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Literature review

Becoming effective teachers for under-25 students: Using kaupapa Māori theory framework

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BECOMING EFFECTIVE TEACHERS FOR UNDER-25 STUDENTS

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Kaupapa Māori and Kaupapa Māori framework

A Māori kaupapa framework offers a strong base for research into teaching and learning initiatives in higher education in Aotearoa New Zealand, and as a foundation methodology, caters for the cultural and contextual differences between the various institutions, students, teachers, and classrooms of the research stakeholders. Principles and practices developed through kaupapa Māori research can then provide an appropriate platform from which to promote and develop culturally responsible and reflexive research practices with an acceptance of multiple worldviews. During the course of the research project to which this literature review is attached, including reviewing published studies and discourse, attending seminars, and holding project hui, it has become increasingly apparent that "kaupapa" is a term so widely and repeatedly used that understanding is too often just assumed, and it is seldom accompanied by an attempt at definition or explanation of its intention. This literature review therefore opens with a brief discussion of the concept that the researchers have attempted to adopt as a guideline for every aspect of this project, not least the following analysis of the work published in this field.

Kennedy and Jeffries (2009) provide a useful etymological starting point:

> The word 'kaupapa' is derived from the base word 'papa' and suggests the basis, foundation, principles, philosophy, reason or purpose. Its root in the name of the Earth Mother, Papatūānuku, is also significant and suggests a range of linkages between kaupapa, whakapapa, and ātua. Therefore, writers will utilise the term 'kaupapa Māori' as meaning the underlying and fundamental principles, beliefs, knowledge and values held by Māori (p. 20).

If mātauranga Māori is Māori knowledge, then kaupapa Māori can be defined as "fundamental knowledge" (p. 20). The difficulty comes, according to these authors, in the numerous attempts made to represent kaupapa Māori in perspectives, approaches, paradigms, and policies designed to acknowledge Māori culture, but which are not Māori: "As is widely discussed in Māori research circles, this approach has been colloquially referred to as 'tack-on' research because Māori knowledge is considered after the overall framework is confirmed and often after the research proper is already well underway" (p. 9).

The extension of the concept, "kaupapa Māori theory", is similarly fraught. Graham Hingangaroa Smith (1990, 2012), originator of the term, argues that it is in danger of domestication. It has become appropriated, he accuses, by a raft of academics, Māori as well as non-Māori, who use it simply to refer to academic investigation undertaken according to a Māori world view, and based on Māori principles of understanding. Instead, it should be seen as a "transforming praxis" involving "a constant cycle of renewal" in which enactment is key (pers. comm., kaupapa Māori theory hui, Awanuiarangi, May 2013). This is because, argues Smith, kaupapa Māori theory is more than a knowledge system; it is, and must be, a political instrument.

Pihama, Smith, Taki, and Lee (2004) explain how this works, summarising Smith's key features of kaupapa Māori theory:

- the validity and legitimacy of *Māori* is taken for granted
- the survival and revival of *Māori* language and culture is imperative
- the struggle for autonomy over our own cultural well-being, and over our own lives is vital to *Māori* survival (p. 9).

These features are less about content, they say, than about Māori aspirations, philosophies, processes, and pedagogies. Interventions, initiatives and innovations that intend to operate according to kaupapa Māori theory must function and be observable at the level of both "institution" and "mode". The institutional, physical level includes economics, power, ideology, and constructed notions of democracy; the mode is about pedagogy, curriculum, and evaluation (Pihama et al., 2004).

Kaupapa Māori theory, then, rejects traditional approaches to understanding and improving educational performance for target populations that are descriptive, objectified, and driven by agendas belonging to a dominant western authority. Instead, it is inherently political and seeks transformation – always with a "radical potential" (Smith, 2012). It has, by definition, very much a Māori focus – this research and project management framework has been developed by Māori, for Māori. How then can such a manifesto be adopted to work across a wider demographic group – such as youth aged 25 years and under, from all ethnicities and cultural backgrounds, who are studying in tertiary programmes across Aotearoa/New Zealand?

The answer here lies in the work of many of the advocates for kaupapa Māori research and theory. Smith (2012) himself says that theory is "a kernel of ideas that are transportable and able to be transplanted into a range of sites of inquiry" (p. 11). He describes kaupapa Māori theory as borrowing eclectically from other intellectual influences, most particularly critical social theory and the work of Freire and Habermas. The evolution and enactment of kaupapa Māori as a theory and means of change has led to the development of ethical and reflexive approaches to research in which participants are active and equal partners, and that combine enquiry, analysis, and action. In this way, says Bidois (2011), kaupapa Māori theory is relevant, not only to Māori communities, but to all cultures and peoples. Or, as Mere Skerrett (2010) puts it in her Best Evidence Synthesis, examining the gains in educational outcomes made through inclusive pedagogical leadership at interactional and relationship levels: "What is good for Māori is good for the nation!"

The elements of kaupapa Māori theory and the way in which these have been applied in this, or any research project, naturally need to be discussed in the body of the report itself, in relation to the methodology and project design employed. This literature review, designed to stand as a separate document in its own right, also adheres to the guiding framework of kaupapa Māori theory by drawing on the work described above, particularly on the contributions made by Smith (2012) and Pihama et al. (2004), wherein the kaupapa Māori theory lens can be identified by its tripartite focus on cultural, structural, and political constructs. The following analysis is grouped under three areas relating to the needs of Under-25 students, the teachers' role, and the considerations that underlie effective professional development for educators working with youth. Each section concludes with a summary of the cultural, structural, and political issues and challenges associated with that particular stakeholder group and focus.

Part 1: Under-25 students and their needs

The so-called Generation Y student

"A strange new breed of students has invaded our universities," says Sternberg (2012), tongue-in-cheek, as he questions the validity of this new field of discourse. Sternberg's concern is that waves of "new" student cohorts are being homogenised in the literature as distinct and recognisable "generations", which risks overlooking a real and growing diversity within our student population. Nonetheless, he concedes that despite the highly contradictory and complex experiences that can be found within any higher education institute, there are some useful observations to be made – so long as a sense of perspective and proportion is maintained.

Generation Y, then, arrived on our campuses around 2000, and are variously referred to as the Net Generation, the Dot-Coms, Echo-Boomers, the iGeneration, the Me Generation, Millennials (roughly signifying when the groups youngest members were born), and "the first true digital natives of the Information Age" (Sternberg, 2012, p. 572). Sternberg cites studies that state that compared with the previous Generation X, characterised as "cynical and disconnected", Generation Y has been constructed as "wanted and nurtured", with the arising positive and less-positive behaviours this brings. And this is just the beginning: numerous studies identify and describe a range of features as a benchmark for identifying and addressing the needs of this group. One example is Howe and Strauss (2000), who note seven characteristics:

> (1) feelings of 'specialness', (2) a tendency to have been sheltered from negative life experiences and failure by parents, (3) a sense of confidence, (4) an orientation towards being team players, (5) feelings of pressure due to multiple, often conflicting, work, social, family, and education commitments, (6) a desire to achieve success, and (7) a feeling of optimism regarding their lives and futures (as cited in Sternberg, 2012, p. 572).

Le Rossignol (2010) describes the millennial, or net generation, learner as someone born between 1980 and 2000, who "is time-poor, a networker with strong inclinations towards social or community knowledge pooling and a multiple media literacy, comfortable in virtual worlds and with visual emphasis" (p. 455). She notes that the pervasive use of social networks such as MySpace, Facebook, and Flickr means that today's young people are strongly connected to friends, parents, information, and entertainment through such media. This, she believes, indicates a participatory culture, with a sense of collective intelligence and acceptance that everyone has something to contribute: "Knowledge is created, not possessed, and it is possible to use a community rather than an individual to gain knowledge. The millennial learner sees experiences as more important than the acquisition of information" (p. 455).

In Table One, below, McCrindle Research (2012), an Australian market research company, provide the following summary:

Table 1: Generations defined

	Baby Boomers 1946–1964	**Generation X 1965–1979**	**Generation Y 1980–1994**	**Generation Z 1995–2010**
Influencers	Evidential Experts	Pragmatic Practitioners	Experiential Peers	User-generated Forums
Training focus	Technical Data Evidence	Practical Case studies Applications	Emotional Stories Participative	Multi-modal eLearning Interactive
Learning format	Relaxed Structured	Spontaneous Interactive	Multi-sensory Visual	Student-centric Kinesthetic
Learning environment	Classroom style Quiet atmosphere	Round-table style Relaxed ambience	Café-style Music & Multi-modal	Lounge-room style Multi-stimulus

Source: Excerpt from table "Generations defined" from www.mccrindle.com.au/the-mccrindle-blog/tag/builders/

From this brief representative sample, it is clear that Generation Y has been constructed in the literature about the changing face of higher education as "a new breed of students with radically different learning styles compared with previous generations" (Sternberg, 2012, p. 575). There are positive inferences, as those noted above, but also criticisms, such as that the phenomenon of "helicopter" parents who hover over every aspect of their children's tertiary experience allows them to live a protracted adolescence (Wee, 2006). Yet, as Sternberg (2012) notes, there are also emerging accounts of studies that suggest that except for the trappings of youth culture, students today are little different from their predecessors in terms of curiosity, knowledge, fluency, skills or worldly awareness. Certainly some of the characteristics of Generation Y will apply to some Under-25 learners, but many may not. A recent example from one of the partner institutions in this project, Bay of Plenty Polytechnic, comes from a carpentry level-three programme that began a development to replace workbook assessments with online versions, but was forced to postpone the initiative due to loss of a technical support resource, with only four of fifteen assessments completed. Teaching staff expected student evaluations to bemoan this delay, but in fact, the majority of the students surveyed said that they felt the mix was about right: they enjoyed the online activities and tasks, but did not necessarily want online assessment exclusively. They valued variety, rather than the use of technology for its own sake (Keys, Fraser & Abbott, 2014).

Adolescent and adult learning theory

Adolescence has both societal and biological elements, the latter reflecting recent findings that brain maturation is not complete until well into the third decade of life and that the last functions to mature are those of impulse control and judgement (Office of the Prime Minister's Science Advisory Committee, 2011). It is therefore inevitable that adolescence is a period of risk-taking and impulsivity. For many young people these are basically healthy and transient behaviours, but for others there may be long-term negative consequences. While this observation has obvious implications for the raft of support and referral options an institution will need to have at their disposal, it is not a reason for modifying teaching and learning delivery (Department of Labour, 2010). Young people are different from older adults in learning situations because they are considered to be harder to motivate, and because of their vulnerability, but these issues are not

about age so much as stage and maturity, concludes a report for the Ministry of Youth Development (Whatman et al., 2010).

Under-25 learners comprise both school leavers and those who may have been away from formal education for up to 10 years, so that theories about adult learning will also apply. A key difference from learners in the compulsory (primary and secondary) sectors is that they attend by choice – although of course, for some, higher education may not be their first choice. Another difference is that adults learn differently from the way children do – first because their personality structure is now almost fully formed, and accompanied by a range of behaviours and practices they have acquired along the way; and second, because of the impact of previous learning and life experiences, as well as their current needs, interests, and expectations (Honeyfield & Fraser, 2013). It is also important to acknowledge that many adult learners have extensive family and work responsibilities. External issues such as transport, finance, health, social and recreational roles, and relationships can affect the learning process. There are biological factors associated with maturing into adulthood, and ingrained attitudes about teaching delivery and the use of technology. Adult learners – and this is no less true for young adults – have complex and multi-faceted lives (Cercone, 2008).

No one theory of learning explains how adults learn, or applies across all adult learning environments. Various writers have itemised the principles of adult learning, for example Knowles (1980), who listed six principles; Ambrose, Bridges, Lovett, DoPietro and Norman (2010), seven; Calloway (2009), eight; and Cercone (2008), thirteen. Then, as well as principles, there are concepts, models, and philosophies related to adult learning. A recent resource commissioned by Ako Aotearoa, titled *Goalposts* (Honeyfield & Fraser, 2013), has summarised commonly agreed principles with associated theories under ten headings:

1. Prior knowledge and experience
2. The importance of culture
3. Respectful partnerships and relationships
4. Autonomous and independent
5. Goals and motivation
6. Relevant and practical
7. Learning styles and ways of thinking
8. Critical reflection
9. Environment for learning
10. Change and transformative learning.

Many writers today would argue that just as there is no unanimous consensus on the value of identifying Generations of learners, there is no clear division between categories for child, youth, and adult learners. "Most descriptions of how adults experience learning are rendered by researchers' pens, not learners themselves" says Brookfield (1995). Brookfield, Cercone (2008) and others have discussed whether, in fact, there should even be something called 'adult learning theory'. They say that variables such as culture, ethnicity, personality, gender, religious and political ethos – as well as life experiences – may be more important to learning than chronological age. An individual's response to these factors occurs across the lifespan, they argue, and is not necessarily a defining aspect of adulthood (Honeyfield & Fraser, 2013).

So how does anyone learn? Driscoll (2000) defines learning as "a persisting change in human performance or performance potential…[which] must come about as a result of the learner's experience and interaction with the world" (p. 11). He notes that this definition encompasses many of the ideas from different schools of thought, such as behaviourism, cognitivism, and constructivism, which share a central tenet that "learning occurs inside a person" (p.2). Learning theories are concerned, he says, with the actual process of learning, rather than the value of what is being learned. Siemens (2004) then poses the question of whether, in an age of rapid growth in knowledge, we can still elevate knowledge that is learned through personal experience as our benchmark for optimal learning. He notes that "action is often needed without personal learning – that is, we need to act by drawing information outside of our primary knowledge" (p. 3). Now, he says, we need to move learning theories into a digital age, to synthesize and recognise patterns and connections, in an approach he terms "connectivism".

This new concept of connectivism has close ties, says its originator Siemens (2004), with Chaos theory, a science that recognises the connection of everything to everything. Siemens cites Gleick's description of the Butterfly Effect: "the notion that a butterfly stirring the air today in Peking can transform storm systems next month in New York" (Gleick, 1987, as cited in Siemens, 2004, p. 3). In essence, this is about the breakdown of predictability, so that by extension, learning as a process is not entirely under the control of the individual. As a summary:

> Learning (defined as actionable knowledge) can reside outside of ourselves (within an organization or a database), is focussed on connecting specialized information sets, and the connections that enable us to learn more are more important than our current state of knowing (Siemens, 2004, p. 4).

In a separate field of learning theory, the focus is less on knowledge and its shifting, constantly evolving nature, than it is on the learner and their innate preferences for how they receive and process information. People think and feel differently as they solve problems, create products, and interact (Cercone, 2008). Individual learning styles are influenced by personality, intelligence, education, experiences, culture, and sensory and cognitive preferences (Collins, 2004), and have led to the development of numerous models and tools. Well-known examples are Fleming and Mills' (1992) VARK model (Visual / Auditory / Reading-Writing / Kinaesthetic), Howard Gardner's (1993) theory of multiple intelligences, and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator assessment (Myers & Briggs Foundation, n.d.).

Effective transitions

The move to higher education for most students is "exciting but daunting" (Cook & Leckey, 1999, p. 159), and entails a change of both academic and social culture. The transition to higher education can involve many areas of adjustment for students. For instance, it is quite natural for new students to be unfamiliar with terminology and processes, to be concerned about different teaching styles and intimidated by workload, to be worried about letting themselves and family down, and to be unsure of how to relate to peers, lecturers and tutors (Fraser & Hendren, 2003). A report prepared by Manukau Institute of Technology's Centre for Studies in Multiple Pathways (2011) finds that there is:

… international concern at the failure of a considerable and growing number of young people to make an effective transition from secondary schooling to postsecondary education and training. Disengagement is a phenomenon that is removing a group of young people from the transition process while inadequate academic preparation sees others unable to craft an effective and appropriate pathway from secondary schooling to postsecondary education and training (p. 2).

In New Zealand, as in other western nations, data on early student departure highlight the size of this concern. For example, in the UK, it has been estimated that such departure cost £100 million a year. In New Zealand, a recent Teaching and Learning Research Initiative report (Zepke et al., 2005) showed that, from 1998 to 2003, 33 percent of the equivalent full-time student (EFTS) allocation was taken up by students who dropped out in their first year of study.

The inability to adapt to a new environment often causes students to withdraw or perform at a lower academic level. American author Vincent Tinto (1993), a leading researcher into causes of student attrition, believes it is based on the inability of students to make the transition to higher education and to become incorporated into the institution's social and intellectual life. There is now a widespread acceptance of this position. For example, Collins (2005) notes that "every study done shows that the real barrier to academic success for tertiary students who withdraw is…[that they] have lost a reflection of who they are and why…".

