INNOVATION IN A RESPONSIVE COLLEGE

A CASE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Changes in vocational education and training in the 1980s required the Local Education Authorities' maintained Colleges of Further Education to become much more responsive to the requirements of government funded training programmes and to the employer-led system of National Vocational Qualifications [NVQs]. In a competitive environment Colleges would need to change their organisational structures to achieve the flexibility necessary for a rapid response to the new market in the provision of vocational education and training.

This case study examines a College of Further Education which had radically altered its traditional hierarchial organisational structure in order to become a "Responsive College" as advocated by the government and industrialists in the 1980s and 1990s.

The thesis focuses upon the issues of "teaching", "learning" and "quality", particularly the management and perception of these, within an institution which, despite rhetoric, was unable to innovate rapidly in a changing environment. This lack of change resulted from the application within the College of the Further Education Unit's [F.E.U's] "personal growth" model of staff development; the "indulgency" accorded to the staff by the management; and the "flattened" organisational structure which made planning and
implementing whole scale institutional change impossible. The anarchic organisational culture which resulted from the above made curriculum development an individualistic rather than holistic issue.

The thesis also argues that real change in V.E.T. provision depends upon altering national perceptions of the status of academic and vocational education; and upon ensuring that employers invest in the training of their employees.

The thesis concludes that "responsiveness" "change" and "innovation" represent different levels of intellectual commitment to curriculum development. "Responsiveness" is a noisy rhetoric which may in reality ignore "strange chatteries" from agencies which themselves may be engaged in illusory alteration rather than radical innovation.
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to Daniel and Mary Healy whose lives were based on a love of people and a respect for learning in equal measure.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was made possible by the generous co-operation of the managers and lecturers at the College which forms the subject of this study. With unfailing good grace and humour they tolerated the presence of the researcher at meetings, informal gatherings and in their classrooms. This thesis should satisfy their curiosity about what on earth it was for.

The finished work is a tribute to the patience of Daphne Rouse and Mary Lumbers who were responsible for typing the script including the urgent alterations to the alterations altered the previous day. Their forbearance and perseverance was marvellous.

The completion of the thesis owes much to the staff in the Department of Educational Studies at Surrey University whose support was only a phone call away. Two in particular, unconnected with the supervision of the research encouraged an unknown student when things seemed very dark indeed. To them I owe a real debt.

Above all I wish to thank my supervisor Dr Ian Haffenden without whose perfect balance of urging, encouraging and pacifying the research would neither have been completed nor written up. The support I got from this academic researcher with feet firmly grounded in the strange and, at present, stressful world of Further Education was invaluable, and is here acknowledged with true gratitude.

Finally, a thank you to Matthew and Katharine for occasionally finding their own socks and making mum a cup of coffee.
# CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abstract</th>
<th>(ii)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dedication</td>
<td>(iv)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>(v)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contents</td>
<td>(vi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART I</strong> The Introduction to the Study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 1 The Subject, Themes and Research Issues of the Study</td>
<td>2-42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 2 Research Methods</td>
<td>43-69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART II</strong> The Historical Context of the Responsive College</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 3 The History of Further Education and of the LEA maintained Colleges of Further Education 1820-1970</td>
<td>71-116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 4 Vocationalism, Qualifications and the College 1970-1990</td>
<td>117-163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 5 The Search For and Discovery of &quot;The Responsive College&quot;</td>
<td>164-191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART III</strong> The Responsive College - A Case Study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 6 The Structure and Culture of the Organisation of a Responsive College</td>
<td>193-235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 7 Staff Development in a Responsive College</td>
<td>236-272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 8 Curriculum Development in a Responsive College - Responding, Changing and Innovating</td>
<td>273-314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 9 The Learning-Led F.E. College; Teaching, Learning and Quality</td>
<td>315-355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PART IV</strong> The Conclusion of the Study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 10 Conclusion</td>
<td>356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>357-390</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figures in the Report

