtain a more perceptive, discerning and evidence-based view as to the recommendations made and their realisation.

Another supplementary source of policy data selected to answer the two questions which are the focus of this chapter was the unpublished document referred to above, *Pre-Service Teacher Education in Australia* produced in 2004 by the Ministerial Council on Education, Employment Training and Youth Affairs, Teacher Quality and Educational Leadership Taskforce. Whilst this review was funded by the Commonwealth Government and is one of the 54 documents from which the final three were selected, it was not selected as a core document due to it being published by the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) rather than the Commonwealth Government. But contained in this document is an extensive mapping of issues relevant to pre-service teacher education. Thus it provides a wealth of both quantitative and qualitative data beneficial in identifying what recommendations were made and what recommendations were implemented.

In addition to the above, and as mentioned in the opening paragraph of this chapter, a second source of data that was selected for analysis is the *Australian Federal University Handbooks*. By deciding to utilise this data source it was anticipated these *Handbooks* would provide further evidence for the question of what recommendations were implemented. The three university *Handbooks* specifically chosen for analysis were those published three years after each of the three core policy documents were published. This has been done to allow for the time lag between recommendations made in the policy documents and their implementation at the institutional level. Having said this however, it needs to be

acknowledged that not all recommendations are implemented in such a time frame. Consequently, changes recommended in the first policy published in 1980 that do not appear in the institutional handbook published in 1983, may be implemented several years later, a development likely to become evident in the analysis of subsequent policies and university *Handbooks* (this is noted at various points in the following analysis).

Analysing the policy documents

The structure to be adopted regarding presenting information from the analysis of the policies will take the following format throughout the remainder of this chapter. First the historical context of the core policy documents will be discussed. Second, the recommendations made within each core policy will be identified and categorised according to the five themes that emerged in the analysis of the texts. These were:

1. Control of teacher education
2. Recruitment
3. Length of courses
4. Professional experience
5. Structure and content

Identifying evidence regarding the recommendations that were implemented will follow. This will involve an examination of the Australian Federal Institute and Australian Federal University *Handbooks* published three years after the publication of each of the ‘core’ policies. Other evidence to be examined to identify implementation of the recommendations are the ‘supplementary’ policy documents published by the Commonwealth Government and the ACER mapping document authored by Coulter and Ingvarson (2004).

In summary, what follows is divided into three sections, one for each ‘core’ policy, and each section has the same structure. First, identification of the ‘core’ policy and a discussion of its historical context. Second, identification

of the recommendations made. Third, identification the evidence of implementation of the recommendations using institutional *Handbooks*, ‘supplementary’ policies and the ACER mapping document. In the summary of the chapter the researcher explores how the policies can be understood in a more meaningful and multi-layered manner by generating connections with the literature and theoretical sections of this thesis.

Policy 1- Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education

Background to the report

Before beginning the analysis it must be acknowledged that this first policy was produced when undergraduate primary teacher education courses in Australia took place in the Colleges of Advanced Education rather than in universities. A number of these organisations were called Institutes hence the pseudonym the ‘Institute of Federal Education’ is employed in this thesis when discussing the information contained in the *Handbooks* of the particular College (and later University) to be analysed.

The first core policy *Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education* was published in 1980 and was chaired by Professor James Auchmuty and is widely referred to as the Auchmuty Report. Taking a critical policy approach to the analysis of this policy it is important to ask the question, who was Auchmuty?

James Johnston Auchmuty (1909-1981), historian and vice-chancellor, was born on 29 November 1909 at Portadown, (Northern) Ireland He attended the Royal School, Armagh, and Trinity College, Dublin (BA, 1931; MA, 1934; Ph.D., 1935), from which he graduated with a first-class moderatorship in modern history and political science

Auchmuty pursued a career as a schoolmaster at Sandford Park School [in Dublin] (1934-46), while lecturing in education at Trinity College (1938-43) in World War II, he was recruited into the British Military Intelligence. After the war he took the position of associate professor of history at Farouk

I University at Alexandria, Egypt . . . until obliged to leave the country, his savings confiscated, on the overthrow of King Farouk in 1952.

Through contacts in British intelligence, Auchmuty was recommended for the post of senior lecturer in history at the New South Wales University of Technology, Sydney (later the University of New South Wales) and in 1954 he was appointed associate professor, to head the school of humanities and social sciences at Newcastle University College. Promoted to professor of history and deputy-warden of the University College the next year, he later became foundation vice-chancellor when the college gained autonomy as the University of Newcastle in 1965.

[Described as having a] portly build and with a large head, Auchmuty was a man of perpetually ebullient character whose bluff manner sometimes alienated others. Accusations of overweening ambition had some foundation, though his rise to a vice-chancellorship was due as much to the patronage of Baxter and to the vagaries of good fortune as to his qualities of character. Once installed, however, he showed himself a shrewd and capable leader who won the admiration of his fellow vice-chancellors.

In 1969 Auchmuty was appointed to head a national advisory committee on the teaching of Asian languages and cultures. The committee reported in 1970; eventually the governments of both (Sir) William McMahon and Gough Whitlam agreed to implement its recommendations, leading to an expansion in the teaching of Asian studies in Australia. After his retirement, Auchmuty headed a national committee on teacher education (1978-80): its recommendations were largely overtaken by government cost-cutting and the amalgamations of universities and teachers colleges. The punishing schedule required for the preparation of the report may have adversely affected his health. He died on 15 October 1981. (Kenneth R. Dutton, n. d.)

The terms of reference under which Auchmuty and his committee operated included the request to “report on present methods and procedures in teacher education and to make recommendations on any changes which might assist in

achieving improved teaching and learning in Australian schools and pre-schools, both government and non-government” (Auchmuty, 1980, p. X1). A second request made by the government was for the committee to “state its assumptions about the objectives of education in Australia for the next twenty-five years and the education, experience and competencies required of teachers at various career stages to fulfil the roles perceived for them” (1980, p. X1). As is common with national inquiries Auchmuty and his committee had to take account of the differences which exist in educational policies, organisations and practices in the States and Territories.

Control of teacher education

With respect to the recommendations made in the Auchmuty report a large number centred round this theme and were concentrated mostly in chapter seven. What follows is a summary of the major recommendations which are broad in nature ranging from funding, establishing centres for excellence and to staff selection within the colleges.

Auchmuty argued for the establishment of a National Advisory Body on teacher education by the Australian Education Council (AEC) (Recommendation 7.2, p. 155). The AEC is an intergovernmental council consisting of Commonwealth, State and Territory ministers for education. The purpose of this body would be to initiate, monitor and review developments in teacher education. As an extension of these comments a further recommendation was made to lessen the burden on staff and the institutions themselves of accreditation requirements for their courses. Thus the suggestion was made to apply the accreditation process to institutions rather than courses hence providing greater autonomy for the institutions (Recommendation 7.3, p. 158).

Developing and improving the teaching abilities of university and college staff was a further focus of the report resulting in the proposal that “units or centres concerned with the improvement of tertiary teaching should be established in Colleges of Advanced Education as well as in universities” (Recommendation 7.5, p. 167), particularly those “teacher education

institutions that have developed a high reputation and involvement in special areas” (Recommendation 7.7, p. 171). Extending these two recommendations dealing with the development of teacher educators, the committee went further by suggesting specialist “one year full time staff development programs should be implemented to prepare them for work with aboriginal teacher education students and in the areas of multicultural and special education” (Recommendation 7.8, p. 174). Further discussion around the issues of staff qualification led the committee to argue that it is not necessary for all staff to have prior teaching experience, particularly those working in the creative arts areas. However, the argument was put that all staff be given the opportunity to up-grade their qualifications through the use of study leave; that those in regional areas be given a loading to enable them to engage in staff development and finally the need for new initiatives in staff development to cater for “emerging priority areas of teacher education, for example, education for a multicultural society, school-community relationships, transition from school to work and exceptional children” (paragraph 7.102, p.173).

Another focus of the report was the advancement of research and development in teacher education. Indeed Auchmuty recommended an increase of \$200,000 in the “annual budget of the Education Research and Development Committee so as a co-ordinated program could be established” (Recommendation 9.1, p. 220). In the discussion around this issue the committee saw applied research as paramount as a function of the colleges and that staff should be encouraged “to follow their own professional interests in research into the practice of teaching and teacher education” (paragraph 7.20, p. 149).

How pre-service teacher education should be offered was a further focal point in the recommendations made by the committee. It was their belief that the current diversity of settings should be maintained “that is, universities, multi-purpose colleges of advanced education [working] in conjunction with schools” (Recommendation 7.23). Developing this recommendation two more suggestions were made. The first was that new models of teacher

education “particularly arrangements that integrate the education of teachers for all levels of schooling while maintaining appropriate specialisation” (Recommendation 7.24). The second recommendation called for “more collaboration between institutions and sectors in the provision of teacher education programs and increased mutual recognition of awards and units” (Recommendation 7.34).

Collaboration became the focus of a number of recommendations made in the report (see paragraphs 7.36, 7.38 and 7.39, pp. 153-155). Auchmuty encouraged collaboration between teacher education institutions. He suggested staff exchanges and collaboration in research, consultancies, in curriculum development and the sharing of physical facilities. Moreover, he advocated greater collaboration with outside agencies including state and national aboriginal groups, voluntary organisations and institutes such as the Australian Institute of Multi-cultural Affairs and the Australian Ethnic Affairs Council.

Recruitment

Under this theme issues relating to standards of entry, selection of applicants, supply and demand, recruitment of teachers and teacher aides from targeted priority groups, and a greater mix of people in teacher education intakes were to be addressed.

With regard to standards of entry Auchmuty recommended that high standards should be maintained and that all entrants be “in the top quartile academically for this age group” (Recommendation 8.1, p. 183). He and his committee further argued that this standard should not be compromised to maintain intake numbers. Moreover, the Committee believed that where there was an excess of applicants meeting the criteria “further selection could take into account school report, references provided by the applicant and interviews or other testing arranged by the institution” (Recommendation 8.1, p. 183)

Selection of applicants was another priority in which the committee argued for more attention to be paid to allowing minority groups to enter teacher education

programs. First they maintained that “concerted efforts should be made . . . to identify suitable aboriginal and ethnic teacher aides and instructors in ethnic community schools to be assisted to qualify fully as teachers” (Recommendation 8.2, p.195). Second they argued for an investigation by the Commonwealth Government of the need to assist “immigrants and refugees with overseas teaching qualifications to attain the English language skills and conversion training necessary to fit them for permanent appointment as teachers in Australian school systems” (Recommendation 8.4).

Although no formal recommendations were made on the following issues, further elements to selection discussed in the report concerned the emphasis on special consideration for mature age students who should be allowed to enter teacher education under selection criteria determined by each institution (p. 185). In addition it was suggested that a

mix of students with respect to the attributes of age, sex and ethnic background should be attained through individual recruitments [and an] effort should be made to encourage the entry of people from a wider range of ethnic and social backgrounds. (p. 194)

Finally, discussed in the report was the issue that encouragement should “be given to men to consider teaching . . . as a suitable career” (p. 195).

Under the heading of recruitment emphasis was given in the report to assisting various groups to complete their teacher education. It was recommended that a special student assistance scheme be established to provide financial help, equal to the minimum wage, for mature age aboriginals and mature age non-English speaking background students to complete a teacher education course.

Finally, manpower planning was also part of this theme. Auchmuty recommended that teacher education plan for a ten percent oversupply of pre-service teachers (Recommendation 8.8).

Length of course.

This third theme involved the key recommendation that all pre-service teacher education courses be set at four years of training and that this target “be achieved during the 1980s by arrangement between States and tertiary institutions and the Commonwealth” (Recommendation 6.8, p. 139). In achieving this aim Auchmuty supported the existing variety of arrangements for teachers to gain four-year trained graduate status. For students entering teacher education courses this meant a 3+e+1 type course whereby teachers undertook a three year course to gain a diploma then after teaching full time, they could return to study to complete an additional ‘end on’ course of one year full time or its part-time equivalent.

Professional experience

In nearly all teacher education policies published in Australia, professional experience features highly. In the Auchmuty report recommendations included the need for the practical experience to be “planned as part of an ordered and sequential teaching practice program culminating in the student experiencing the full range of duties and tasks allotted to beginning teachers” (Recommendation 6.4). Other recommendations concerned the need for careful selection of supervisors and the need for them to be trained for the supervision process by the institution and the school (Recommendation 6.5). In addition the committee endorsed the concept of supervising teachers being given appropriate time release in order for them to carry out their additional duties. The committee recommended that “this time allowance should replace additional remuneration and school staffing should be adjusted accordingly” (Recommendation 6.6).

Structure and content

With respect to this theme it was recommended that all pre-service teachers study a core of units which consists of:

- Subject disciplines and other dimensions of knowledge, understanding and experience;

- The organisation of learning: Curriculum Design and Teaching Methodology;
- Human Growth and Development;
- Theory of Education: Interdisciplinary, integrated and related to the practice of teaching and learning;
- Studies in contemporary culture: Australian Society in its national and international settings, social trends, economics, politics, ideologies and values;
- Methods of Inquiry and Research; and
- Practical Experience: In classrooms and other community and work environments (Recommendation 6, pp. 113-114).

Evidence of implementation - Handbook 1, 1983

Produced in 1983, three years after the *Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education* was published, the Institute of Federal Education Handbook provides no evidence regarding the theme concerning control of teacher education. However on the themes of: recruitment, length of courses, professional experience and structure and content, the 1983 Handbook proves most informative.

Recruitment

According to the Handbook of the Federal Institute of Education four categories of entry are listed. These are:

- 1) Normal Entry required applicants to “successfully complete the requirements of the (State) Higher School Certificate examination (final year of secondary school external examined certificate) or its equivalent . . . including a grading at least at pass level in English, or be considered by the Academic Board of the Institute . . . to possess an equivalent academic background” (1983, p. 22).
- 2) Mature age entry required applicants to be “at least 23 years of age at the commencement of the course, and must have successfully

completed at least five years of secondary education, or its equivalent” (i.e. one year less than the normal six years) (1983, p. 22).

- 3) Special entry may be available, “on an extremely limited basis, to applicants who lack the required formal qualifications but who have a clear motivation and capacity for tertiary studies” (1983, p. 22).
- 4) Admission with credit for previous studies means “a person may be admitted to the course with advanced standing under suitable conditions” (1983, p. 22).

Auchmuty advocated for high academic standards of entry for those entering pre-service teacher education and that standards should not be compromised to maintain intake numbers. Furthermore he advocated that interviews, school reports, institutional testing and references should be used in the selection process. At the same time he acknowledged that “Institutions are under severe time pressures in distributing offers and, ultimately, places to applicants. In selecting from among school leaver applicants, very few of the large institutions interpose their own additional measures” (1980, p. 177).

Being a smaller college the Australian Federal Institute of Education was able to conduct a variety of measures regarding entry into their courses. Not only did they consider academic entry scores but they conducted interviews and took account of referee’s reports. Hence they were already implementing Recommendation 8.1 of the Auchmuty Report (personal correspondence, 2011).

Recommendation 8.34 advocated for individual institutions to give special consideration for mature age students to enter teacher education under selection criteria determined by each institution. As evidenced by the second category of selection in the Handbook of the Federal Institute of Education was already providing special consideration for this group.

Auchmuty also recommended a “mix of students with respect to the attributes of age, sex and ethnic background should be attained through individual recruitments [and an] effort should be made to encourage the entry of people from a wider range of ethnic and social backgrounds” (Recommendation 8.68). The third

category of entrance outlined under special entry in the Handbook of the Federal Institute of Education provides some evidence that the Institute did aim for a mix of students, however, it needs to be conceded that the mix would have been limited due to the inclusion of the phrase “on an extremely limited basis” (1983, p. 22).

Length of course

With regard to this theme it was recommended in the Auchmuty Report that all pre-service teacher education courses be extended to four years of training and this target be achieved in the 1980 (Recommendation 6.8).

In 1983 the Australian Federal Institute offered the Bachelor of Education (Primary). The course comprised four years of full-time study, which students normally completed in two phases.

Satisfactory completion of the first three years of the course leads to the award of the Diploma of Teaching (Primary) The fourth year of the course may be commenced after the completion of at least one year of teaching and may be taken part-time. Successful completion of the fourth year program leads to the award of the degree of Bachelor of Education (Primary). (Handbook, 1983, p. 17)

Thus the Australian Federal Institute of Teaching offered the four year program for pre-service teachers on a 3 + e + 1 basis. However, as will be evidenced later in the analysis of the following core document, during the period covering the early 1980s the Institute’s offerings were in a transition stage and undergraduate four year pre-service degree course would become compulsory by the end of the 1980s.

Professional experience

Three recommendations guided Auchmuty’s views on professional experience. They were the need for planned, ordered and sequential teaching practice experience for students, time release for carefully selected and trained supervisors, the need for students to experience different school settings, and the experience to

be one of practices for students. An examination of the Institute's 1983 Handbook provides the evidence to confirm the practicum was indeed planned in an orderly and sequential program.

Identified in the Handbook were the themes for each year level. The first year was "Familiarisation and Interaction". In their first year students began with single day/block time observations, then demonstration lessons leading up to structured and supervised teaching of small groups of children. The second theme was "Organisation and Skill Development (1)" in which pre-service teachers experience block practice in schools; a counselled choice of block practice from the following list: city schools, open classroom situation, country schools, remedial teaching, vertical group and migrant situations. This led into block practice in schools and an extension of time when students took responsibility for a class. The theme for third year pre-service teachers was "Organisation and Skill Development (2)". During this year students experienced a period of one week at the beginning of the school year, a block practice and/or one day a week on a continuous basis, a block practice in a situation similar to that of the student's first appointment and an increasing amount of time spent on teaching leading to days of total class responsibility. Professional experience for these pre-service teachers totalled 130 days, fifteen of which were undertaken in the college (adapted from Australian Federal Institute of Teaching Handbook, 1983, pp. 67-69).

Although the 1983 Handbook says nothing in regard to the selection of supervising teachers and providing training for them, it does provide the evidence that the practicum experience was indeed well planned and that it offered students experiences in different school settings and block practices for students.

Structure and content

All students were required to undertake the compulsory core units (See Table 5.1). This included a minimum of 22 semester hours in Foundation Studies and 58 semester hours in Curriculum Studies. In addition students could select a General Studies Major of 18 semester hours and 18 semester hours of Curriculum Area Studies. What was then called "Counselled Options" made up the balance of the course which totalled 124 semester hours with 104 hours in the first three years.

Also required was 130 days of School Experience in the first three years of the program plus ten days of classroom-based implementation and evaluation in the fourth year (adapted from Australian Federal Institute of Teaching Handbook, 1983, pp. 22-23).

As is evidenced in Table 5.1, the course structure met Auchmuty's call for the teaching of subject disciplines, the organisation of learning, human growth and development and the practicum experience. Hence five of the recommendations listed for course structure were achieved. With respect to the recommendation for studies in contemporary culture this was addressed in a partial manner with the introduction of the unit 'Education in the Multi-Cultural Society'. Whilst it could be argued this unit provided studies in contemporary culture and Australian society, it is questionable as to the extent one unit could fully address Australian contemporary culture in international settings, social trends, economics, politics, ideologies and values. Regarding recommendations to teach 'Methods of Inquiry and Research' this was not taught in the first three years of the pre-service course; however, research content was included for those who undertook the fourth year of study.

Table 5.1

Bachelor of Education Unit Offerings, 1983

Education Studies	Curriculum Studies	General Studies Majors
<i>Philosophy/</i> <i>Philosophy of Education</i> IPH 100 Human Values IPH 200 Human Values and Education	<i>General Curriculum Theory and Practice</i> ICR 100 Introduction to Teaching ICR 200 Teaching and Curriculum ICR 300 Determinants of the Curriculum ICR 400 Curriculum Design ICR 401 Curriculum Evaluation	Religion Studies Expressive Arts Man and Society Community Language
<i>Psychology/</i> <i>Psychology of Education</i> IEP 100 Educational Psychology - Development IEP 101 Educational Psychology - Learning	<i>Creative Arts</i> IAR 100 Art 1 IAR 200 Art 2 IDR 100 Drama, Play and the Child IDR 200 Drama and Education IMU100 Basic Music Studies IMU 200 Music Education 1	Curriculum Area Studies English Education Music Education Religious Education
<i>Religious Studies</i> IRL 100 Man and Religion	<i>Language Studies</i> ILE 101 Introduction to Language ILE 200 Oracy and Literacy in the Primary School 1 ILE 201 Oracy and Literacy in the Primary School 11 ILE 101 Children's Literature 1	Education in the Multi-Cultural Society
<i>Sociology/</i> <i>Sociology in Education</i> ISO 100 Sociology and Education ISO 200 Sociology of the School	<i>Mathematics</i> IME 100 Mathematics Education 1 IME 200 Mathematics Education 2 IME 300 Mathematics Education 3	
<i>History of Education</i> IHE 200 History of Education		

Table 5.1 (continues)

Bachelor of Education Unit Offerings, 1983

Education Studies	Curriculum Studies	General Studies Majors
	<p><i>H.P.E.R.</i> IPE 100 Physical Education and Health Education 1 IPE 200 Physical Education and Health Education 2</p>	
	<p><i>Religious Education</i> IRE 100 Religious Education 1 IRE 100 Religious Education 2 IRE 100 Religious Education 3</p>	
	<p><i>Science</i> ISE 200 Science Education 1 ISE 300 Science Education 2</p>	
	<p><i>Social Studies</i> ISS 200 Social Studies – curriculum Studies 1 ISS 300 Social Studies – curriculum Studies 2</p>	

Source: Australian Federal University Handbook (1983, pp. 22-25)

Policy 2 - Improving Teacher Education: Report of the Joint Review of Teacher Education

Background to report

This report was a cooperative exercise conducted by two organisations funded by the federal government. These were the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission (CTEC) and the Commonwealth Schools Commission (CSC). The former organisation was established in 1974 when the Commonwealth Government assumed full responsibility for funding higher education (universities and Colleges of Advanced Education). The CTEC had an advisory role and responsibility for allocating government funding among universities and CAEs. The CSC was formed in 1973. Its responsibilities focussed on the needs of primary and secondary schools including: buildings, staffing, resourcing, and grants to the States and Territories in respect of schools and school systems. In 1983 the Commonwealth Schools Commission Act was amended and its list of functions was extended to provide: increased and equal opportunities for education in government and non-government schools, to protect the rights of parents to choose the type of school to which they wish to send their children, to cater for the needs of disadvantaged schools and students, to encourage diversity and innovation in education, to stimulate and encourage public and private interest in education, to provide special educational opportunities for the gifted, and the promotion of the economic use of resources.