This is alienation, and "at its most essential level…it is the inability to imagine your society and therefore to imagine yourself in it" (p. G5). The consequences of non-completion can result in significant psychological as well as financial cost, and mean that these individuals are lost to further learning for long periods, if not for good. So what can help the process of learner assimilation and adaptation into, through, and beyond higher education? One strategy mooted to improve the experience of transition is a focus on multiple pathways with flexible options that allow students to move across pathways as aspirations and aptitudes become clearer (Manukau Institute of Technology, 2011).

Lynch et al. (2006) note the key role of induction, particularly since the first few weeks are critical and well recognised as a "make or break" period. First impressions count: induction is an integral and profoundly significant part of students' first experience and must be positive. Students need to be welcomed in such a way that their involvement in the institution, whether integration or adaptation, will be encouraged. But, the authors caution, there appear to be two contrasting perspectives about who does the adapting. Is it students, or is it staff and institutions that need to make the most adjustments? These two discourses are also discussed by Zepke and Leach (2005), whose meta-analysis of student support provisions identified one approach as centring on what universities do to integrate students into the existing organisational culture, and a new, emerging alternative recommending that higher education cultures be adapted to the needs of the diverse student body.

As Vaughan (2003) notes, there is a plethora of choices faced by, and decision making required of, young people. She suggests three elements which need to be taken into account during the period of transition:

- Relationships are very important to young people when it comes to making decisions
- Family influences are particularly strong throughout research on transition

- Work is no longer something that happens after schooling; many young people now combine school and employment, which is likely to be partly about economic pressures and partly about the preference of young people for blending elements of the transition process.

Many adolescents do not express confidence in their own ability – they do not trust or value their own thinking (Kamil et al., 2008). As the authors reviewed in this section have noted, this needs to be bolstered during the transition process. Students' need for personalised approaches that promote engagement and motivation and support their own cultural identity all play an important role.

Personalisation

Today's younger tertiary students come to higher education with identities immersed in, and constructed by, the wider social world (Gilbert, 2005). Different discourses and different subjectivities can be confusing for all learners, but especially so for those students under 25, who may be becoming aware of the phenomena for the first time. One response to these many ways of being is personalisation. In essence, personalisation is a commitment to delivering teaching and learning that is responsive to the students' individual and unique circumstances (Stanley, Fraser & Spiller, 2011). When students first enter higher education they are leaving somewhere that is familiar to begin formal learning again in a new and different place. Personalisation treats each student as an individual – in a modern and holistic sense of the word, with a view to each one becoming an autonomous, self-reliant, and independent thinker (Keamy, Nicholas, Mahar and Herrick (2007).

Keamy et al. (2007) also talk about how services need to respond more directly to the diverse needs of individuals, rather than imposing uniform solutions on all people. They argue that personalised learning needs to include the following four underpinning themes: learners are central; information and communications technology (ICT) is a key enabler; lifelong learning; and communities of collaboration. It is important, they note, that institutions and their communities respond to the needs of students, rather than simply encouraging students to perform better on predetermined measures.

The justification for personalisation is embedded in an understanding of the myriad factors that make each student unique. Swail, Redd and Perna's (2003) triangular model of student persistence and achievement is composed of social factors, cognitive factors, and institutional factors. For the student, social factors include his or her educational legacy, attitude toward learning, maturity, and social coping skills, family and peer influence, and social lifestyle. Relevant cognitive factors are student aptitude, content knowledge, time management skills, and technological ability. The third group of factors refers to teaching delivery and academic support, and other practices that "in either an intended or unintended way impact student persistence and achievement" (Swail et al., 2003, p. 77). The conclusion is therefore that each student – and each student's learning experience – is a highly individual, and personal, amalgam of all these factors.

Stevenson (2008) makes the point that this awareness is not new, and that generations of teachers have tailored curricula to meet the specific needs of their students. What is new, she says, is a top-down focus from government on reforming the system to ensure that the learner is at the heart of it. The New Zealand Curriculum Document (Ministry of Education, 2008b) for secondary schools

stresses this: "The curriculum supports and empowers all students to learn and achieve personal excellence, regardless of their individual circumstances" (p. 5). Similarly, The Ministry of Education (2007) talks about tertiary education initiatives: "Personalising learning is central to transforming our education system – it provides an organising framework to align a range of government strategies and education initiatives and to develop a vision for education" (p. 26). And 3 years later, the Tertiary Education Strategy 2010–1015 states: "The tertiary education sector should respond to the diverse needs of all the groups it serves. In some cases, this will mean providing targeted services to create an inclusive environment for a diverse student body" (Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 6).

The vision of personalised learning offered here is for students to become informed and active participants in today's society: "a culture which is experiencing major social, intellectual and economic change" (Stevenson, 2008, p. 12). Accompanying this, she says, is an evolving meaning of knowledge in the 21st century that incorporates thinking about what knowledge might be, how it develops, how it is used, and who owns it. Stevenson's thesis analysed themes which relate to student needs and teacher responses around personalisation from an earlier Ministry of Education (2007) document, *Let's talk about personalised learning*, and collected evidence which supported these. Her research took place with younger learners in secondary schools, but many, if not all, of her findings are equally applicable to Under-25s and echo other voices in the literature:

- Students will have high expectations
- Students will take control of their own learning
- Students will be able to work with others
- Students will have an understanding of the learning process, identifying the knowledge they have gained and also the next steps
- Parents, families/whānau will be partners and provide support at home. They will understand how their children are progressing and be involved in planning and support
- Teachers will appreciate that all students can learn
- Teachers will have high expectations for every student
- Teachers will access and use knowledge about how their students are achieving for future learning
- Teachers will design tasks that strengthen students' skills to work in groups and support individual learning
- Teachers will build inclusive learning communities where students support each other's learning
- Teachers will have a wide range of teaching strategies including new technologies and apply them to creatively support students' learning (Stevenson, 2008, p. 110).

Engagement and motivation

Disengagement among youth is seen as a growing issue, some would even say crisis, according to a summary presented by Middleton (2011). He notes the following indicators:

- 30,000 15- to 25-year olds Not in Employment, Education or Training ("NEET's")
- Cost of this NEET group is approximately $1 billion per annum
- 20% of students have left school by the age of 16
- Māori students disengage from age 14 in significant numbers

- Pasifika have high persistence but leave with no or few qualifications (p. 3).

No one sets out to create disengagement, says Middleton; rather it is the unintended consequence of the lack of connection between sectors, linking back to the discussion of transition mentioned previously. Middleton defines three types of disengagement: 1. Physical disengagement is where students are not at school at all. This can be a steady permanent state (they never come) or an intermittent state (as in persistent truancy). 2. Virtual disengagement sees students attending school but their disengagement incrementally increases to a point where little learning is being achieved and they leave school with little or no qualifications. 3. Unintended disengagement occurs at the post-secondary level and is the result of students' believing they had done all they need to do in order to succeed and have a pathway, only to discover that a set of factors (wrong course decision, inadequate preparation for that course, unable to be socialised into the institution and so on) has led to disengagement. One answer is a multiple pathways approach, promoting vocational and workplace training options.

As well as addressing the concern of disengagement, a recent New Zealand focus has been on promoting the opposite characteristic: to foster persistence, or retention, by focussing on student engagement as a key measure of motivation (Leach & Zepke, 2011). A useful definition of engagement is proposed by Coates (2006), where student engagement is defined as "an individual's involvement with the educationally relevant activities and conditions that are instrumental to their learning" (p. 5). Engagement is linked to ideas that individual perception is important, and an individual's subjective perception of their own context, including how processes relate to them is most important. A summary of adult learning theories (Honeyfield & Fraser, 2013) found that almost all commentators agreed that today's students want to know why they need to learn something and how it will benefit them. Learners expect to see how the programme they have enrolled in will help them achieve their goals, with course content that is applicable to real-world roles and responsibilities: the 'What's in it for me' (WIIFM) effect.

When students can see how what they are learning will address some issue in their lives, motivation is enhanced, with positive impact on direction, intensity, persistence, and quality of learning behaviours (Knowles, Holton III & Swanson, 2005). External motivators might include salary increases, higher status, job titles and perks, incentive pay, academic credit, or promotions; but internal motivators, say these authors, such as job satisfaction, the desire to grow, improved self-esteem, and quality of life, are usually more important to young adults in their post-secondary school learning process.

Lieb's (1991) six sources of motivation for learning, still widely cited today, remain highly relevant to the needs of Under-25 learners:

- Social relationships: to make new friends, to meet a need for associations and friendships
- External expectations: to comply with instructions from someone else; to fulfil the expectations or recommendations of someone with formal authority
- Social welfare: to improve ability to serve mankind, prepare for service to the community, and improve ability to participate in community work
- Personal advancement: to achieve higher status in a job, secure professional advancement, and stay abreast of competitors

- Escape/Stimulation: to relieve boredom, provide a break in the routine of home or work, and provide a contrast to other exacting details of life.
- Cognitive interest: to learn for the sake of learning, seek knowledge for its own sake, and to satisfy an inquiring mind

Similarly, Russell (2006) believes the key to using adults' natural motivations is to tap into their most teachable moments – when they are convinced of the need for knowing the information. Learners want to be challenged, but not frustrated. Motivation, she says, is built through positive reinforcement and stages of success. One of the key tools for providing this information on progress toward the goal is feedback, including formative and summative assessment.

Rowe, Wood and Petocz (2008) believe that timely and effective feedback is one of the most important dimensions of student engagement. They say that a student-participative approach to teaching and learning is thus essential for two reasons: "firstly, the way that students perceive the learning context and the way they approach learning affects their learning outcomes, and secondly, student-teacher concepts of what constitutes good teaching often differ" (p. 297). Yet in their study, one quarter of students surveyed said that they received none, or rarely received any feedback. The authors agree that this means significant improvement in the provision of feedback is needed; however, their key point is that students sometimes fail to recognise feedback when they receive it. Indicating the connectedness of all these issues, their findings were that "students want more engagement from teaching staff; specifically they want the provision of feedback to be made more personalised" (p. 297).

Culture matters

The individuality of the post-secondary school learner is a product of biology, environment, learning and cognitive styles, personality, culture and beliefs, world-views, experiences and memories, relationships – highly diverse and unique. Further, these conscious and unconscious worlds influence each student differently (Honeyfield & Fraser, 2013). Understanding the background of students and the experiences they bring to the classroom can bridge the gap between activities outside and inside the classroom. An important part of this is recognising students' culture and accommodating diversity.

Alton-Lee's (2003) 'best evidence synthesis' *Quality teaching for diverse students in schooling* examined a large number of New Zealand studies and research projects. She describes diversity as including characteristics such as ethnicity (including Pakeha, Māori, Pasifika, and Asian students), socio-economic background, home language, gender, special needs, disability, and giftedness. She identifies 10 features that support students' need for their cultural identity to be recognised and valued: (1) a focus on student achievement, (2) caring, inclusive, and cohesive learning communities, (3) effective links between school and other cultural contexts, (4) responsive to student learning processes, (5) effective and sufficient opportunity to learn, (6) multiple task contexts, (7) curriculum alignment, (8) scaffolding and feedback, (9) self-direction and meta-cognitive strategies, and (10) goal-oriented assessment.

Similar items were noted in a large, multi-year investigation, with Airini Brown et al.'s (2010) report *Success for all* supporting the need to use culturally appropriate, nonracist teaching approaches aimed at supporting academic success. In this research project, students described practices where

their cultural pride and mana were included positively in classes or activities and, as a result, strengthened. Such practices were identified as helping success in university studies. Students from Māori and Pasifika population groups commented on factors affecting their success being different from those in other population groups. The report found evidence that Māori and Pasifika student success is helped when educators are both proficient in generically effective practices and responsive to the unique learner dimensions of these students. Language also matters, say the authors: helpful language is inclusive ("we", "us", "our"), and not exclusive ("they", "them"). In some cases (notably, with Pasifika students) educators who were bilingual were identified as particularly effective as they were able to converse with the students in their heritage language, increasing understanding of new academic concepts. Professional relationships matter too, and when the attributes and resources/experiences of students were recognised, students saw themselves as being set up for success in their studies, risk taking in learning and critical engagement (Airini Brown et al., 2010).

Both these large studies reference the seminal work of Russell Bishop (2003; also Bishop & Berryman, 2009; Bishop & Glynn, 1999) and his work that contributed to the Te Kotahitanga programme. Te Kotahitanga (which means unity) is a research and professional development programme for teachers of students in years 9 and 10. It is part of the Ministry of Education's Te Tere Auraki professional development strategy to improve teaching practice and the engagement and achievement of Māori learners in English-medium settings. The focus is on challenging teachers' assumptions about their Māori students, but also recognising what Māori students need to succeed: a culturally responsive context for learning, knowing that their background and the experiences they bring to the classroom are valued, and learning which is relevant.

Relevancy was a key theme in an intervention undertaken by Heke (2008) entitled *My culture in my learning*, which examined whether Māori students felt their culture was represented in their programme of study, whether there was a perception of cultural marginalisation and if so, how this might be affecting their commitment to success and completion. The hypothesis was that Māori students' outcomes will improve when they see themselves positively reflected in a curriculum. After all, says Heke, "it makes limited sense to prepare students for a life in international commerce if living as a Māori is sacrificed" (p. 28). The intervention trialled was an integrated lesson in an economics programme that provided a historic and contemporary review of Māori contributions to our country's success as a trading nation. The content was related to the larger lesson on international trade, and not an extraneous 'add on'. When developing the lesson, says Heke, it was also important that Māori values and language were respected when incorporating these into the content. Feedback from both Māori and non-Māori students was positive, and the paper concludes that "content reflecting cultural values, attitudes and practices can maximise learning as the inclusion of cultural input into educational programmes achieves multiple goals of facilitating learning, raising self-esteem, and fostering emotional and psychological well-being (Heke, 2008, p. 28). Evidence that this is what students want comes from the final quote from one of the participants:

> In any learning institution a Māori perspective is important. There are the staff who pay lip service and the staff who are genuinely interested in a Māori perspective. I can only imagine how hard it must be to try and incorporate a Māori perspective into course content and their professional lives. Perhaps they should try harder (Unnamed student cited in Heke, 2008, p. 37).

Of course, culture matters to students other than Māori and Pasifika too. The evolution to open entry to university means that we now have unprecedented numbers of non-traditional students: mature students as well as early school-leavers; students from ethnic and cultural minorities; "second-chance learners" who did not achieve well in their secondary schooling; "first-in-family" learners; international students; and students with disabilities (including learning difficulties), all of whom have the potential to challenge assumptions about what students need to succeed (Stanley et al., 2011). For all these population groups, the observations about seeing their background valued hold true, but in the case of international students studying outside their home countries, there are increased dimensions which warrant a brief mention here.

International students, particularly Asian international students, often experience considerable, and largely unforeseen, difficulties in getting to know local people and assimilating into an academic institution, due to language barriers, cultural differences and racial discrimination (Fraser & Simpson, 2012). Recognising these challenges is important: several studies on friendship patterns between domestic and overseas students suggest that the paucity of intercultural contact among tertiary students can affect the cultural, emotional, and psychological well-being of international students, whereas satisfactory and meaningful contact with host students has been correlated with the academic success rate of international students (Arkoudis et al., 2010, as cited in Fraser & Simpson, 2012). One consequence of low levels of intercultural interactions is a proliferation of "small world" networks of co-nationals, which unfortunately only heighten public perceptions of difference. This source of potential cultural tension across our campuses is yet another factor that needs to be considered as part of any endeavour to foster mutuality and reciprocal cultural relations where the values, attitudes, and beliefs of all are reflected.

Social connections and the importance of trust

Just as the Under-25 learners set great store by social learning and connectedness with peers (Le Rossignol, 2010), they also value supportive and collaborative relationships with teachers and adjunct staff (Brookfield, 2005). John Hattie (2009) calls this 'reciprocal teaching', where learning is supported by conversations between teacher and students to gain meaning from subject and context. Russell Bishop (2003) also advocates both groups working together in a jointly constructed approach. Gregson and Sturko (2007) emphasise the importance of students feeling included, respected and welcomed, and for Alton-Lee (2003), empowerment is critical. Running through the discussions offered by all these authors and many others from whom their conclusions have been drawn, is the centricity of trust.

Trust has been linked directly with success: "The highest achieving classrooms are ones where the students trust, respect and care about their teacher because that teacher trusts, respects, cares and expects great things from them" (Peters, 2004, as cited in Colville, 2007). Stephen Covey (1989), an American educator, author and popular speaker, is one of many to describe the significance of high and low trust culture. Building trust comes from being true to your commitments, by clarifying expectations, by treating people with kindness and respect, and by transparent communication and information sharing. Colville (2007) says that trust in educational settings is based on having common values and goals and is a fragile emotion that can quickly be undermined and decimated; conversely, relationships and environment/culture need to be actively worked on to be maintained and developed to a high trust model. While individual practitioners can and do make a significant

contribution within their classrooms, Colville argues that the role of leadership is critical and it is inherent in the way that managers act and lead, and impacts greatly on the effectiveness of the relationships within an institution and on student learning. The same will also be true for staff in support and pastoral roles, and the relationships they forge with learners.