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fig 1</td>
<td>Management of Change in Educational Organisations</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 2</td>
<td>An equation for Unit Costing</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 3</td>
<td>Organisational Structure of College before re-organisation of 1983</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 4</td>
<td>Management Structure of College - 1989</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 5</td>
<td>Routes into FE Teaching</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 6</td>
<td>Occupational Socialisation of School Teachers</td>
<td>243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 7</td>
<td>Occupational Socialisation for Brown College Lecturers</td>
<td>244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 8</td>
<td>Staff Development Support 1983</td>
<td>262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 9</td>
<td>Staff Development Support 1990</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 10</td>
<td>F.E.U. College Development Model</td>
<td>285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 11</td>
<td>F.E.U. Curriculum Development Model</td>
<td>286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 12</td>
<td>Co-ordinator Role Continuum</td>
<td>289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 13</td>
<td>Model of Response Change and Innovation at Brown College</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig 14</td>
<td>Haffenden's Framework of Strategic Elements for Managing Change</td>
<td>363</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appendix</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 1</td>
<td>Plato's theory of knowledge</td>
<td>391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 2</td>
<td>Analysis and Discussion of Questionnaire 1</td>
<td>395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 3</td>
<td>Analysis of Questionnaire 2 - September 1990</td>
<td>406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 4</td>
<td>Organisational Profile Instrument</td>
<td>417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 5</td>
<td>Classroom Observation Schedule</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix</td>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 6</td>
<td>The Interview Schedule</td>
<td>428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 7</td>
<td>Concept Maps</td>
<td>430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 8</td>
<td>The Heller F.O.C.U.S. Instrument</td>
<td>435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 9</td>
<td>The Growth of Humanities Courses in Polytechnics</td>
<td>444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 10</td>
<td>An F.E. Lecturer's Job</td>
<td>445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 11</td>
<td>Settlers and Pioneers</td>
<td>446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 12</td>
<td>The Organisational Structure of a Responsive College - 1983</td>
<td>449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 13</td>
<td>The Development of an Educational Services Unit</td>
<td>450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 14</td>
<td>College Draft Action Plan for N.V.Qs</td>
<td>472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 15</td>
<td>Staff Attending College Courses 1988-89</td>
<td>478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 16</td>
<td>Transactional Analysis</td>
<td>480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 17</td>
<td>Staff Settlers</td>
<td>483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 18</td>
<td>Definition of Curriculum - Connelly and Lantz</td>
<td>485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 19</td>
<td>Curriculum Issues for the Delivery of N.V.Qs</td>
<td>487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 20</td>
<td>T.V.E.I. Curriculum</td>
<td>490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 21</td>
<td>B.T.E.C. Common Skills</td>
<td>493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 22</td>
<td>College Seminar on Changes in B.T.E.C. Courses 7 November 1986</td>
<td>495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibliography</td>
<td></td>
<td>502-523</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* **Superscript note**

Footnotes are identified in the text by a small numeral. The corresponding footnote is located at the end of each chapter.
PART I

The Introduction to the Study
Chapter 1

THE SUBJECT, THEMES AND RESEARCH ISSUES OF THE STUDY

This chapter will: (i) identify the subject of the study - the Responsive College; (ii) locate the study amongst the research and literature on (a) Further Education and (b) Education, Training and Vocationalism; (iii) explore the contextual themes of the study and their associated literature - these being:

(a) Further Education [FE] Colleges as organisations
(b) Teaching Staff within these organisations
(c) Innovation and change in education;

(iv) state the research issues which the study seeks to address; and (v) indicate the order of the reporting of the study.

(i) The Subject of the Study

This is a case study of a single and singular College of Further Education - Brown College. The College is case-studied as it represents the realisation of the idea of the Responsive College and the Responsive College movement [see Theodossin 1986 and Chapter 5 of this thesis].
Responsive Colleges were a proclaimed part of the strategy of the Conservative government of the 1980s to resolve a crisis in vocational education and training (VET). This crisis was identified by the government as a partial explanation for the high levels of youth unemployment in the 1970's and 1980's [see Raffe 1987]. Young people were unemployed because they were unemployable as they lacked necessary skills and qualifications. The low levels of skills and qualifications in the work force and possible strategies for raising these levels became the subject for a series of government publications in the early 1980's [see Manpower Services Commission (M.S.C.) 1981: Employment Department and Department of Education and Science (ED and DES) 1985].

The government argued that the crisis could be resolved if employers would "take the lead in proposing training and courses and standards which will ensure employability for young people and adults who have lost their footing in the labour market" [see Institute of Manpower Studies 1984 p90].

In order to achieve these employer-led training outcomes and standards the government set up a working group to review vocational qualifications in England
and Wales. Its report, published in 1986 and accepted by the government, argued that "vocational qualifications should relate more directly and clearly to competence required in work" [MSC and DES 1986 paragraph 1.5].

Thus a competence based system of vocational qualifications was introduced requiring a competence based curriculum to be developed in the Colleges of Further Education. The lecturers in these Colleges would have to change as "educationalists and trainers will need to adapt quickly to new demands" [MSC and DES 1986 - Chairman's Preface].

These demands for a new system of employer-led competence based qualifications had "curricula, organisational and staff development implications" for the Colleges [see F.E.S.C. 1987 p1] as well as some profound implications for personal change in the attitudes and roles of college lecturers [see Burke 1989 pp109-131].

These changes necessary for the delivery of National Vocational Qualifications [N.V.Qs] could be achieved if the Local Education Authorities' Colleges conformed with the stated objective of the Department of Education and Science "to increase the responsiveness of the (non-advanced further education) service to the
needs of employers" [E.D. and D.E.S. 1986].

The L.E.A's and their Colleges argued that research showed that Colleges were already responsive to the needs of employers and industry [see Kedney and Parkes 1985]; they also argued that the L.E.A's and their Colleges could not be held responsible for the problems brought about by economic recession.