In 1984 the Government of the day requested the CTEC and CSC

to undertake a joint review of the direction, effectiveness and coordination of Commonwealth policies on the allocation of resources for improved teacher education at both pre-service and in-service levels. The Review was to be carried out in consultation with government and non-government education authorities in the States and Territories, teacher and parent organisation and tertiary institutions. The two Commissions were to have regard to the substantial resources

provided by the Commonwealth through their respective programs and to the achievement of special national objectives in education, particularly for increased participation in education with its implication for new directions in curriculum and teaching. (Hudson, 1986, p. 1)

At this time, the chairman of the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission was Hugh Hudson. Hudson was from South Australia and in 1966 was appointed to the position of Minister of Education in that state. He introduced

a policy of comprehensive schooling and he pursued it with determination and vigour . . . His blue print for education was the Karmel Report of 1970 [a seminal policy which he wrote, together with Peter Karmel and Jean Blackburn]. The three of them had worked together in the economics faculty of the University of Adelaide and were a like-minded trio with very strong views.
(1986, p. 2)

Heading up the Commonwealth Schools Commission was a well known Australian educationalist Garth Boomer. In 1987 he wrote a book titled *'Changing education' reflections on national issues in education in Australia* which was published by the Commonwealth Schools Commission and in the same year he was responsible for the publication of the *The national policy for the education of girls in Australian schools* which was also published by the Commonwealth Schools Commission. After Boomer's death, Jon Cook penned a tribute to Boomer to his colleague in the Australian Association for the Teaching of English Journal in which he claimed,

[Boomer's] influence remains present and powerful – and impacts on virtually all our classrooms, so deeply did he influence the shaping of curriculum and pedagogy in Australia . . . Pedagogy was Garth's driving focus. His writing captures a seminal revelation of action and reflection for teachers of yesterday, today and tomorrow. (1987, p. 1)

In 1986 Hudson and Boomer, on behalf of the CTEC and the CSC, produced for the then Commonwealth Minister of Education, their completed report *Improving Teacher Education: Report of the Joint Review of Teacher Education*. In the document the authors outlined strategies for the improvement of teacher education and made a number of recommendations. These concerned,

- the coordination of teacher education
- the importance of the continuing professional development of teachers
- in-service and post-experience programs in higher education institutions
- commonwealth, state and national objectives in education and specific priority areas. (1986, p. 111)

What follows is a summary of the recommendations made in the policy that are relevant to pre-service teacher education, grouped under five themes: 1) *control of teacher education*, 2) *recruitment*, 3) *length of courses*, 4) *professional experience* and 5) *Structure and content*.

Control of teacher education

The principle underpinning the recommendations made within this theme revolves around the need for more co-operation between the Commonwealth, States and Territories (Recommendations 4a and 4b). Within education in Australia, particularly in respect to teacher education, the authors maintained that the nature of Federalism had resulted in a complex separation of roles and responsibilities between the Commonwealth and the State governments. In attempting to address this issue Hudson and Boomer recommended a review of each discipline by select committees to investigate whether “available resources are being used to their best effect rather than whether the resources in question are considered sufficient to meet the emerging priorities and needs” (1986, pp. 42-43). Hence the authors recommended the CTEC “arrange for a review of the provision of pre-service teacher education in higher education institutions to be undertaken as part of its planned program of major discipline assessments” (1986, p. 43).

Continuing the theme of co-operation the authors argued “that a coordinated approach is essential if the complex interrelationships and wide variations in practices, policies and priorities involved in teacher education are to be dealt with adequately” (1986, p. 41). Hence Recommendation 7 read,

That to assist the two Commonwealth Education Commissions in relation to their respective responsibilities for the preparation and professional development of teachers, and with a view to fostering closer cooperation and greater coordination of the national effort in this view to fostering closer cooperation and greater coordination of the national effort in this area the Australian Education Council be asked to consider ways of achieving improved consultative arrangements for each State and Territory, involving training institutions, school systems, relevant teacher organisations and other parties concerned with teacher education. (1986, p. 63)

Recruitment

In respect to this theme the authors made no recommendations.

Length of course

As was the case with the Auchmuty report Hudson and Boomer, in Recommendation 5a, argued “there be no departure from the 3 + e + 1 model for the preparation of primary . . . teachers” (1986, p. 45). However, the authors were supportive of teachers undertaking a fourth year of study as was stated in Recommendation 5b. “In the interests of both leadership training and professional development, there should be an examination of various options for enabling the equivalent of a fourth year of study to be undertaken by those who wish to pursue it” (1986, p. 45).

Professional experience

No direct recommendations were made in relation to professional experience. However, the authors included a section which they called ‘Matters for further consideration’. With regard to the practicum Boomer and Hudson suggested, “an

examination should be taken of the roles and responsibilities of training institutions, the teaching profession, employers and schools in relation to the practical teaching components of pre-service teacher education courses, with a view to seeking improved arrangements” (p. 63). Thus they saw a need for better co-ordination between the respective stakeholders as a means of enhancing the existing situation. Hence the authors of the report expressed similar views as to that which Auchmuty had identified under the same theme.

Structure and content

Another area of similarity between the recommendations made in the *National Inquiry into Teacher Education* and that of *Improving Teacher Education* were the authors commitment to the education of Australia’s indigenous peoples. In the latter report Hudson and Boomer recommended that “The Commonwealth Government endorse the development and provision of programs for the preparation of Aboriginal teachers to teach in traditionally oriented Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities; that these programs be concentrated in the four main target areas of Western Australia, Northern Queensland, Central Australia and the Northern Territory” (recommendation 3, p. 62). In part B of this recommendation the authors argued that for part A to be successful consideration would need to be given to regular funding arrangements, special funding allocations for the program to begin in 1987, the articulation of Aboriginal programs with other teacher education programs and that funding be channelled through the CTEC (p. 62).

As with the above theme, the authors again used the section ‘Matters for further consideration’ rather than make separate recommendations. Two matters relevant to the structure and content of teacher education courses included;

- a) the need for higher education institutions to alter their pre-service programs in order to enhance the competence of their graduates during their first years of teaching. Particular reference was made to graduate teachers so they would be able to meet the needs of students at different level of achievement as well as those with special needs; and b) the

introduction of programs that prepare graduates to work at both upper primary and lower secondary levels (p. 63).

Evidence of implementation - Handbook 2 – 1989

Control of teacher education

Produced in 1989, three years after the Report *Improving Teacher Education* was published, the Institute of Federal Education Handbook provides no evidence regarding implementation of the recommendations in respect to the theme control of teacher education. Compared to the Auchmuty report, the recommendations made by Boomer and Hudson are limited; nonetheless what they did recommend supports much of what Auchmuty advocated; namely, a more co-ordinated approach between the Commonwealth and the states to improved teacher education.

Recruitment

Although in the text *Improving Teacher Education* no recommendations were made concerning this theme, the Handbook of the Institute of Federal Education indicates the adoption of a number of changes to admission requirements since the publication of the 1983 Handbook, thus providing evidence that the spirit of both the Auchmuty and Boomer and Hudson documents, had been embraced. For example, in the 1989 Handbook the respective categories of normal entry, mature age entry and special entry have been altered and are less rigid. In 1983 special entry was only awarded “on an extremely limited basis, to applicants who lack the required formal qualifications but who have a clear motivation and capacity for tertiary studies” (1983, p. 22). Six years later the regulation reads,

Special entry is intended to provide for a person who lacks the required formal qualifications needed for normal entry but who has a clear motivation and capacity for tertiary studies and for the vocation of primary

teaching. Each application is considered individually with particular attention in the selection process being given to:

- Evidence of Disadvantage
- Age at Application
- Academic Background and Motivation and
- Work Experience. (1989, Australian Federal University).

Influencing admission requirements in 1989 was the Participation and Equity Program which favoured giving special consideration for applicants whose education or formal academic results had been affected by lack of facilities at school or home, language or financial difficulties or other problems of a socio-economic nature during their secondary education.

Thus this change to entry requirements encompasses what Auchmuty advocated in 1980, namely a “mix of students with respect to the attributes of age, sex and ethnic background should be attained through individual recruitments . . . [and an] effort should be made to encourage the entry of people from a wider range of ethnic and social backgrounds” (p. 194). It also provides evidence that the Institutes of Teacher Education did support the Commonwealth’s “national objectives in education, especially in area relating to participation and equity” (Hudson & Boomer, 1986, p. 30).

Length of course

Both the report on the *National Inquiry into Teacher Education* and *Improving Teacher Education* supported the 3 + e + 1 four year teaching qualification which had been operating in the Colleges for a number of years.

Professional experience

In the first three years leading to the award of Diploma of Teaching (Primary), students were expected to take a total of 25 academic units and complete a practicum of 120 days supervised work in schools plus 15 days campus-based work or its equivalent. So although this structure was in-line with the recommendation, there is no evidence to suggest implementation of other recommendations made by either Auchmuty or Boomer and Hudson. Hence nothing had changed to improve arrangements with respect to roles and responsibilities of all stakeholders in the practical teaching components, that is training institutions, the teaching profession, employers and schools.

Structure and content of the course

Table 5.2 presents the pre-service teacher education program set out in the 1989 Handbook of the Institute of Federal Education.

Table 5.2

Bachelor of Education Unit Offerings, 1989

Education Background Studies	Education Teaching and Curriculum Studies	Elective Studies
Psychology for education	Principles and Practice of Teaching 1	Elective Study 1
Social Influence	Religious Education 1	Elective Study 2
Australian Education	Language Education 1	Elective Study 3
Religious Studies	Mathematics Education 1	Elective Study 4
Elective Background (Year 3)	Principles and Practice of Teaching 2	Elective Study 5
Elective Issues (Year 3)	Language Education 2	Elective Study 6
Elective Background (Year 4)	Art Education 1	<i>Elective studies sequence can be taken in the following areas:</i>
Elective Issues (Year 4)	Drama Education 1	Community Language and Culture
	Music Education 1	Australian Studies
	Physical Education 1	Physical Education
	Science Education 1	Mathematics
	Social Education 1	Visual arts
	Religious Education 2	Music Studies
	Language Education 3	Drama
	Mathematics Education 2	Practicum
	Elective Advanced Curriculum	<i>Year 1</i>
	Curriculum Specialisation 1 (Year 4)	5 days on campus
	Curriculum Specialisation 2 (Year 4)	30 days in schools
	Curriculum Specialisation 3 (Year 4)	<i>Year 2</i>
		5 days on campus
		40 days in schools
		<i>Year 3</i>
		5 days on campus
		50 days in schools

As Table 5.2 shows, a number of priority areas nominated by the Commonwealth Government being incorporated into the course program. These included: community languages, multicultural education, visual and performing arts, maths and science teaching, computer education, integration of handicapped children into regular schools, aboriginal education and community participation (Boomer & Hudson, 1986, pp. 30-32). Some could be taken as a sequence of elective studies, for example, community languages, mathematics, and visual arts and drama, whilst others as individual units such as education for a multi-cultural society, technology and education, and exceptionality and integration all of which dealt with educational issues and came under the strands of Education Background Studies and Education Teaching and Curriculum Studies. Interestingly, according to the Handbook these units allow students to be given “the opportunity to study significant issues facing education in contemporary society” (1989, p. 40). Thus this provides evidence that another of Auchmuty’s recommendations, that pre-service teachers should engage in studies in contemporary culture and Australian society (recommendation 6.1, p. 114) were implemented by the Australian Federal Institute.

Policy 3 - Top of the Class: Report on the inquiry into teacher education

Background to the report

Produced in 2007 by the House of Representatives Standing Committee on Education and Vocational Training this policy was published by the Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australian. The committee was chaired by Luke Hartsuyker who was born in 1959 in NSW. Hartsuyker entered parliament after having a career as an accountant and business owner and is a member of the National Party of Australia. Regarding the terms of reference for the inquiry it was in summary, “To inquire into and report on the scope, suitability, organisation, resourcing and delivery of teacher training courses in Australia’s public and private universities [and] to examine the preparedness of graduates to meet the current and future demands of teaching in Australia’s schools” (2007, p. xi). In total the committee made only twelve recommendations and not all of these related directly to pre-service teacher education.

In the executive summary in the beginning of the policy it was noted,

In the last twenty years, there have been many inquiries into teacher education or related issues. Although some of the recommendations have led to substantial changes in teacher education, and others have incrementally contributed to developments, there are still on-going concerns about the quality of teacher preparation. (2007, p. xxi)

The importance of this observation made by Hartsuyker is fundamental to this thesis as it runs contrary to the statement made by Gregor Ramsey which serves as the starting point for this project. Ramsey observed, “despite the large number of reviews, their impact has been minimal” (2000, p. 14). Yet Hartsuyker’s claim directly challenges this by saying at least some of the recommendations had resulted in substantial change while others have resulted in incremental developments.

What follows is the analysis of the recommendations made in this document according to the same five themes: control of teacher education, recruitment, length of course, professional experience and structure and content.

Control of teacher education

This theme featured prominently in the recommendations made in Top of the Class. One third of the recommendations in the report are situated within this category. The first suggestion made by the committee was “that the Australian Government commission a comprehensive longitudinal study into the effectiveness of different models of teacher education across Australia” (Recommendation 1). Examining various models of teacher education has been a consistent topic in most teacher education policies published since 1980 (see Ramsey, 1990, Laver, 1996, Crowley, 1998). The second suggestion made by the authors of the policy was “that the Australian Government establish a specific Educational Research Fund to be distributed on a similar model to the National Health and Medical Research Council” (Recommendation 2, p. xv). This was not the first time a proposal to establish an educational research fund had been

recommended. In 1998 Senator Crowley and her committee made the proposal for “the establishment of a national development fund for research in education” (Recommendation 14, p. 203). A decade before Crowley made her recommendation Graeme Speedy proposed, “That the Department of Employment Education and Training establish two national centers, one in mathematics education and one in science education” (1989, p. xxxi) to further research in these two areas. In 1996 Peter Laver recommended funds should be given by the commonwealth government to the National Languages and Literacy Institute to support research in language education.

The third recommendation from *Top of the Class* relevant to this theme is “that the Australian Government continue to support the work of Teaching Australia in developing a national system of accreditation” (Recommendation 3, p. xv). The idea of a national accreditation had its source in previous education policies. For example, nine years earlier in the document *A Class Act: Inquiry into the Status of the Teaching Profession* published in 1998, chairperson Senator Crowley advocated for national accreditation for teacher education to “Certify level of entry into the profession, criteria for re-registration and recognition of advanced standing in the profession [and] accredit programs of initial teacher training and establish the professional development framework for the maintenance of the professional expertise of teachers” (1998, p. 216).

The remaining two recommendations relevant to this theme address issues of funding. The first calls for universities to show increased transparency and accountability of their CGS funding and expenditure (Recommendation 10, p. xvii). The final recommendation suggests the Australian Government

- a) commission an evaluation of the impact on teacher education courses of fixing the student contribution rate at 2004 levels (indexed) to determine whether this measure, as part of its strategy of identifying education as a National Priority Area, has met its stated objective of responding “to current and emerging national needs, such as shortages in particular areas of the labour market, and the education of students from low income backgrounds and indigenous students;

- b) from 2008, increase the Commonwealth Contribution Amount for an Equivalent Full-Time Student Load in the Education cluster from \$7,251 to \$9,037, the same level as that applying to Foreign Languages, Visual and Performing Arts cluster; and

- c) review the mechanism for determining the level of funding that the Australian Government contributes towards student places in different disciplines and develop an alternative mechanism which more accurately reflects the real costs of delivering those places. (Recommendation 11, pp. xviii-xix)

Recruitment

Under this theme the Hartsuyker Committee made two recommendations. The first, under part A recommended

the Australian Government establish a Teacher Education Diversity fund of \$20 million per annum for universities to access . . . to develop and implement innovation programs in order to increase the number of applicants and entrants to teacher education from under-represented groups. (Recommendation 4a, p. xvi)

Hartsuyker also suggested that students entering this program undergo diagnostic testing, so their individual learning needs could be met. A further extension was the suggestion made under Part C of this recommendation which called for close monitoring to test the impact of the fund on the enrolment from under-represented groups in teacher education across Australia.

The fifth recommendation stemming from the inquiry required the Australian Government to consider aligning “the allocation of places across the teacher education system to meet the teacher shortages identified during the consultations on workforce priorities” (Recommendation 5, p. xvi).

A notable shift from concerns with *recruitment* to an emphasis on *induction* became evident in this policy. The Committee recommended “that the Teacher Induction Scheme administered by the General Teaching Council for Scotland in partnership with the Scottish Executive Education department be the model of induction that should be followed in Australia” (Recommendation 7, p. xvi-xvii). The significance of this recommendation is as an example of the global nature of educational change, in this case as policies and practices in other countries are mirrored and copied in Australia.

Following on from this recommendation attention was paid to extending registration requirements and in light of this, two suggestions were made by the Committee. The first was that the Australian government “encourage all registration authorities to require participation in on-going professional learning as a condition for renewal of registration [and] processes for recognising the value of on-going professional learning linked to higher levels of registration” (Recommendation 8, pp. xvii-xviii). Hence the concept of life-long learning for teachers became fully entrenched. Although recommendations seven and eight were aimed more at teachers than undergraduate student teachers, their impact was to affect pre-service courses.

Length of course

Within the report no recommendations were made with respect to the length of courses. Perhaps it could be concluded that the Committee was satisfied with the existing state of affairs, namely the compulsory four year Bachelor of Education (Primary). In their mapping study of pre-service teacher education courses in Australia, Ingvarson, Beavis, Kleinhenz and Elliott (1994) observed “Nearly all undergraduate pre-service teacher education courses . . . take four years to complete in Australia” (p. 8).

Professional experience

Under the theme of professional experience, Hartsuyker recommended the establishment of a National Teacher Education Partnership fund. The purpose of this fund would be to create “collaborative approaches to practicum, research, induction and professional development” (Recommendation 6, p. xvi). Costs of practicum are an ongoing problem in teacher education. The Committee recommended the following:

- a) commission an examination of the cost of providing practicum and increase the amount of the loading for practicum to fully reflect its costs
- b) calculate the amount of funding for the practicum component on the basis of the quantum of placement rather than taught load; and
- c) pay the practicum component separately to universities and require them to acquit it separately as part of their financial reporting requirement. (Recommendation 12, p. xix)

Inadequate funding of professional experience has been a constant grievance within faculties of education throughout Australia. Ingvarson *et al.* (1994) in their mapping study of pre-service teacher education commented,

Of greatest concern was the high cost of running professional experience programs (especially the administration costs, payment of teachers and schools, and payment of supervisors), difficulties in providing adequate supervision and mentoring of students, difficulties finding enough schools and classes willing to host students, and schools’ reluctance to participate as partners in the development of new teaching professionals. A major problem for many respondents was the structure and organizational constraints [rather] than the needs and interests of students and the future of a high quality teaching profession. (p. 36)

In summary these same authors noted, “The issues raised by teacher educators in this study are not new, but they appear to be increasingly problematic and causing genuine stress within courses” (p. 36). Hartsuyker’s recommendations in this category of professional experience proved sympathetic to observations made in previous policies but three years after the publication of *Top of the Class* neither funding for field experience nor the National Teacher Education Partnership fund have been forthcoming.

Structure and content

The Committee did not make any recommendations regarding either the structure of the course or the content.

Evidence of implementation - Handbook 3 - 2010

Worthy of note in this section is that the Handbook chosen for analysis is that of the Australian Federal University, not the Australian Federal Institute as was the case with the previous two *Handbooks*. Up until the late 1980s, the Australian tertiary education system was composed of three distinct layers, universities, colleges of advanced education (CAEs) and technical and further education (TAFE). In 1989 the university and CAEs were merged by the then Federal Minister of Education, John Dawkins, to form a single unified national system of higher education thus abolishing what was previously known as the binary system (see chapter 2, pages 38 – 39). As a result of this development teacher education became repositioned within the reconstructed domain of higher education.

Control of teacher education

As was shown with the preceding two policies, an examination of the *Handbook* fails to provide any evidence as to whether the recommendations made in this section were implemented. This is to be expected given University *Handbooks* do not include information on how the university and respective courses are funded. Nor do they include any information of government funded committees and institutions relevant to the respective university faculties.

Recruitment

Eligibility requirements to enter the Bachelor of Education (Primary) course are that students have completed and passed their schooling up to year 12 level, the final year of secondary education. The minimum duration a student can take to complete the course is four years full-time or equivalent part-time. This requirement contrasts with the previous two policy documents that advocated a 3 + e + 1 structure to the four year Bachelor of Education.