The social networks and patterns of trust relationships within which the individual student is located, therefore, include the wider staff groups that the student encounters, including but not limited to: teachers; course, group and faculty leaders; adjunct staff such as counsellors and learning advisors; international coordinators; and Māori and Pasifika mentors (Brookfield, 2005; Knowles et al., 2005; Le Rossignol, 2010).

Graduate attributes for the 21st Century

Most discussions of 21st century learning, skills, and desired graduate attributes begin with a statement about the way education is changing, and how it looks today. A representative summary from Binkley et al. (2010), states

> There has been a significant shift in advanced economies from manufacturing to emphasizing information and knowledge services. Knowledge itself is growing ever more specialized and expanding exponentially. Information and communication technology is transforming the nature of how work is conducted and the meaning of social relationships. Decentralized decision-making, information sharing, teamwork and innovation are key in today's enterprises. No longer can students look forward to middle class success in the conduct of manual labor or use of routine skills – work that can be accomplished by machines. Rather, whether a technician or a professional person, success lies in being able to communicate, share, and use information to solve complex problems, in being able to adapt and innovate in response to new demands and changing circumstances, in being able to marshal and expand the power of technology to create new knowledge and expand human capacity and productivity (p. 7).

Or, as Hager (2004) puts it: in a complex workplace, with many industries in flux, the skills employers are seeking in our graduates are as much about attitudes, values, and motivations as they are about genuine abilities or knowledge. If we see learning primarily as a process rather than a product, then it becomes inseparable from contextuality and the influence of cultural and social factors. The learner, then, needs to become a participant, rather than a detached spectator (this point relates directly to the discussion of employability and experiential learning below).

Exactly what skills are desirable in our 21st century graduates has been the subject of much recent scholarship, the results of which have been quickly incorporated by many institutions into mission statements or strategic directions. Commonly cited is intellectual independence, which incorporates skills for lifelong learning; information literacy; problem solving and critical thinking; and working autonomously, alone and in groups. These are not skills in a vacuum, rather, they are firmly aligned to end use: graduates must be "fit for purpose" in the greater global workplace. Just as there has been widespread work determining a blueprint for ideal graduate attributes, so too has there been extensive research into what it is that employers are seeking.

Fortunately, these two wish-lists have a great deal in common: an example is the survey of 200 Wellington employers (Victoria University, 2000). They are looking for: strong verbal and

interpersonal communication skills; problem solving skills; sound academic achievement; self-motivated, self-management, self-starter; analytical and conceptual skills; flexible and adaptable "can do" skills; team player; strong written communication skills; energy and enthusiasm; and creative/innovative. Other surveys (such as the Unitec Faculty of Business (1999), the New Zealand Department of Labour (2000), The Australian Council for Education Research (www.detya.gov.au), the Leeds Metropolitan University (www.leedsmet.ac.uk/employability/index.html), (LMU), and Surrey University (www.surrey.ac.uk/skills/reports/employer.html)) confirm these findings with comparatively minor variations. In fact, LMU actually advises students that in most instances, their degree subject may not matter in the future, where even relevant, subject-specific knowledge will rapidly become outdated.

In 2010, Binkley et al. conducted a meta-analysis of international frameworks for 21st century skills and skills. Their criteria required measureable descriptions of each item, considering the Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes, Values and Ethics aspects of each skill, a model they refer to as KSAVE. In general, they noted that references to 21st century attributes of learners are contained within overarching statements of goals or educational aims, such as "the need to educate for new industry, commerce, technology and economic structures; the need for new social interaction and communication skills; the need for imagination, creativity and initiative; the need to learn and continue to learn throughout employment; the need to maintain national and cultural values; and the need to operate in an increasingly international and global environment" (p. 13). Their final list is ordered as:

Ways of Thinking

1. Creativity and innovation
2. Critical thinking, problem solving, decision making
3. Learning to learn, Metacognition

Ways of Working

1. Communication
2. Collaboration (teamwork)

Tools for Working

1. Information literacy
2. ICT literacy

Living in the World

1. Citizenship – local and global
2. Life and career
3. Personal and social responsibility – including cultural awareness and competence (pp. 1–2).

Interestingly, only one of the above items directly references technology. In his article *Technology rich, information poor*, November (2010) issues a strong warning against educational provision that assumes 21st century needs are met solely through expensive tools and software:

> I have walked into many laptop schools and watched every student in the classroom taking notes with what amounts to a $2,000 pencil. As the famous quote goes, 'The process whereby

the lecture notes of the instructor get transferred to the notebooks of the students without passing through the brains of either' does not describe a 21st century practice, regardless of the tool used for the transfer (p. 277).

In fact, although we need networks, hardware and software in place, these will not be effective without fundamentally changing our concept of curriculum, assessment and the role of teacher and learner. And if we do want to talk about technology, November says, we should be looking at the big picture trends to prepare our students for a global work ethic:

- Immediate access to an over-abundance of information – How do we make sense of it all? YouTube serves up one billion videos per day.
- Essentially free global communications – We already have a range of tools such as Skype that provide essentially free global communication. Every one of our classrooms can become a global communications centre.
- Job markets flowing to the people who can provide the highest quality at the lowest price wherever they happen to live…the Web creates opportunities for people around the world to earn a living without the need to immigrate (p. 278).

November (2010) instead says that it is possible collaboration is one of the most important 21st century skills. "We need to prepare students who know how to manage their own work within a team setting and how to organize and manages global communications. In an interconnected world, our students will need to learn how to understand various points of view and how to work with people in different cultures" (p. 281).

Career guidance and employability

> "To be employed is to be at risk, to be employable is to be secure" (Hawkins, as cited in University of Edinburgh, 2011).

One of the main reasons students choose to study at university is to enhance their career prospects. This becomes increasingly important in view of rising costs of education and levels of debt on graduation, so students – and their families – want to ensure it has been money well spent. In addition, students' engagement and motivation is more likely to be maintained if they can see the relevance of their studies to their future careers (Lieb, 1991; Lynch et al., 2006). It is widely acknowledged that a qualification is no longer enough to guarantee a graduate a satisfying future career, with employers looking for 'work-ready' graduates who can demonstrate job specific skills in addition to the graduate attributes discussed above. To have a competitive advantage in the job market, students need to have developed their employability throughout their attendance, and be able to evidence this through specific examples (University of Edinburgh, 2011).

Two key approaches institutions can adopt to meet this need are first, a closer interface between the classroom and industry, and second, innovative learning, teaching, and assessment methods that embed the skills required to promote understanding and engage in 'deep' learning. The first approach, involving employers in the education experience, can include placements/practicums and internships, case studies, and delivery of guest lectures, all of which can help students appreciate the relevance of their course and learn how to apply theory and knowledge in practical ways in the workplace (Fulljames, Fraser & Honey, 2006). As Fulljames et al. note, there is a considerable

difference between the culture of learning and the culture of work. Typically, students get regular feedback about their performance; their programmes are highly structured with a great deal of direction; and they have flexible schedules with few major changes. Students get frequent breaks and time off, and the focus is very much on their own development and individual efforts. Life in the workforce can often be diametrically opposed (Jones, 2002). Clearly it is advantageous to students to encounter this different culture before embarking on a career in their chosen field, so that this experiential learning provides a valuable addition to an academic programme.

The second approach to meeting students' needs for employability outcomes is through embedding these skills within the curricula, and helping students identify growing proficiency. In one Australian study, Soontiens and de la Harpe (2002) incorporated presentation, writing, and teamwork skill instruction into a management unit, and found that every participating student believed that the inclusion of such professional skills added value to their qualification. Another often cited example from Australia is the *Graduate Qualities: Recording of Achievement* programme at the University of South Australia (2009). Here, each of seven specified Graduate Qualities have a set of indicators, and students can develop a personalised document of their skill development and record them in ways that best demonstrate their potential to employers. All courses list the particular Qualities emphasised, with a clear indication of how these are integrated into learning activities and assessment tasks. Similarly, Alverno College in America is frequently referenced as having developed one of the most comprehensive parallel programmes allowing students to use "integrating moments" in the curriculum to chart their own progress and build an electronic resume. A "diagnostic digital portfolio" provides a matrix of skills/attributes (communication, problem-solving, effective citizenship, etc.) and levels of study, so that students can record relevant performances and achievements, both academic and extra-curricular (such as internships and community service) (Alverno College, 2013). Similar examples can be found in New Zealand institutions, although none was found to the extent of these two overseas examples. Of course, initiatives such as this are also in themselves an ideal way to build and showcase students' abilities with various software technologies.

Enhanced employability needs to be supported by strong career guidance to keep younger learners engaged and driven, say Kirst and Venezia (2004). This needs to begin with pre-enrolment conversations to ensure students are not commencing courses they are not suited to, and then failing to complete the course. Next, organisations need to build a culture around completion in a direct link to career guidance and then job-search assistance. Boven, Harland, and Grace (2011) recommend there be a central agency, such as Careers NZ, that is mandated to provide oversight of the overall careers system and make changes that will promote life-long career self-management. They argue professional career guidance for students is essential as they move through the school-study-training-work transition, informed by a sound understanding of student aptitudes and interests, and the expected workforce supply and demand. It should require active career planning and tracking for all students, not simply those at risk or those who are headed for academic success. Under-25 students need easy access to career information, and teachers and providers who understand the bigger picture of viable career development and employability (Engler, 2011; Whatman et al., 2010).

The use of student voice in organisational decision-making

Under-25 students, like any other student group, need to feel their learning environment is respectful of their opinions, questions, and viewpoints. As Dr Peter Coolbear, Director of Ako Aotearoa notes, one of most important avenues for progressing the best possible educational outcomes for learners is "ensuring that learners themselves are involved in organisational approaches to quality assurance and enhancement" (cited in Heathrose Research ltd, 2012, p. 2).

Ideally, says Brookfield (2005), collaboration between teachers and learners should be a constant feature, visible throughout learning programmes in the diagnosis of needs, setting of objectives, curriculum development, teaching methodologies, and selection of assessment tools and criteria. This is different from just gathering opinion, or simply having a student present when decisions are made, and generally needs more than a single mechanism to represent the interest of all students (Heathrose Research Ltd, 2012). It is also different from the view of seeing students as customers, which can be relatively reactive (as opposed to proactive), reacting to complaints, rather than seeking input (Tarricone & Luca, 2002). Instead, student participation and engagement at the decision-making or governance level is valuable for both learners themselves and the organisations where they study.

Carey (2012, as cited in Heathrose Research Ltd, 2012) offers a nice distinction: the concepts of "voice for" and "voice of" students. The "voice for" is when students collect and collate information from other students and work to represent the whole group, rather than themselves or their associated groups. The "voice of" students is when students are consulted individually by academics on a range of issues. Both are important in true consultation and representation. Heathrose Research Ltd (2012, p. 6) identifies five good practice features to promote the use of student voice in decision-making:

- Organisations have a range of representative systems that enable all students to have a voice
- Students are resourced so they are able to undertake representative work in a supported, meaningful, and knowledgeable way
- Students actively engage in student representative systems
- Quality enhancements incorporate the student voice
- The organisation exhibits a culture of representation that values the student voice.

Barriers to learning for this demographic

Powerful economic, demographic, and market trends are reshaping not just the landscape of higher education, but also the world of work into which graduates emerge (Boven et al., 2011; Kirst & Venezia, 2004). These trends affect all tertiary students, but especially the Under-25 cohort, as job seekers who need more than high school credentials to succeed in the economy and may have little work experience on which to draw. Increasingly employers are seeking a more highly educated workforce with postsecondary skills and credentials. What then are the barriers standing between this learner population, and achieving these goals?

Kazis et al. (2007) discuss three types of barriers: accessibility, affordability, and accountability. Accessibility refers to the need for greater flexibility and more accelerated learning options, such as weekend-only classes, accelerated "summer school" programmes in traditional teaching break periods, on-line instruction, and critical support services during non-traditional hours. Multiple entry, exit, and re-entry points, including more frequent start times throughout the year should be considered, as should credit for co-curricular learning like work experience. The inability of the higher education system to meet these needs, say the authors, is a significant barrier to access and success for many youth.

Affordability includes the need to offer part time as well as full time study options, to have clear milestones where partial qualifications can be gained (such as local provider certificates, or diplomas to recognise progress towards a degree), and to show relevant and realistic career pathways or offer programmes developed in association with industry. When there is little publicly available information to answer learner questions about employment outcomes, earnings potential, or return on education investment when choosing a higher education provider or qualification, a barrier is created for students that may have long-lasting financial repercussions.

Accountability barriers relate to the need for institutions to ensure programme quality and work-ready graduates with the skills, knowledge and abilities for which employers are looking. Barriers here identified by Kazis et al. (2007) include programme structure and duration that make access and persistence difficult; pedagogy and supports that do not meet the needs of Under-25 learners; and alignment of institutions and of courses and transferability of credits that slow progress to qualifications.

Section summary: Cultural, structural and political considerations

The kaupapa Māori theory framework emphasises "transformation" (Smith, 2012), so it is pertinent to summarise this first part of the literature review by asking not only what various cultural, structural, and political considerations are discussed from a theoretical or conceptual standpoint, but also what impact these are having on tertiary students, and especially on the Under-25 sector.

In the section "Culture Matters" above, a number of articles were cited that outlined various features necessary for culturally supportive learning environments and practices (for example, Alton-Lee, 2003; Bishop, 2003; Airini Brown, 2010). Bevan-Brown (2000) suggests value in the idea of a "cultural audit for teachers" (p. 16) and asks: "How does one judge what is "culturally appropriate"? How do organisations determine this?" (p. 17). Bevan-Brown then offers eight criteria for determining cultural appropriateness for Māori: "partnership, participation, active protection, empowerment, tino rangatiratanga, equality, accessibility, and integration" (p. 17). The other axis in the matrix is a checklist of "environment, personnel, policy, process, content, resources, assessment and administration" (p. 18). She describes both how information should be gathered and the "Māori cultural input action plan" (p. 19), which can be developed to address identified gaps. So the tools exist, and can be readily adapted as necessary, for example not only for incorporating Māori cultural input but also for including input relevant to other minority cultures, simply by changing the criteria being measured and the checklist questions which address these. The challenge is for organisations which are truly committed to supporting their learners, to implement these, gather data, and then act on their findings. As Bevan-Brown puts it, "A wero has been laid down!" (p. 20).

Organisations also carry the majority of the responsibility for many of the structural considerations that affect Under-25s. Leach and Zepke (2011) and Prebble, Hargreaves, Leach, Naidoo and Zepke (2004) have looked thoroughly at how New Zealand tertiary providers have developed systems, strategies, and processes to improve learner outcomes through a range of student support services and academic development programmes. Key recommendations are around assimilation and adaptation: organisations need to find new ways of assimilating diverse students into existing institutional culture, and they also need to adapt their policies and practices to adapt to the cultural capital that students bring with them.

Tertiary organisations should therefore ensure a structural framework which acknowledges and values students' cultural capital, but they should also offer this as a cornerstone of their commitment to the Treaty of Waitangi and the guarantee it provides to protect Māori taonga. Active protection measures in higher education contexts encompass developing a learner's cultural knowledge, skills, values, beliefs, and identity (Bishop, 2003; Bishop & Berryman, 2009; Bishop & Glynn, 1999; Airini Brown et al., 2010). The theme here is empowerment (Bevan-Brown, 2000) as Article Three of the Treaty promises Māori equal rights and privileges of British subjects, with the implicit assurance of equal access to and enjoyment of social benefits such education. Where an imbalance exists, proactive measures must be taken to ensure equal accessibility and equality of outcome. There is a twofold commitment: "education organisations and… different levels of the education system working together for the benefit of the learner. Secondly, at the individual level… an ecological, holistic approach to programme content and service delivery (Bevan-Brown, 2000, p. 20).

Politically, strong provision exists to support these ideals, such as the continued focus on raising Māori academic achievement in the government's Tertiary Education Strategy (Ministry of Education, 2010; 2014). But there are ideologies, philosophies, and mind-sets that also impact on Under-25s' learning experiences, often arising from publically generated political considerations. Gilbert (2000) discusses the concept of identity as it is understood in current post-modern political theory, and finds that it is changing. Instead of a one-size-fits-all model of individuality and equality, we now need "new and different ways of thinking about individuality that allow difference to be expressed *as* difference, rather than deficiency, lack or exclusion…known as the 'politics of difference'" (p. 109). Rather than aiming to create new identity categories, this approach emphasises instead plurality, difference and diversity. As Gilbert says:

> Instead of seeing our identity, or sense of self, as a coherent, enduring set of features that we are either born with or develop (as, for example, a Māori, a woman, or a New Zealander), post-modern theorists see identity as multiple, complex and constructed. Where the modern individual had *one* stable identity, the post-modern person has to manage many identities in many different contexts (p. 111).