The ability of the L.E.A's and their colleges to respond to expressed demand from local industry is a tradition of which they are proud, contrasting with, and perhaps explaining, the difficulty they experience when confronted with alleviating industrial decline [Mason 1988 p82].

However, responsiveness was redefined throughout the 1980s in a way which emphasised not the reactivity of Colleges to expressed demand but pro-activity in marketing to their clients' (ie employers) unstated needs.

In the education world colleges could follow the U.S. example and go out with the offer of providing for the needs and wishes of potential customers at times and in ways which suit the individual. Marketing rather than selling, making customers welcome in their terms rather than pressing them into college convenience, are the kinds of useful steps to encourage people to look on the education service as an ally and friend. [Institute of Manpower Studies 1984 p92].
Most significantly a responsive college would "put client interests above provider interests" [Theodossin 1986 p27] by developing courses and methods of delivery appropriate for new client groups, especially those on new schemes (eg Employment Training) funded by the M.S.C. This delivery of new courses to new client groups would be accompanied, in a responsive college by a maintenance of quality ... {so that} .... value for money (whether that money is the employers, the individuals, the tax payers or the rate payers) is clearly demonstrated [E.D. and D.E.S. 1986 paragraph 1.9].

Thus responsiveness required a demonstration of efficiency and effectiveness in the use of economic resources, an organisational climate which would allow staff to develop marketing sensitivity and pro-active curricula skills to respond to the market, and an organisational structure able to support non-traditional F.E. students who sought vocational training and qualifications for employability. Traditional departmental technical colleges [see Venables 1955 especially Chapter XVIII] would need to change if they were to meet this model of responsiveness.

One or two colleges had already engaged in a major restructuring of their organization [see chapter 5]
because some Principals had realised that "The market served by the Further Education College is changing rapidly. If Colleges do not adapt they will die. Innovation and the willingness to experiment are the only hope of survival" [Sheen 1984A p31]. That Principal with other pro-active colleagues in that particular College had developed in the early 1980s an organisational structure "designed to be flexible and designed for continuous adaptation, so stress should produce change, not breakdown". [Sheen 1984A p31]. Thus a model of a Responsive College was developed with an accompanying literature on organizational philosophy.

A Further Education College, with an organizational philosophy and structure designed to be responsive in the manner argued for by government agencies, especially the M.S.C. (see Chapter 4), - and thus also an exemplar of this "Responsive College" movement - is the subject of this study. The College was studied between April 1988 and December 1990, as it responded to the changes implicit in the employer-led system of restructured National Vocational Qualifications. Thus the study is concerned with the ability of a Responsive College to respond to curriculum change and innovation.
The study will now be located within the research literature on (a) Colleges of Further Education and (b) Education, Training and Vocationalism.

(ii) The literature on:

(a) Further Education

Further Education is the least studied, least recognised and least understood sector of public educational provision in England and Wales. Despite the proliferation in educational research in the 1960's and the 1970's FE remained a forgotten sector [see Fowler 1973]. Dunne has stated that

The major sociological approaches of the 1970's ..... have still to fully embrace F.E. This reflects the taken-for-granted approach to both the system and classroom of FE; the ambiguity concerning the structural position of FE; and that classroom practice, far from innovative is atrophied in past "good practice but seems unconcerned and unaware of this position" [Dunne 1983 p85].

Government concern in the 1960's and 1970's with developing a more efficient work force prompted various reports and white papers [see eg Haslegrave 1969 and "A Plan for Polytechnics and Other Colleges Command 3006 HMSO 1966; A Framework for Expansion Command 5174 HMSO 1972;] which considered the role of the Colleges; but in depth academic studies of Further
Education and its Colleges have been few—possibly because they lie outside the experience of most academics in education. Bristow's work "Inside Colleges of Further Education" represented an attempt to inform the academic community and the public about institutions of which they may have been aware but, judging by the tone of the book, with which they were unlikely to be familiar [Bristow 1976].

Books such as "School and College - Studies of Post-sixteen education" [King 1976] attempted to locate the FE Colleges within general educational provision; but the more typical studies of FE in 1960s and 1970s were those of the experiences of client groups eg Venables on day-release students [Venables 1967] or Hancock and Wakeford on Young Technicians [Hancock and Wakeford 1965].

A parallel to this present study is a case study of a Technical College carried out by Tipton in 1973.

The primary objective of the study was to look at the technical college from an angle largely overlooked, from the inside. Writers on further education have a habit of concentrating upon the forces that play upon colleges, such as industry, government policy and developments in other sectors of education .... this, we believe, had two consequences. Firstly, general ignorance of what technical colleges are like as social organisations and, secondly the production of inaccurate histories of the development of further education [Tipton 1973 Preface (ix)].

This thesis also looks at a college - Brown College -
from the inside (see Part 3 - The Case Study, Chapters 6, 7, 8 and 9) and as such seeks to understand it as a social organisation (see Chapter 10 The Conclusion), and to relate the college to its history and the events of the 1980's (Chapters 3, 4 and 5).