Complicating matters of entry into Australian Federal University, which has campuses across three states and one territory, are the individual state requirements which demand particular prerequisites at year 12 level. For example, in 2010 in the state of Victoria, applicants for the course are expected to have completed units 1 and 2 general mathematics or mathematical methods (either) as well as Units 3 and 4 in English in which a score of at least 30 must be achieved. In Queensland, English to Band 4 is compulsory for entry while in New South Wales it is two units in both English and Mathematics both of which must be achieved to Band 4 level (Australian Federal University Handbook, 2010, p. 257).

As with the authors of the two previous policy documents, Hartsuyker also promoted the notion of increasing “the number of applicants and entrants to teacher education from under-represented groups” (Recommendation 4a, p. xvi). This recommendation indicates previous attempts to increase the number of students from under-represented groups had not been successful. Thus Hartsuyker took a novel approach to achieve this recommendation by proposing “the Australian Government establish a Teacher Education Diversity fund of \$20 million per annum for universities to access [and] develop and implement innovation programs” (Recommendation 4a, p. xvi) to encourage applicants and entrants to teacher education from under-represented groups. Australian Federal University capitalised on the potential offered by the establishment of the Teacher Education Diversity Fund and its underpinning values and developed several innovative access schemes. These are outlined in the 2010 Handbook and are listed as follows:

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Access Scheme

Assistance available through the Australian Federal University

Indigenous Support Units;

Regional School Bonus

Applicants from rural and regional schools will automatically receive bonus points when applying through their respective Tertiary Admissions Centre

accessAFU Special Access Scheme

Bonus points available, for admission purposes, to students who can demonstrate socio-economic or educational disadvantage, this includes applicants from schools that have been designated as disadvantaged;

Special Consideration for Long Term Educational Disadvantage

- Universities Admissions Centre – Education Access Scheme (EAS)
- Victorian Tertiary Admissions Centre – Special Education Access Scheme (SEAS)
- Queensland Tertiary Admissions Centre – Special Consideration of Educational Disadvantage (SCD)

The Australian Federal University Early Achievers Program – School Leavers - (EAP)

The Australian Federal University Early Achievers Program – School Leavers is designed to recognise achievements of applicants, including their community involvement, and to make successful applicant an EAP offer for their course of choice. Prospective students who apply under the EAP are assessed on their demonstrated capacity and potential for tertiary study before completion of their year 12 studies.

The Australian Federal University Early Achievers Program – Non School Leavers

The Australian Federal University Early Achievers Program – Non School Leavers is designed to recognise achievements (including professional and community involvement) of applicants other than school leavers and to make successful applicants an EAP offer for their course

of choice. Non-school leavers who apply under the EAP are assessed on their demonstrated capacity and potential for tertiary study.

(2010, pp. 27-28)

Length of course

The 2010 Handbook confirms that the length of course for the Bachelor of Education (Primary) remained four years.

Professional experience

Eighty days of supervised practice is the requirement of the four year pre-service degree course offered in 2010. Also included are twenty days experience in the community.

Structure and content of the course

In 2010 the Australian Federal University offered the Bachelor of Education (Primary) as a four year degree course consisting of 320 credit points in total; each individual unit being valued at 10 credit points. No credit points are allocated for units in the professional experience category. With the Bachelor of Education (Primary) it has been standard practice to divide the course into three compulsory sections. These are 1) Education Studies, 2) Curriculum Foundation Studies and 3) Curriculum and Pedagogy. The professional experience component of the course falls into the third section.

Table 5.3 lists the units which constitute the Bachelor of Education (Primary). When compared with the previous two *Handbooks* already discussed in this chapter the shift in content becomes evident, although not overtly so in all areas. One example of the latter can be seen in Information and Communication Technology (ICT). Throughout the late 1990s and 2000 a number of departmental publications and government funded policies, MCEETYA (1999, 2000, 2002), Department of Education, Science and Technology (2002, 2003), Dow (2003), highlighted the link between ICT and the knowledge/information society and the need for teachers and school to develop their ICT skills. As Ingvarson *et al.*

(2004) observed “the implications of an information intensive, knowledge rich world, and increasing focus on ICT in school curricula affect both practising teachers, and what is expected of beginning teachers. Hence, the recognition and focus on ICT in teacher education programs” (p. 44).

In examining the shift in content it should be noted that only having a list of unit titles which comprise the pre-service Bachelor of Education course fails to fully reveal the content of the units. For example, Information and Communication Technology previously taught as two core units, is no longer offered in the 2010 course at Australian Federal University. This is a result of the current expectation being that information technology be embedded in all units and taught by all education staff, a trend common across universities. Ingvarson *et al.* (2004) noted this development in his mapping study and commented,

Changing perceptions about the best ways to prepare for ICT roles in schools resulted in many specialised ICT subjects being replaced by ICT modules within curriculum and pedagogy subjects and by a more integrated and embedded view of ICT within teaching and learning
(p. 43).

As well entry students today are much more ICT literate compared to even ten years ago.

Another reason for changes in content stems from national standards which are set by national bodies and state accrediting agencies. As early as 1998, National Senator, Rosemary Crowley suggested in her report, *A Class Act Inquiry into the Status of the Teaching Profession*;

- The Commonwealth Government facilitate the development of a national professional teaching standards and registration body to have the responsibility, authority and resources to develop and maintain standards of professional practice. The national body should work closely with State governments and peak teaching organisations. The national body will:

- Establish standards of professional practice which take into account what teachers should be expected to know and be able to do in order to facilitate student learning across the key learning areas.

(pp. 21-22)

The impact of the standards movement both at national and state levels, plus the establishment of new accreditation authorities impacted on how teacher education courses were structured and the content within the Bachelor of Education primary course. Ingvarson *et al.* (2004) observed, “teacher education programs have made significant shifts in recent years toward ensuring that units of study directly link to and contribute to the acquisition of beginning teaching standards” (p. 41).

Table 5.3

Bachelor of Education Unit Offerings, 2010

Education Studies	Curriculum Foundation Studies	Curriculum and Pedagogy
EDFD 127 Context for Learning and Development	EDLA Linguistics for Literacy	<i>Studies of Society and Environment Education</i> EDSS 428 Connecting Society and Environment
		<i>Religious Education</i>
EDFD 133 Understanding Learning	EDLA 168 Children's Literature for Literacy	EDRE 101 Religious Education 1 EDRE 102 Religious Education 2
	EDMA 163 Exploring Mathematics 1	<i>Mathematics Education</i>
EDFD 220 Teaching and Managing Learning Environments	EDMA 369 Exploring Mathematics 2	EDMA 202 Mathematics: Learning and Teaching 1 EDMA 310 Mathematics: Learning and Teaching 2
		<i>Literacy Education</i>
EDFD 221 Creating Inclusive, Safe and Supportive Schools	EDST 167 Science and Technology for Primary Teachers 1	EDLA 204 Literacy Education 1 EDLA 309 Literacy Education 2
		<i>Diversity in the Classroom</i>
EDFD 452 Transition into the Profession	EDST 264 Science and Technology for Primary Teachers 2	EDFD 458 Catering for Diversity in the Classroom
		<i>Science and Technology Education</i>
EDTS 260 Teaching and Learning: Preparing for the Contexts of the Field	EDAB 161 Australian Indigenous Peoples, Cultures and Identity	EDST 201 Science and Technology Education
		<i>Creative Arts</i>
		EDAR 308 Creative Arts Education 1 EDAR 308 Creative Arts Education 1
		<i>Personal Development Health and Physical Education</i>
		EDPH 306 Personal Development Health and Physical Education

Table 5.3 (continues)

Australian Federal University Handbook 2010

Education Studies	Curriculum Foundation Studies	Curriculum and Pedagogy
		<p><i>Action Research</i> EDPH 457 Action Research as a Reflective Practice</p> <p><i>Professional Experience</i> EDFX 110 Professional Experience 1 EDFX 207 Community Engagement Program EDFX 212 Professional Experience 2A EDFX 213 Professional Experience 2B EDFX 213 Professional Experience 2 EDFX 213 Professional Experience 3 EDFX 213 Professional Experience 4</p> <p>Electives EDAR 424 Creative Arts Education 2: Visual Arts EDDR 403 Creative Arts Education 2: Dance and Drama EDMU 416 Creative Arts Education 2: Music</p>

Source: Australian Federal University Handbook (2010, pp.258-259).

An overview of the recommendations and their implementation

Control of Teacher Education

Decreasing influence of the state over teacher education and an increase in control by the Commonwealth Government over the past thirty years is one of the key changes that have occurred in teacher education. The most obvious evidence of such a move can be seen in the shift from pre-service teachers being trained in the State Colleges of Advanced Education to the incorporation of primary teacher education into the universities.

The push for national accreditation and national standards as seen in several policies (Crowley, 1989; Ramsey, 2000; DEET, 2002) provides a further indication of the increasing influence of the Commonwealth Government over teacher education.

A second means of control is that of funding. According to Kenneth Dutton, Auchmuty's biographer, the recommendations from the *Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education* were largely overtaken by government cost-cutting and the amalgamations of universities and teachers' colleges. Dutton's perspective is supported by Coulter and Ingvarson who undertook an analysis of the responses to the report. They concluded that "with some exceptions, the Inquiry did not result in much direct action" (2004, p. 13). Commenting on the Auchmuty report Hudson and Boomer (1986) supported and extended Coulter and Ingvarson's perspective when they wrote the following in the policy document, *Improving Teacher Education*. "In addition to the fact that implementation of many of the Inquiry's proposals would have had significant financial implications during a period of funding restraint, a major difficulty in implementing the report was seen to be that there was no clearly identified agency with responsibility for acting upon its recommendations" (p. 34).

The authors further elaborated claiming, "many of the areas in which action was proposed fell within the responsibilities of employing authorities and individual higher education institutions, but there was no mechanism for pursuing with the

bodies concerned the various developments which the report saw as desirable” (1986, p. 34).

Interestingly, the Commonwealth Government at the time of the review, responded by asserting, “Implementation of most of the Report’s recommendations will be the responsibility of employing authorities and tertiary institutions” (in Hudson & Boomer, 1986, p. 35). Hence the nature of Australian Federalism provided the Commonwealth Government with an out, whereby they could pass responsibility for the Auchmuty recommendations to the respective State governments. One positive that did stem from the National Inquiry is that of Aboriginal education. “The target of 1000 trained Aboriginal teachers by 1990 set by the National Aboriginal Education Committee in its submission to the Inquiry was endorsed (in Hudson & Boomer, 1986, p. 35).

A third means of control has been the growth of government institutions, particularly at the national level, to which education faculties are answerable. These include:

Recruitment

Whilst over the past three decades there have been repeated calls for a larger intake into teacher education of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students, regional students, ethnic students, overseas trained teachers, male students and mature aged students, female students into maths and science, discipline specific recruits, overall there has been little change in this area (Auchmuty, 1983, Speedy, 1989, Crowley, 1998, Hudson & Boomer, 1996, Laver, 1996, Adey, 1998, Kwong Lee Dow, 2003). *Commenting on recruitment, in particular selection processes*, Ingvarson, Beavis, Kleinhenz, and Elliot concluded, “Resources limit how much universities can do to change their selection procedures” (2004, p. 26). Appreciating this reality, the 2007 Hartsuyker Report addressed the issue when it recommended the Commonwealth Government establish a Teacher education Diversity fund of \$20 million per annum for universities to develop innovative programs to support an increase in under-represented groups in primary undergraduate teacher education. This recommendation was implemented by the Australian Commonwealth Government

and Australian Federal University accessed a portion of this money to institute new access programs for particular groups.

Another aspect of recruitment that has altered over the past thirty years is that of entrants requirements. In the policy *Discipline Review of Teacher Education in Mathematics and Science*, chairperson Graeme Speedy (1989) recommended that entry into primary teacher education courses should “Require school-leavers entering programs to have studied mathematics at year 11/12” (p. 46).

Length of course

The length of pre-service teacher education courses changed during the period from 1981 to 2010. Diploma of Education courses which were three years in length shifted to a 3+e+1 model during the 1980s. Under this modelling pre-service teachers would complete the three year diploma course, have experience of teaching and then return to study for another year, or two years part time which was the most common choice among practising teachers, in order to gain a Bachelor of Education degree. With the amalgamation of the Colleges of Advances Education into the University system, a four year Bachelor of Education degree became a standard requirement for primary teaching.

Professional experience

Since 1982 the major difficulty associated with the professional experience component of the course has been financing it. When the Teachers’ Colleges amalgamated with universities this situation was not alleviated but compounded. Education faculties were placed in a position where they had to compete for institutional finances with other university faculties. This financial difficulty resulting from the professional experience component was noted by Ingvarson, *et al.*

Of greatest concern was the high cost of running professional experience programs (especially the administration costs, payments of teachers and schools, and payment of supervisors), difficulties in providing adequate supervision and mentoring of students, difficulties in finding enough

schools and classes willing to host students, and schools' reluctance to participate as partners in the development of new teaching professionals. A major problem for many respondents was that structure and organisation of professional experience programs seemed to be governed more by financial and organizational constraints than the needs and interests of students and the future of a high quality teaching profession.

(2004, p. 36)

Despite the concerns expressed above, and the call by Hartsuyker (2007) to establish a "National Teacher Education Partnership" fund, there has been no increase in funding. Financial constraints explain why the number of supervised school experience days students must complete were reduced from 115 in 1983 for a three year Bachelor of Education course within the 3 + e + 1 model, to eighty days within the four year degree course offered in 2010.

Structure and content

The pre-service teacher education primary program at Australian Federal University has undergone considerable changes to the content of their course. "Education Studies" has seen a shift in content away educational philosophy and history of education which were offered in the early eighties, to Australian studies and psychology in the nineties. Currently emphasis is placed on learning how to learn and preparing for the profession. Under "Curriculum Foundation Studies" there has been a reduction in humanities subjects such as music and visual art. Other units, e.g. drama have been eliminated, meanwhile, units in mathematics, literacy and science have been maintained. Alongside these units was a new core of study, Australian Indigenous Peoples, Cultures and Identity. In the area of "General Studies" a shift away from studies in community languages and multicultural studies in the 1980s, to an emphasis on Australian Studies, studies in information communication and technology and electives on pedagogy were in place by the 1990s. By 2010, there was a shift to incorporating action research into the course and a further cutting back to the Creative Arts and Health and Physical Education areas.

Over the past three decades the number of units offered in the course lessened. Whilst many were eliminated others such as ICT were incorporated into existing units. Fewer units resulted in less face-to-face contact time and what the Handbooks do not show, is what units, or sections of units, are taught on-line.

Generating connections with the literature section of the thesis

One of the key points made in the literature review was that policy is not a straight forward linear process from recommendation to implementation. The results from this chapter indicate a number of policy changes were adopted but others were not. Reasons for success, or lack of success, in implementing recommendations were varied. Regarding professional practice, limited change was the result of inadequate funding. The recruitment of more males into teaching has been unsuccessful because of economic, social and cultural reasons as identified by Hartsuyker (2007). The power of particular elites can impact on policy. This was seen in recommendations for a 3 + e + 1 model for teacher education being overturned because the Government of the day wanted the CAEs amalgamated into the university system; the result being a four year degree for pre-service teacher education students. The exercise of power by governments over particular groups can be seen by the Commonwealth government's attempts to introduce national accreditation and national standards.

The aforementioned supports the accuracy of the comments made by Fitz and Halpin (1991),

Interpreting policy via a reading of a correspondence between ideological preferences and concrete proposals is a hazardous procedure, and one which may overlook the complexities, contingencies and competing interests which we believe are so much a part of the policy-making process. (p. 135)

Compounding the complexities of policy formation and implementation are the competing tensions between interest groups agendas. Paradigm shifts emanating from reform movements present new challenges for those within the field of

education. In chapter two of this study, Aspland (2008), (Cochran-Smith, (2005), Tuxworth (1989), Zeichner (2008) explored the dissonance in reform agendas that have impacted on pre-service teacher education. These included a craft approach versus a scholarly approach; a knowledge- based approach versus a skills-based approach; a learning-centred approach versus a learner-centred approach; a professional agenda versus a social justice agenda, a content emphasis approach versus a professional qualities emphasis approach, and an outcomes approach versus a research-based approach. Changes to course content at Australian Federal University reflect the binaries of competing reform agendas and provide evidence that teacher educators constantly responded to continual demands for change.

Generating connections with the theoretical section of the thesis

Directly linked to the findings of policy implementation are the fundamental questions associated with critical ethnography and critical theory, that is, questions of power. Hence in understanding the success or otherwise of changes to pre-service education questions regarding who has the power to make changes to pre-service education? Who are marginalised from the decision making process? How do the powerful maintain their power? Most importantly, is the foundational question at the heart of critical theory, in whose interests?

Conclusion

In this chapter the policy data were collected and analysed. Using grounded theory coding techniques three Commonwealth policies into teacher education were analysed and from the data collected five themes emerged. These were, control of teacher education, recruitment, length of course, professional experience and structure and content. Recommendations pertaining to each theme were examined. Evidence of implementation was sought by examining the University Handbooks published three years after the reports were made public. Other evidence was drawn from Commonwealth policy documents dealing with teacher education (see Appendix C) published in the past three decades. Although evidence was not always available to confirm implementation of

recommendations, there was more than sufficient evidence to demonstrate significant changes have transpired in pre-service education. This brings into question Gregor Ramsey's comment, "despite the large number of reviews, their impact has been minimal" (2000, p. 14).

In the following chapter, the life history data is analysed. In this section the researcher attempts to address the third question underpinning this thesis, why were some recommendations implemented and other not? It is also anticipated that the questions significant to critical theory and raised in the penultimate section of this chapter will be found.

CHAPTER SIX

Through the Lens of Life Histories Data

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the analyses of nine life history interviews. As discussed in chapter four of this thesis, the benefits of qualitative research of this nature results from the data collected often being richer and more meaningful. Moreover, a technical and cultural approach to research allows for a more democratic approach to research and to society. Most importantly, when seeking to establish the links between research, policy and practice, this type of qualitative method allows for different ways of understanding education reality and a different way of thinking about the future.

The importance of the collection of life histories for this research on teacher education policy is best summarised by Goodson. Despite his writing focussing on teachers its relevance for teacher educators is noteworthy.

The project of analysing the teacher's life and work grows from a belief that there is a need for a counter culture which will resist the tendency common in research studies to leave teachers 'in the shadows'. This counter culture could arise from a research mode that places the study of teachers and the sponsorship of 'teachers' voices' at the centre of the research action. (2008, p. 8)

For this thesis, hearing the voices of teacher educators, and having them at the centre of policy development is seen as crucial.

The life histories were conducted over a three year period and involved interviewing three university lecturers. Each lecturer was interviewed on three separate occasions thus giving a total of nine interviews. The participants

consisted of two males and one female. Nicola is a senior lecturer who teaches and researches in the area of science education. Aldo is also a senior lecturer and his discipline area is LOTE (languages other than English). The third interviewee, Peter, is a professor whose background, teaching and research are in mathematics education. All three are employed at the same University and each of them has been at their current place of employment for over twenty years. Throughout this period the three lecturers interviewed for this thesis have experienced numerous changes to teacher education. One of the most significant changes has been the restructuring of what were independent teacher education colleges into the national university system; a development which occurred in the late 1980s and early 1990s.

Interview data

After each of the nine semi-structured interviews was conducted and transcribed, the analytical techniques associated with grounded theory were utilised to examine the data collected. These analytical techniques involved the application of two interrelated forms of coding. The first was *open coding* where the content of the interviews is broken down so as to identify key concepts and the correlating properties and dimensions embedded in these concepts. Put simply, “data are broken into discrete parts, closely examined, and compared for similarities and differences” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 102). The second form of coding, known as *axial coding*, is a process which requires the analyst to put the data back together in a way which requires the researcher to make connections between the categories by using a particular set of procedures. This process was the same as described in more length in earlier chapters of this thesis.

Upon completion of the nine interviews, the data was analysed and five major categories or themes emerged. These were:

- 1) course content
- 2) the nature of the institution
- 3) the nature of work
- 4) the nature of the student
- 5) the politicisation of teacher education.

Interestingly, the first three themes that emerged from the coding of the interview data correlate with three of the themes that emerged from the policy analysis data. Theme four ‘the nature of the student’ and theme five, ‘the politicisation of teacher education’, are the two that differ.

What follows is an exploration of the inter-relationship between each theme and the data which when analysed through the techniques associated with grounded theory provide insights into the observations made by Gregor Ramsey and the consequential three questions which drives the research. In the case of this thesis, Ramsey’s observations which he made in his review of teacher education *Quality Matters* (2000), included the statement, “there have been ... more than 20 reviews of teaching and teacher education over the past two decades ...” (2000, p. 14). Continuing on, he then made the further observation, “Yet despite the large number of reviews, their impact has been minimal” (2000, p. 14). Ramsey concluded that this minimal impact resulted from the inability of teacher educators to rise to the task of implementing what he saw as the necessary changes. In order to investigate the accuracy of Ramsey’s observation the three questions driving this thesis are:

- i) What recommendations were made?
- ii) What recommendations were implemented?
- iii) Why were some recommendations implemented and not others?

It is finding an answer to the third question that is the focus of this chapter.

The life history interview data selected for inclusion in this chapter are excerpts of texts taken from the transcripts of the nine interviews which relate to the major five themes noted above. Each theme will be analysed separately. In a search for a deeper interrogation and understanding of the interview data, the lecturers’ comments and observations will be interpreted further, first by relating them to the literature discussed in chapter two of this thesis and second, extending the interpretation of the comments by examining them in light of the theoretical

framework underpinning this project, namely postmodernity. Hence within each theme there will be three distinct sections:

- a) identification of the theme and the lecturers' relevant comments,
- b) an interpretation of the comments through the literature and
- c) an interpretation of the comments within the context of the theoretical framework.

Themes

Theme 1: Course content.