Once again the discussion has circled back to a core tension with which education must grapple: our students are first and foremost individuals and we live in a society which is individualistic and all expect (to some degree) to be "masters of our own destiny"; and yet we see our students as groups and sub-groups, defined by the labels (such as "Māori", "first-in-family", "Generation Y" and "Under 25"). This sense of struggle and resistance, and the ways in which we continually seek to address it, are fundamental understandings of the kaupapa Māori theoretical perspective and a close fit with this overview of the needs of Under-25 students.

Part 2: Effective teaching strategies and provision for Under-25 students

> Teacher knowledge is a complex concept that includes knowledge of learners, knowledge of subject matter, previous experiences and ideas about pedagogical practice, and contextual cues in a dynamic, iterative process that can be supported and encouraged through institutional intervention. Like meaningful learning, faculty learning about pedagogical content knowledge begins by connecting to what the learner already knows, produces a transformation and then continues to be modified as the learner encounters additional related experiences (Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2006, p. 849).

Higher education teachers have to balance complex and multifaceted roles, say Fry, Ketteridge and Marshall (2009). Teaching is often only one of the requirements of the job, alongside obligations to pursue excellence in several directions, such as research and scholarship, supervision, academic administration, and management. Where in the past, emphasis may have drawn attention to performance beyond the classroom, today, say these authors, there is a sense that academic practice encompasses all these facets, but the interaction with students is the most critical: "Effective teaching (and supervision, assessment, planning and so on) has to be predicated on an understanding of how students learn; the objective of the activities is to bring about learning", and there has to be "insight and knowledge about learners' needs for teaching to be successful" (p. 3). Above all, effective teachers need to be self-aware.

What makes an effective teacher?

Teachers, says world-renowned educationalist Stephen Brookfield (1995), come to teaching to change the world. They want to help learners learn, and so provide a personal, positive contribution, however small, to their own area of expertise, industry or community. There is a large body of literature associated with effective teacher attributes, and how effective teachers think about teaching, as represented below. Why is it so important to understand the principles behind effective teaching practice?

One of the most conclusive arguments is provided by John Hattie (2009, 2012) who compared the effect of over 100 learning interventions. He identified 'high-effect' teachers (those who use proven strategies for improving student learning) and 'low-effect teachers', and found that a student in a high-effect teacher's classroom has almost a year's advantage over peers in a lower effect teacher's class. A key difference, he says, is teachers' attitudes and expectations (Hattie, 2012). While Hattie's work occurs in the compulsory sector, many of his ideas are being applied to tertiary education practices, and are especially applicable to younger, Under-25 students.

A good starting point to overview this field is Prebble et al.'s (2004) research synthesis which contains a number of lists and taxonomies of effective teaching attributes, such as Cohen's (1981, cited in Prebble et al., 2004, p. 14):

- skill: the instructor's overall pedagogical adroitness
- rapport: the instructor's empathy, accessibility and friendliness to students
- structure: the extent to which the course is well planned and organised
- difficulty: the amount and difficulty of work expected of students in a course

- interaction: the extent to which students are encouraged to become actively engaged in class sessions
- feedback: the extent to which the instructor provides feedback on the quality of a student's work.

And Ramsden, Margetson, Martin and Clarke's (1995, as cited in Prebble et al., 2004) list, which says good teachers:

- are also good learners and committed to improving their practice
- display enthusiasm and a desire to share their knowledge
- recognise the importance of context and can adapt their teaching to different groups and different situations
- encourage deep rather than surface learning approaches
- set clear goals, employ appropriate assessments, and provide comprehensive feedback
- respect their students and set high goals for their achievements.

Older than these examples, and yet among the most frequently cited in teaching and learning literature, note Prebble et al. (2004), are the "seven principles for good practice in undergraduate education" (p. 15) developed by Chickering and Gamson in 1987. According to these authors, an effective teacher will:

- encourage contact between students and faculty
- develop reciprocity and cooperation among students
- encourage active learning
- give prompt feedback
- emphasise time on task
- communicate high expectations
- respect diverse talents and ways of learning.

Of particular note with this set of attributes is the focus on reciprocal and cooperative relationships between teachers and students, and developing similar relationships between students themselves, which must be targeted by both the institution and the teachers. This concept is discussed in greater detail in the section on whanaungatanga, below.

Writing in 2006 to mark the establishment of Ako Aotearoa: the National Centre for Tertiary Teaching Excellence and discuss its purpose, Haigh (2006) notes a functional framework for thinking about teacher development as a list of general attributes shared by teachers who have been effective in promoting student learning and successful academic outcomes. Such teachers, Haigh argues, possess:

- a rich repertoire of teaching methods and skills
- sensitivity to the myriad of factors that make particular ways of teaching more or less appropriate
- good control of specific skills
- a willingness and capacity to reflect on and research their own teaching

- an awareness that the choices they make concerning teaching and learning objectives and approaches are shaped by their beliefs about the primary purposes of education. They can make those beliefs explicit and teach in ways that 'fit' these purposes. In this sense, their teaching is 'educative' as well as effective. (Haigh, 2006, p. 109).

Identifying specific characteristics that are embodied by effective teachers is also the approach taken by McEwan (2002) who describes three categories of teacher traits:

- Personal traits about character (mission-driven and passionate; positive and real; a teacher-leader)
- Teaching traits that are outcome-focused (with-it-ness; personal style; motivational expertise; instructional effectiveness)
- Intellectual traits demonstrating a commitment to lifelong learning (book-learning; street smarts; and a mental life).

Brookfield (1995b) develops his own study of what students' value in teachers (credibility and authenticity) to advance a single concept that defines effective teachers: they are critically reflective. This begins, he argues, by questioning the assumption that "the meanings and significance we place in our actions are the ones that students take from them" (p. 1). He describes a number of paradigmatic, prescriptive, and causal assumptions about how we think students learn best, and how we think good teachers behave, and illustrates how unexamined 'common-sense' offers a singularly unreliable guide to practice. Assumptions he cites to illustrate the way in which critical thinking can provide alternative interpretations include, tertiary students are self-directed learners; good educational practices are inherently democratic; and discussion methods build upon principles of participatory, active learning.

Cranton and Carusetta (2004) take a different approach, but also call for a substantive change in thinking about what makes effective teaching:

What works – what forms good teaching in higher education – is influenced by many factors, including discipline, level of instruction, class size, the characteristics of the students, and the characteristics and behaviour of the teacher. In other words, what constitutes good teaching depends on the individuals who are working and learning together, as well as the social context within which the teaching takes place (p. 12).

It therefore follows that there is no one way of teaching, or any approach that can be identified as 'best' practice. Rather, say Cranton and Carusetta, it is necessary to re-examine our understanding about knowledge. They promote the use of the German social philosopher Habermas' 'Three generic domains of human interest', first developed in the 1960s, which distinguishes between different cognitive areas, based on basic human interests: instrumental knowledge, communicative or practical knowledge and emancipatory knowledge. The first area refers to technical, factual, cause-and-effect learning, which teachers, they believe, used to take for granted about their own ways of operating. Now, they argue, many commonly espoused principles of effective teaching must be challenged, for example, that lessons must be highly organised, or that students always learn best from discussion. Communicative knowledge about teaching looks at Interrelationships and exists at all levels: classroom, Institution, and society and must always be concerned with individual differences, rather than rules. Teaching must be both interpretive and critical, based on a desire to

grow and develop as teachers, and this will lead to emancipatory knowledge about teaching, in which practitioners question programme goals and institutional norms.

Whanaungatanga – People and relationships

One of the most commonly quoted whakataukī in education discussions attests to the importance of relationships above all other considerations: He aha te mea nui o te ao? He tangata! He tangata! He tangata! (What is the most important thing in the world? It is people! It is people! It is people! (Kōrero Māori, n.d.)). Almost everything that has been discussed so far about students' needs – an effective transition and assimilation, a personalised instructional delivery, seeing their cultural identity recognised and respected – depends on establishing strong, meaningful, and trusting relationships with their peers and teaching staff.

Levy, Yellowley, and Farmer (2006) say that getting off to a good start at an institute involves more that academic orientation; it also requires the development of a sense of social well-being. The critical nature of successful transition into tertiary study requires finding ways to help students develop a sense of belonging and establish a pattern of successful interaction with staff and with other students. The authors offer a number of suggestions about how this can be achieved:

- allowing time in class for students to get to know each other is an important way to develop a sense of belonging to the group and the institute. If students feel they don't belong or don't fit in, or that their social and cultural practices are inappropriate, or their cultural knowledge undervalued, then they may be more likely to withdraw early
- setting a class culture in the first weeks of a course can be important in terms of having standards, especially as they relate to industry and vocational benchmarks. Decide on the rules as a classroom together. Allowing students ownership and making them accountable to stick to the rules they have created
- an important aspect of setting up a positive culture for students is establishing positive relationships with their tutors based on trust, honesty, respect, rapport, supportiveness, loyalty, shared experiences, and common interests. If students feel a level of support both academically and emotional support they are more likely to become lifelong learners
- good teaching practice involves the integration of student support services, constructive assessment feedback, and relevant practical components. There should be opportunities in the programme for students to maintain positive relationships with their peers and teachers (such as end of term shared lunches and marae visits).

Kamil et al. (2008) believe the starting point for strong relationships is for teachers to get to know their students. The strengths of students can be identified through interest surveys, interviews, and discussions, and through learning about and understanding students' narratives and histories. For many students, having a personal connection with at least one teacher can make a difference in their response and their outcomes. Knowing students' interests and aspirations makes it easier for teachers to choose materials that will hook students in, and motivate them to engage in their own learning.

Zepke et al. (2005) find that a direct outcome of teachers knowing their students is the ability to create an institutional culture that is learner centred. Teaching and student support are "servants" to learning, and so should meet the learning needs of all students. This requires flexibility in teaching, assessment, workloads, and administrative systems. They suggest that those charged with programme design for young learners should:

- focus on fostering positive relationships between students and significant others in the institution. Relationships emerge as a key factor in determining success or failure, retention or early withdrawal. Positive relationships between students and their peers, institutional support staff and teachers, do have major effects
- nurture institutional support structures and services. Even though support services are often under-used, for students at risk of leaving early they can be vital. The functions of various support services need to be understood by all staff within the institution, who must consider themselves as reference points to appropriate services
- operate an early-warning system. If factors outside the institution's control are frequently responsible for students leaving early, then an early warning of imminent departure will minimise actual departure. Systematic reporting of absences, missed assignments, and sudden deterioration of grades to designated people within the institution are examples of early warning processes.

The authors follow this with specific recommendations for teachers:

- be open to, welcome, and establish rapport with students with diverse cultural capital
- help students establish social and academic networks with others in the class and the institution
- provide pastoral care for each student according to his or her needs
- monitor students' academic and social integration and intervene early if necessary
- relate content and examples to the students in the class
- use a variety of teaching methods appropriate to the students
- use assessment practices appropriate for students from diverse backgrounds
- enhance personal learning by attending relevant professional development activities
- refer students to student support services when appropriate

… as well as for institutions and managers:

- cultivate an institutional culture that welcomes and values students from diverse backgrounds
- adapt institutional habitus to help students bridge from their culture of origin into the academic culture
- offer activities that will help students create social networks
- provide necessary facilities and resources to support high-quality learning and teaching
- restrict class and tutorial group sizes, so teachers and tutors can establish rapport with each student
- provide professional development activities to help teachers work effectively with diversity
- implement workload policies that enable teachers to cater for students' diverse learning needs

Zepke et al.'s (2005) study endorsed the value of personalised student support services that initiate contact with the student, were easy to access, and informal. Their overall conclusion was that creating a learning community that increased academic and social involvement could also reduce the number of students leaving study. Learning communities, they say, organise students and academic staff into smaller units or communities, support social activities, and provide space support programmes such as tutoring.

Other writers (Alton-Lee, 2003; Boven, Harlan & Grace, 2011; Madjar et al., 2010; Vaughan, 2003) also offer similar suggestions for teacher strategies to build effective, learner-centred practice. A composite summary includes:

- creating a culture around completion. Linking students' learning to a future career with strong career guidance offered through the process. The end target of employment gives learning purpose
- empowering students to make decisions about topics, forms of communication, and selections of materials encourages them to assume greater ownership and responsibility for their engagement in learning
- building in instructional conditions, such as student goal setting, self-directed learning, and collaborative learning
- being accommodating to students' personal circumstances
- having a sense of humour
- applying assessment practices to improve learning. Tutors and students have clear information about learning outcomes. Feedback is provided that impacts positively on students' motivation and teachers adjust their teaching to take account of the results of assessment
- including activities to build student-tutor interaction
- establishing class rules and values.

Haigh (2006) notes that both partners in the relationship have responsibilities: students should be encouraged to reflect on how they learn, what they do well, and what they need to improve on and develop skills in reflective practice; tutors should have a willingness and capacity to reflect on and research their own teaching. He offers the following questions a tutor might ask to reflect on this:

- Do you arrive early to class and take time to mingle with students and chat to them?
- Do you make it possible for students to chat to you?
- Do you try to use students' names?
- Do you encourage the students to talk with each other?
- Do you greet your students?
- Do you thank your students for contributions they make to class?
- Do you give the students opportunities to draw on their own experiences?
- Do you share information about yourself and your experiences?
- Do you make use of narratives and analogies that may connect with learners?
- How do you respond to student questions?
- Do you acknowledge students' different cultural backgrounds?
- Are you transparent about paper and assessment requirements?

Manaakitanga - Inclusivity

The Ministry of Education (2000) document *What is our School Culture Like? A Checklist for Analysing a School's Culture* may be intended for the compulsory sector, but has an extremely comprehensive analysis of the different factors that contribute to organisational culture, and is therefore also a useful tool for tertiary institutions. It covers issues such as the school's teaching and learning character, interpersonal relationships, policy and bureaucracy, ethical or moral "tone", the socio-economic status and ethnic character of the community, taonga and values, sources and control of power, history and tradition, drivers, goals and planning, and resourcing. Many of the questions asked are designed to probe the level of inclusivity: that is, how well the diversity of the students' cultures, perspectives and experiences are reflected.

A second tool from earlier education that is pertinent to the ways tertiary teachers can promote inclusivity for Under-25 students is the Te Kotahitanga professional development intervention aimed at improving educational outcomes for Māori students (Bishop & Berryman, 2009). The intervention consists of four separate components: an initial induction workshop; a series of structured classroom observations and feedback sessions; a series of collaborative, problem-solving sessions based on evidence of student outcomes; and specific shadow-coaching sessions. Te Kotahitanga identifies six practices effective teachers carry out that enhance Māori students' learning: Manaakitanga (Caring for students); Mana Motuhake (Caring for the performance of each student); Nga whakapiringatanaga (Creating a secure, well managed learning environment); Wānanga (Engaging in effective learning interactions); Ako (Using a range of teaching and learning strategies); and Kotahitanga (Using student progress to inform future teaching practices). The profile can be applied in any learning environment and improve all students' outcomes. Above all, for Bishop and his colleagues, the success of any teaching intervention begins with exploring and developing the value set and attitudes of the teacher (Bishop & Berryman, 2009).

While there is no direct evidence of its success in tertiary vocational education, a number of writers recognise that it may be possible to apply the principles of Te Kotahitanga and the effective teaching profile to create a culturally responsive context for learning with a whānau approach, making sure there is a sense of belonging and of "greater humanity" and cultural inclusivity (e.g. Madjar et al., 2010; Stanley et al., 2011). Teachers who are flexible, committed, passionate about teaching, focus on learners, and who are able to motivate these learners are key to the enactment.

Recent literature (e.g. Bishop, 2003; Bishop & Glynn, 1999; Smith, 2012) shows wide acceptance of the call for teachers first, to reject explicitly deficit theorising as a means of explaining Māori students' educational achievement levels, and second, to take a self-organising, proactive, self-reflecting position in their theorising about their practice. That is, practitioners expressing their professional commitment and responsibility to bringing about change in Māori students' educational achievement by accepting professional responsibility for the learning of their students. These two central understandings are then manifested in these teachers' classrooms where the teachers demonstrate on a daily basis: that they care for the students as culturally located individuals; they have high expectations of the learning for students; they are able to manage their classrooms so as to promote learning; they are able to engage in a range of discursive learning interactions with students or facilitate students to engage with others in these ways; they know a range of strategies that can facilitate learning interactions; they promote, monitor and reflect upon learning outcomes

that in turn lead to improvements in Māori student achievement and they share this knowledge with the students (Bishop et al., 2009).