Tipton's study reveals the tensions experienced by members of staff who valued their technical skills more than their teaching abilities or aptitudes for administration. This latter was resentfully seen as the avenue to promotion. Echoes of Tipton's findings can be found in this research about twenty years later.

Another significant case study on a College was carried out by Gleeson and Mardle and was written in the context of the Great Debate which developed after Prime Minister Callaghan's Ruskin speech [see Callaghan 1976]

Gleeson and Mardle addressed some of the specific issues which this study seeks to explore by examining the often contradictory relations which exist between the competing interests of "education" "training" and "work" .... (and) provides an interesting insight into the uneasy co-existence between the conflicting interests of "Education" and "Training" within the sphere of FE" [Gleeson and Mardle 1980 Preface pp(v) and (viii)].

Gleeson has published much material of a very critical
nature on the vocationalising of the curriculum and the training schemes brought in for young people unable to find employment [see Gleeson 1983 and Gleeson 1989] but in "Education and Training" he was, with the joint author, equally critical of the role of Further Education "as a qualifying mechanism vis-a-vis the social differentiation and distribution of labour within a free market "[Gleeson and Mardle 1980 p118]. The authors were also critical of the teachers in their case study college for whom "negativity" provided a major reason for the transfer from industry into teaching [ie a desire to escape from industry rather than positively to become a teacher]; ... their rationale of instrumentality .... is ultimately only an extension of previous industrial experience .... less than a third of the mining staff at Weston had received any form of pedagogical training [Gleeson and Mardle 1980 p70].

Those staff were however operating within an organisation and the authors' primary objective was to ascertain how institutional life sets the "agenda" for participants, not so much in terms of some all-determining constraint which the organisation places on member's activities, but as a scenario within which the activities of members can be understood [Gleeson and Mardle 1980 p42].
This issue is also a concern of this research carried out some 10 years later upon a different institution dealing with a particular curriculum issue; although it is recognised that "teachers adopting educationalists arguments as rationalisation of their practice" is an ongoing phenomenon [Gleeson and Mardle 1980 p118].

Gleeson and Mardle's book was an important attempt at exploring the defining concepts for institutions which have education in their title but which historically and functionally are attached to vocational training:

it would appear that the confusion which characterises the use of these terms, among those who seek to explain the processes of FE gives rise to the most pertinent discourse vis-a-vis the nature of practice within that important area of educational provision [Gleeson and Mardle p116].

It is to these terms that we now turn.

(b) Education, Training and Vocationalism

The Cinderella status of the Colleges within the education system may be accounted for by their role in training people for industrial life. (The ambivalent relationship that the Colleges have with industry is explored in chapters 3 and 4 of this thesis). Venables discussed these issues and stated that
The alleged narrowness of technical training is, in part, the transfer of a rationalised feeling of revulsion against the indisputable narrowness of the lives of workers for many decades in the mills and factories [Venables 1955 p20].

Education and industrial training were not to be confused lest the latter invade and corrupt the former.

In the expansionist years for education (1955-1970) when teacher training became the responsibility of 'Colleges of Education' rather than 'Training Colleges' and teachers were educated to degree level with the new Bachelor of Education [B.Ed] degree, defining education and distinguishing it from training was an important part of the educationalist's education. A major influence on such a definition was the work of R.S. Peters via his publications on the philosophy of education.

In his writings he pursues a concept of education, in contrast to training, which was linked with the idea of 'the educated man'.

This was an ideal which emerged in opposition both to narrow specialisation and to the increasingly instrumental view of knowledge associated with the development of technology. It was of course as old as the Greeks ..... [Peters 1973 p.240].

Peters' view that education is pursued for its own sake is linked to a very strong philosophic tradition
in this country - the Platonic tradition [see Whitehead 1942 chapter IV]. Within this tradition disinterested knowledge, with no direct application, is seen as intrinsically valuable. Plato described knowledge acquired because it was useful or directly applicable (e.g., arithmetic for the banker) as opinion rather than knowledge, and as banausic (fit for slaves) as distinct from being worthy of free men. Plato despised opinion, because it had no philosophical content. It lacked the power to produce what Peters calls "cognitive perspective".

The true concern of real knowledge, which frees the mind from error, is universal values. To emphasise this difference we must further realise that the word "technical" is derived from the Greek work techine, which means 'skill'. What Plato refers to as banausike techne (mechanical or manual skill) is very similar, in most cases, to what is acquired in vocational training in a modern technical college ... [Schofield 1972 p151]. (The author at the time of publication was the Head of the Education Department of a College of Education).