Course content was a major concern to each of the life history participants. Each interviewee had a good deal of comment not only about what was happening in their respective discipline areas but also they had strong opinions regarding the broader changes to content that were happening in the pre-services courses. Aldo, the Italian lecturer commented,

I think [student] teachers in general have not a wide enough education overall to be able to fulfil their role as teachers. They have become more and more specialised or focused on too few specific areas. What we used to call broad education has again been off-loaded, as a result of the changes we have seen during the last 10 to 15 years, and I really do regret that, because teachers who are too limited means they are not going to be as efficient educators as they could.

So the downgrading of Arts subjects, history, geography, philosophy, those units really formed the mind of an educator, they have disappeared practically, and it is amazing the ignorance of people.

(Aldo: Interview 2, lines 70-74)

What Aldo is articulating in this comment on the content of teacher education is his dissatisfaction with how the course is currently constructed, in particular the narrowing of the content offered. Having witnessed the changes that have occurred over the past twenty plus years Aldo has reflected on his experience to make a negative assessment of the current state of teacher education which he

views as producing students who have a limited world view, in large part because of their limited exposure to the broader liberal arts disciplines. This observation is interrelated to Crotty's claim quoted in the epistemology section of the previous chapter. "Meaning is not discovered, but constructed. In this understanding of knowledge, it is clear that different people may construct meaning in different ways, even in relation to the same phenomenon" (1998, p. 3). The issue for teacher education is a question of the impact of limited content on students' abilities to construct meaning that is not superficial or where meaning is hollowed out. For if students are to have a critical capacity to interpret changes in education policy then a broad view of knowledge is required.

Supportive of Aldo's perspective were the comments made by Peter, the mathematics professor. Although pleased that a variety of teacher education reviews were supportive of his discipline, and within the undergraduate teacher education courses mathematics education had not been subjected to cutbacks in the number of units offered, he was uneasy about particular content that had been removed from the course.

Because of the cutbacks, I think actually language and maths, and more recently, but it has only been more recently, science and technology have tended to preserve the percentage of time they get with the students, and hence I think it is really, well I think it is really sad, and I think it is one of the things that needs to be re-examined. I mentioned Fine Arts being kicked, you can say the same thing about Health and Phys Ed, I think they have been kicked, and I think the foundations of education has also taken a bit of a battering, and we have pinched time from them.

(Peter: Interview 3, lines 56-58).

Peter, like Aldo, shows concern for the lack of balance of content within the teacher education courses. He argues that maths, science and technology have maintained their time allocation with the students but have done so at the expense of those areas significant to the Liberal Arts. He is unsettled by the possible outcomes of this development as is evident in the two questions he raises and the answer he gives to his own questions:

Are we going to have in the next 10 to 15 years a coterie of teachers going out that are simply technicians, rather than free thinking professionals?

So who is going to develop all of that?

Well the universities of course, but you have already cut your universities back, so you set the whole thing in a downward spiral, and I think that would be really, really worrisome for our whole society.

(Peter: Interview 3, lines 63-66).

Where Aldo had concerns about the detrimental effects on the individual of the narrowing of teacher education courses, Peter takes a broader view of this development believing there will be a negative impact for the social whole due to the shift in the role of teacher from a free thinking education professional to that of a manipulated technician. This again relates to the epistemology of constructionism which guides this thesis. Peter wants both university students and future teachers to have the knowledge to be able to authentically construct their own knowledge and views about education matters. He sees education in the Liberal Arts as necessary for this to eventuate.

Like Aldo and Peter, Nicola, the science lecturer also had concerns about the content of teacher education courses. Whilst the concerns she expressed were limited to the science domain Nicola felt strongly that knowledge taught should have direct relevance to issues needing to be faced in contemporary society. Despite policies and university unit outlines stating certain bodies of knowledge will be taught, Nicola engages in resistance refusing to teach only what is required. Instead she designs her unit around the notion of critique believing the students

. . . need to be educated about the sort of science and technology issues that are facing them as 21st century . . . and they need to look at things like consumption and what that is doing to the environment, they need to look at the sorts of technologies that are on the drawing board, and what that will mean in terms of them as citizens and people; whether they are good or bad things, and ... some of

the breakthroughs around the corner are pretty scary . . . so I would rather be teaching for that world that is upon us, than teaching a body of knowledge that they [the students] are mostly not interested in, and they don't tend to use in their everyday lives.

(Nicola, interview 2, lines 325 - 336)

In the following life history interview with Nicola she expands her ideas on what content should be taught to teacher education students and how she selects what she teaches.

I have been around long enough to know that I actually think that I should be teaching my students to be critical citizens and responsible ecological beings. Regardless of what I am told to do, I use those values to guide my teaching, and the day someone tells me to do it differently is the day I resign.

(Nicola, interview 3, lines 76 - 77)

Nicola's comments, like Aldo's and Peter's, also relate to the epistemology of construction. In her teaching practice Nicola is responding to a fundamental tenant of constructionism. "There is no objective truth waiting for us to discover it. Truth, or meaning, comes into existence in and out of our engagement with the realities in our world. There is no meaning without a mind. Meaning is not discovered, but constructed" (Crotty, 1998, p. 3). For Nicola's students their world is interwoven with issues that are facing them as 21st century citizens, issues such as the environment and consumption. Hence it is her belief that the science curriculum offered to education students should be about assisting them to work out ways to deal with and overcome those problems relevant to the world of today rather than content knowledge that lacks relevance to the 21st century.

Interpreting the comments in terms of the literature

Nicola was very critical of what policy stakeholders had to say at the text production stage of science policies; in particular, the content to be taught. She felt those who hold the power regarding the selection of content are not teacher educators but representatives of an elite group within the science field.

Aldo's concentration on the micro level of teacher education relates to Stephen Ball's process model of policy as discussed in the literature review, that is, policy is reconstituted to accommodate local context. An increasing bureaucratic structure combined with a lack of resources at ground level results in policy being reinterpreted at the implementation stage.

Interpreting the comments in terms of the theory

In her teaching Nicola is consciously promoting one of the major features of critical theory, namely the emphasis it gives to emancipation. Critical theorists "attempt to reveal those factors which prevent groups and individuals taking control of, or even influencing, those decisions which crucially affect their lives" (Gibson, 1986, p. 5). And like critical theorists, Nicola holds to the view that people can set about gaining more control of their social world, thus emancipating individuals.

What both Nicola and Aldo were expressing in the above comments was the changing nature of education, in particular, higher education. Both the contemporary university and the politicization of education was explored in the theoretical framework section of the thesis when Lyotard pointed out, neither higher education nor the state concerns itself with the question of 'Is it true?'; instead, they are concerned with the question 'What use is it?'. That which is good or bad, right or wrong, once the *raison d'être* of a good university education is beginning to dissolve as education collapses into training for particular skills rather than a particular set of ideals.

Theme 2: The nature of the institution

All three lecturers commented on the how the university had changed and how those changes had impacted on the education faculty. Aldo's reflection of the institution changes were expressed from the perspective of his concerns that have resulted from the changes internal to the university, in particular, to education.

I think mainly from where I see it, too many chiefs and not enough Indians So I think that bureaucracy has grown disproportionately to the number, the age, and the ability to focus on what they are supposed to be doing for our staff...

So we lost a lot of good quality staff, and as we know not all those members of staff have been replaced, so more and more work has been placed on the shoulders of the remaining ones, and financially also, I think that layers of bureaucracy are sucking up so much of our finances, that practically so little is left at the coalface, and that should be the more important face, not the bureaucratic structure, but that is the way it has turned out.

A huge head, and you have such small hands. If the hands have to do what the head tells them to do, that is where we are at the moment

(Aldo, Interview 1, lines 142 - 146).

Unlike Aldo who identified relationship changes happening internally, Peter identified external changes which he has seen evolve within the university.

During his period in the tertiary sector Peter's perception of the institution is that it has been subjected to a great deal of change. He perceives recent changes in the institution as being linked to a changing dynamic between the university and external agencies.

. . . there has [sic] been enormous changes and I think the changes will keep on going. In education . . . we have moved away from being the servants of the Ministry of Education into being universities, independent. That has brought a lot of tension with it, the closeness, which was a terrific thing in one sense, has gone.

When I came back [from overseas] in the 80s, we knew all the people in the Ministry, we still vaguely know the people in the Ministry. There were regular meetings, when people in the Ministry would call you down, and say “look, this is what we are thinking, what do you think?” Over a cup of coffee for two hours we would hammer out some issues.

Now of course we would say, well that will cost you a \$1000. There is another big change that has happened in that any of our time is never supposed to be given freely, it is always supposed to be paid for, which is absolutely crazy stuff. It breaks that whole nexus of “we are here together doing”, whereas now it is us and them.

(Peter: Interview 1, lines 43-53).

Peter’s insights into institutional changes as he has experienced them highlight the changed nature of the relationship between the state and education. This is exemplified in Peter’s example by the shift in relations between the state ministry of education and the university. Compounding the complexity of this changed relationship is the new dynamic that has arisen between education and the economy.

Influences resulting in changes to the nature of the university beyond both the local and the nation-state were identified by Nicola. She deconstructed current changes to pre-service teacher education courses by associating changes in universities with the emergence of globalisation.

I am mourning the fact that the culture of the university has changed so that it is no longer a place of critique but a place of compliance, and that there are more and more things to comply with . . . I am trying to be an academic, and a voice of critique in the society of scholarship and critique.

The public intellectual has died, and I would like to keep that part of the university alive.

Commenting on the shift from the past where university staff were seen as public intellectuals who engaged in critique to the present where they are seen as compliant academics, Nicola believed,

this has occurred because in fact globalisation has meant that there is no room for critique They, ‘they’ meaning that sort of relationship between capital and governance, want a compliant workforce, a compliant bunch of consumers to keep on doing it, and the public intellectual would unsettle things.

(Nicola, Interview 1, lines 148 – 157).

Interpreting the comments in terms of the literature

To understand why this shift has occurred the writing of Stephen Ball, which was discussed at length in the literature review of this thesis, proves informative. In interpreting changes to education policy Ball’s work around the concept of ‘policy technologies’ which was explored in the literature review becomes relevant interpreting the experiences of the lectures. Policy technologies “involve the calculated deployment of forms of organisation and procedures, and disciplines or bodies of knowledge, to organise human forces and capabilities into functioning systems” (2008, p. 41). According to Ball, the three major means by which policy technologies are realised are through a new style of the market, a new style of management practices and through a new style of public sector performativity.

Interpreting the comments in terms of the theory

In relation to Peter’s experience and perception of the changing institution it is the policy technology of the new market form that is influential in reconstituting education. Ball argues that this market form “constitutes *a new moral environment*” (2008, p. 45) one that he describes as

a form of ‘commercial civilisation’. Within this new moral environment . . . universities are being inducted into a *culture of self-interest*. Self-interest is manifest in terms of survivalism – an increased, often predominant, orientation towards the internal well-being of the institution and its

members and a shift away from concern with more general social and education issues with 'the community'. (p. 45)

Aldo's experience gives expression to another element of Ball's policy technologies, 'new public management'. Ball argues that "this has been the key mechanism in the political reform and cultural re-engineering of public sectors for the past 20 years" (2008, p. 47). Clarke, Cochrane and McLaughlin (1994) believe that the new public management has been a transformational force wherein a new form of power relations, one dominated by management, has arisen within public sector institutions. This dominance by management reflects Aldo's comments when he claims that the new bureaucratic structure has become more important than what is happening at the coalface.

Theme 3: The nature of work.

All three interviewees spoke at length regarding the changes to their work that have taken place their working life at the university and the observations made by all three were practically identical. In giving her views on how the nature of her work has changed over the past twenty years, Nicola commented,

Clearly, it changed over the 1990s . . . [beforehand] there was no pressure, particularly on a junior staff member. You had your Masters degree, you were teaching classes well, you engaged in the odd project because someone asked you to be on it. But in terms of an expectation that you might get out there and do research and go for grants, that certainly wasn't in place. But during the 1990s that became how it was . . . By the mid 1990s things were getting different all the time and the bar was being raised in terms of what you were expected to do to maintain your job, to be part of the academic staff.

(Nicola, Interview 1, lines 97 - 108).

In the third interview Nicola was more specific about changes that had been introduced and had impacted on the nature of her work.

We are overworked, we are completely overworked, because the more and more layers of accountability that come into the university – you know we have got to be informed on all sorts of teaching and learning sorts of things, you have got to be prepared to . . . you have got to show that you are up-to-date with this, you have got to do ‘systems’ it is a constant list of things that we are needing to be measured against. How many professional development things have we gone to, how many are we giving, how many things have we attended, how many grants have we applied for, do you do research, etc. In fact we have now got such high workloads that in fact the real teaching is suffering, because we do not have the time to do things where there is real quality. You have a whole fabrication, I could actually produce all my pieces of paper to say that my work is really high quality, but I know deep down it isn’t, because it hasn’t had the time spent on it, because I am too busy producing the pieces of paper. I am writing about my teaching rather than actually doing, or having the time to do the quality teaching. The lectures are put together in 3 seconds Those sorts of accountability measures and an increasing workload as a consequence, are really quite destroying the fabric of the real teaching quality.

(Nicola, Interview 1, lines 137 - 153).

Aldo’s reflection on how the nature of work has changed during his tertiary experience gives a human face to Nicola’s comments on what she saw as the increasing work requirements and associated pressure being placed on staff. Aldo spoke passionately about the constant changing demands being made of the lecturing staff.

. . . staff not replaced, or replaced by sessional, or casual staff . . . larger classes. It has also increased in spite of the extra responsibility placed on staff, like research, administration and so on. . . I will give an example; up to five years ago we went by the saying “publish or perish”, so we all got busy and those of us who had not published, really got off and worked hard and started to publish, and I think most of us managed. Then all of a sudden, two years ago, we were saying that, that it wasn’t priority any longer, 10% towards the research profile of the university, that we had to become entrepreneurs and get money in. Now you don’t turn a horse into a dog, or a plumber into an engineer, overnight, because

someone up there says, "it is now important that you change your role and you become something else". So what are they doing here, you know. Are they so thick that they don't realise what is actually happening across the board. . . . It is unfair, it is unjust, it is crazy!

(Aldo, Interview 2, lines 24 - 35).

In addressing changes in the nature of his work Aldo becomes very specific in identifying impediments which impede his attempts to provide quality education for his students.

. . . for the whole School of Education we have one copier, you have to line up... when, and it does happen, it breaks down, we are stuck. You go into a room, lecturing in a room for the last five weeks, 3-6[pm] in the afternoon where the sun beats on the screen, and therefore I cannot use the data show because the blinds in that window have been missing. So I have sent two urgent messages to Campus Operations, to please put something up there so I can use my data show, and no answer, no action You may say this is only one example, I can talk to you for two hours and give you another list of examples, that really prevent us at the coalface to offer quality education

(Aldo, Interview 1, lines 148 - 152).

Both Nicola and Aldo have identified changes in the nature of work and the associated frustrations experienced by them due to the increasing demands to which they have been subjected and the inadequate resources provided in their workplace to assist them to achieve quality in their teaching.

Interpreting the comments in terms of the literature

In attempting to interpret Nicola and Aldo's experiences of change to their work practices again the work of Stephen Ball, already discussed in chapter two, is shown to be most relevant. Ball's third mechanism within his concept of policy technologies, "performativity" is enlightening in respect of Nicola and Aldo's experiences. He writes,

Performativity is a culture of a system of 'terror'. It is a regime of accountability that employs judgements, comparisons and displays as means of control, attrition and change. The performances of individual subjects or organisations serve as measures of productivity or output, or displays of 'quality', or 'moments' of promotion or inspection. These performances stand for, encapsulate or represent the worth, quality or value of an individual or organisation within a field of judgement.

(Ball, 2008, p.49)

Interpreting the comments in terms of the theory

Complementing Ball's third policy technology is the writing of Francois Lyotard. In his text, *The Postmodern Condition* he commented that higher education is restructured in order to satisfy a new goal.

. . . no longer truth, but performativity – that is the best possible input/output equation. The state and/or company must abandon the idealist and humanist narrative of legitimation so as to justify the new goal: in the discourse of today's financial backers of research, the only credible goal is power. Scientists, technicians and instruments are purchased not to find truth, but to augment power. (1984, p. 46)

Theme 4: The nature of the student

As with the previous themes, each of the interviewees spoke extensively regarding the changing nature of the contemporary student. Peter, the professor who lectures in mathematics, had the following comments to make regarding this theme.

And I think the pre-service has changed a lot, because we are getting a different type of student. Gone are the days when the students came knowing that this was what they were going to do . . . I think there are a lot of students here that come along to do the full-time course, but treat it as part time. They have their full-time jobs and they come here to do our course.

So the actual amount of work that they do in the library and elsewhere is minuscule, and the attitude is, we will do the assignments, we will do this, but we really won't do any extra that is not required of us.

(Peter: Interview 1, lines 65 - 71).

Later on in the same interview, Peter highlighted other aspects of the changing nature of the student.

I think kids . . . they come far more inclined to be interested in getting money quickly than what they used to be. Part of that deal is what I was saying before they are far more interested in their jobs rather than their courses. When you look at the car park you know why. A lot of them have got really terrific cars, I wish There was always a significant number of students that turned up with cars, I think virtually all students have got cars now, and all students have got good cars.

(Peter: Interview 1, lines 187 - 190)

Supporting Peter's observations on the contemporary student was Aldo's observation.

The intake of students also, I feel has changed. We used to get at least in education, which is my area, I felt that students in general getting into education courses were more focused and interested in the education area, and a lot of that interest at that level isn't there any longer. We are getting more and more students who might be better suited academically because of their ENTER score being higher than it used to be, but not necessarily more interested or as interested in having a career in education.

(Aldo, Interview 2, lines 34-36).

Nicola makes two distinct observations on the changing nature of the contemporary university student. This is that they differ from past students in that they are technologically advanced, and their learning styles are interrelated with advances in this area. The second observation she makes is their attitude to

spending time on campus which she links to new forms of pressure with which today's student must cope.

. . . the type of student that we now have and of course there is a post grad variety, and they are incredibly technologically savvy. For example, a lot of them do want to use all those sorts of online, podcasting, blackboard stuff, that, you know, accessing readings electronically. So there has been a whole revolution in that sort of thing, online units and all the rest of it do actually appeal to them because they have all got jobs and they don't want to come in. There are those sorts of pressures that are related to the fact that you have a generation that is totally digitally savvy, so that is their preferred mode of learning, and that makes it hard for people like us who have to keep the skills to be up with them.

In fact I heard when we get skype in WebCT, when you can talk over the phone and you also have a camera. Like you can talk to someone interstate or in the country, they have cameras, you can actually have a tute [tutorial], and it just goes through the internet, absolutely dirt cheap. These sorts of things, we are all the time reskilling, and that is really hard work for us and it takes 3 times as long.

The other thing that is . . . to do with the students who have so little time to actually be university students, and that is not their fault because government attached to how they get Youth Allowance as well how many fees they are left with because of the cost of their education forces them to work really long hours, so they need to be at university for a very short time. So they want their tutes all sort of squashed up to get – not as if they are spending time hanging around, taking their time to do their assignments, they need to have access to all information so they can take it away, do something really quickly and . . . and that is to do with the demands on their life, which are quite legitimate because the government has put on them by changing the landscape of what it was like for students 20 years ago. So they impact on their work practices.

(Nicola: Interview 2, lines 157-117).

Interpreting the comments in terms of the literature

When attempting to interpret the above changes to the type of student entering university by researching the literature around this subject, what surprised this researcher was the scarcity of information. In none of the policy documents, or the literature on policy in general, or policy in education, do the authors give attention to the nature of the contemporary student. ENTER scores, ethnicity, age level and language background of students are regularly reported on in the reviews of Australian teacher education.

But very rarely acknowledged is the change in student behaviour and attitude to their studies which can be linked to them having to pay fees. Neither is it ever linked to changing government policy on paying Youth allowance as was pointed out by Nicola in her second interview.

Interpreting the comments in terms of the theory

Perhaps today the students' attitude to university and to life in general is driven by a pragmatic outlook indicative of the postmodern. This is in contrast to the attitude of their lecturers who see a university education in idealist terms.

What the above quotes indicate is that the type of student entering teacher education today is reflective of the postmodern view of knowledge. As Jean-Francois Lyotard wrote, within the university

the transmission of knowledge is no longer designed to train an elite capable of guiding a nation towards its emancipation, but to supply the system with players capable of acceptably fulfilling their roles at the pragmatic post required by its institutions. (1984, p. 48)

Theme 5: The politicization of teacher education

The theme of politicization of education was explored by all the participants. Whilst there was much overlap regarding their observations, not all interpreted all aspects of the theme in the same way. Peter commented on the politics behind

those appointed to write policy on teacher education. Being a mathematics educator it is not surprising that he concentrated on the Speedy report which centred on mathematics and science.

I think with the Speedy Committee the government was quite clever or astute or perceptive in actually forming the committee. Speedy himself was an impressive person. I think he became very acceptable to the people, the group that this committee were talking to, which were essentially tertiary educated.

He was a South Australian Administration of Education, but he was a guy who came across as knowing the scene, not taking too much bullshit, knew the practicalities of what it is when you are actually educating young teachers.

The Committee assembled around him, the two people who came out to [my university] ... were well known, well respected people. That would have gone for the rest of the committee. The committee was onside with the people they were talking to, in other words.

So that was good and it was very, very astute of the government to actually form this committee of that type, and they therefore weren't going to make outrageous recommendations. It is an interesting question therefore, why weren't the recommendations that this particular committee formulated, why didn't they just get implemented right across the board, because you can think of other committees and other individuals that governments have appointed where the outcomes have been so outrageous that everybody just ignores them and moves on.