Problem-based and inquiry-based learning

Problem-based learning is an approach in which problems provide the background motivation and driving force for learning. This approach, say advocates, will enhance planning, self- discipline, and teamwork (Boud & Feletti, 1977; Rahman & Debnath, 2011). Typically, problems are work-shopped through tutorials, with the problem initially taking precedence over the 'body of knowledge'. The objective of learning is less about content and more about the process of discovery: students need to gain knowledge, understanding, and experience of how knowledge is gained – essentially, this is the process through which problems are resolved.

Similarly, but perhaps more encompassing, inquiry-based learning is "a pedagogy which best enables students to experience the processes of knowledge creation" (Sponken-Smith, n.d., p. 1). This is an inductive approach to teaching and learning, says Sponken-Smith, which typically begins with a set of observations or data to interpret, or a complex real-world problem, and as the students study the data or problem they generate a need for facts, procedures, and guiding principles. Similar inductive approaches include problem-based learning (above), case or scenario-based learning, project-based learning, and discovery. Common to all, to varying degrees, are a number of characteristics:

- a learner-centred approach
- active learning is about learning by doing, for example, students discussing questions and solving problems
- the development of self-directed learning skills so that students take more responsibility for their own learning
- students construct their own meaning of reality and create knowledge rather than this being transmitted by direct instruction
- collaborative or cooperative learning, in and out of formal class time, with students working in groups
- student work is cumulative and coherent
- reduction of competitiveness
- students develop skills in reflective practice (Sponken-Smith, n.d., p. 2).

The University of Victoria's Business School (2012) advocates many of these principles in their three key directives to new teaching staff, noting: the teaching focus needs to be on the students and their learning; learning is student led: and students need relevant, 'real world' learning. Above all, they note, "Effective education is dialogic rather than a one-way transfer. It is a process that views and fosters students as active learners on an "intellectual journey". Relevant and authentic, professional experiences are essential. A number of teaching strategies are suggested, including class, group and pair discussions, debates, role play, guest tutors, fieldtrips, class games, "learning cells", the "one minute paper", and "self-audit".

Cooperative learning

Cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups where students work together to advance their own, and fellow team members' learning (Baker & Clark, 2011). Group work is increasingly prominent in both higher education and organisational workplaces, with a vast body of research in both education and management disciplines on the benefits of 'teamwork' in achieving desired outcomes in both work and learning over the past two decades (Hernandez, 2002; Tarricone & Luca, 2002). Hernandez (2002) states "employers…need employees who know how to work effectively with others" in self-managed teams (p. 74) and he also acknowledges that team learning can promote student engagement and thinking skills. Baker and Clark (2011) cite evidence that students who learn in groups develop increased intercultural understanding and tolerance, improved interpersonal skills, higher level thinking skills, and are better prepared for the modern participative workplace. Priority One of New Zealand's Tertiary Education Strategy states "The priority is to ensure that the skills people develop in tertiary education are well matched to labour market needs" (MOE, 2014, para. 5), so that group and team work is clearly a valuable course component, and effective teachers will need to incorporate opportunities for cooperative learning in to their teaching delivery.

However, research also suggests that the potential value of team work is frequently not realised (Van der Vegt & Bunderson, 2005). Simply putting people in groups does not create effective teams, with typical issues including "unclear goals, mis-management, conflict and unequal participation" (Hansen, 2006, p. 12). This is further exacerbated when students are completing an assessed task situated outside the classroom, involving a complex range of project and relationship management skills. The requirement to assess individual achievement within such assessments, usually via some sort of peer evaluation (Gutowski, 2006) often results in a self-destructive spiral of conflict and self-justification. Thus, spending time on group formation and development is a key to successful completion of the assignment tasks, and team facilitation and support are important elements of the teacher's role. Gutowski (2006) highlights the importance of a supportive environment that provides 'scaffolding' until individuals and teams develop the skills and understanding that enable them to function independently.

Cooperative learning suggests the use of reflection or sharing past experiences to explain current understanding (Hansen, 2006). These reflections and experiences are individualized and strengthened in multiple settings, within and outside the classroom, developing a well-rounded learner. Self-awareness is obviously important, and needs to be fostered by the teacher, say Baker and Clark (2011), especially in culturally diverse groups. These authors advocate specific training for teachers in higher education institutes in group formation, group operation, and group and individual assessment considerations, to ensure the group learning process is a rewarding experience for all participants. Further, education practitioners in New Zealand tertiary institutions working with Under-25s, where the student body consists of a diverse mixture of domestic and international students from a range of educational, cultural, and societal backgrounds, need to develop pedagogically sound and culturally accommodating group management frameworks that fit our distinct national profile. The following section introducing the "connected learning" approach to teaching and learning is an attempt to provide just such a solution.

A new pedagogy: Connected learning

The term "connected learning" is variously interpreted in the literature and initiatives currently being discussed in higher education. For some, it is simply about access to wifi and broadband networks that teachers and education providers can then use within and for course delivery – in elearning, flexible, distance, and blended delivery options (for example, the virtual learning environment discussed by Siemens, 2004). However there is also a growing recognition of connected learning as a pedagogy in its own right. Ito et al. (2013) describe it as "socially embedded, interest-driven, and oriented toward educational, economic, or political opportunity" (p. 4). In other words:

> Connected learning is realized when a young person is able to pursue a personal interest or passion with the support of friends and caring adults, and is in turn able to link this learning and interest to academic achievement, career success or civic engagement. This model is based on evidence that the most resilient, adaptive, and effective learning involves individual interest as well as social support to overcome adversity and provide recognition" (Ito et al., 2013, p. 4)

The Connected Learning Research Network (n.d.) calls connected learning "a model of learning and social change that is not defined by a specific technology, tool, or technique" (FAQ, para. 4) but instead draws on multiple "progressive learning" and "classic research" approaches as to how youth learn best. Using the opportunities for the digital age, say these advocates, makes learning powerful, relevant, and engaging; today's technologies can cross the boundaries of school and the wider world, broadening and diversifying the kinds of knowledge-making and social communities to which students have access. Connected learning asks learners to experiment, to be hands-on, to be active and entrepreneurial, drawing on inquiry and problem-based learning principles as well as creativity, communication, collaboration and cooperative group work.

Cercone (2008) also discusses the need to integrate the range of adult learning theories when designing an online, openly networked environment to meet the needs and interests of 21st century learners; for her, the closest matches are the domains of "self-directed learning, experiential learning, and transformational learning" (p. 138). Her analysis of the modern teaching pedagogy aligns with that of the Connected Learning Research Network (n.d.) in its focus on three key components: (a) each learner is a unique being and must be able to select tools and activities from a range of offerings that allow them to access concepts, facts, information, and experience in a way that is meaningful to them; (b) earlier knowledge must be recognised and valued, and learners helped to apply this to current, ongoing events; and (c) reflection accompanied by thoughtful analysis and assessment of learners' activity and progress will contribute to intellectual and holistic personal growth. Connected learning, therefore, is closely connected to many of the topics already discussed in Part One of this review, and perhaps most closely to social connections, peer culture, and participation.

Learning environments

Arguably, the most frequently cited requirement of an effective 21st century learning environment is that it is learner-centred, where students are supported, nurtured, and respected as individuals, and can feel at home. Academic achievement comes in a classroom where power is shared within non-dominating relations of interdependence, says Alton-Lee (2003), and where culture counts; where

learning is interactive, relevant, conversational/dialogic; and where participants are connected to one another through the establishment of a common vision for what constitutes excellence in educational outcomes.

The report prepared for the Department of Labour by Whatman et al. (2010), cites the Ministry of Youth Development's list of *Ten Essential Elements of a Great Youth Development Programme* as an example of how to create a learner-centred environment:

- staff who are empathetic, skilled and knowledgeable about young people's development, and who wholeheartedly believe in the potential of all young people to succeed
- a clear focus on the goals of the programme, which are framed in positive terms
- high expectations of both staff and young people; that all will commit to the programme, all are capable of succeeding, and all will respect each other and observe the rules that have been agreed upon
- a programme that is interesting, interactive, engaging, diverse, and flexible; that provides young people with opportunities to develop new skills and competencies which they can use to be of service to others
- a programme that is personalised to each participant, recognising and acknowledging each young person's strengths, aspirations, and learning needs
- an environment that is safe, stable, warm, and welcoming to young people of all ethnicities and cultural backgrounds
- an environment where young people have a voice, play a part in shaping the programme, with opportunities and support to take on leadership roles
- life skills are part of the learning, so that young people are equipped with the practical knowledge and skills to make good decisions about their lives
- community and family links are strong, so that the programme and the participants benefit from family and community support, and the community and participants continue to benefit from these links after the programme has finished
- regular assessment and evaluation of the programme occurs, enabling managers to see if the programme is succeeding, whether any adjustments are needed, and to assure funders that the investment is paying off.

In addition to these relatively generic comments about effective learning environments, a number of studies address specific features relating to Under-25s, the so-called net generation. The learning preferences of this digitally literate group, according to Le Rossignol (2010), tend towards active learning, multi-modal resources, multitasking rather than using singular or linear approaches, and integrated use of technology. A contextual learning space can draw on the principles of connectivity (Siemens, 2004 – see the section on learning theory, above) and experiential learning to provide socialisation, exploration, and conversations that reflect on the learning.

A "connected" learning environment (Siemens, 2004) is closely linked to the concept of a virtual environment in which the individual and their personal network is central, and which is mobile, portable, and not constrained by a physical campus. New learning tools, a shared and collaborative ethos, and an interest in what is current and up-to-date need to be recognised and provided by programme designers.

Scardamalia et al. (2010) preface their extensive discussion *New assessments and environments for knowledge building*, by noting that the 'knowledge society' has created an ever-increasing need for robust lifelong learning, innovation, and the knowledge and skills to solve problems of the future. The authors describe an "'ingenuity gap': the critical gap between our need for ideas to solve complex problems and our actual supply of those ideas. More and more … prosperity—if not survival—will depend on innovativeness and the creation of new knowledge" (p. 7). Yet their solution does not rely on technology alone, rather, it is the ways people and ideas interact that are critical to the integration of deep understanding, knowledge creation, and practical action. A knowledge-building environment, virtual or otherwise, is therefore one that enhances collaborative efforts to create and continually improve ideas. We don't need rare or radical solutions to build effective leaning environments for young people, but neither can we afford to fall behind or ignore what our learners can and are accessing for themselves through trends such as web searching, open courseware, real-time mobility, and portals. The authors quote a popular saying: "The future is here now, it's simply unevenly distributed" (Scardamalia et al., 2010, p. 6).

Tuākana/tēina – Mentoring of students

Mentoring as a practice has close ties with the traditional tuākana/teina relationship in Māori tradition, where older whanau members supported younger members. Mentoring has the potential to bring about positive change for many young people. Through its use of volunteers it harvests "social capital" by making the most of the wide variety of experience, training, skills, and talents that exist among people who want to make a positive difference to their community, notes Dunphy et al.'s (2008) introduction to an extensive report to the Minister of Youth Affairs. Like adults, young people are social beings, who live their lives in the context of their relationship with others. While adult mentoring tends to be specifically focused within an organisation, mentoring children and young people is more developmental, changing according to the young person's needs and interests, which become apparent over time.

"Supporting young people to develop the relationships, attitudes, values, interests and behaviours for the complexities of life cannot be done prescriptively or in the short-term", say Bullen et al. (2010, p. 7). A genuine caring relationship is necessary, in which trust is built over time, and the young person's strengths are encouraged. The literature notes a number of models for mentoring younger tertiary students currently in practice. Approaches include:

- one-to-one mentoring involving a tutor or external adult with identified expertise matched with a student in which the pair typically meets at least monthly, and with a particular focus on the first year. This is recommended as a useful support strategy for at-risk students (Dunphy et al., 2008) and other targeted groups such as cultural and linguistic diversity; juvenile justice; mental health; young women; disability; indigenous; and vocational development (Victorian Government, 2006).
- group mentoring involving one adult mentor (a tutor, a senior student or a community volunteer) joined with a small group of students to develop mentoring relationships, with the mentor typically serving as a leader for group-based activities. An example here is PASS (Peer Assisted Study Sessions), a programme that has been established in a number of tertiary institutions across Australasia to provide supplemental study assistance. PASS programmes usually target 1st and 2nd year courses, most often in areas with particularly

demanding content such as business, sciences, and computer science. PASS has multiple purposes, including reducing attrition within targeted subjects; improving student grades within target subjects; helping students make a successful transition to tertiary study; fostering independent learning; and developing transferable skills (Mitchell, 2009).

- team mentoring involving several adults working with several groups of young people – there can be fluidity in the mentoring units; however, the adult–youth ratio is typically no more than one to four. In this category, there are a number of schemes, often run by units within learning Centres, which cater specially for Māori and Pasifika learners to support their cultural attributes, and help them meet their needs and aspirations within a western framework (Ormsby, 2007). Examples of programmes with proven success are *Tuhia ki te Rangi: a Writing Wānanga Initiative to Improve the Writing Capacity of Māori and Pasifika Students* (O'Shea & Tarawa, 2009), and Wānanga Pukenga Ako Study Skills Course for Māori /Pasifika (Oxenham, 2009).
- peer mentoring involving an older student or programme graduate mentoring a younger student during, or outside study/tertiary hours. One well-known international model is "Big brothers, big sisters" (Dunphy et al., 2008).

In tertiary education settings, mentoring supports younger learners by serving as a role model to demonstrate qualities and behaviour for the young person to imitate and internalise; providing social support, especially emotional support; developing specific, positive skills, such as those needed in the career and work domain; and modifying undesirable behaviours, working to academic achievement and motivation. Mentoring requires strong relationships between youth and mentors, with on-going training and support to the mentors. Youth Mentoring can take place within a variety of settings and contexts, and under a multitude of frameworks and terms (pals, buddies, coaches, etc.), say Dunphy et al. (2008), but to bring about positive outcomes certain key elements must be present:

- the mentor has greater experience or knowledge, which is of value to the young person
- the formation of a relationship – based on empowerment, altruism, and mutuality – is at the heart of the mentoring process
- the young person wants the relationship, and reciprocates the values on which the relationship is based
- the relationship supports the young person's identity establishment (p. 13).

While no one is arguing that effective teachers must be the instigators of institutional mentoring schemes, there is certainly sufficient evidence of their efficacy to suggest that teachers need to support and promote these structures, working alongside and supporting those charged with their implementation.

Use of assessment and feedback

There is a long and well-discussed tradition of the use of student feedback and evaluations as a type of formative assessment for, and of, teachers. Ramsden (1998) notes such uses as monitoring and shaping teacher performance and course quality, diagnosis of professional development needs, and providing evidence for promotion. Yet various authors report a persistent hostility from some academics: at best they are resigned to being evaluated by their students as an institutional tick-box requirement; at worst they resist engaging with the issues raised, meaning that the exercise of

collecting and disseminating student feedback by itself, will not be enough to effect changes in teaching practice (Beran & Rokosh, 2009).

Stein, Spiller, Terry, Harris, Deaker, and Kennedy (2012a) reviewed some of these discussions, and determined that there was little research to support this position, taking this as the starting point for their own study to gauge how teachers actually perceive evaluations, and what use they make of them. Their survey and interviews with more than 1100 tertiary educators (Stein et al., 2012a) did identify some problems: teachers, students and administrators "tend not to be well-informed about the purpose and effective use of student evaluation", yet overall, teachers were generally "positively disposed" and recognised "the worth of gathering and using these data" (Stein et al., 2012b, p. 3). They suggest that "closing the loop" (p. 6) in the evaluation process needs to happen at teacher, department and institutional levels, rather than being seen as an isolated and solo activity. Further, students should be involved in development activities, a finding that echoes the work of Trowler, Saunders, and Knight (2005) who say that "successful change involves inputs from both 'top' and 'bottom'" (p. 15) for long-term shifts in values, attitudes, and practices. Students must feel that they have a voice, that they are heard, and that their opinions about the quality of their tertiary experience are valued, as "power and control at the ground level is a condition of success" (p. 15).

If this is what student evaluations should look like, how might their impact be measured? A common problem here, say Frick, Chadha, Watson, and Zlatkovska (2010), is that few items typically used in traditional course evaluations are empirically associated with student learning achievement. Instead of providing ranking responses to statements such as "This course was enjoyable" and "The teacher was knowledgeable", students should be responding to more specific measures, such as "In this course I solved a variety of authentic problems that were organised from simple to complex" or "In this course I was able to connect my past experience to new ideas and skills I was learning". Such items are based on "the First Principles of Instruction" (Merrill, 2002), and the resulting framework "Teaching and Learning Quality (TALQ) (Frick et al., 2010) is just one of the new alternatives offered to try and correct perceived gaps in the collection and use of student feedback; another example is Holmes' (2014) "low stakes, continuous weekly, summative" model.