The Platonic tradition and Peters' views have remained the basis of the distinction that most people make between education and training though it is not the only philosophical view. Ryle, from a very different philosophical position argues that being able to think and being able to do are the same type of parallel activities; the second is not subordinate to the first.
"Intelligent practice is not a step-child of theory. On the contrary theorising is one practice amongst others and is itself intelligently or stupidly conducted" [Ryle 1963 p27] ....... "Learning how or improving in ability is not like learning that or acquiring information. Truths can be imparted, procedures can only be incubated, and while incubation is a gradual process, imparting is relatively sudden [Ryle 1963 p58].

The philosophical views of education were rather overtaken during the 1970s by sociologists such as Friere and Illich who made knowledge a far less metaphysical and absolute affair. For them knowledge was located and constructed in the every-day world [see Friere 1972 and Illich 1973]; but despite their concerns for the ordinary, theirs was a discussion of education not training.

Training has been defined as the process of imparting to someone the skill to perform some operation or set of operations whether mental or physical and whether the acquisition of the skill is or is not accompanied by an understanding of the principles on which the operation depends. [Ducasse quoted in Schofield 1972 p43].

During the 1980's there was a great deal of resistance from educationalists to the narrow skills training being imposed by the Youth Training Scheme [Y.T.S.] and other M.S.C. based training schemes [see Gleeson 1989 or Holt 1987 or Barton and Walker 1986]. School teachers and other educationalists viewed the introduction of work-based curricula with great distaste because their own vocational preparation had
emphasised the value of a liberal, as opposed to, a vocational education [see Schofield and Peters above]. The arguments of the opponents of the vocationalising of the curriculum were not always well thought out [see Holt and Reid 1988].

In a more measured response Golby argued that

Education has always been intimately connected with the world of work ......... In the 1980's therefore, we are faced with the problem of redefining the relationship between schooling and work. We are helped in this by the legacy of all the experimentations and theorising that went on through the 1960s. At that time it became possible to articulate a concept of education which separated it from narrow instrumentalisation ........... The bid from vocationalists has to be seen as not the only alternative to intellectual elitism; too much of the debate has been polarized along these two alone [Golby 1987 pp12-15].

It is possible that "vocationalism" or vocational education may synthesise training and education "For us in FE the term "vocational" includes all education and training which leads to the acquisition of employable knowledge and skills" [Bristow 1976 p11]. However, like the schools, the Colleges have been reluctant to embrace vocationalism because, despite their history, they also have a distaste for training [see chapter 3]. The expansion in the number of young people attending FE Colleges in the 1960's and 1970's was the result of not only second chances in general
education for working class youth [see Cantor and Roberts 1974] but also, according to Hordley and Lee [1970] of the increased attendance of middle class students who adopted FE as a possible route into Higher Education and were thus the main beneficiaries of the expansion. Gleeson also comments on the way that FE at this time became a vehicle for the middle-class, turning away from the working class and particularly the unemployed working class [Gleeson 1986].

Moos however sees FE as a genuine ladder of opportunity for all as it provides both vocational and general education. Whilst very critical of the role of the M.S.C. "which attempted to introduce and control courses in FE based on a highly limited skills content and a bias towards social skills" she acknowledges that the MSC's vocationalism "represented a partial resolution of the conflict between education and training" [Moos - 1983 p255]. Other writers have been much more critical of the core skills associated with the new vocationalism [see Jonathan 1987] but have acknowledged that it has arisen because there was no alternative provision for those who leave school and are unable to proceed to work. Neither the schools nor colleges had been prepared to provide such vocationalised programmes. As "educational" institutions they were concerned with their
This study is concerned with the response of one FE College to this vocationalised curriculum. The level of response was made possible by the organisational structure and culture of the College [see chapter 6]. Organisational literature and theory will now be discussed as one of the contextual themes of this study.

(iii) The Contextual Themes of the Study

(a) The F.E. College as an Organisation

Although there are case studies of educational institutions [see eg Lacey 1970, Ball 1980] these have mainly concerned themselves with observing an outcome of an education policy (eg streaming), in a particular institution, rather than analyzing the organisational structure and culture of the institution.

Davies acknowledges "the paucity of worthwhile empirical studies within education ...... {and} ..... the relative lack of attention to post-school education" [Davies 1973 p249] in particular, in relation to organisational analysis. With local management of schools greater attention is being paid to management and other organisational issues [see
Bush et al eds 1980] but with the decline of sociological research in the 1980's in-depth studies, unrelated to curriculum innovation, remain scarce.

Marsh argues that "Too many educationalists have for too long believed that education is somehow different from any other organisational process and has to be treated idiosyncratically" [Marsh 1983]. Handy and Aitkin endorse this approach "we should not think of schools as institutions apart, having little to do with the laws that appear to apply to other organisations" [Handy and Aitkin - 1986 p128].

In their discussion of change and quality in Further Education Muller and Funnell argue that their model of quality although derived from a business context is "directly applicable to education and training" [see Muller and Funnell 1992 p42]. Thus the lack of organisational studies in schools and colleges has allowed for the importation of models and theories of organisations which may aid our understanding of them as organizations but which have not yet been critiqued from an empirical basis. This study seeks to address that.