That has happened a number of times, particularly in the last 3 or 4 years where people who have been out of touch with the tertiary scene and/or politically bent one way or the other, doesn't matter which way, people just reject it out of hand and just get on with life. So that is a really interesting question you are asking.

(Peter: Interview 3, lines 7- 14).

Interestingly, Peter discusses the Speedy Report, a *Review of Teacher Education in Mathematics and Science* produced in October, 1989. Judging from Peter's comments he was obviously impressed by Graeme Speedy's appointment as

chairperson of the review as his personality, knowledge of the discipline and of the teacher education scene had earned Speedy a good deal of respect by academics throughout Australia. Speedy is also seen by Peter as an insider who was worthy of this government appointment by the Federal government. Other members of the committee were also well known and respected and as Peter mentions, two of them went to his university (which is situated in a state other than South Australia) and interviewed him. Hence the conduct of the review panel attempted to take note of the voices representative of the local.

Viewing the politicisation of teacher education from a different angle was Aldo, the LOTE lecturer, who related this theme directly to developments occurring in his discipline. Commenting on the push for Asian languages to be taught in schools, he says

That originated from the Government, the Labour Government then, in particular with Keating, and also not only the push in terms of policy but the push in terms of funding provided, particularly in schools, for schools offering Asian languages, there was lots of money being poured into that...

That was in line with a Keating vision of Australia, being part of and possibly a leader of or part of the Asian continent. So I think it was his own interest in Asia, and his own Government policy that we should have been seen to be part of Asia, and his immediate way of showing that was to say to Asian leaders, look, all our schools offer Asian languages to provide better communication for you to feel more comfortable in terms of trade and possibly a leading role that Australia wanted, or the Keating Government. It was definitely political. I don't think that Keating had a burning desire and really understands fully the advantage of having bilingual people. I don't think his worry was education, I think his worry was political.

(Aldo, Interview 2, lines 41- 47)

In the third interview Nicola talks more about how the institution organises itself around compliance measures and the consequential results for the academic staff.

Lots of other changes drive the way we do our work practice. One of them that I am particularly annoyed about, is this banging on about assessment and the new structures and procedures that are introduced.

AUQA have a number of things that they say we need to be accountable for and whatever, so then people up at that high level interpret, or work out how we can do things here on the ground, which means that we have quality control measures in place, which actually causes quite a change to work practices, and one of them would be the fact we are a national university now so we have got to have shared assessment items.

Soon we are going to have to moderate our assessments here, the NSW people will have to mark some of Victorian assignments, and those sort of things, national university, national curriculum to make sure that the standards between the States are the same and between campuses and all that sort of stuff.

So those moves which actually annoy me, because in fact in the way of making, not actually taking on my skills as an educator compared to say the Science person in NSW skills, who might not know about the sort of environmental, she might be on technology for instance, it actually dumbs us down in our areas of expertise and makes us produce a very bland, middle ground type of curriculum that doesn't any sort of fire or passion or excellence about it.

So you do not get quality teaching and quality learning as a consequence of those measures that are introduced. So that is one of those things, those awful things.

The focus on this constant assessment where you have to fill out the one green sheet and you have got to have X number of high distinctions and all the rest of it, again squashing everybody into a template. The template is an accountability measure and so no one is actually making judgements about whether content is good, bad or indifferent, it means you just complete the template box, we have all been squashed in. A number of those sorts neo-liberal accountability processes that drive some of our work practices.

(Nicola, interview 3, lines 86 -94)

The increased convergence in the postmodern period between education and the economy is evidenced in Aldo's observation as to why there was a shift in emphasis by the Keating Labour Government away from the study of European languages to that of Asian languages. The shift in education policies, in this case the study of languages other than English, had more to do with purposes of likely increases in trade rather than the worth of the intrinsic knowledge associated with learning about another culture and its language.

Interpreting the comments in terms of the literature

In the literature chapter of this thesis, Stephen Ball was quoted as saying,

The economics of globalisation is an increasingly important point of reference in national educational policy making. Education policies are formed and developed in relation to the supposed pressures of international economic competition; other purposes or outcomes from education are threatened with subordination to economic 'necessities' (2008, p. 39).

Nicola identifies the interplay between globalisation and education when she speaks of the decline in the role of the university intellectual as well as the changed nature of education. She believes globalisation is instrumental in the convergence between capital and governance, the latter referring to a loose network of organisations.

Peter also identifies the new relationship between globalisation and education policy. He recognises how education policy in the modern era developed predominately from concerns within the nation state. Furthermore, he recognises that in this era, those who wrote the policies came from within the teacher education profession. In the current period of postmodernity, the influential actors endemic to the policy process are regularly global organisations whose key players are unknown to those expected to implement their recommendations. Peter's observations support Rinne *et al.* who were quoted in the literature review. They suggest "Countries cling to supranational guidelines because accepting the

recommendations offered by the OECD, its funding activities, research and reports, and disseminating its end products appear to offer easy, effective and reliable solutions to common problems” (2004, p. 476).

In addition, Peter claims that today, those writing the policies are bureaucrats and representatives of ‘think-tanks’ whose interests and ideology lie outside of teacher educator. This observation supports the argument made by Levin (1998) in the literature review when he claimed politicians and political managers and policy staff of political parties, many of whom are connected to various think-tanks and other policy organisations, are now influential in education policy production.

Aldo also understands the influence of globalisation and the new economy on pre-service teacher education. He believes the shift from community languages to Asian language was tied in with global economic priorities. Thus Aldo’s experiences give life to Ball’s (2008) view that the particular shifts occurring in education are driven by the quest for a ‘knowledge economy’.

Interpreting the comments in terms of the theory

The comments the interviewees make regarding the politicisation of education indicate a shift in power relationships between teacher educators and the state, and between the state and global organisations. In reference to the former, Gibson’s comments address both the changed power relationship and how it is maintained. He writes,

There is increasing evidence of the State’s preference for power and control rather than participation and involvement, for inequality rather than equality. The obsession with management, the low status of arts and humanities, the denigration of sociology, the increasing privatisation of public services, are indicators of instrumental rationality. The cast of mind of those who exercise state power places a premium on control, prediction, assessment and efficiency. (Gibson 1986, p.51)

Regarding the shift in power relationships between the state and global developments, Ball (2008) argues, control does not rest with the nation state alone but other actors are implicated in championing the shift for those who exercise power today.

Conclusion

In this chapter the five themes emerging from the data analyses of the nine semi-structured interviews were presented. They were: course content, the nature of the institution, the nature of work, the nature of the student and the politicisation of teacher education. Sections taken from the interviews of the three lecturers embellished each of the themes and illuminated particular changes that have occurred in pre-service teacher education. Furthermore, obtaining the three lecturers' perspectives provided insights to explanation why some policy recommendations have been implemented and others have not.

The interview data was also examined in light of the literature and theoretical framework of postmodernity. This showed changes in work practices experienced by teacher educators and a new means of control being exercised over their work. This data is aligned with the literature on how work has been influenced by the onset of postmodernity (see Ball, 2008; Blackmore, 2009; and Grimmett; 2009). The interview data also highlighted the interviewees' awareness of the macro influences on education policy today, including globalisation, the reconfigured state, and the new economy. Hence the interviewees' experiences of changes to pre-service teacher education parallels the of macro changes identified in the scholarly literature (see Dale, 1992, 1994, 1995; Hinkson; 1991; Lingard & Ozga, 2007; Ozga, 2000; Ozga and Lingard, 2007; Taylor *et al.* 1997, and Zadja.2008).

In summary, what has been shown in this chapter is the complementary of the literature, the interview data and the theory underpinning this thesis. As pre-service teacher education adopts elements of practice supportive of postmodernity, there arises a shift in power which is characterised by a weakening of control at the local and national levels and a heightening of influence at the global level.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Findings and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to summarise the investigation into pre-service teacher education policy which was the focus of the preceding chapters. In so doing, the starting point for the research will be revisited together with a recapitulation of the three focal questions which underscored the analysis. A brief summary of the respective chapters including the methodology employed to investigate the three questions will be included. Limitations of the study will be addressed and following this, findings resulting from the investigation will be considered. Importantly, the most significant outcomes from the research will be identified and discussed. Finally, recommendations resulting from the research will be made and suggestions for future research and teaching practice regarding pre-service teacher education policy will be proposed.

A return to the beginning

The focus of this study emanated from a critique of Australian teacher education and teacher educators made by the Gregor Ramsey in 2000. In writing the policy document *Quality matters: Revitalising teaching: Critical times, critical choices: Report of the review of teacher education*, Ramsey argued that despite the large number of reviews that had been held into teacher education in Australia prior to the production of his review, their impact had been minimal. This statement was followed by the observation that previous reviews indicated, “Telling evidence was gathered over that time about the need for change to develop a quality profession focused on delivering effective learning” (Ramsey, 2000, p. 213). This observation resulted in Ramsey raising the questions, “Why was it that those with responsibility to transform teacher education and the quality of teaching did not meet the challenges? Why was it when so much was asked for, so little was

given?” (Ramsey, 2000, p. 213). In answering his own two questions, Ramsey concluded,

Almost unwittingly, responsibility for change was placed in the hands of traditional systems, both of schools and teacher education. These had become so focused on perpetuating themselves that they proved unequal to the task. They had become so divorced from teachers and teaching that they were incapable of creating the conditions in which the required changes could flourish. Had these challenges been met as they arose over the past 20 years, this Review would have been unnecessary.

(Ramsey, 2000, p. 213)

This critique of those responsible for engaging in change within the different levels of education sat uneasily with this researcher, particularly in light of her experience of teaching in schools, in teacher education institutions and in the university system. As a result she sought to investigate the accuracy of Gregor Ramsey’s claims. The researcher also sought to investigate the degree to which change had been implemented. Furthermore, if there was only minimal change, she sought to search for explanations that went beyond those of Gregor Ramsey’s to explain why change had been so limited.

Research questions

As a result of the issue to be investigated, three questions emerged which were utilised to interrogate the changes that had been recommended in the respective policies; what changes had transpired as a result of the recommendations made; and the degree to which overall change had been limited. These three questions were as follows:

1. What recommendations were made?
2. What recommendations were implemented?
3. Why were some recommendations implemented and others not?

Summary of the investigation

In framing the investigation the decision was taken to limit the research to teacher education policy, in particular, pre-service teacher education policy. This choice resulted from the need to narrow the scope of the research in order to accommodate university guidelines regarding the word count constraints applicable to a thesis. Applying the limitation to only research pre-service teacher education policy also created a tighter framework for the study which allowed for a more tightly structured deep and effective investigation.

The literature review undertaken as part of this research provided the evidence of the wisdom of the decision to place limitations on the topic. Indeed, the extensive number of publications examining the three major areas of policy, pre-service teacher education and the macro and micro forces impacting on these topics required further tightening of the planned framework. Hence the literature pertaining to these three sections was examined from the theme of dissonance. As a consequence of employing this theme the tensions and competing perspectives underpinning the literature were able to be identified and unpacked.

The discordant results emanating from the review of the literature proved influential in the selection of an appropriate theory for the research. The theory employed had to be able to cater for dissonance at both a specific and broad level. In addition, the selected theory had to be one that could be applied to the areas of policy, teacher education and the macro and micro forces shaping these three areas. Furthermore, the selected theory had to offer the researcher the scope to “[bring] to bear those concepts and interpretive devices which offer the best possibilities of insight and understanding” (Ball, 1994a, p. 2). Finally the researcher needed to select a theory that would bring originality and novelty to the investigation in the hope of gaining a more insightful, interpretative explanation of change in pre-service teacher education policy. It was for the aforementioned reasons that the theory selected was one that comes under the umbrella of critical theory: postmodernity.

The choice of a qualitative methodology for the investigation resulted from the researcher's desire to select the most appropriate methodology for the research problem, in the case of this thesis, change in pre-service teacher education. It was considered a qualitative approach would be the most appropriate as it offered the researcher the possibility of gaining a deeper understanding of why change does or does not occur. Furthermore, it was anticipated that a qualitative study provided the researcher with the scope to explore the substantive and broad amount of data to allow for novel understandings to emerge which could explain why change did or did not occur in pre-service teacher education.

Three sets of data were gathered and analysed in this project. The first set collected concerned relevant policy documents. A review of documents published at both State and Commonwealth levels and pertaining to education led to the finding that from 1979 to 2007, 103 reviews had been published. Analysing this many documents was not a possibility for this thesis. As a consequence, three national documents dealing with teacher education were selected for analysis. The decision to include a report published in 2007 resulted from the need to keep the research up-to-date and to maintain a focus both past and recent documents dealing with pre-service teacher education. The policies chosen are listed below.

- 1) *Report of the National Enquiry into Teacher Education* [Auchmuty Report]. This policy document was produced in 1980 by the National Inquiry into Teacher Education (Australia).
- 2) *Improving Teacher Education: Report of the Joint Review of Teacher Education*. This review was published in 1986 and undertaken by the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission and the Commonwealth Schools Commission.
- 3) *Top of the Class: Report on the inquiry into teacher education* [Hartsuyker Report]. This report was published in 2007 by the House of Representatives Standing Committee on education and Vocational Training

The second set of data consisted of three sets of *Handbooks* from Australian Federal University. Each one selected was published three years after each of the three policy documents selected for analysis was published. It was considered that this time lag allowed for recommended changes to be implemented hence evidence of changes could be identified in the *Handbooks*.

The third set of data comprised three life histories. This data allowed the researcher to gain a more accurate, well rounded and in-depth understanding of change in teacher education. The life histories methodology also allowed the researcher an opportunity to move beyond previous explanations of change that too often have focussed on abstract, narrow and neatly bounded interpretations. Life history methodology caters for the complexity of ordinary lives as well as for human agency, thus engaging in this form of research offers the researcher the potential to add another layer to previous interpretations of why change can be limited. Hence life histories provide new ways of interpreting the third question that underscores this thesis. As Goodson wrote, “Life history and historical methods link the persona, the practical and the theoretical in new ways that operate at all three of these levels” (2008, p. viii).

Limitations of the research

The first limitation of the study concerns the first set of data which was studied. The selection of policy documents to be analysed had to be restricted. As discussed in chapter five, from 1979 to 2007 there have been 102 policy documents produced in Australia dealing with education and teacher education. As a result of this large number, only those documents that related to the general context of teacher education and that were not discipline specific were selected for analysis. Moreover, only those policies published by the Commonwealth Government were selected as this gave insights into broad changes to be implemented in teacher education programs across Australia rather than in a particular state. The result was an analysis of only three documents. Nonetheless, the analysis was in-depth and the limitation of having such a small number was compensated for by regularly referring back to other policies to investigate how

changes recommended in the three national documents analysed often echoed changes recommended in previous documents.

The second limitation relates to the second set of data, that is, the three *Handbooks* which were selected for study. Whilst these proved an invaluable source to examine changes to course content and selection criteria into teacher education, they failed to provide any information on financial resources allocated by the Commonwealth Government to the institution nor the institution's distribution of these resources to faculties, in the case of this thesis, to the education faculty. Hence it was not possible to use either this set of data, or the policy data, to investigate the money trail from policy recommendations regarding financial allocations, to the Commonwealth Government's partial or full rejection or adoption of the recommendations or to whether the education faculties received none, some or all of the grant money allocated. As a result, any investigation into the financing of pre-service teacher education was unable to be realised.

A third limitation of this project relates to the tracking of changes recommended for pre-service teacher education in both the policy and Handbook data. To pursue every change recommended in the policies and implemented in teacher education courses would have been an unwieldy process, consequently it was decided to group the changes to the five central themes that emerged from the data:

1. control of teacher education;
2. recruitment;
3. length of courses;
4. professional experience;
5. structure and content.

Some readers may regard the decision to undertake only three life histories as a further limitation of the thesis. As discussed in chapter four it was recognised that the issue of generalising the life history studies of three people involved in pre-service teacher education and expecting these three to serve as a prototype for teacher educators as a whole is likely to draw criticism; a criticism rejected by this researcher. Given that the life history method underpinning this thesis is that of *the limited life document*, a method which confronts a particular issue, the

increased likelihood of the emergence of an individual professional's perspective being representative of the profession as a whole is heightened. A further response to the criticism of seeing an individual life history as representative of the general group can be counteracted through the careful selection of the participants. In the case of this project, the extensive experience of the three participants in the field of teacher education and the changes they have witnessed throughout their professional lives makes each of them an ideal candidate to represent their profession for any study on teacher education. Finally critics of the life history method need to be cognizant of the thoughts of Punch who contends that the interview is "a very good way of accessing people's perceptions, meanings, definitions of situations and constructions of reality. It is also one of the most powerful ways we have of understanding others" (1998, p. 175).

Having stated the above, the researcher acknowledges that the questions driving this thesis cannot be answered with authority given that only three policies, three *Handbooks* and three teacher educators have been used to collect the data. However it is a reasonable supposition that these three sources of data may well echo the common position of such, given the researcher has sampled with care, and can call upon her own personal knowledge gained from being a long term practitioner in the field of teacher education. Nevertheless it is recognised that statements of findings that follow are assertions of probabilities, not fact.

Research questions and key findings

What follows is a brief summary of the findings in relation to the five categories which emerged from the analysis of the policy data. It should be noted that over the time span of three decades covered in this thesis the content of the policies resulted in the regular recurrence of the main categories. These categories were: control of teacher education, recruitment, length of courses, professional experience, structure and content. The analysis of the three policy documents provides the evidence to answer the first question underpinning this thesis; what recommendations were made? The institutional Handbooks other policy documents provide some evidence to answer the second question; what recommendations were implemented? Finally, the third set of data, the life

histories, provide insights into why some recommendations were implemented and others not?

Findings from the policy data

Theme one: Control of teacher education:

What recommendations were made?

Within this category across the three policy documents recommendations made covered five main issues. The first was the establishment of National Advisory Bodies to initiate, monitor and review developments in teacher education as well as accreditation processes for the Colleges of Advanced Education (CAE). In more recent policies the term ‘advisory’ was dropped and recommendations were made for establishing national bodies for the purposes of funding courses, creating national institutes of research, establishing national professional standards and national accreditation of teacher education courses. The next issue concerned the establishment of centres of excellence in the CAEs in relation to specific areas as well as centres for improving tertiary teaching within the CAEs. The third issue related to up-grading teacher educators’ qualifications and staff development in priority areas. Fourth was the issue of participation and equity which was a priority in the two policy documents chaired by Auchmuty and Hudson and Boomer. The final area was that of research. Each of the policies made recommendations for an increase in funding for a co-ordinated program of research and development in teacher education particularly in priority areas.

What recommendations were implemented?

Over the past thirty years all the above recommendations have been implemented to varying degrees. What follows is an identification of what was fully or partially implemented.

Following the national funding trail and the rise and demise of various national authorities is complex and beyond the scope of this thesis. Likewise, tracing the establishment of national centres for excellence related to teacher

education and their closures. It is, however, worthwhile noting the national bodies that were established as a result of policy recommendations. Although not a complete list, and a number of bodies either no longer exist or have been restructured into other organisations, they include the following: Commonwealth Schools Commission, Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission, National Aboriginal Education Committee, Joint Committee on Teacher Education, Australian Council on Awards in Advanced Education, Australian Council on Tertiary Awards, Education Research Fund, Teaching Australia, Teacher Education Diversity Fund, National Teacher Education Partnership Fund and National Teacher Induction Program. This sample list gives an indication of recommendations being implemented and the array of national bodies with which teacher education faculties must interact.

Why were some recommendations implemented and others not?

Overall the majority of recommendations made under this theme have been implemented. However, often the recommendations have only been partially implemented and have not been sustained. In large part this has been due to what Coulter and Ingvarson describe as “the susceptibility of funding to fluctuations because of budgetary circumstances” (as cited in Hudson and Boomer, 1986, p. 28). In addition, fluctuation in Commonwealth priorities have resulted in a limited lifespan or regular restructuring of various authorities established by the government of the day. However, in recent times there has been a growth in national authorities to which teacher education faculties are answerable.

Finding one

Over the past thirty years, there has been an increase in the number of Commonwealth government authorities that have been established to review, assess, monitor and accredit teacher education.

Finding two

Because of the increase in Commonwealth government authorities overseeing teacher education there has been a strengthening of national government control over the field and a corresponding weakening of control by teacher educators regarding their work practices and styles of teaching. .

Finding three

Changing government priorities have resulted in a climate of uncertainty within universities generally and teacher education faculties specifically. Significant to the climate of uncertainty are the demands for teacher education faculties to engage with an increasing number of authorities which have constantly changing demands.

Theme two: Recruitment

What recommendations were made?

The recommendations made across the three policies in regard to recruiting students into teacher education involved three key concerns. First were the standard academic requirements for entry into teaching. Second was the need to target specific groups to encourage them to enter teacher education courses. These groups included those from aboriginal communities, ethnic and refugee groups and candidates from low socio-economic backgrounds. Two other groups targeted for recruitment into teaching were mature age candidates and males. The final concern under the category of recruitment was the issue of supply and demand.

What recommendations were implemented?

Recommendations made regarding selection of pre-service teachers often reflected Commonwealth government priorities of the time. With respect to the policies prioritising the selection of under-represented groups, particularly those from aboriginal backgrounds, non-English speaking

backgrounds, and students from low socio-economic groups, there has been qualified success in implementation.

For example, in regard to more aboriginal students entering teaching it was noted in the Hartsuyker Report “Education has the second highest proportion of Indigenous students of all fields of tertiary education while numbers of Indigenous pre-service teacher education graduates are not high enough to provide the requisite number of Indigenous teachers, teaching is an area with relatively strong participation of Indigenous people (2007, p. 39).

Why were some recommendations implemented and others not?