Like student evaluations, results from student formative and summative assessments are accepted as inevitable and necessary – but also as flawed and problematic. There are issues of validity and reliability (e.g. Lynch et al., 2006; Merrill, 2002; Middleton, 2011; Ramsden, 1998) and alignment with curriculum and instruction (Biggs, 2003). Nonetheless, there is widespread agreement that effective teachers reflect and respond to their students' achievement and outcomes (Haigh, 2006; Hattie, 2009, 2012) to learn about their students, their programmes, and themselves. Norton (2009) draws attention to the other side of the exchange:

> "It is now widely accepted that assessment tends to shape much of the learning that students do…so if we want to change the way our students learn and the content of what they learn, the most effective way is to change the way we assess them" (p. 134).

Assessment and evaluation, therefore, like so many aspects of teaching and learning, are part of a two-way flow of influence, and when done well, should support the work and interests of both stakeholder groups – teachers and students.

Barriers for teachers working with this demographic

Despite the conclusions reached by most commentators regarding the value of student feedback, concerns remain for many practitioners, especially when their own student cohort is relatively youthful. Stein et al. (2012a, b) note some common concerns: that students may lack the maturity to evaluate teaching quality from a platform of limited knowledge and limited experience in providing impartial judgements; that they are influenced by irrelevant variables, such as whether the course was difficult, or the teacher popular; and that they are not really in a position to comment on the effectiveness of the teaching and learning until a passage of time has elapsed. When teachers also feel like this, whether warranted or not, a barrier is raised to their readiness to act on feedback and address concerns.

A further barrier for teachers is when the same instrument is used for both audit and development purposes. When either student evaluations or induction/professional development initiatives (such as staff mentoring discussed in Part Three) are purported to be offered as formative feedback and feedforward about how the teacher is doing, and then become used to assess performance and even contribute to decisions on tenure, academics' sense of professional autonomy is destabilised (Smit & McMurray, 1999; Stein et al., 2012). Robertson (2004) says that multiple sources of evaluation of teacher effectiveness, wrapped in a system of consultation and support, are necessary to grow teachers into leaders.

Evaluation of teacher effectiveness is essential to change practice – and yet, this is proving very hard to achieve. An oft-cited question is how different it would be for a student to sit in a university course today compared with similar courses 100 years ago. Other than content covered, most commentators using this example (e.g. Sunal, Wright, Hodges, & Sunal, 2000) suggest that the student would experience remarkably few differences in education instruction from those of the past century. While other types of tertiary providers may be significantly more advanced in learner-centred pedagogies than courses delivered via large lecture theatres, it remains true that change is difficult and challenging for many teachers. Sunal et al. (2000) point the finger of blame at the setting, saying "the organization of the institution, its expectations, and roles inhibit risk taking, ambiguity, and the inquiry required for change to occur" (p. 1), compounded by teachers' day-to-day confrontations with resource and time constraints and "turf conflicts" (p. 1).

Section summary: Cultural, structural and political considerations

As described above, a typical education provider's organisational culture quite often creates strong forces that inhibit change, even while their stated intent may be quite the opposite. Some of these cultural elements may be that the perceived realities of the classroom influence a teacher to institute ineffective incremental changes rather than the major ones needed, or that teachers' beliefs and expectations about teaching and learning limit change. Perhaps, too, there is a personal and/or departmental culture of resistance to change (Rath, 2008).

Structures, and lack thereof, in organisations also impact teachers' ability to provide effective teaching strategies and delivery options that meet the needs of Under-25 learners. There may be a lack of ongoing staff development, follow up, and monitoring, or leadership issues, say Sunal et al. (2000), where autonomy is constrained and executive, department, and/or curriculum committee approval is cumbersome. And even where there is a strong record of, and commitment to, staff

development activities, the professional development process may still be limited and elements unconnected, with a focus on tangible outputs such as teaching qualifications and career progression (Robinson et al., 2009; Sunal et al., 2000; Trowler et al., 2005).

Politically, issues of equity and empowerment are as important for teachers as they are for students, and require the removal of barriers to improve access, participation, retention, progression, and success in professional development programmes (Viskovic, 2009). Where the dominant ideology is one of 'cultural hegemony', where professional development activities, measures, resources, and rewards are linked to a dominant cultural value system, offerings can seem unfamiliar, even alien, and will not match other contexts in the lives of teachers from non-mainstream backgrounds. It is important for organisations to normalise efforts to improve teaching practice for all academic staff, and, as Tautolo (2012) notes, this means having a staff who reflect cultural diversity. New and early-career teachers from ethnic minorities, particularly, assume shared earlier knowledge and experience, and tend to seek help from people who are "socially close" or "people like themselves" (p. 2). Observing such role models delivering professional development initiatives and practising innovative teaching approaches that promote and value a diversity of cultural capital becomes transformational for these teachers (Tautolo, 2012).

Again, cultural, structural, and political considerations for developing effective teachers are intertwined, and involve challenges to tertiary organisations, in keeping with the directives of kaupapa Māori theory. Inroads into sustainable change require action and critique from within, and without, the prevailing cultural hegemony (Alton-Lee, 2003).

Part 3: Professional development for teachers of Under-25 students

The role of professional development

Why is professional development for teachers so critical? Because, says Timperley (2008), "teachers who are engaged in cycles of effective professional learning take greater responsibility for the learning of all students; they do not dismiss learning difficulties as an inevitable consequence of the home or community environment" (p .8). With so much discussion in the literature about the challenges the "Generation X–Y" cohort of students bring to the classroom, this is clearly an important trap to avoid.

Haigh's (2006) review of effective teaching attributes already referred to in the previous section of this review, notes the need for teachers to have "a rich repertoire of teaching methods and skills…to reflect on and research their own teaching…and to have an awareness…and beliefs about the primary purpose of education" (p. 110). Haigh describes three levels of teaching development. First, "excellent teachers" engage in practices that are known to make 'the odds' high for successful student learning and have sound knowledge of their discipline, subject, and profession. Second, "scholarly teachers" bring the attitudes, values, and ways of thinking characteristic of scholars to bear on their teaching (reflection, evidence-gathering, critique, evaluation, rigour, open-mindedness, and intellectual curiosity). Third, "scholars of teaching" use their own research capabilities to answer questions about their students' learning. The development of teachers from novice to expert within these realms is the responsibility of higher education institutions; professional teachers need professional education, addressed through a raft of formal and informal professional development schemes (Prebble et al., 2004).

A snapshot of what this can look like is presented in Rath's (2008) review of the support universities, polytechnics, and PTEs provide for academic staff in first time supervisory roles: her research highlighted the diverse institutional policies and practices in relation to professional development. Many organisations stated that they had no formal training in place. Of those that did, "all provided printed materials (most frequently a Handbook for both students and supervisors), 90% made use of training sessions and a mentoring programme, 40% operated a peer buddying scheme or peer support group, and half provided web-based resources" (p. 4).

Professional development programmes and models

In every occupation that has become a profession during the 20th century, the strengthening of preparation was tied to a resolve to end the practice of allowing untrained individuals to practice. Teaching is currently where medicine was in 1910, where doctors could be trained in programs from 3 weeks… (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 13).

Although primary and secondary teachers are required to successfully complete programmes in educational theory and practice, tertiary teachers have no such legal requirement, the only constraints being an organization's policies and procedures (Honeyfield & Fraser, 2012). New educators frequently enter the profession with a wealth of subject-matter expertise, but little or no background in lesson planning, classroom management, or other pedagogical knowledge. This leaves many higher education institutes in a predicament: staff are hired based on their subject-matter

expertise, yet the institutes must value quality teaching. Therefore, many providers have set up internal professional development programmes for their educators, drawing on a series of tools: inductions, seminars, workshops, and certificate/degree/post-graduate programmes.

There is a lot of territory to cover. Darling-Hammond et al. (2005) identify three particular problems in learning to teach:

> The problems associated with the "apprenticeship of observation," the difficulty of enacting teaching intentions, and the enormous complexity of teaching, which requires integrating many types of knowledge and skills in making judgements about how to pursue multiple goals with learners who have diverse needs (p. 390).

There is reliable and substantive evidence that formal professional development programmes make a difference. Prebble et al.'s (2004) meta-analysis of research literature relating to the interface between academic development and student learning outcomes culminated in two principal propositions: "Good teaching has positive impacts on student outcomes; and teachers can be assisted to improve the quality of their teaching through a variety of academic interventions" (p. 91). Prebble et al. found that short, skills-based activities were unlikely to lead to significant change; deeper understanding and a wider repertoire of abilities need time, experience, and engagement with formal study courses to integrate theory and practice.

Viskovic (2009) also noted that many academics lack formal understanding of learning and teaching and emphasised the importance of reflection and making teachers' tacit theory and practice more explicit through formal courses and qualifications. She suggests the following factors need to be considered when planning and implementing professional development or courses for tertiary teachers in New Zealand contexts:

- recognition of Te Tiriti o Waitangi and the cultural environment
- addressing the strategic priorities and values of the New Zealand Government, as well as the institution
- preparing teachers to work with increasing diversity and numbers of students
- modelling good practice in curriculum, student-centred teaching, assessment, evaluation, innovation, etc., to meet the needs of students and other stakeholders
- treating initial and continuing teacher development as a professional responsibility
- understanding what it means to work in communities of teaching practice
- developing networking and collaborative initiatives
- being responsive to the socio-political-economic context
- being aware of current research into tertiary education and contributing to further research (p. 1).

Timperley's (2008) research on teacher professional learning and development that has been demonstrated to have a positive impact on valued student outcomes also arrived at a list of characteristics:

- focus on valued student outcomes
- worthwhile content
- integration of knowledge and skills

- assessment for professional inquiry
- multiple opportunities to learn and apply information
- approaches responsive to learning processes
- opportunities to process new learning with others
- knowledgeable expertise
- active leadership
- maintaining momentum.

Following this, in an update of her earlier research, Timperly (2011) calls for a shift in the way we think about professional development, to professional learning, which she calls "both simple and profound at the same time" (p. 4). The move here is to "a focus on students, attending to requisite knowledge and skills, engaging in systematic inquiry into the effectiveness of practice, being explicit about underpinning theories of professionalism, and engaging everyone in the system of learning" (p. 4). Darling-Hammond et al. (2005) outline similar issues which their model of programme design takes into account: connection and coherence; organizing content – considerations of scope and sequence; content – the subject matters; the learning process (including learning about practice *in* practice); situating learning in productive contexts; and emerging pedagogies.

And then there is content: Bamber (2009) cites Manchester Metropolitan University's outline –

- learning and teaching
- academic leadership
- research and scholarly activity
- diversity and inclusion
- widening participation
- supporting and developing learning
- academic enterprise and employability
- e-learning and the use of new technologies (p. 17)

– or the vision of the National Forum (2015, p. 5) for the enhancement of teaching and learning in higher education in Ireland:

Table 2: Domains for professional development frameworks

Domain	Professional practice/skills	Professional knowledge	Professional values/attributes
Examples	- Reflective practice - Integration of research, teaching and learning - Online pedagogy	Theories of education - Scholarship of teaching and learning - Digital literacy	- Inclusive pedagogy - Commitment to civic engagement - Leadership

Where the various lists of components and categories outlined above focus on external and measurable features, recent work by O'Toole, Ogier-Price, and Hucks (2010) adds another element to what should be considered by those designing teacher training. Teaching as a profession, say the authors, has "high rates of stress and high burnout" (p. 3). Yet those teachers who are more skilled at regulating their emotions tend to report less burnout and greater job satisfaction. O'Toole et al.

note increasing interest in what makes people enthusiastic about their work and what makes them feel competent, linking this interest with the field of positive psychology, or "the study of positive aspects of human experience" (p.3). It is therefore important that teachers learn about and understand "emotion regulation"; this is arguably even more important for teachers of Under-25 students, who may themselves be struggling with the emotional demands of transitioning to higher education.

Other writers acknowledge that continuing professional development needs to be a partnership between the organisation and the teacher to maintain, improve, and broaden relevant knowledge and skills in their subject specialism. A useful reflection tool for teachers to guide their own engagement in formal professional development programmes is the four measures proposed by the Institute for Learning (2009):
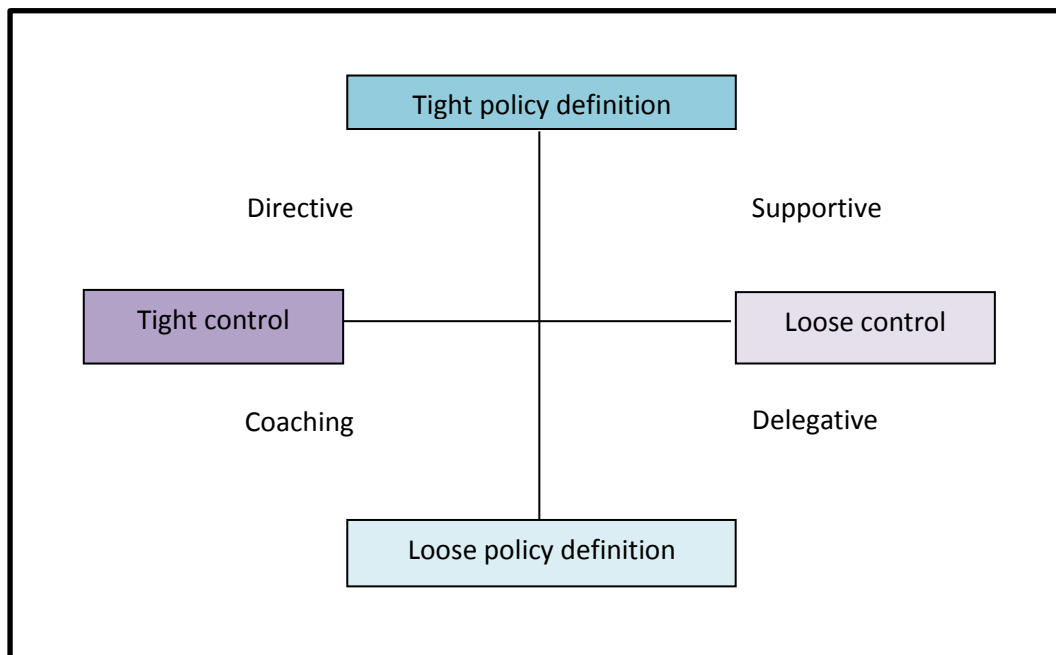
- what professional development activities have you undertaken this year?
- have you reflected on the learning you have gained from these activities?
- have the activities and the reflection made a difference to how you teach or train?
- can you show evidence of what the difference is and the impact it has made to learners, colleagues or the organisation in which you work? (p. 3).

Decision-making and frameworks

One of the difficulties when organisations consider the type of continuing professional development framework they wish to adopt is the fundamental tension between the need to ensure teachers are trained in fundamental pedagogy for effective learning and teaching, and a culture in which academics still expect autonomy and discretion over their own development (Bamber, 2009). Essentially, a professional development framework represents an attempt to organise and present a loose, possibly unrelated set of staff development opportunities, such as courses, in "a structured, integrated approach which is contextually relevant for the individuals involved" (Bamber, 2009, p. 4), and which also makes institutional intents and purposes explicit (Stein et al., 2012a).

Some authors note that the prevailing culture of the organisation has tended to have a determining impact on shaping the professional development, as shown in Figure 1 and Table 3.

Tight policy definition

Directive | Supportive

Tight control | Loose control

Coaching | Delegative

Loose policy definition

Table 3: A spectrum of continuing professional development (CPD) models according to organisational purpose

Model of CPD	Purpose of model	
The training model **The award-bearing model** **The deficit model** **The cascade model**	Transmission	
The standards-based model **The coaching/mentoring model** **The community of practice model**	Transitional	Increasing capacity for professional autonomy
The action research model **The transformative model**	Transformative	

Another approach is for discipline-specific professional development. In his framework for teachers of mathematics in higher education, Cox (2004, cited in Brown et al., 2010, p. 135) proposes four areas for development:

- basic knowledge and skills of curriculum design, delivery methods, and assessment
- practical skills in managing the teaching process, supporting students' learning and conducting assessment
- deeper understanding of the underlying principles and theories of teaching and learning
- attitudes, self-awareness, and self-development in relation to the teaching and learning process and interaction with students.