Those studies of FE Colleges which have examined organisational issues have often emphasised the heterogeneity of the staff [see Gleeson and Mardle...
1980 and next section] or external environmental factors [see Cuthbert 1984] or both [see Preedy 1983].

Little has been written about cultures and structures within Further Education despite the exhortations from a variety of sources that the colleges need to become more responsive.

The organisational problems this presents have rarely (if ever) been analyzed by those interested in the nature of organisations and within further education itself only the Staff College at Coombe Lodge has paid any attention to the administration of colleges and then only at a college rather than departmental level" [Brannon, Holloway and Peeke 1981 p23].

The reluctance of educational theorists/practitioners to engage in such a study may have something to do with the plurality of approaches to be found within organisational theory. Pugh and Hickson indicate this plurality of approaches in the headings they use for their summary of important organisational literature. These headings are:

- The Structure of Organisations
- The Organisation in its environment
- The Management of Organisations
- Decision-making in Organisations
- People in Organisations

[Pugh and Hickson 1989 contents page].

Before locating what has been written on Further Education Colleges as organisations within these topics I shall discuss the broader sociological theories which have informed the study of
organizations and describe the broad models which may be developed from them. The sociological theories are: structural - functionalism; social action theory; and systems theory.

Structural - functionalism has reified social institutions, eg family, school etc and sees them as profoundly shaping their participants. Within this theoretical framework organisations are real goal-pursuing entities. They purposefully "solve" problems, drive towards rationality and invade realms of action traditionally controlled by individuals. "Thus the organisation in effect strips its members of their present motives and replaces them with those that serve the purposes of the organisation" [Greenfield 1979 p82] Bureaucratic organisations with established systems and rules, tasks allocated as official duties, and a hierarchical authority fall within this framework [see Weber 1964].

This deterministic view based on goals and structures has been criticised by Gouldner [1954], Burns and Stalker [1961], Crozier [1964].

Another major framework to inform organisational theory is that of social action in which "actors" in organisations determine appropriate ways of behaving according to how they interpret the situation in which
they find themselves

Therefore, the kinds of organisation we live in derive not from their structure but from attitudes and experiences we bring to organisations from the wider society in which we live [Greenfield 1987 p87].

A third approach stresses 1) the interrelationship of the independent parts of organisations 2) that organisations have needs for survival and 3) that organisations "behave" [see Howarth, 1959 pp59-63]. Individuals have to negotiate their way within these interrelated systems but the degree of negotiation will depend upon the beliefs within the organization about how individuals should be managed. One view on the appropriate method of managing individuals in organizations is that of Scientific Management [see Taylor 1947]. The other major view is that of Human Relations [see Mayo 1933 and Roethlisberger and Dickson 1949]. Human Relations stresses informal association and the meanings which people give to their work: Scientific Management stresses formal hierarchies and prescribed task roles. This thesis will expose the problems of relying on the former for institutional change.

These theories, frameworks and views have been combined by researchers examining change in educational organizations in this country; especially since the introduction of the 1988 education act.
Two possible combinations have been modelled by Bennett et al see [fig 1] with the assumption that Model B will be far more productive of change than Model A. Model A is linked to bureaucratic, scientific management approaches; Model B is linked to systems theories and personal growth models more in sympathy with the goals of educational organisations [see eg Rogers 1983]. This thesis should contribute to an evaluation of these two models

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<th>View of Organisational Activities</th>
<th>View of World</th>
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<tr>
<td>Model A</td>
<td>CONTROL</td>
<td>TOTALLY RATIONAL</td>
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<td>SEGMENTATION</td>
<td>ONE BEST WAY</td>
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<tr>
<td>Model B</td>
<td>EMPOWERMENT</td>
<td>LIMITED RATIONALITY</td>
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<td>MULTIPLE AND PERHAPS</td>
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The first of Pugh and Hickson's topics, the debate about structure, has been a feature of studies of Tertiary Colleges [see Preedy 1984] and of new merged Colleges, often Tertiary, trying to combine structures and cultures from a Technical College tradition and sixth form/college tradition [see summary of mergers in King 1976 and for a more detailed account Nelson 1991]. The debate has also been taken up by the Further Education Staff College [F.E.S.C.] [see Stocker 1986, Turner 1987], who like Flint 1989, argue the virtues of a matrix system over the traditional departmental structure "which tends to promote an entrepreneurial and empire building approach ....... reducing flexibility of students' programme of study"
This study should be a contribution to the discussion about appropriate organisational structures in Further Education, since the Responsive College movement sought to encourage Colleges to develop organisational structures that would allow staff to be responsive. Haffenden from the studies and literature available in the 1980s has modelled the organisational structure appropriate for Colleges which have to deliver the competence-based curriculum. [See Haffenden 1990]. The structure emphasises communication throughout the organisational system and we shall return to his model in our conclusions in Chapter 10.