Recommendations for under-represented groups to enter teaching have been quite successful. In large part this has occurred as a result of the Commonwealth government targeting these groups under the banner of equity and providing the necessary funds to implement the recommendation.

Finding four

When recommendations are supported with adequate funding by government the likely success of the recommendation being implemented is improved greatly.

The need to recruit more males into pre-service primary teaching was identified in the three policy documents and many others as well. However this recommendation has not translated into practice. Indeed Hartsuyker noted, “the proportion of males among new graduates is declining” (2007, p. 42). Explaining this trend he identified three reasons: low status and salaries, teaching seen as ‘women’s work’ and a fear of child abuse accusations (p. 43). Hence cultural factors come into play regarding males considering a career in teaching.

Finding five

Reasons for recommendations not being implemented can be due to external social and cultural factors which lie beyond the control of governments, universities, faculties of education or teacher educators.

Theme three: Length of course

What recommendations were made?

With respect to the length of courses for pre-service primary teacher education the *National Inquiry into Teacher Education* and the policy document *Improving Teacher Education* both agreed that the four year, 3 + e + 1 model, was appropriate and should remain. With respect to the third document *Top of the Class*, no recommendation was made to length of courses.

What recommendations were implemented?

A review of the Handbooks indicate that up until the early 1990s the recommended 3 + e + 1 model was implemented at Australian Federal University. By the early 1990s this model had changed and teacher education became a four year degree course. Commenting on the duration of courses Ingavarson *et al.* (2004) wrote “All except one course takes four years to complete There is thus considerable uniformity across Australia in the length of undergraduate pre-service primary teacher education courses” (2004, p. 8).

Why were some recommendations implemented and others not?

A change of this nature begs the questions of why and how a new model for pre-service teacher education can be introduced when it was not recommended in the policy documents. Significant to this development was the amalgamation of Colleges of Advanced Education into the university sector. As consequence of this development the Federal Minister of

Education, which at the time of the amalgamations was John Dawkins, gained direct control over teacher education. This was in contrast to the past whereby teacher education was governed by the various states.

Finding six

Not all changes to pre-service teacher education derive from public policy recommendations. In some cases the normal process of change is over-ridden and instigated by an authority figure such as a government Minister who has extensive power in a particular area.

Theme four: Professional experience

What recommendations were made?

This category proved to be of major interest to the policy producers. The recommendations made centred on the construction of the practical component of the course suggesting professional experience be ordered, sequential and leading up to a full range of tasks expected of a qualified teacher. Further recommendations were made for pre-service teachers to experience a variety of settings, regular school attachments and block practices. Supervision was a key area of interest with recommendations revolving around selection and training of supervising teachers and time allowance for supervisors. In addition, recommendations were made regarding the need for collaboration between schools, teacher education institutions and supervising teachers, hence the issue of partnership. Finally recommendations were made in the policies regarding the need to increase funding to support the cost of the practicum.

What recommendations were implemented?

An examination of the three Handbooks from Australian Federal University indicates that most of the recommendations regarding the professional experience component of the Bachelor of Education were implemented. Recommendations for professional experience to be ordered and sequential, to require students to

undertake a variety of tasks whilst on teaching rounds, experience a variety of settings, and a block placement were all fully implemented.

Why were some recommendations implemented and others not?

Other recommendations in respect to the practicum such as training and selection of supervisors, establishing partnerships and increases in government funding for professional experience have not be fully implemented. The changing nature of academic work has resulted in time restraints for teacher educators due to the increase in work demands. As a result, developing programs with schools such as partnerships and supervisor training is difficult to organise. With respect to funding for school experience, policy after policy has called for an increase in Commonwealth funding but little has been forthcoming. This is in part due to the shift in funding arrangements whereby teacher education is now situated in the university sector, hence education faculties must compete with other faculties regarding distribution of finances. This led Hartsuyker to recommend the funding for the practicum be paid separately to universities and that universities have to “acquit it separately as part of their financial reporting requirements” (recommendation 12, p. 117).

Finding seven

Teacher educators readily implement recommended policy changes when there are either no financial costs, or limited financial costs. Conversely, given the limited funding to universities ,when recommendations for change are not adequately funded, change is difficult to implement.

Finding eight

The intensification of the nature of work for teacher educators has resulted in them being time poor hence developing partnerships with schools and offering supervisor training to stakeholders is difficult to implement.

Finding nine

Unless the Commonwealth government assigns funding for professional experience separately and regulates for separate financial reporting regarding expenditure of these specified funds, the likelihood of education faculties obtaining full access to monies given to universities for professional experience will remain limited.

Theme five: Structure and content

What recommendations were made?

Key recommendations in the respective policies revolved around the structure, sequence and content of the units in the Bachelor of Education course. The inclusion of core studies within the pre-service course and the makeup of this core was the subject of a number of the recommendations. In addition, what subject disciplines should be offered and the weighting to core units, discipline units, electives and professional experience featured in recommendations across the policies. Also regularly recommended in the documents was the demand for adequate standards in the areas of language and mathematics to be required of all pre-service teachers. Finally, the need for pre-service teacher education courses to respond to social and technological changes in society was recommended in the policies on a regular basis.

What recommendations were implemented

Recommendations for change to the structure, sequence and content of the Bachelor of Education course were implemented widely at Australian Federal University. A comparison of the data collected from the Handbooks (see Tables 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3) indicate wide scale change. With respect to structure the broad areas to be studied remained relatively the same, namely education studies, curriculum studies, pedagogy and professional experience. However, significant changes arose as to the number of units offered within each of the areas, the units to be studied and the content of the units. In addition there were changes to what

constituted core units, subject discipline units and electives and the weighting of each group of units changed in each of the Handbooks.

Recommendations for adequate standards in language and mathematics were a constant recommendation in the three policy documents dealt with in this thesis as well as numerous others e.g. Speedy, 1989. As shown in Handbook 3, entry requirements into teacher education had changed in response to these recommendations. As a result of the demand applicants for teaching are now required to have satisfactorily completed specific units in mathematics and English as well as attain a nominated score in their final year of schooling.

Why were some recommendations implemented and others not?

In respect to the theme of structure and content, change to pre-service courses has been extensive. For example in the seventies and eighties, the Commonwealth government was concerned with issues of equity, pluralism and social justice. Hence an emphasis was given to aboriginal studies and multicultural education, including the teaching of community languages. These curriculum areas have been replaced by units such as technology and diversity in the classroom. Diversity today is interpreted not as developing notions of a pluralistic society but as dealing with under-achieving students.

Another example of changing government priorities impacting on the content of teacher education courses relates to foundation studies. Units such as values education, philosophy of education, history of education and sociology of education have been replaced by units emphasising learning e.g. contexts for learning and development, understanding learning, teaching and managing learning environments, creating inclusive, safe and supportive schools and transition to the profession. What this shift indicates is the restructuring of teacher education from being a foundation for a knowledge based profession to a skills based career.

Finding ten

Over the last three decades changes in the structure and content of pre-service teacher education courses have been a response to a shift in government priorities from education for the transmission of knowledge to education for the transmission of skills.

Finding eleven

Recommendations made in the policy documents for pre-service teacher education courses to respond to social and technological changes have been responded to by teacher educators in the development of their courses.

Additional findings from the life history data

The above findings serve to explain why some recommendations made for pre-service teacher education have been implemented and others not. Policy documents and Handbooks from the Australian Federal University were used to find evidence for change. In an attempt to explore other reasons for why change did, or did not occur, life history data was collected from interviews with three teacher educators. The findings from this data extend the findings identified thus far in regard to policy implementation. The themes that emerged from the life history data were,

- i) Course content;
- ii) The nature of the institution;
- iii) The nature of work;
- iv) The nature of the student;
- v) The politicisation of teacher education.

Theme one: Course content

Regarding course content the three lecturers interviewed for this project expressed major concerns in relation to developments in the content of teacher education courses. In summary, they lamented the loss of a broad perspective to course content as evidenced by the downgrading of the liberal arts and foundation studies units. The teacher educators interpreted this shift as a retrograde step as they considered it weakened students' critical capacities to interpret change in education and in society. They also believed it resulted in pre-service teacher education students being prepared by the university to become technicians rather than free thinking professionals. As a consequence of this discrepancy between what the policy writers prioritised compared to what the policy implementers considered important, the teacher educators admitted that despite attempts to control what they taught, they were influenced by their personal ideology and values regarding what they saw as important for the purpose of education.

Finding twelve

Despite government policy recommendations and the tightening of university control over course content, teacher educators, while appearing amenable to meeting state, national and university demands for specific content, embed into their teaching their personal ideologies and values regarding what they consider should be the purpose of education.

Theme two: The nature of the institution

Changes to the nature of the university and the teacher education faculty produced a strong reaction from each of the interviewees. Commenting on these changes the three teacher educators lamented the growth of bureaucracy within the university structure and the subsequent challenges this created for the faculty of education. It was observed by one of the interviewees that to support the growth in management within the institution, finances that would normally be distributed to the faculties are being siphoned off to pay for the enlarged bureaucracy. Another change to the institution identified by another of the interviewees was the new

relationship between the education faculty and stakeholders in the wider education community. The once co-operative relationship is now mediated by the market as the concept of fee-for-service dominates relationships between the university lecturer and outside agencies.

Finding thirteen

The state now applies both neo-liberal and neo-conservative approaches to the university, thus it is subject to the logic of the marketplace. As a result it engages in practices characteristic of business to maintain economic viability.

Finding fourteen

Underfunding of universities and teacher education faculties has led to a change in relationships with stakeholders. As a result co-operative work practices between the university and the education community are diminished as the market logic now dominates relationships.

Theme three: The nature of the work

The continual raising of the bar in terms of both quality and quantity of work regarding what is expected of teacher educators was addressed by each interviewee. The mounting layers of accountability being demanded of lecturing staff; the demand for increases in publication outputs, research and grant applications and escalating administrative tasks is taking an increasing amount of the lecturers' time. Added to these tasks is the demand to engage in entrepreneurial activities to supplement university income. At the same time, the lecturing staff found themselves having to teach larger classes. In addition to these changes further intensification of the teacher educators work has resulted from the continual changing technology which creates a need for lecturers to constantly engage in reskilling. Commenting upon the consequences of the increase in demands placed on lecturing staff one of the interviewees believed it resulted in a lack of quality in teaching.

Finding fifteen

The intensification of teacher educators' work is associated with increased performativity demands; a key feature underpinning neo-liberalist ideology.

Finding sixteen

Australian Federal University has adopted the features of neo-managerialism as it endeavours to get more for less from its teacher educators by demanding greater outputs for given inputs.

Finding seventeen

The introduction of new technologies into teacher education has seen a change in work practices of the university lecturer. Not only have administrative tasks increased but teaching becomes mediated by the computer screen rather than being a face-to-face activity.

Finding eighteen

The intensification of teacher educators' workloads has resulted in a weakening of the quality of teaching in teacher education programs. The rise in demands to publish, apply for grants and complete a wealth of tasks once undertaken by administrative staff had translated into less time being given to improving teaching standards.

Theme four: The nature of the student

All three interviewees commented that the type of students now entering teacher education courses differs considerably from students in the past. They considered that today's students see education as a job, not a vocation. Associated with this change is students' attitude to their course. Whilst they are enrolled in a full time course, the students treat it as part-time. According to one interviewee this is because they prioritise their jobs over their studies. As a consequence the students

give minimal time to their studies and are reluctant to do extra study. Also significant to their work commitments, is students' preference for digital modes of learning; hence they favour online units as it allows them more time in paid employment. Significant to the shift in balance between study and work was the introduction of university fees. Added to this, the strict criteria for Commonwealth government funded youth allowance entitlements, results in many students not being eligible to receive benefits; hence they need to increase their work hours in order to meet their financial commitments.

Finding nineteen

Due to the introduction of university fees, the contemporary teacher education student faces financial commitments not faced by previous generations of students. As a result, students' commitment to their studies has diminished as they strive to pay for expenses associated with their tertiary course and other financial commitments.

Theme five: The politicisation of teacher education

Three different aspects of how changes in teacher education have been linked to politics were discussed by the interviewees. The first concerned the political undertones regarding appointments of chairpersons and committee members to review teacher education and write new policies. In the 1980s the selection of potential candidates to head a review of teacher education was based on their background in education and knowledge of teacher education. Appointments of chairpersons made in the 1980s such as Auchmuty, Speedy, and Boomer and Hudson, all of whom spent their professional lives in education, were regarded by those in the field as 'insiders'. During the following two decades appointees charged with the task of producing Commonwealth inquiries into teacher education were dominated by political elites representative of either a political party or had leanings towards a specific political orientation. These 'outsiders' regularly made recommendations sympathetic to the ideology of those responsible for their appointment.

The second aspect of politicisation of teacher education revolves around policy changes which are directly linked with national economic goals. An exemplar of this development was seen in the shift in emphasis away from the teaching of community languages to the teaching of Asian languages. Underpinning this shift was the desire for Australia to become more internationally competitive. As the Asian economies strengthened educating students to learn an Asian language was prioritised.

Globalisation has been another aspect of the politicisation of teacher education. One of the life history interviewees identified the link between the changing culture of the university and the advent of globalisation. She argued that because of the new relationship between capital and governance, a compliant workforce is required. Hence today's university is no longer a place of critique but an institution of compliance resulting in part by an increase in performativity demands being made of lecturers. Associated with the need for compliant workers is the silencing of the voice of those once expected to engage in social critique. However, within the neo-managerialist university the view of lecturer as expert critic needs to be controlled, hence "the death of the public intellectual." (Nicola, Interview 1, lines 148 – 157).

Finding twenty

Pre-service teacher education policy is regularly influenced by the government political ideology of the period.

Finding twenty one

Contemporary teacher education policies are being used to steer education in a direction which simultaneously feeds into and feeds off particular features associated with the advancement of globalisation.

Interpreting the findings in light of the literature review

Within this thesis the literature review was constructed around the theme of dissonance. The original intention of arranging the literature in this form was that it provided a means of organising in a coherent manner the vast body of

scholarship already undertaken in the areas of policy and teacher education. Given the findings of this thesis show the lack of congruence in themes and the conflict in ideology between the policy producers and policy implementers, hindsight indicates that selecting the theme of dissonance was providential.

With respect to policy, dissonances in definition were explored. Some writers believed policy was a fixed, rational, top-down approach while others considered it a fluid process. The findings of this thesis support the view that policy is not a rational linear process (see findings five, six, ten and twelve). As Ball (1994) claimed, “Policy is both text and action, words and deeds, it is what is enacted as well as what is intended. Policies are always incomplete insofar as they relate to or map on to the ‘wild profusion’ of local practice” (p. 10).

Philips (2005) explored the different types of models of policy development. His conflict model appears the most appropriate as it embodies the contestable nature of policy development evidenced in this thesis (see finding 12).

The incongruence between the best forms of policy analysis was also discussed in the literature review. Some authors claimed the role of the state as paramount in policy analysis whilst others claimed the implementers were paramount, hence the state control versus policy cycle approach. Given the findings of this project favouring the state at the expense of the implementers, or vice-versa, would result in telling only part of the story. Nonetheless this research also shows that the influence of the state in this, the postmodern period, is increasingly steering change in pre-service teacher education, much more so than the teacher educators (see findings 1, 2, 3, 6, 10, 13, 20 and 21) .

The dissonance in perspectives on macro forces shaping education policy is a further contested area in the policy literature. Scholars have argued over the degree of influence of structural forces, such as the reconfigured state, globalisation and the new economy. Ball claimed, “education policy is increasingly thought about and made within the context of the ‘pressures’ and requirements of globalisation” (2008, p. 1). Findings from the policy document data and the interview data gathered for this project led this writer to conclude that

structural changes are indeed impacting on teacher education policy (see findings 2, 11, 13, 20 and 21).

Associated with the aforementioned macro structural changes are micro changes regarding new styles of management. Known as neo-managerialism, Stephen Ball (2008) employs the term “policy technologies” to describe these contemporary public management practices. He contends the “policy technologies” of education reform are generic in two senses: as part of a global convergence in reform strategies . . . and as deployed across the public sector as a whole. They constitute a ‘one-size-fits-all’ model” (p. 42). Within education this signifies a shift in the behaviour of the state. Acker-Hocevar *et al.* describe this shift as changing “from one of providing support and resources to one of monitoring and ensuring compliance to its mandates and regulations” (2010, p. 121). The findings in this thesis support these writers’ perceptions (see finding 1, 2, 3, 15, 16 and 18).

Dissonance in the literature review on the micro forces shaping pre-service teacher education indicate the competing views regarding the purposes of pre-service teacher education. This has led to the adoption of a variety of approaches throughout the history of teacher education. Despite whatever approach adopted by government, teacher educators will adjust their content according to their own view of what approach they consider should be taken (see findings 10 and 12).

Interpreting the findings in light of the theory

Selecting postmodernity as the theoretical basis of this thesis proved judicious as it allowed for a broad form of explanation to interpret the findings for this project. In chapter three characteristic features of the postmodern were explored through an examination of contemporary art and architecture. Christo’s *The Umbrellas*, a construction relying on new technologies to produce each umbrella, serves as a signifier for developments in pre-service teacher education which are increasingly reliant on new forms of technology. Hence student enrolments, the delivery of courses, correspondence with students and assessment practices are today all dependent on technology. This development correlates with the findings in this thesis (see finding 11).

Christo's *The Umbrellas* spanned two continents and saw a reinterpretation of space. This too acts as a signifier for the postmodern university in which space is reinterpreted as both lecturer and student attend to their work "online". No longer are they confined to the lecture hall or tutorial room. As was shown in the above findings, for teacher educators this results in an intensification of their work (see findings 15, 16 and seventeen).

Christo's "wrappings" where the outer facade of a building is wrapped, produces a tension between what is becoming of the facade and what is happening inside the building. For Christo this is seen as reality reconstructed. This artist's "wrappings" are another signifier for teacher education as the concept of a university as the site of intellectual exploration is in tension with what is being taught inside the institution. With respect to course content the findings show that over the past thirty years an emphasis on knowledge-based subjects that allows the student to become a critical practitioner are being replaced by areas of study that are more skills-based. This development complements Jameson's (1994) term "waning of effect" (p. 15) when he argues the cultural products of the postmodern fail to create the same intensity of feelings. The lack of intensity in the content of current teacher education programs results in a surface depthlessness of knowledge. Yet this shift in teacher education studies regularly goes unrecognised perhaps for reasons best explained by Gehry's concept of postmodern architecture which sees the old "now packaged in this new skin" (as cited in Jameson, 1991, p. 109). Findings in this thesis support the view of teacher-education taking on a surface depthlessness (see findings 10, 17 and 18).

Significant to this surface depthlessness is Lyotard's (1979) observation of the collapse of the grand narrative whereby the influence of meta narratives associated with emancipatory visions with privileged discourse and universal explanations are no longer fashionable in higher education. Being critical of the postmodern university Lyotard argues "the transmission of knowledge is no longer designed to train an elite capable of guiding a nation towards its emancipation, but to supply the system with players capable of acceptably fulfilling their roles at the pragmatic post required by its institutions" (Lyotard,

1984, p. 48). Findings in this project correlate with Lyotard's interpretation of postmodern education (see findings 1, 2, 10, 11 and 13).

The relevance of structural changes indicative of the emergence of postmodernity was discussed in chapter three. Hinkson examined the link between economic structural change and education, and concluded there has been a shift in emphasis to training, life-long learning and the development of flexible skills. He also noted that "training is increasingly abstract training in analytical skills – as one might expect if the abstract intellectual nature of high tech is reflected upon This emphasis on intellectual training is enormously influential in education today" (1991, p. 31). Findings from this project on changes to pre-service teacher education support Hinkson's perspective on the shift in education to the training of abstract skills (see findings 10, 11 and 17).

Significant findings

In the above two sections the findings emanating from the themes were discussed in relation to the literature review and theoretical perspective of the thesis. However, several findings that emerged did not relate to either the literature or the theory. This is significant as it highlights gaps in the literature regarding change to pre-service teacher education policy.

The first refers to findings seven, eight and nine which come under the theme of professional experience. Despite policy after policy recommending increased funding for this area, there has been little increase in financial support. This serves to explain the cut-backs in supervised days student teachers spend in schools. Yet in spite of this financial difficulty, over the past three decades, Australian Federal University education staff has devised ways to maintain the professional experience allotment without incurring additional costs. They have organised activities on campus, arranged observation days, engaged in micro-teaching activities and of late, weaved community education into being part of the professional experience. This commitment demonstrated by teacher educators to their profession calls into question Ramsey's critical comment from the document

Quality Matters Revitalising teaching: Critical times, critical choices and quoted in the opening chapter of this thesis,

Almost unwittingly, responsibility for change was placed in the hands of traditional systems, both of schools and teacher education. These had become so focused on perpetuating themselves that they proved unequal to the task. They had become so divorced from teachers and teaching that they were incapable of creating the conditions in which the required changes could flourish. (Ramsey, 2000, p. 213)

This researcher rejects Ramsey's critique. Teacher education staff have demonstrated their commitment to go the extra distance to ensure that aspects of the course such as the practical experience component will not be compromised in spite of governments abrogating their financial duty.

The second silence in the literature and theory sections, but noted in the findings, relates to the changing nature of the student teachers. Although in some of the documents students were interviewed as part of the policy process no policy acknowledges or discusses the nature of the contemporary students. Finding nineteen draws on the interview data and highlights how the introduction of university fees has caused financial difficulties for many student teachers. Hence they spend additional time in the workplace at the expense of class attendance and their studies. Moreover, "generation Y" do not perceive teaching as a life-long commitment as did their predecessor generations. This impacts on what is taught in teacher education programs and how it is taught. Despite the changing reality of the students, none of the policy documents made reference to the differences in today's students.