What is noteworthy from this work, say Brown et al. (2010), is that the areas themselves are generic, with the uniqueness of the discipline therefore implied in the interpretation. Advocates of a discipline-focused approach to professional development frameworks argue that professional knowledge (of students, of the discipline, and of students' knowledge of the discipline), attributes (personal, professional, and community responsibilities), and practice (learning environment, planning, teaching, and assessment) lend themselves logically to professional standards (Brown et al., 2010). These authors acknowledge criticism of earlier standards frameworks for a lack of guidance to teacher development, or an explicit vision of the sorts of performances required at different levels of programme delivery, but counter with the proposed addition of new domains "areas of activity" and "core values" with indicators developed across three tiers of influence: teaching classes, coordinating units, and leading programmes (pp. 138–140).

However, one of the most important concerns with professional development models based on professional disciplinary standards may not be so easily answered. The issue for many with "top–down" approaches is that an imposed initiation of plans fails to recognise that change in the higher education sector is neither linear nor straightforward, but rather involves shifting attitudes in a systemic, institute-wide action (Bamber, Walsh, Juwah, & Ross, 2006). Speaking to an international scholarship of teaching and learning conference audience in a keynote address, Bamber (2015) used the analogy of senior executives trying to bounce a policy ball down an implementation staircase, expecting staff at every level to do their part – to catch the ball when it arrives at their level and seamlessly pass it on – and then wondering why it never landed neatly at the bottom of the stairs for retrieval and another round!

Instead, the ball should be passed up and down the staircase and so is adapted by those who catch it at different steps. This means, says Bamber, that the proposed initiative is constructed from the points of view of the major stakeholders, who are both receivers and agents of change (Stakeholder contributions are discussed further in the following section).

What then would a top–down, bottom–up integrated framework for professional development look like? Bamber (2009) says such a framework should include all professional activities that contribute to the academic becoming a more knowing professional, even where these have not traditionally been seen as part of formal teacher development programmes. She terms this non-formal, work-based learning the "invisible curriculum" (Figure 2).
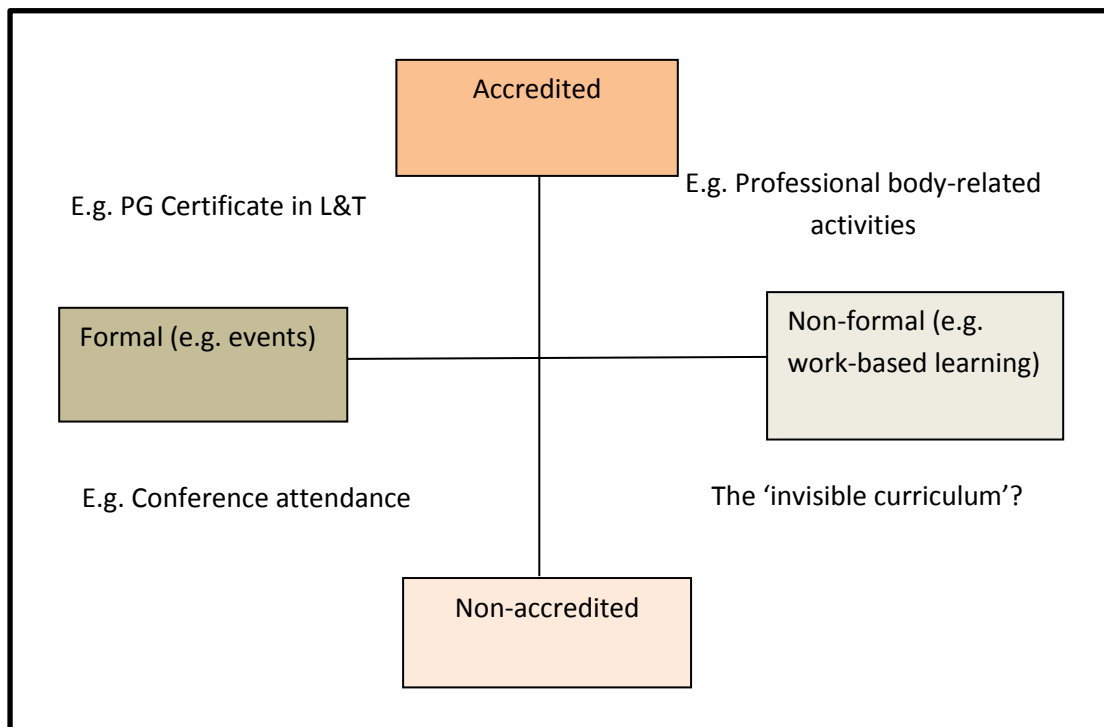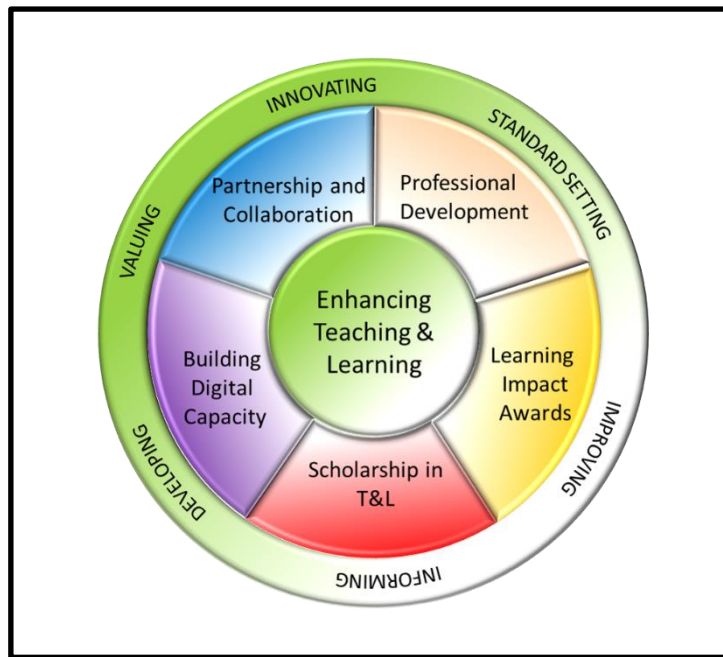
In this framework, the various learning and development activities that might appear in the bottom right-hand quadrant will differ between organisations and individuals, but might include the following areas:

- Organisational – e.g. committee representation, working group
- Academic – e.g. journal reviewing, validation panel member, writing, data gathering
- Professional – e.g. consultancy, committee work in professional association
- Personal – written reflection, reading scholarly work
- Service – community contributions, charity work
- Networking – e.g. blog discussion of professional issues, learning from colleagues in workplace.

Bamber argues that even if difficult to measure, a comprehensive framework needs to acknowledge this important component of professional learning, and that most professionals intuitively use "experience-derived know-how" (p. 15), which often occurs naturally as part of every-day work. Just as students need a personalised teaching approach, so teachers need a flexible framework that allows them to personalise their own professional learning and draw on sources of their choosing as well as those assigned (Bamber et al., 2006). The organisation – staff developers, and managers and leaders – need to augment all quadrants of the framework with rewards, recognition, and resourcing.

Valuing the work of professional developers and the improvements made by teachers is also an integral element in the framework for professional learning (Figure 3) developed by The National Forum for the Enhancement of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education in Ireland (n,d,).

The commentary accompanying this framework is equally insistent on placing teachers at the centre of their professional development, with three of five objectives being about the teacher, rather than the institution or the sector. These objectives are recognising teacher excellence, not just competence; providing higher accreditation to committed teachers; and supporting teachers to ensure their practice is characterised by internationally recognised excellence, rigour, and impact.

These latter two frameworks exemplify many, if not all the features of exemplary professional development programmes described in the literature (for example the common, clear vision of good teaching and the strong relationships and shared beliefs emphasised by Darling-Hammond (2006) and the learner-centred requirement of Gregson and Sturko (2007). As Stefani (2011) notes, it is not the nature of the teaching and learning enhancement initiative that matters so much, rather it is the sustained and interrelated work of all stakeholders, including teachers, professional developers, leadership and management in a systemic approach with an inclusive and encompassing mind-set.

Stakeholders

Clearly the most important stakeholders in decision-making about professional development framework are the students, and 'the use of student voice in organisational decision-making' has already been discussed in the first section of this review. It is worth repeating here that if we expect students to be partners in their own learning, and agree that collaboration between teacher and students is essential for democracy (Heathrose Research ltd, 2012) then we must teach teachers how to do this. Freire (1993, cited in Abdelmalak, 2013) emphasised the partnership between educators and students, explicitly rejecting a one-way curriculum dominated by the instructor's unilateral authority. Over the subsequent three decades, many studies have trialled various ways of implementing such a philosophy – a typical example is Abdelmalak's (2013) account of sharing power and responsibility: about the knowledge to be learned in the course, the process to reach this knowledge, and the procedures to evaluate the knowledge. The class was run as a round-table

discussion, and decisions about the course textbook, content and schedule were jointly negotiated – sometimes from a group of choices, and sometimes completely freely. The instructor did not abdicate power, but attempted to act throughout as a facilitator, rather than a traditional "expert". The study found that this approach motivated meaningful, autonomous and innovative learning. And importantly for the purposes of this review, it further recommended that the principles of a democratic classroom be actively promoted as part of continuing professional development programmes (Abdelmalak, 2013).

Another important part of valuing students as stakeholders in the professional development process, is listening to, and acting on their feedback. Student evaluation tools, instruments and processes must be fit for purpose (Tarricone & Luca, 2002) and institutions' professional development strategy must include education of staff and students about the institutional intents and purposes of student evaluation (Heathrose Research Ltd, 2012). Both these authors note that such procedures can sometimes be open to interpretation and students must know about their roles and responsibilities in evaluation processes and how their contribution can have an impact on themselves as learners and the quality of the learning environment. On the other side of the equation, professional developers need to recognise the variety of staff perceptions about student appraisal and provide communication, support, and resources that address teacher responses without compromising the responsibility to take on board the messages being delivered.

Such negotiation is typical of the role professional developers play in designing and implementing an effective framework that supports all the other direct stakeholders – students, teachers, leaders and managers. They also need to recognise that teachers will require some degree of independence and discretion in how academic work is carried out, and also that academic culture and professional practice in higher education are complex, as notes Bamber (2009). Teachers, she says, will be antagonised if the informal networks and socially constructed elements of learning (the "invisible curriculum referred to in Figure 2, above) are ignored or disparaged. Staff developers should instead be embracing the potential of professional communities of practice and mentoring (both of which are discussed in following sections below).

Another directive for those charged with developing teachers' practice is to remember that teachers themselves in this role are adult learners. Gregson and Sturko (2007) make the point that many professional development experiences treat teachers as passive learners – in other words, completely at odds with the theory and pedagogy they are saying matters to 21st century students – and particularly youth. Rather, professional development should be designed so that teachers investigate, experiment, reflect, discuss, and collaborate with other teachers to shift their practice (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005). As Gregson and Sturko (2007) say: "as teachers have learner-centred experiences in their professional development, the hope is that they will develop more learner-centred experiences for their own students" (p. 6).

Much of the work of staff development specialists, as well as the input of students and teachers into improving the quality of tertiary teaching and learning, relies on support, guidance, and inspiration from those at the helm; the following section considers the role of leaders and managers and the impact they have on an organisation's culture, environment and professional practice.

Effective institutional leadership: The "trusted third"

Just as the principle of manaakitanga is critical to the way effective teachers establish relationships of integrity, trust, sincerity, and equity with and between their students, so it also applies to the interactions between institutional leaders and the entire staff and student community. In fact, the words and actions of managers can be one of the most defining elements of organisational culture (Robinson, Hohepa, & Lloyd, 2009).

Peterson and Deal (1998) say that "Reforms that strive for educational excellence will fail unless they are meaningfully linked to schools' unique cultures" (p. 28). This synthesis of the literature has previously mentioned various writers' discussions of academic culture, organisational/institutional culture, culture of the classroom, and culture related to population groups. Studies of effective educational leadership are so interwoven with the concept of institutional culture, that it seems timely to begin this section with a definition. Peterson and Deal say that school culture is a set of informal expectations and values which shapes how people think, feel, and act in the workplace:

> It is hard to define and difficult to put a finger on… [but] is actually one of the most significant features of any educational enterprise… Culture is the underground stream of norms, values, beliefs, traditions, and rituals that has built up over time as people work together, solve problems, and confront challenges... Culture influences everything that goes on in schools: how staff dress, what they talk about, their willingness to change, the practice of instruction, and the emphasis given student and faculty learning (Deal & Peterson, 1998, p. 28).

It is up to school leaders, say the authors, to help identify, shape, and maintain strong, positive, student-focused cultures.

Leadership and culture also feature strongly in studies of student outcomes – whether academic achievement, success, completion or retention; the terminology used in the literature tends to change according to contemporary reporting requirements. An example here is Bannister's (2009) doctoral research into the key factors affecting the retention of students at a wānanga. After investigating student voice to provide a grounded view of retention, alongside kaiako (teachers) and pedagogy, the role of whānau- (family) support programmes and significant factors that contribute to students' feelings of pressure, four propositions were developed to suggest ways the institution could improve. These were "Kaiako (teachers) need retention related training; External motivation for kaiako (teachers) will improve student retention; Improved student retention requires a change in institutional culture; The measurement of retention attitudes and behaviours could provide data essential for increasing retention" (p. iii). In other words, student outcomes were highly affected by what teachers and institutions do, and don't do.

Robinson et al. (2009) completed a Best Evidence Synthesis of 134 New Zealand and overseas research studies of effective leadership practices. Their "big" finding was the critical role of school leaders in promoting a climate of professional development: "when school leaders promote and/or participate in effective teacher professional learning this has twice the impact on student outcomes across a school than any other leadership activity." Yet alarmingly, "New Zealand principals spend less time on those activities that make most difference than many of their international peers" (Abstract, available from www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications/series/2515/60169/60170). Robinson et al. (2009) describe the importance of managers being involved in the professional

development undertaken by teachers and the academic approaches they use, as these will have direct impact on student outcomes. Their findings suggest that leaders in high-performing schools are distinguished from their counterparts in otherwise similar, low-performing schools by their personal involvement in planning, coordinating, and evaluating teaching and teachers. When actively engaged in teaching and the curriculum, leaders in high-performing organisations:

- promote collegial discussions of teaching and how it impacts on student achievement
- provide active oversight and coordination of the teaching programme
- observe in classrooms and provide feedback that teachers describe as useful
- ensure systematic monitoring of student progress and use of assessment results for
- programme improvement (Robinson et al., 2009, p. 43).

Leaders can participate in teacher professional learning as leaders, as learners, or as both, say the authors. Such leaders are also more likely to provide evaluations that teachers find useful – and to ensure that student progress is monitored and assessment results used to improve teaching. Leaders who are actively involved in professional learning have a deeper appreciation of the conditions required to achieve and sustain improvements in student learning. This means they can discuss necessary changes with teachers and support them by making appropriate adjustments to class organisation, resourcing, and assessment procedures. Responsibility and accountability for student achievement and well-being is collective (Robinson et al., 2009).

What are the hallmarks of strong school leadership? Robinson et al. (2009) say they are the interpersonal skills and values that enable leaders to identify and check their own and others' taken-for-granted assumptions about themselves, other people, and the situation. Such skills and values allow leaders to respectfully give and receive the tough messages that are an inevitable part of the process of improving teaching and learning. The Ministry of Education (2008a) identify four key qualities: manaakitanga: leading with moral purpose; pono: having self-belief; ako: being a learner; and awhinatanga: guiding and supporting.

Leaders – of institutions, but also of faculties or divisions, and teams within these – therefore have roles that include not only their own job-related tasks and responsibilities, but also the ability to empathise with the needs and interests of their teachers, and at times to be the "trusted third" colleague as well as a manager, supporting the teacher and staff developer for positive capacity and capability growing. Borrowing from the language of business and finance, a trusted third party is someone who facilitates interactions between two parties who both trust the third party, brokering agreements and valuing the contributions of each (Tarricone & Luca, 2002).

All the sources cited in this section agree that strong leadership not only promotes professional development, it also participates. Evans and Mohr (1999), from the Annenberg Institute for School Reform in the US, note seven beliefs about how institutional leaders learn best:

- principals' learning is personal and yet takes place most effectively while working in groups
- principals foster more powerful (teacher) and student learning by focusing on their own learning
- while we (value) principals' thinking and voices, we want to push them to move beyond their assumptions
- focused reflection takes time away from "doing the work" and yet it is essential

- it takes strong leadership to have truly democratic learning
- rigorous planning is necessary for flexible and responsive implementation
- new learning depends on "protected dissonance" (a safe environment in which to take risks with ideas and ask tough questions).