Pugh and Hickson's second theme, the organisation in its environment, is central to this study. The call for a College able to respond to the changes of the 1980's (especially youth unemployment) and the needs of the economic system [see Theodossin 1986] and thus ensure its survival [see Selznick 1948] has become an even louder cry in the brutally competitive 1990's. Avis examined the impact of those changes in FE in the 1980s and found that institutional change whilst necessary is not sufficient to change the behaviour and expectations of participants [see Avis 1988].
Their third theme - management - is of importance in the changing world of Further Education for two reasons. Firstly because the crisis that rapid change has incurred [see McNay 1988] needs managing; and secondly because of the problems inherent in managing professionals in organisations [see Blau and Schoenherr 1971].

These problems rest on the technical expertise which professionals can claim [see Crozier 1964] and their effect on the authority structure is likely to be substantial.

If college lecturers are professionals [see next section] then management styles and organisational structures must take account of this.

Decision-making in organisations is inseparable from Pugh and Hickson's fifth category 'People in organisations' and is linked with the previous theme through the concept of role. "A lecturer in a college ...... brings to his role experiences gained both outside and inside the organisation and these are bound to influence behaviour" [Peeke 1983 p225].
Peeke also states

Newly appointed staff with established role expectations in different organisations, in industry for example may be unclear about role expectations ....... This difficulty can be confronted with the new appointee is not teacher trained [Peeke 1983 p227].

The concept of teacher role has been used to explore educational change [see Gross, Giaquinta and Bernstein 1971]. In teaching, as in other parts of the social system, role links what people do - teach - with what they and others perceive themselves to be - "a teacher". This "doing" and "being" by staff in further education forms a central part of the research [see Chapter 7] and it is to staffing in Further Education that we now turn.

(b) Teaching Staff in Further Education

Teaching in Further Education Colleges is carried out by lecturers appointed mainly because of their industrial experience [see Tipton 1973 and Bristow 1976]. They teach on courses leading to externally validated and examined qualifications. Unlike other teachers in the statutory sector (other than university lecturers) they are not required to have a teaching qualification or qualified teacher status.

About 20% of teachers in further education have completed a qualifying teacher training course of a general nature and a further 20% have completed
a special qualifying course for further education teachers ...... About 40% are university graduates. [Russell 1989 p49].

Many colleges rely on the City and Guilds of London Institute [C.G.L.I.] and the Royal Society of Arts [R.S.A.] for part-time schemes of initial training especially for training part-time staff, of whom there are many [see Cantor and Roberts]. Neither of these awards confer qualified teacher status as specified by the Department of Education and Science [D.E.S.].

FE teachers are paid on nationally agreed salary scales by Local Education Authorities (though after April 1993 when the Colleges become independent of the Local Authorities this will no longer necessarily be the case). Traditionally appointment and promotion levels on these scales have been based on a points system linked to levels of work [see Tipton 1973 and Gleeson 1980] "higher education" work (Higher National Certificate/degree courses) carrying the most points and thus being the most sought after by the College and its staff.

FE teachers bring the culture of their industry with them [see Venables 1955] and promotion, in what have traditionally been very hierarchical organisations, depend on issues other than pedagogic skills [see Tipton 1973 for an account of the frustration staff
felt at the value placed on administration].

"The college's staff is almost a microcosm of the country's social divisions featuring, as it does, all the following: graduates and non-graduates, industrially experienced and non-experienced, craftsmen, white collar workers, managers, scientists, social scientists and artists, men and women and the relatively young through to the relatively old" [Tipton 1973 p(ix)].

Such a heterogeneous mix will include very different views about teaching, training and professional identity. Some will maintain their previous identity, especially if they feel it had superior status to teaching (eg management or accountancy lecturers), or if they feel it enhances their position within the college culture (eg graduate engineers in technical colleges). Some will embrace their teaching identity either because it gives an increase in status (eg catering lecturers, office technology lecturers) or because of a belief in the value of education "true believers" - [see part C of this section] (eg "caring" lecturers). Most colleges also have ex-school teachers or young(ish) graduates who see lecturing in Further Education as an opportunity for academic status beyond that of a school teacher whilst below that of a university lecturer.

Curriculum innovations require a professionally developed staff. Whilst the Haycocks report [1975] recommended generous opportunities for FE teachers to obtain in-service training as well as the appointment
in colleges of trained professional tutors, there is little indication in the literature that such development has occurred. Evans' study in 1980 saw mainly a resistance to change by FE lecturers in teaching craft skills.

"This resistance can, at least partially, be attributed to the still widespread lack of training and preparation of further education teachers, and a lack of awareness of alternative educational approaches and methodologies ....... the tendency of teachers to regard themselves as subject specialists rather than educators" [Evans 1980 p139].

This was still the picture several years later when research on Course Teams and quality in FE revealed that "The most frequently mentioned problems were associated with staffing. Chief among staffing problems were out of date skills, closely followed by inappropriate or outmoded teaching styles". [Tansley 1989 p36]. The lack of worthwhile staff development has been commented upon by the F.E.U.