The third silence in the literature and theory sections of the thesis, but alluded to in finding twelve, is the failure of policy writers to address the divergent philosophical positions between those who write the policies and those expected to implement them. This area of dissonance has either gone unrecognised or has been ignored. Herein lies a crucial element to explain why all policy recommendations are not implemented. In the last two decades in Australia, the

policy writers have shown their support for a shift in teacher education whereby it is reframed in light of the characteristics of postmodernity. In opposition to this, is the lecturers' ideology which is perhaps more in harmony with the ideology of modernity. Hence the teacher educators are committed to the idea of the grand narrative, particularly that of democracy. For them, education should be concerned with furthering the democratic state rather than the refigured state which is committed to globalisation and the new economy.

Recommendations for future research

Stemming from this thesis are new possibilities for further research. Each of the themes established, whether from the policies or the life histories, could be research on an individual basis allowing for a more in-depth investigation.

Exploring the money trail regarding the distribution of funds allocated to individual universities and investigating whether teacher education receives its fair share may assist in providing evidence to government of the need for an increase in funds.

The silencing of the university intellectual and the enforcing of compliance strategies brought about by "policy technologies" certainly deserves further investigation. Understanding the control mechanisms employed by those in power is the first step to resistance. As a group, teacher educators are not skilled at entering the political arena, or politically manoeuvring for their own ends. But if they are to regain some of the power they have lost they need to understand first, how they lost power and secondly who now has it. In addition they need to appreciate that in the postmodern institution, a return to older forms of resistance is likely to be ineffective.

Another avenue for research is a more detailed investigation into the disconnection between policy makers and those entrusted to enact the policy. Clearly how this was done in the past cannot be resurrected: structural changes made over decades prevent that from reoccurring. Nevertheless if the clash between the policy makers and policy implementers is to be resolved, clear and

short lines of communication need to be found that allow each set of voices to be heard and understood.

Finally, there is a pressing need for research that gives voice to those who are most silent in teacher education policy; the students. Often seen as the end-user or the product of the programs, from the perspective of this investigation such a characterisation cannot be accepted. They too need the opportunity to be authentically involved in the policy process. As noted in various places above, the role of the teacher educator is rapidly changing as various electronic media become a larger part of our everyday space. As for the students; they are rapidly changing in response to changes in the wider society. Hence in policy formation this crucial aspect of planning for a rapidly changing notion of what a typical student is, as well as what society needs from a teacher education program, will become critical.

Reflections on the research

Academic

From the standpoint of this thesis I now know what I should have done! I regret that I cannot go back to my life history interviewees with another set of questions. I regret that I read so much that was interesting but not relevant to the topic. I regret my computer formatting skills were not as up-to-date at the beginning of this study as they are now. Nonetheless, the opportunity to undertake this thesis has allowed me to gain the knowledge to critique policy and to deconstruct the wider context in which it is developed.

Personal

When beginning this project I had no idea what would unfold. For me undertaking this study has resulted in a dramatic rise on my learning curve, not only intellectually but personally as well. As I reach the concluding stage of the writing I feel burdened by the compliance measures foisted upon me. I am overwhelmed

by the numbers of students I am expected to teach, the constant paperwork that has to be completed, the unremitting demands of the university hierarchy, the latest computer program I am expected to fully master after a two-hour training session, the demand for a digital core to be part of every lecture and the overseeing of my work by government agencies. In my role as a teacher educator I now have so little available time for the students and am saddened by the decreasing face-to-face interaction. But listening to the life histories of my three interviewees I appreciate I am not alone.

Working within the postmodern university I will quietly engage in my own resistance strategies, one of which will be to remind my students of the interconnectedness between education and the democratic state. Another form of resistance will be to challenge my colleagues who sit in their offices with doors closed, hunched over their computers, worrying if they can make the next deadline, to take a break and have a good laugh.

Conclusion

In the opening chapter of this study, Gregor Ramsey's observations on policy, change and teacher educators were noted. He claimed, "there have been ... more than twenty reviews of teaching and teacher education over the past two decades ..." (2000, p. 14). A review of the polices shows that by the year 2000 there had been sixty-nine polices published (see Appendix C).

Ramsey went on to suggest that despite the large number of reviews, their impact has been minimal. The evidence produced in this thesis suggests otherwise. Changes to teacher education courses over the past three decades have been extensive. The manifestation of these changes has mostly resulted from the impact of recommendations made in various reviews of pre-service education.

After claiming the impact of the many reviews had been minimal, Gregor Ramsey then asked the following two questions. "Why was it that those with responsibility to transform teacher education and the quality of teaching did not

meet the challenges? Why was it when so much was asked for, so little was given?" (Ramsey, 2000, p. 213)

The findings emanating from this study demonstrate that teacher educators have continually responded to change. The move from the Colleges of Advanced Education into the university system was an enormous challenge faced by teacher educators. Lecturing staff have survived the neo- managerial restructuring of their work and still survived. They have withstood the terror of the performativity regime in the postmodern university and adapted to the increased workload. Teacher educators have worked with state institutes that accredit their degrees and have reconfigured the structure and content of their courses to comply with outside demands. They have adopted new forms of technology, new ways of teaching and coped with the increasing number of students in their classes. Thus once again, this researcher disagrees with the sentiments of Gregor Ramsey. As the results of this thesis show; much has been asked of teacher educators, and much has been given.

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Appendix A

Copy of ethics clearance



Human Research Ethics Committee

Committee Approval Form

Principal Investigator/Supervisor: Dr Joseph Zajda Melbourne Campus
Co-Investigators: A/P Philip Clarkson Melbourne Campus
Student Researcher: Ms Dianne Cullen Melbourne Campus

Ethics approval has been granted for the following project:
Pre-Service Teacher Education Policy in the Postmodern State
for the period: 10/08/04 - 31/12/04
Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) Register Number: V2004-05-117

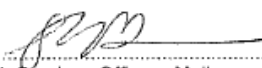
The following standard conditions as stipulated in the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans* (1999) apply:

- (i) that Principal Investigators / Supervisors provide, on the form supplied by the Human Research Ethics Committee, annual reports on matters such as:
 - security of records
 - compliance with approved consent procedures and documentation
 - compliance with special conditions, and
- (ii) that researchers report to the HREC immediately any matter that might affect the ethical acceptability of the protocol, such as:
 - proposed changes to the protocol
 - unforeseen circumstances or events
 - adverse effects on participants

The HREC will conduct an audit each year of all projects deemed to be of more than minimum risk. There will also be random audits of a sample of projects considered to be of minimum risk on all campuses each year.

Within one month of the conclusion of the project, researchers are required to complete a *Final Report Form* and submit it to the local Research Services Officer.

If the project continues for more than one year, researchers are required to complete an *Annual Progress Report Form* and submit it to the local Research Services Officer within one month of the anniversary date of the ethics approval.

Signed:  Date: 10/08/04
(Research Services Officer, Melbourne Campus)

Appendix B

Australia's labour force statistics

Source: ABS Australian Labour Market Statistics, Cat. 6105.0, available at;
[http://www.ausstats.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/0/E4EA872156E66138CA25759A001A4870/\\$File/61050_apr%202009.pdf](http://www.ausstats.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/0/E4EA872156E66138CA25759A001A4870/$File/61050_apr%202009.pdf)

LABOUR FORCE (June 09)-Full-time persons by Industry

Industry	Employed Full-time Males '000	Females as % of Full-time Males	Employed Full-time Females '000	Females as a % of all Full-time Persons	Employed Full-time Persons '000
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	214.7	25.7	55.2	20.5	269.9
Mining	142.3	12.4	17.7	11.1	160
Manufacturing	689	28.1	193.6	21.9	882.6
Electricity, Gas, Water & Waste Services	112	22.1	24.7	18.1	136.7
Construction	806.8	5.9	47.6	5.6	854.5
Wholesale Trade	245	32.2	79	24.4	324
Retail Trade	356.2	77.5	276.2	43.7	632.4
Accommodation and Food Services	167	83.2	138.9	45.4	305.9
Transport, postal and warehousing	384.5	22.3	85.9	18.3	470.4
Information media and telecommunications	109.5	66.6	72.9	40.0	182.4
Financial & Insurance Services	169.8	98.2	166.8	49.6	336.6
Rental, hiring and real estate services	78.2	72.6	56.8	42.1	135
Professional, scientific and technical services	384	56.7	217.8	36.2	601.8
Administration and support services	116.7	81.4	95	44.9	211.7
Public administration and safety	330.1	71.8	237	41.8	567.1
Education and training	187.6	164.6	308.7	62.2	496.3
Healthcare and social assistance	179.1	260.1	465.9	69.0	675
Arts and recreation services	82	52.1	42.7	34.2	124.7
Other services	223.1	48.2	107.6	32.5	330.7
Occupation					
Managers	847.4	42.5	360.5	29.8	1207.9
Professionals	972.5	79.4	772.6	44.3	1745.1
Technicians and trades workers	1306.2	11.1	144.8	10.0	1451
Community and personal service workers	200.1	143.2	286.5	58.9	486.6
Clerical and administrative workers	351.8	213.4	750.6	68.1	1102.4
Sales workers	227.8	92.5	210.8	48.1	438.6
Machinery operators and drivers	578.8	6.9	39.9	6.4	618.7
Labourers	493.2	31.3	154.4	23.8	647.5
Australia	4977.6	54.6	2720.1	35.3	7697.7

LABOUR FORCE (June 09)-Part-time persons by industry

Industry	Employed Part-time Males '000	Females as % of Part-time Males	Employed Part-time Females '000	Females as a % of all Part-time Persons	Employed Part-time Persons '000
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	35.9	168.8	60.6	62.8	96.5
Mining	1.7	200.0	3.4	68.0	5
Manufacturing	53.9	144.7	78	59.1	131.9
Electricity, Gas, Water & Waste Services	8	72.5	5.8	42.0	13.8
Construction	69.6	95.3	66.3	48.8	135.9
Wholesale Trade	26.2	168.7	44.2	62.7	70.5
Retail Trade	165.7	252.5	418.4	71.6	584
Accommodation and Food Services	140.4	182.3	256	69.3	369.5
Transport, postal and warehousing	62.7	96.0	60.2	49.0	122.9
Information media and telecommunications	17.5	141.7	24.8	58.6	42.3
Financial & Insurance Services	13.2	362.1	47.8	78.4	61
Rental, hiring and real estate services	9.1	352.7	32.1	77.9	41.2
Professional, scientific and technical services	47.4	253.6	120.2	71.7	167.6
Administration and support services	47.7	201.9	96.3	66.9	144
Public administration and safety	24.1	310.4	74.8	75.6	98.9
Education and training	44.5	505.4	224.9	83.5	269.4
Healthcare and social assistance	54.7	791.4	432.9	88.8	487.5
Arts and recreation services	33	166.4	54.9	62.5	87.9
Other services	27.6	326.1	90	76.5	117.6
Occupation					
Managers	58.9	186.9	110.1	65.1	169
Professionals	122.5	295.5	362	74.7	484.5
Technicians and trades workers	120.1	73.4	88.2	42.3	208.4
Community and personal service workers	85.6	458.5	392.5	82.1	478.1
Clerical and administrative workers	48.9	1061.8	519.2	91.4	568.1
Sales workers	133.1	325.5	433.2	76.5	566.3
Machinery operators and drivers	71.5	32.9	23.5	24.7	95
Labourers	242.3	108.5	262.8	52.0	505
Australia	882.9	248.2	2191.5	71.3	3074.4

Labour Force (June 09)-Total persons by industry

Industry	Employed total-Males '000	Females as % of total Males	Employed total-Females '000	Females as a % of total Persons	Employed Full-time Persons '000
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	250.6	46.2	115.8	31.6	366.4
Mining	144	14.6	21	12.7	165
Manufacturing	742.9	36.6	271.6	26.8	1014.5
Electricity, Gas, Water & Waste Services	120	25.4	30.5	20.3	150.5
Construction	876.4	13.0	114	11.5	990.4
Wholesale Trade	271.2	45.4	123.2	31.2	394.5
Retail Trade	521.9	133.1	694.5	57.1	1216.4
Accommodation and Food Services	307.4	128.5	395	56.2	702.4
Transport, postal and warehousing	447.2	32.7	146.1	24.6	593.3
Information media and telecommunications	127	76.9	97.7	43.5	224.7
Financial & Insurance Services	183	117.3	214.6	54.0	397.6
Rental, hiring and real estate services	87.3	101.8	88.9	50.5	176.2
Professional, scientific and technical services	431.4	78.3	338	43.9	769.4
Administration and support services	164.5	116.3	191.3	53.8	355.7
Public administration and safety	354.2	88.0	311.8	46.8	666
Education and training	232.2	229.8	533.6	69.7	765.7
Healthcare and social assistance	233.7	397.4	928.8	79.9	1162.5
Arts and recreation services	115	84.9	97.6	45.9	212.6
Other services	250.7	78.8	197.6	44.1	448.3
Occupation					
Managers	906.3	51.9	470.6	34.2	1376.9
Professionals	1094.9	103.6	1134.6	50.9	2229.6
Technicians and trades workers	1426.3	16.3	233	14.0	1659.4
Community and personal service workers	285.7	237.6	678.9	70.4	964.6
Clerical and administrative workers	400.7	316.9	1269.8	76.0	1670.5
Sales workers	360.9	178.5	644.1	64.1	1004.9
Machinery operators and drivers	650.3	9.7	63.4	8.9	713.7
Labourers	735.4	56.7	417.1	36.2	1152.6
Australia	5860.5	83.8	4911.6	45.6	10772.1

Source: ABS Australian Labour Market Statistics, Cat. 6105.0, available at; [http://www.ausstats.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/0/E4EA872156E66138CA25759A001A4870/\\$File/61050_apr%202009.pdf](http://www.ausstats.abs.gov.au/ausstats/subscriber.nsf/0/E4EA872156E66138CA25759A001A4870/$File/61050_apr%202009.pdf)

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(Source: Hartsuyker, 2007, pp. 169-179)

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Appendix D

Example of open coding

CONTEXT – CHANGE IN PRE-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Peter Interview 1

CONCEPTS	CATEGORY	PROPERTIES	DIMENSIONS
<p>One of the reasons I got into teaching was I have an older brother who is a teacher, and he was always a bit of a role model, so that was thought a good thing to do.</p> <p>I think another thing was it was a way of getting to University.</p> <p>There wasn't a history of doing anything else but going into manual work in our family, apart from Peter, and he started as a mechanical engineer anyway, that is on the shop floor, not someone with a degree.</p> <p>I didn't see myself doing that.</p> <p>Getting a studentship was a way of getting into university,</p> <p>Of course, one got challenged at University whether one was going to take up the scholarship or nick off or whatever, but I actually went and started teaching up in the country and I enjoyed.</p> <p>I found it was terrific, so I stayed as a teacher.</p> <p>I then moved on after 5 or 6 years,</p> <p>next thing is becoming a senior teacher and deputy principal, and I don't think I want to do that.</p> <p>I changed my direction and started giving in, first on secondment and then appointment to what was State Colleges in those days, and then to Monash University, and</p> <p>went overseas and spent nearly 5 years overseas, and then we decided we wanted to come back to Australia and eventually back to Melbourne.</p> <p>saw the advertisement, and came back to Mercy</p>	<p>Personal History</p>	<p>Personal History before entering academia</p>	