Continued forward momentum for leaders and teachers following even the most successful professional development depends on an organizational infrastructure that supports professional learning and self-regulated inquiry (Timperley, 2008). Therefore, just as student outcomes depend on effective teaching, and teachers require site-based leaders who reinforce and model professional development, ultimately it is the institutions and their management/Councils that create the climate for a culture engaged in the pursuit of teaching and learning excellence, and transformational change. The tools employed will differ from institute to institute, but include a range of strategies, including mentoring, another practice borrowed from the commercial world.

Mentoring of staff

"A growing body of literature on mentoring in higher education is espousing mentoring as an influential mechanism for supporting a teacher's academic practice," says Peterson (2011). While her own inquiry endorsed mentoring as a professional development mechanism that supports the teaching practice of teachers in the higher education organisational context, she also noted a number of tensions. A common debate was the effectiveness of formal versus informal mentoring models, along with a range of structures, such as group mentoring, or dyad partnerships. Other studies also discuss a wide disparity of practice, such as the mentoring process being linked to tenure, and ambiguities and complexities surrounding the terminology (Gorinski, Fraser & Ayo, 2010).

Prevalent themes in the literature noted by Petersen (2011) include an examination of how mentoring supports and inculcates teachers as leaders, how institute-wide mentoring processes can empower faculty and the various key considerations advocated for the development of mentoring programmes within an organisational context. Different implementations offer a range of approaches, for example, Gorinski et al. (2010) analyse the associated roles, tasks and relationships, and Smit and McMurray (1999) propose a three-dimensional model in which mentors' roles range from reactive to transformative: peer pal, guide, coach, sponsor, and/or formal mentor. For some, mentoring is "a benign apprenticeship model, where the role is mainly exemplary and pastoral, and [for others] a more professional approach where the mentor's role is to challenge [mentees] to think about what they do within the context of theory" (Galton, 1996, p.4). Kinchin (2002) argues that it is the role of the mentor to make the theory of teaching overt in relation to educational practice, and Ayo and Fraser (2008) suggest a range of loosely related collegial roles as teachers move from novice to expert: training, coaching, mentoring, and alliances.

There is widespread consensus that mentoring is a multi-dimensional process and practice, and that it has the potential to build a community of reflective practitioners who explore, challenge, and change existing paradigms of teaching and learning. Peterson's (2011) High Impact Mentoring model (HIMM) combines many of the earlier approaches noted, suggesting a definitive approach for mentoring as a professional development mechanism across a number of domains of influence and functionalities. As HIMM comprises an organisation-wide, multi-dimensional, and comprehensive set of interrelated factors, there is a high demand for coordination of people and resources. A central

coordination function manages "processes such as mentor selection, mentoring training, mentor-mentee matching and the implementation of systemic evaluation strategies conducted throughout the mentoring programme, as well as the sequencing of these processes" (p. 375). In this way, HIMM recognises the whole organisation as a key stakeholder, but warns that the sustainability of systemic changes that mentoring can create requires "willingness by the organisation to continue with resource commitment and support [to ensure] long-term success and strategic goal contribution" (p. 374). People are the cornerstone of a mentoring system, says Peterson, and mentors and mentor trainers are a prime example of a multi-support system which can provide effective professional development for teachers well beyond the completion of a formal training programme.

Peer review and teaching observations

Teaching observations are used for a range of purposes in higher education; probably two of the most familiar would be as part of a probation/induction package (Brown et al., 2010; Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2007), or as a mechanism to gather data about some aspect of teaching practice (Gregson & Sturko, 2007). This, says Cosh (1999) is to overlook a highly valuable formative feedback tool. She warns that peer review via teaching observation as a method of appraising teaching performance, is a potentially divisive and detrimental procedure which can be detrimental both to teacher confidence, and to a supportive teaching environment, and "furthermore, this approach seems to have little value for active teacher development, since the focus is on being developed, rather than on self-awareness and self-development" (p. 22). Peer observation, therefore, should not be "a vehicle for the evaluation of others on the basis of our assumptions, but a reassessment of those assumptions on the basis of their teaching" (p. 22).

In this way, peer review of a colleague's teaching bridges a middle ground between formal and informal professional development initiatives, offering the opportunity for a collaboratively constructed understanding about practice (Bamber et al., 2007). Pairings may be mentor/novice, fellow newcomers to the profession, or experienced teacher/experienced teacher. The focus will therefore vary from helping the novice to develop their teaching skills both by observing and being observed by an experienced colleague, to providing opportunities for experienced teachers to reflect on their teaching in a calm and private environment (Brookfield, 2005; Timperley, 2011). Observations can be recorded against a set of prescribed items or videoed for later discussion, but all authors agree that the mechanics matter less than the intention.

Cosh (1999) notes that most teachers have seldom if ever observed, or been observed by their peers, and so are uncertain whether their role is to assess and to judge, however constructively, or to learn. It is also important to realize, she says, that "teaching styles and methods are very subjective", and that, despite much research, "there has been no proof that any one method or style of teaching is significantly more successful than others" (p. 23). Teachers should rather understand the principles of constructive feedback, and this, rather than managing the actual sessions, is where teacher trainers and staff developers enter the picture. Cosh advocates a reflective approach to peer teaching observations to encourage self-reflection and self-awareness about the observer's own teaching. The focus is on the teacher's own development, rather than on any presumed ability to develop the teaching of one's peers or colleagues.

Informal strategies for supporting teacher development, including communities of practice

The informal learning of newer tertiary teachers could almost be described as a form of unstructured professional apprenticeship, involving social enculturation and development of skilled practice and a workplace identity, says Viskovic (2009). Informal workplace learning relies heavily on the nature and influence of the groups/communities in which tertiary teachers work, and the ways by which meanings and practices are shared and maintained. Viskovic's survey of the literature relating to tertiary teachers' professional development collated findings from several other studies regarding factors that could contribute positively to educational development and/or courses on tertiary teaching:

- teachers' own working environments are strong sources of informal learning about teaching – through experiential learning, situated learning, authentic activity; It is important to develop collegial processes for making tacit knowledge explicit, shared and continued in a community of practice
- research on apprenticeship-type processes suggests they can provide a valuable support for teachers' workplace learning and development – forms of support include cognitive apprenticeship, probation, mentoring and being mentored, reflection, peer observation and feedback
- developers and HODs providing support to newer staff need to take into account social enculturation and the development of workplace identity: it can be useful to include learning about the characteristics of communities of practice
- institutions, developers, and HODs need to consider, when planning workshops or courses for staff, ways of achieving a balance of formal and informal learning opportunities
- Wenger's work on communities of practice provides a rationale for conscious efforts by faculties, departments, and educational development units to develop a sense of teaching community
- membership of multiple communities provides teachers with opportunities for learning and sharing learning through border crossing; research shows that problems in workplace learning can be associated with power issues, or a lack of expertise, mentors, work opportunities, etc., in a given workplace (Viskovic, 2009, p. 5).

Haigh (2005) writes about a particular avenue of informal learning for teachers as professional conversations. He observes that in the tertiary sector many teachers do not take up such development opportunities as a Postgraduate Certificate in Tertiary Teaching, workshops, seminars, conferences or professional meetings. This, he says, does not invariably mean that they lack commitment to professional development and do not engage in it. Rather, commitment and engagement can often be confirmed through everyday conversations – a context that is particularly conducive to professional learning. Unfortunately, notes Haigh, everyday conversations about learning and teaching are often undervalued ('Just a passing conversation') and informal, social opportunities are not typically provided and supported as a professional development option.

Another informal support mechanism for teacher development is the Community of Practice. A common starting point for discussions is the work of theorists Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger, who in 1991, wrote about the social learning that occurs when practitioners with a common interest or domain meet and collaborate regularly to share ideas, resources, solutions, and support (Smith, 2009). In 2006, Wenger further defined his vision of a 'community of practice' as a place where learning is not just something individuals do, with a measurable beginning and end, but rather, it comes from participation and interaction with like-minded others, providing opportunities to learn how to do things better through shared enterprise (Learning Theories Knowledge Base, 2009). Characteristics include autonomy, practitioner-orientation, informality, and crossing boundaries. Hoadley and Kilner (2005) note several alternatives: "knowledge building communities"; "communities of learners"; "communities of interest"; and "knowledge networks" (p. 293). Whatever the term, a commonality across the literature is that such communities offer ongoing collegial support and enculturation into professional roles and understandings.

Transformational change

The child starting kindergarten this fall will graduate in the third decade of the 21st century. All we can know about the world she will step into is that it will have challenges and opportunities beyond what we can imagine today, problems and possibilities that will demand creativity and ingenuity, responsibility and compassion. Whether this year's kindergarten student will merely survive or positively thrive in the decades to come depends in large measure on the experiences she has in [education]. Those experiences will be shaped by adults, by peers, and ultimately by … the environments where she does her learning (OWP/P Architects, 2010, pp. 1–5).

Effective teaching, teacher development, and leadership, accompanied by institution-wide buy-in, are necessary to actually transform the character and culture of tertiary institutions if we are to advance achievement and social outcomes – even if we don't know what these will be – for Under-25 students, and help them become fully participatory citizens in whatever tomorrow brings.

Transformative learning, according to Cranton and Carusetta (2004) is "a process by which previously uncritically assimilated assumptions, beliefs, values, and perspectives are questioned and thereby become more open, permeable, and better validated" (p. 6). People make meaning out of the world through experiences, and therefore to these authors "authenticity" is a key constituent. Transformative change in an institutional setting is usually compared with reactive processes, where policy and practice occur in a need-to-react mode, and where transactional approaches, which may be more proactive, are generally more focused on achieving set goals, or passing on institutional knowledge. In contrast, transformational change is seen as involving broader, more visionary aims and activities (Smit, 2000). Transformation involves extending beyond merely reacting to new situations, beyond simply making sense and meaning of material, and even beyond creating new material by linking ideas to create change. Transformative learning transforms current understandings. This then allows the demonstration of more visionary and idiosyncratic responses through the essential restructuring of existing premises and ideas, the challenging of the status quo and previously held assumptions (Moon, 2001; Robertson, 2004; Smit, 2000). This change, say these authors, occurs across personal practice, faculty, and the wider institution.

Williams (2011) sees the curriculum as "the backbone" of transformative change, since this is where the values, attitudes, and beliefs of a particular culture and institution are reflected. She outlines

three approaches she has observed, as the add-on, the infusion, and the transformation. The last, she says, is the most difficult to achieve, but is the most culturally inclusive and counter-hegemonic, and therefore the most desirable.

An example of the difficulty in moving from intention to enactment can be seen in Avdjieva and Wilson's (2002) study of the progress made in introducing quality policies and processes within six New Zealand and six Australian universities. They note that there are three phases of evolutionary change: the earliest stage with a primary focus on frontline workers; moving to an emphasis on management and the ways in which they foster ways of thinking and doing; and the final stage, where the work of leaders, who "improve our ability to improve" (Senge, 1999, quoted in Avdjieva & Wilson, 2002, p. 29) becomes paramount. Their conclusion was that the representative Australasian institutions surveyed have not progressed beyond the second phase, and that "organisational learning is far from a reality" (p. 33). Just as the literature they studied had suggested, these authors confirm that reconciling the different concerns of cultures – academic, management, and public expectations – is significant and problematic.

There is, therefore, acknowledgement that it is far easier to talk about transformational change than to implement it – but this is no reason to discontinue efforts. Transformative learning for students – and for teachers – requires transformative approaches to professional development frameworks. Two examples have been discussed (Figures 2 and 3, above) and work continues defining their characteristics. Another representative model outlined by the National Forum (2015, p. 12) in their mapping exercise for transformation of practice (see Figure 4).

Figure 4: Model to transform practice

Required	←→	Voluntary
National agency	←→	Institution-led
Membership	←→	Informal
Good standing	←→	Once-off
Qualification	←→	Demonstrates engagement
Creating sectoral standards	←→	Sectoral engagement

Source: National Forum for the Enhancement of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, Ireland

Barriers to professional development implementation

There are many barriers to transformational change found in the literature. First of course, is cost; programme development, tailor-made initiatives and policy, software, capital infrastructure, workshops, resourcing, learning, and technical support staff – there can be formidable set-up obstacles to overcome. Equally significant is the need for unilateral commitment to a total and dramatic restructuring of the institution: this is not an isolated practice that can grow organically from small beginnings (Robinson et al., 2009). Council, management, and frontline teaching staff must all embrace the concept; for many, this is a radical change to the way in which they conceive and deliver higher education. On top of all this, both teachers and students may not agree that such change is desirable, or even necessary. Zepke (1997) was one of the first to note that much more controlled curriculum requirements in New Zealand's tertiary sector have led to students (and teachers) adopting the attitude that they are in education to receive only the information specific to their subject area and that no other learning has any significance for them. Attempts to offer additional skills, such as those critical and analytical skills associated with thinking, either separately

or in an integrated way, says Zepke, are seen as superfluous to the 'user-pays' mentality. Thus, students can become resistant to deep learning concepts, which is perhaps most apparent with young students who are recent school leavers.

Yet standing still is not an option: students enculturated in a competency-based system, along with increasing demands for institutional efficiency and a widespread utilitarian motivation, will inevitably lead to graduates who are perceived as lacking business awareness, and the essential 21st century graduate attributes already discussed. The onus is on organisations to recognise the need for new academic competencies, even before the students themselves, say Binkley et al. (2010).

Bamber (2009) also discusses resistance by academics to educational development, due to what she describes as a "ubiquitous climate of change" (p. 23) in which neither established practices, nor cultural assumptions, nor purposes could be assumed to be permanent. The most challenging changes are often those that attempt to develop teaching and learning, because "they require staff to adopt new knowledge, behaviours and, perhaps, modified beliefs and values" (p. 23). As previously mentioned, when changes are imposed in a top-down model they are unlikely to be welcomed by teaching staff who often feel that they have to perform better in all aspects of academic work, and with fewer resources (Ramsden, 1998). As Bamber et al. (2007) note, "in a culture of autonomy, consensus is difficult to achieve" (p. 23). Educational developers who seek to introduce a learning and teaching enhancement initiative, let alone a new professional development framework, will therefore need to pay due attention to the views of all stakeholders and to ensure systemic support throughout the change process.

Section summary: Cultural, structural and political considerations

This literature review began with a brief discussion of kaupapa Māori theory, including the central tenet of critical theory: research must be followed by action that seeks "both to inform and transform pedagogical thinking and practice, and institutional policy drivers" (Bidois, 2011, p. 2). It is fitting therefore, to close the circle by considering the way in which the co-construction of new knowledge and the reconstruction of previous knowledge (Bishop, 2003) can help understanding the concept of transformational change. Just as kaupapa Māori as a critical paradigm is "self-reflexive, inclusive, adaptive and political... constantly (re)defining itself, evolving and changing to suit the needs of the time and those that choose to engage with it" (Bidois, 2011, p. 12), so too should our higher education institutions be in the pursuit of an optimal learning environment.

Bamber (2015, citing Becher, 1989) uses the metaphor of "tribes, terrains and territories" (pers. comm.) to describe the 21st century higher education political environment. The reference is to academic relationships and thinking that show 'tribal' characteristics, often by discipline, but sometimes institution-wide, through a set of practices, assumptions, values, and a taken-for-granted approach to certain things. Members tend to revere established rites and traditions, and to resist territorial infractions, or attempts to cross borders. Meanwhile, say Trowler et al. (2005), the rise of new managerialism has meant academics have less control over what they do and how they do it. Part of this is due, too, to the quality audit culture that conditions so many aspects of professional work. So, a variety of forces, including organisational accountability, government strategic priorities and interventions, and market forces demanding work-ready graduates, has created a political landscape of ongoing change (Trowler et al., 2005).

This era of change is also echoed in cultural considerations, including the way in which technology is reshaping practices as well as concepts such as 'massification', 'life-long learning', community engagement, and learner-centred pedagogy. These changes may hardly be noticed by Under-25 learners, as the face of education plays catch-up with the natural setting of speed and communication in which these students feel comfortable (Howe & Strauss, 2000). They are, however, likely to have immense personal and professional impacts on teaching staff.

In order for professional developers to design and implement structural frameworks that will ameliorate these significant challenges, leadership commitment and a coordinated, collaborative approach are needed. As Gregson and Sturko (2007) note, teachers, like their students, need both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to participate in professional development and enhance their practice. Structures that provide pathways, rewards, and accreditation need to be ensconced in a culture that offers opportunities to learn formally and informally, to engage with colleagues in mentoring relationships and communities of practice, and to work towards transformative shifts in practice.

Developing professional development frameworks to nurture effective teachers for our newest generation of tertiary learners is an inspiring and inclusive mission, based on the willingness of all stakeholders to connect through a systemic, holistic, and hopeful vision of the relevance of higher education in the world yet to come.

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