<p>Campus. An advertisement I saw in the paper.</p> <p>would have been in August in 1984. I saw the advertisement, no someone told me about it. I went and found it and wrote a letter at the conference and was asked for an interview.</p> <p>Yes, a long time, especially when I came back to this University to look around. I am surprised I am still here.</p> <p>in the tertiary sector ... There has been the whole Dawkins revolution thing that we are still working through it I think, and that has been going on for 15 years,</p> <p>but things were happening 15 years before then.</p> <p>When I first entered the tertiary institution of a lecturer in the mid-70s, the State Colleges so called, that had been, I think all of them except two, had been teachers' colleges, but even then they were starting to look around for other courses that weren't educational or preparing teachers to teach in schools.</p> <p>I remember a discussion ... when I was at Burwood, that they were starting a certificate course for typists of all things, that doesn't exist anymore.</p> <p>the start eventually that has turned out to be their Faculty of Business at Deakin University.</p> <p>That is what it started at, as people starting to look around and diversify and not wanting to be just a teacher training institution.?</p> <p>Must have been 1977. And the other places were doing the same thing, Melbourne State College before then, and they were starting to talk about stuff for laboratory technicians, which RMIT was already running,</p> <p>but RMIT wasn't a State College it was an Institute of Technology. All the State College people thought they could get a bite of that, which would diversify themselves.</p> <p>So there was talk about that even in the mid to late 70s, once they became independent of the Dept. of Education</p> <p>as they had been up until the early 70s,</p> <p>that notion of broadening out was well on the cards, and of course when I came back to Australia in the mid and late 80s that was well and truly on the go.</p> <p>Nursing was pushed into the tertiary sector out of the Schools of Nursing, and that gave a big fillip for a lot of the colleges and so it went on.</p>	<p>Nature of the Institution</p>	<p>Dawkins revolution</p> <p>Prior Dawkins</p> <p>Teacher's Colleges</p> <p>Burwood Teachers college</p> <p>Deakin University</p> <p>New style of institution</p> <p>Melbourne State College</p> <p>State Colleges</p> <p>Independent of the Department of Education</p> <p>Changes to colleges</p> <p>Changes to colleges</p>	<p>15 years continuing</p> <p>15 years prior</p> <p>diversifying</p> <p>Certificate course Typing</p> <p>Business</p> <p>Diversity</p> <p>1977 Laboratory technician</p> <p>Diversifying</p> <p>Late 1970s</p> <p>A broadening 1980s</p> <p>diversifying nursing</p>
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<p>So then Dawkins came and rationalised the whole thing</p> <p>and said we are all universities, and said you guys get together, you people upgrade and went on.</p> <p>Of course, some fell apart and some have stayed together and some have disappeared, and essentially it's the whole tertiary being restructured into different groups.</p> <p>You have the great 8 and the technology universities and the boutique universities like ourselves and so on.</p> <p>The vision is still there but they are on different lines, and there has been enormous changes and I think the changes will keep on going.</p> <p>In education, in all of that time of course, we have moved away from being the servants of the Ministry of Education into being universities, independent.</p> <p>That has brought a lot of tension with it, the closeness, which was a terrific thing in one sense has gone. When I came back in the 80s, we knew all the people in the Ministry,</p> <p>we still vaguely know the people in the Ministry.</p> <p>There were regular meetings, when people in the Ministry would call you down, and say "<i>look, this is what we are thinking, what do you think?</i>" Over a cup of coffee for 2 hours we would hammer out some issues.</p> <p>Now of course we would say, well that will cost you a \$1000.</p> <p>There is another big change that has happened in that any of our time is never supposed to be given freely, it is always supposed to be paid for, which is absolutely crazy stuff.</p> <p>It breaks that whole nexus of "we are here together doing", whereas it is us and them.</p> <p>I think another really big change in education, I think is a good one, is that since we have moved into Education there is now much more focus on research rather than just being teaching.</p> <p>Now, in the 70s, my memory says there were a lot of good teachers in the colleges,</p>	<p>Nature of work</p>	<p>Dawkins revolution</p> <p>Colleges become universities</p> <p>Restructuring of universities</p> <p>Repositioning of universities</p> <p>Changes to tertiary Colleges and Universities</p> <p>relationships Universities Colleges/Dept</p> <p>Fee-for service</p> <p>Fee-for-service</p> <p>Nexus breaking</p> <p>research</p> <p>Teaching in the Colleges</p>	<p>rationalisation</p> <p>up-grading of qualification</p> <p>colleges disappeared</p> <p>colleges amalgamated</p> <p>new divisions within tertiary</p> <p>great 8</p> <p>technology universities</p> <p>boutique universities</p> <p>ongoing change</p> <p>not servants</p> <p>independent</p> <p>close relationships</p> <p>collegial</p> <p>1980s</p> <p>Faceless partners</p> <p>currently</p> <p>collegial</p> <p>seller/client</p> <p>fee for service</p> <p>Anti-collegial</p> <p>expansion</p> <p>1970s</p>
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<p>but essentially what they were teaching was actually what they had been teaching when they were in schools,</p> <p>and there were very few people interested in research,</p> <p>there were fewer people who were doing any research, and 90% of people didn't even know what research was.</p> <p>So I think that is a terrific change.</p> <p>When I came back to Australia in 1985/86, I had sort of planned to do my doctorate, I said I must get on with it and a senior member in the staffroom said, what do you want to do that for, what has that got to do with what we are doing.</p> <p>Well, you know, I think changes have occurred in the last 15 years, which I think have been good.</p> <p>The course has become much shorter in terms of the number of contact hours that students are supposed to do.</p> <p>I am not sure whether all our teaching has taken that on board.</p> <p>I think a number of my colleagues are still teaching stuff which was terrific if in fact you were going to see them every semester for the whole of the time that they were actually on course. But if in fact you only see them for 2 units in 4 years, 2 semester units in 4 years, you just can't do everything that you once did. And you have got to teach them a different way. I am not sure whether everybody has caught on to that.</p> <p>I don't have a sense of powerlessness when I am teaching.</p> <p>It is one of those situations where I think you have got to know the limitations within which you work, and all might not be well, and I think as an education person, or as an academic in a university, one of the things that you have got to do as a teacher, be it undergraduates or graduates, happens in different ways, depending on the group you are dealing with, is being upfront with the analysis of the situation that you are dealing with.</p> <p>So when people moan and groan that in fact this is not going on, well why is it not going on, let's get down to the nitty gritty of why we can't do this or why we can't do that, love to do it, no I am not available for the whole of the week because I have got to do this that and the other thing. So I think letting them know is what it is on about, and that itself becomes a teaching point.</p> <p>One of the things when you are doing research is the</p>		<p>Teaching in the Colleges</p> <p>Research Lecturers</p> <p>Change to research</p> <p>Doctorate in ed</p> <p>Past 15 years</p> <p>Course contact Hours</p> <p>Adaptation to less Course contact hours</p> <p>Contraction of face-to-face teaching hours</p> <p>Lecturer Academic Educated person</p> <p>Educating students</p> <p>Research</p>	<p>Limited Unchanging</p> <p>Limited Teaching only</p> <p>90% teaching only positive</p> <p>scarcity unrelated</p> <p>changes positive contracted</p> <p>adaptation</p> <p>adaptation different</p> <p>Limitations Honesty with Students Up front</p> <p>Limitations Time Demands</p>
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<p>absolute ludicrous situation of we in the social sciences find ourselves in, the whole Ethics regime is built around what might be, and I think it probably is good ethical structures for health and medical people.</p> <p>We are actually in a different paradigm, dealing with different things. Sure the medicos deal people as do we, but we don't take body fluids etc.</p> <p>It is crazy stuff, ... Who do you rant and rave to, and how do you rant and rave in ways that might be of benefit to others rather than letting off steam.</p> <p>That is a sign of resistance, and I think part of a university lecturer is to teach your students how to do it well.</p> <p><i>And how have these changes you have outlined impacted on pre-service education?</i></p> <p>Try and cope with them.</p> <p>What do you do, how do you deal with the AIMS Test in a pre-service education, because once our students go on teaching rounds, they find out that some schools that this is absolutely critical stuff, and they have got to essentially teach to the AIMS Test. Whereas you go to other schools and they just brush it off.</p> <p>I think the issues of the politicisation of the whole system, I think that needs to be brought up.</p> <p>I think it behoves us in preparing teachers for these schools and these systems, that in fact they know the deal.</p> <p>They know that there is a whole body of educational literature out there that they should be aware of and be up-to -date with.</p> <p>They know there is a whole community of educationists around that they are becoming part of that group, and they should be welcomed into it.</p> <p>But they should be very well aware that in fact the number of critical decisions that will be made in each level of education will be made, sometimes with scant regard to what the community of educationists believe and are trying to do.</p> <p><i>All those changes that are happening in pre-service education, how have they impacted on you professionally?</i></p> <p>but just being aware of the shifts that are going on, and trying to make some sense of it.</p> <p>So I found it fascinating, that is one of the ways it has</p>		<p>Education research</p> <p>Complaining</p> <p>Resistance</p> <p>Changes</p> <p>Content</p> <p>Politicisation of the system</p> <p>Preparing students</p> <p>Body of Educational literature</p> <p>Community of Educationists</p> <p>Decision making process</p> <p>Shifts in pre-service Education</p>	<p>Ethics regime</p> <p>Different paradigm</p> <p>Ethic demands</p> <p>Modelling</p> <p>Coping</p> <p>Priority</p> <p>Contradiction</p> <p>Issues for content</p> <p>Reality of system</p> <p>Up-to-date</p> <p>Welcomed</p> <p>Ignores educationalists</p> <p>Making sense of them</p>
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<p>impacted on me as a professional. I think it keeps you making you go back and readjust in your own teaching, in the course development.</p> <p>I think it keeps you wanting to do that or needing to do it, wanting and needing, coalesce sort of thing.</p> <p>I think there is an element of absolute frustration that is built in to all of this, because these trends that are going on are coming from a multitude of different places and they are not compatible.</p> <p>And you evidently have to make choices, and some of the choices that you get forced into, you know in the end darn well, they are not the ones in the end the best for the students.</p> <p>You are doing a balancing act all the time, particularly in middle-management, where you are trying to keep yourself sane, you are trying to keep staff around you sane,</p> <p>but you are also trying to make sure that the students are getting a good professional start, and yet you are working within limitations that are imposed on you that are not good at times. That can be very frustrating.</p> <p>And I think the pre-service has changed a lot, because we are getting a different type of student.</p> <p>Gone are the days when the students came knowing that this was what they were going to do, and do for 4 years, and they were going out to teach in schools, or going out to get a PA job or whatever.</p> <p>They might not have been going to end up in schools, there has always been a significant minority of our students on graduation never went into teaching.</p> <p>They went to do something else, but it was always viewed I think, even by them, as the beginning for their professional career.</p> <p>I think there are a lot of students here that come along to do the full-time course, but treat it as part time.</p> <p>They have their full-time jobs and they come here to do our course.</p> <p>So the actual amount of work that they do in the library and elsewhere is minuscule, and the attitude is, we will do the assignments, we will do this, but we really won't do any extra that is not required of us.</p> <p>And I think that has actually had a feedback loop into the way staff actually produce stuff and the</p>	<p>Nature of the student</p>	<p>Readjusting</p> <p>Readjusting</p> <p>Current trends</p> <p>Choices</p> <p>Middle management</p> <p>Professional start for students</p> <p>Different students</p> <p>Students single-focus</p> <p>Significant minority</p> <p>Past students</p> <p>Students enrolled F/T</p> <p>Students enrolled F/T</p> <p>Students attitude to study</p> <p>Lecturers attitude to</p>	<p>Teaching course development</p> <p>Want Need</p> <p>From multiple sites Not compatible Frustration</p> <p>Not the best</p> <p>Balancing act Sanity</p> <p>Limitations Frustrating</p> <p>Type</p> <p>Gone</p> <p>Graduated but not taught Beginning of life long career</p> <p>Attitude P/T</p> <p>F/T jobs</p> <p>Library work minimal Assignment work Minimal No extra to study</p>
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<p>expectation that staff have of students, I think that is a pity.</p> <p><i>I have two more questions, but can I go back to something you said earlier about the students have changed, could you talk a little bit more about that?</i></p> <p>I think a lot of kids now grow up in their families and they exit school being far more independent, not all of them knowing exactly what they want to do, but independent to the degree that maybe they listen to Mom and Dad,</p> <p>but they certainly won't do what mum and dad tell them to do.</p> <p>So there is a difference in that way.</p> <p>I think there is a difference to in our student population that comes in for pre-service things, in that many of them are older.</p> <p>We are running a postgraduate pre-service program for 2 years as you know, and there is a significant number.</p> <p>We have always had a few of those, but now there is a real significant number of those student that come who may well be well into their 20s and 30s and may have come back from another career to do this.</p> <p>They are not mums who have been at home, had their kids... They have been out there doing that and the other thing, and I think that puts a significant twist on the group of pre-service students that we have got going through.</p> <p>I think there are really good things about that. I think kids, they come far more inclined to be interested in getting money quickly than what they used to be. Part of that deal is what I was saying before, they are far more interested in their jobs rather than their courses.</p> <p>When you look at the car park you know why. A lot of them have got really terrific cars, I wish... There was always a significant number of students that turned up with cars, I think virtually all students have got cars now, and all students have got good cars.</p> <p><i>So is what you are saying that the lifestyle of the student has changed?</i></p> <p>Yes. That has brought all sorts of things in its train, with the way they deal with their course here.</p> <p>There are a lot of those who get told, you go on to university now... We are getting a whole lot of other kids through that would never have thought of coming.</p> <p>So we are getting kids through that are not necessarily</p>		<p>students</p> <p>Current students</p> <p>Attitude to parents</p> <p>Different</p> <p>Age of students</p> <p>Mature age students</p> <p>Make up of student body</p> <p>Students today difference focus</p> <p>Students today difference focus</p> <p>Student body</p> <p>Student body today</p> <p>Students</p>	<p>Low expectations</p> <p>Independent</p> <p>Undecided</p> <p>Won't listen</p> <p>Older</p> <p>Mature aged</p> <p>Significant number</p> <p>Changed careers</p> <p>Changed</p> <p>Money</p> <p>Jobs – not course</p> <p>Quality cars</p> <p>Life-style</p> <p>Assumption – uni</p>
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<p>purposely choosing to become teachers, we are getting a significant number through that, 'this is what we do'.</p> <p>And again it is a matter of balance, we have always had some of those. I think what has happened, they have become, if not the majority, a much more significant minority.</p> <p>it used to be that students came who were really battling, come through and battle through and they made it, it was great.</p> <p>But I think when changes happened, I think when there was Level A & Level B, back then in the sort of mid-80s and late 80s, when schools actually were told that they could actually examine part of the courses themselves and they did, I thought I could detect that kids used to come far more prepared here.</p> <p>Not only could they write but they could look stuff up in the Library. Actually knew what a library was for, and starting to get on the Web.</p> <p>But now I think we have got into a stream that that is sort of dissipating. I think it has been a sort of fallback.</p> <p>I am not sure whether that is because of what is happening at the end of the senior school, and teachers are not sort of as fired up with this new liberty that they have got, and a new way of teaching that they can use, or whether it is a function of more kids coming through Yrs 11 & 12 that didn't before, or more kids coming to university that didn't.</p> <p>It is clearly an amalgam of all of those, and I reckon that there are kids that are not perhaps really keen to be going off and doing a whole lot of research by themselves any more.</p> <p>I think we are actually going back to what it was in the 70s. I think that is a pity.</p> <p>How else has pre-service changed? I think a good thing is that ... we are now ... starting to critique the curriculums that both the Ministry and the Catholic Education Offices put out.</p> <p>if you went back to the 70s and into the 80s, ... we were expected and we did, teach to the curriculum.</p> <p>On the other hand, a lot of us had a lot more input into the curriculum than what we do now.</p> <p>when the nexus was strong, you actually taught what was in the curriculum, because you had actually talked it over and through with the people that were devising</p>	<p>Course Content</p>	<p>Disinterested Students</p> <p>Past student body</p> <p>Past student body</p> <p>Present student body</p> <p>Cause of present student body make-up</p> <p>Present student body</p> <p>Present student body</p> <p>Curriculum</p> <p>1970s – 1980s</p> <p>lecture's input to curriculum</p> <p>1970s – 1980s</p> <p>Nexus strong</p> <p>Nexus weak</p>	<p>Not purposely choosing teaching</p> <p>not majority significant minority</p> <p>battlers</p> <p>better prepared</p> <p>Skills</p> <p>Research</p> <p>Library</p> <p>Regressive</p> <p>Trs not fired-up</p> <p>Increase in yr 11-12 numbers.</p> <p>Increase in uni numbers.</p> <p>Lack independence for study</p> <p>Regressive</p> <p>Critique</p> <p>Unquestioning</p> <p>Strong</p> <p>Decreasing input today</p> <p>teaching strong</p> <p>teaching weak</p>
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<p>it.</p> <p>Now you seem to be kept at arms length, and the critiques come.</p> <p>In a way that might be good for the students because as you critique the curriculum, that is something of course, all teachers should be doing, they never do. All teachers, even young teachers theorise in their own contexts and to see us doing that too, hopefully is a good thing.</p> <p>I think just one of the changes, why we have lost a lot of time out of our course, I think it is pure politics that we have lost it, not for educational reasons, that we have lost time,</p> <p>and I think a professional course pre-service education course isn't the same as an Arts course, or a Science course.</p> <p>I think it is a pity, I think we have gone too far, I actually think in the 80s we had far too many contact hours,</p> <p>but I think it has swung too far the other way now, and I think we could actually do with a few more hours in the course.</p> <p>Often I use the term political to mean that the powerbrokers are making decisions based on their own criteria that looks very good to them, that may not be criteria for those who know, is used as the benchmarks.</p> <p>And when you say powerbrokers, at what level are the powerbrokers? Are you talking about people outside the universities, or within?</p> <p>Both. There are powerbrokers in any system ... groups like the PVCs that have driven, for instance a lot of refashioning of the courses ... I think certain Heads of School that have got the ear of the PVCs and the Academic Board.</p> <p>I don't think that they always know what is good for us, nor do I think they listen, because they think they do know, and it is not a proper dialogue that goes on between equals, and I think that is sad.</p> <p>I think we suffer for it, I think the course suffers and I think the students suffer for it.</p> <p>However, a lot of this is also driven by the powerbrokers and the politicians that are outside the university, because some of the PVCs and VC are left in invidious situations where there is another lobby</p>	<p>Politicization of education</p>	<p>Current nexus</p> <p>curriculum</p> <p>Course contraction</p> <p>Course contraction</p> <p>Contact time 1980s</p> <p>Contact time today</p> <p>Powerbrokers decisions making process</p> <p>Powerbrokers</p> <p>Powerbrokers</p> <p>Powerbrokers decision making processes</p> <p>Powerbrokers/</p>	<p>Weak</p> <p>Critique</p> <p>Theorise</p> <p>Politics</p> <p>Sameness</p> <p>Too much</p> <p>Too little</p> <p>What they want</p> <p>Ignore educationalists</p> <p>Outside uni</p> <p>Inside uni</p> <p>PVCs</p> <p>HOS</p> <p>Academic Board</p> <p>No dialogue</p> <p>No consultation</p> <p>Not seen as equals</p> <p>Lectures suffer</p> <p>Students suffer</p> <p>Course suffers</p> <p>Lobby groups</p>
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<p>going around.</p> <p>It is quite clear that governments of both ilks have been milking the tertiary sector for 20 years</p> <p>There is clearly not enough money in the system</p> <p>and the way that they are telling us, like the changes in the HECs fees, is that you have got to manufacture the money yourself.</p> <p>When it comes to education and other people professional courses and research, I think it also plays on research here, you are up against it, anybody in the social sciences, and quite clearly us, I think it is 45% of the university is education, I think something like 33% of the university is Health sciences, which is mainly nursing, up a pole with nothing to grab a hold of. So it is those powerbrokers too that in fact outside of this university that the PVCs in their turn get whacked about the head with.</p> <p>I think the most significant change that has impacted on the education system as a whole, and this has certainly impacted on pre-service courses, has been the politicisation of education,</p> <p>I said 30 years, because the first time that I recognised this happening was when, and I have forgotten his first name but his second name was Hutt, he was the Minister for Education ... he came out and started to direct the then Director of Education about what should happen.</p> <p>Partly it was some revolting students in some schools that had got up the nose of the public, the papers were on about it, and 'what are you going to do about it',</p> <p>instead of the Ministers of Education as had been in the past, deflecting all of that to the Bureaucrats, telling them to deal with it, and making subtle enquiries behind and then coming out with a statement some time later, this bloke used to, 'that is hopeless, we will see that it is done'.</p> <p>The end of that year was the first of the 'ranking' of schools, where a list of schools got put up about the matrix results. It disappeared again after a while, but that was done at the instigation of the Minister of Education.</p> <p>And it went on from there, and I remember attending a AARE Conference after that when I went to hear a paper, Deputy Director of Education, saying 'we didn't know where we were' suddenly the whole game plan changed. Here was the Minister who was supposed to be acting on the advice of the Bureaucrats, he was supposed to be laying out the political dimensions of what should happen, he was Minister who started to interfere in the day to day running of not only the</p>		<p>politicians outside the uni</p> <p>tertiary sector</p> <p>System</p> <p>Underfunded system</p> <p>Education funding</p> <p>Significant change</p> <p>Role of minister</p> <p>Role of minister</p> <p>role of Minister</p> <p>role of Minister</p> <p>role of Minister</p>	<p>Under funded</p> <p>Underfunded</p> <p>HECS</p> <p>Entrepreunial</p> <p>Outside funding</p> <p>Research underfunded</p> <p>Politicisation of ed</p> <p>Minister directing Director of Ed. 30 years ago</p> <p>response to media</p> <p>shift ignoring bureaucrats</p> <p>Ranking schools</p> <p>Shift Interfering</p> <p>shift</p>
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<p>say it is clever politics what the Ministers of Education do.</p> <p>They seem to be acting in an area where the society believes that, is an important area of society, and politics.</p> <p>So yes, it is clever politics to be involved in that, and be involved with hands on...</p> <p>So I think a lot of the driving force is pure politics, if you like.</p> <p>I think a lot of the driving thing too is our society's notions that we need to be judged by others, so that brings in to me an international element, that we need to be looking over our shoulder.</p> <p>I can take you through some the Literature curriculums, and I can point out to you a delay of about 3 to 5 years, where things happened in America and/or happened in England, and then they happened here.</p> <p>the whole international thing within Education, and international things also happening outside of education drives so much of our own society,</p> <p>and then you can move from that arena to the driving forces that are not nation to nation, those other areas of the multi-national sort of thing that just impact on our society in all sorts of ways.</p> <p>'is technology driving the changes or is education driving the technology, and how much'. Of course most of that technology is not from our society, it is from somewhere else,</p> <p>and it is not even from a society any more, and a hell of a lot of that is impacting in our education system.</p> <p>I think we are simply a much more educated society.</p> <p>Talking to a student today, and one of the things that came up was, the whole notion of government making sure kids stay on at school, and I firmly believe that has all been about making sure that the unemployment rates are kept down,</p> <p>Yes, at times it has impacted on me in such a way that I have thrown up my hands in horror and gone and painted the house.</p> <p>At times it just got so bad that I have gone away from it, taken time out.</p> <p>I am not sure whether my professional colleagues have noticed that. Sometimes you have got to be very good at play acting, at times you just have got to take time out.</p>		<p>Political fabric</p> <p>Education</p> <p>Responding</p> <p>Driving force</p> <p>International Influences</p> <p>International Influences</p> <p>International Influences</p> <p>Global influences</p> <p>Technological change</p> <p>Role of govt. in ed.</p> <p>Negative impact</p> <p>Negative impact</p>	<p>politics control</p> <p>to what society sees as important</p> <p>Pure politics</p> <p>Comparisons</p> <p>3-5yr delay</p> <p>Education Society</p> <p>Multi-national</p> <p>Driving force</p> <p>Unemployment</p> <p>Retreated</p> <p>Time out</p> <p>Brave face</p> <p>Reconciliation</p>
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<p>Deal with it and then make some sort of reconciliation of the different issues that are facing you and then move on again.</p> <p>I think for me personally at times it has taken a big toll. I definitely know that has been the case for some of my colleagues, and I do know of at least two people, who have just retired, just couldn't put up with it any more, just went away permanently.</p> <p>For one of them anyway, it was very sad, they retired very early, there were many years they could have kept going and putting in and would have been good for all people. Some people you get to the point and say well...</p>		<p>Masking of impact</p> <p>Numerous issues</p> <p>Taken a toll</p> <p>Sadness</p>	<p>Early retirement</p> <p>Demoralisation</p> <p>Retired too early</p>
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Appendix E
Example of axial coding

CONTEXT – CHANGE IN PRE-SERVICE TR EDUCATION

Peter - Interview One

<p>Causal State colleges diversifying</p> <p>Intervening Dawkins revolution</p> <p>Contextual Repositioning of universities Neo-managerialism</p>	<p>Strategic action/interactions</p> <p>Restructuring of universities</p> <p>Routine actions/interactions</p> <p>Amalgamations</p> <p>Fee-for-service</p>	<p>Consequences</p> <p>Change in relationship between education depts/universities</p>
<p>Causal University required different style of teaching</p> <p>Intervening Emphasis on research</p> <p>Contextual Course has become shorter in terms of contact hours</p>	<p>Strategic action/interactions</p> <p>Contraction of face-to-face teaching hours Ignoring educationalists Adjustment of teaching style</p> <p>Routine actions/interactions Ethical clearance</p>	<p>Consequences</p> <p>Disgruntled students Lecturers modelling resistance for students Preparing students for the reality of the system they are in and the system they will enter on graduation</p>
<p>Causal Full time students taking a part-time attitude</p> <p>Intervening Students prioritise jobs over study</p> <p>Contextual Students today don't focus</p>	<p>Strategic action/interactions</p> <p>Increase in mature age students</p> <p>Routine actions/interactions</p>	<p>Consequences</p> <p>Lecturers have lower expectations of students Library work is minimal Assignment work is minimal No extra time devoted to study Disinterested students</p>
<p>Causal Decision making process centres on powerbrokers within the university and outside of the university</p>	<p>Strategic action/interactions</p> <p>No longer consultation with lecturing staff No dialogue with lecturing staff Lecturing staff no longer treated as equals</p>	<p>Consequences</p> <p>Lecturers suffer Students suffer Course suffers</p>

<p>Intervening</p> <p>Under-funding of universities</p> <p>Contextual</p> <p>Lecturers having to become entrepreneurial</p> <p>Causal</p> <p>Shift in the role of Minister of Education</p> <p>Intervening</p> <p>Minister interferes directly in school matters</p> <p>Contextual</p> <p>Minister no longer from an educational background</p>	<p>Routine actions/interactions</p> <p>Applying for research grants Applying for tenders Seeking outside funding</p> <p>Strategic action/interactions</p> <p>Politicising of Ministry of Education Ministers want to be seen by public as having control over education</p> <p>Routine actions/interactions</p> <p>Testing regime Assessment regime</p>	<p>Consequences</p> <p>Minister no longer takes advice from lecturers in education or Deans of Education</p> <p>Lecturers have to respond to educational whims eg. AIMS test and decide on how much priority to give it.</p> <p>Minister and particular bureaucrats have increased power and make decisions ignoring theory</p>
<p>Causal</p> <p>Work taking a personal toll</p> <p>Intervening</p> <p>Constant shifts in education</p> <p>Contextual</p> <p>Lecturers behave in a manner that masks the impact of particular issues/decisions</p>	<p>Strategic action/interactions</p> <p>Working out ways of reconciling issues</p> <p>Routine actions/interactions</p> <p>Lecturers in middle management forced to do a balancing act to keep oneself and others around them sane</p>	<p>Consequences</p> <p>Lecturers retreating</p> <p>Time out</p> <p>Early retirement</p>