"The general picture of staff development in the vocational field is that it is scrappy, without coherent principle or philosophy, inadequate in quantity and quality, uncertain in its objectives and appeal, and not easily available" [F.E.U. 1982 p27].

As more initiatives arrived in the colleges in the 1980's the necessity for staff development increased yet its take-up was inhibited by three issues. Firstly what has been referred to as "the Venus Syndrome" [see Brace 1984] whereby staff after initial
training see themselves as fully fledged professionals who need no further development. Secondly and linked to this is a culture in professional organisations (see previous section), which would base staff development on the wishes and perceived needs of the professional member of staff, rather than on the goals of the college management [see Bradley 1982]. Thirdly, despite the funding for staff-development, the general squeeze on College budgets has meant that promotions were going to be fewer and not necessarily linked to staff development. The implications for a new model of directed if not actually forced in-service training is suggested by Bradley.

There is the paradox inherent in the issue of incentives: having made staff development voluntary on the assumption that the needs and wishes of individuals and the demands of the institutions invariably coincide, the notion the decreased promotion prospects will undermine staff development schemes implies that staff will volunteer only for instrumental reasons and that some new kind of bargaining strategy will have to be found to ensure participation in the future [Bradley 1982 p81].

The necessity for more directed staff development is indicated by this case study.

Whilst some writers are still concerned with the "being" aspect of the professional development of teachers "in which who and what people perceive themselves to be matters as much as what they can
do [see Nias 1989 p167]. Researchers such as O'Hare have found a desire to preserve self-identity and self-image an inhibiting factor for the acquisition of new knowledge and skills. His empirical research carried out in three FE Colleges indicated that "Teachers prefer the familiar to the new and unfamiliar. Attitudes tend to remain entrenched while new concepts need structured programmes of learning to ensure their assimilation" [O'Hare 1986 p308].

The development and implementation of new concepts and practices is the next and last contextual theme to be discussed.

(c) Innovation and Change in Education

A review of the literature on innovation in education has two major limitations for this study and a third limitation that should be considered by all researchers/practitioners concerned with educational development.

Firstly the major thrust on studying and modelling innovation has come from North America [see eg Fullan and Steigelbauer 1991] which may therefore have limited application to this country. Secondly virtually all the literature is schools based [see Nicholls 1983]. Thirdly there is very little
consistency in how the vocabulary and hence the concepts associated with innovation are used [see Morrish 1976 p16 where the author moves from "change" to "innovation" and back to "change" as if they mean the same thing].

This thesis is concerned with conceptualising the terms "responsiveness" "innovation" and "change" by observing the different behaviour of different course teams (and their members) as they were confronted with an idea - the competence-based curriculum - as yet unrealised in reality. The conceptualisation rests upon Plato's epistemology [see Appendix 1 and Chapter 8] and is argued for on the basis of what was observed in the field during the study.

The most frequently quoted definition of innovation is

Innovation is a species of the genus change. Generally speaking, it seems useful to define an innovation as a deliberate, novel, specific change which is thought to be a more efficacious in accomplishing the goals of a system ...... it seems helpful to consider innovations as being planned for, rather than as occurring haphazardly. The element of novelty, implying recombination of parts or a qualitative difference from existing forms, seems quite essential [Miles 1964 p14].

There is thus an emphasis on novelty and improvement. Fullan warns us that there may be a confusion between the terms change and progress and that "Resisting certain changes may be more progressive than adopting
them" [Fullan 1982 p4]. He also states that as not all change proposals are "authentic" ie have real "meaning" some should be regarded as "strange chatteries" rather than "change strategies" [Fullan 1982 p36]. Nisbet has also warned that innovations can be hearses as well as bandwagons [Nisbet 1974 - p34]. Change and novelty do not necessarily go together. Whiteside states that innovation literature indicates "symbolic change" or "pseudo-change" occurring [Whiteside 1978 p34] whereby "substitution or addition avoids any significant alteration of systems" [Morrish 1977 p32]. These substitutions and additions are essentially first order changes which improve the efficiency and effectiveness of what is currently being done without disturbing basic organisational features and roles. Second order changes seek to alter the fundamental ways in which organisations are put together, including goals, structures and roles. "Second order reforms largely fail" [see Fullan 1982 p342]. The Responsive College project was calling for second order changes.

Some writers have related innovation to reform. Smith, Kleine et al use a megaphone metaphor to suggest that innovation, reform and finally utopia form a continuum of visions of change with innovation involving a commitment to means and specific changes, whilst utopia is arrived at by a change of a whole
system to achieve a broad vision or end [see Smith, Kleine et al 1986 p287]. They emphasised that changing specifics involved the power of rationality and a theory of value [Smith Kleine et al 1988 p337] which they designated "practical reasoning" which practitioners needed to implement innovation. They categorised the individuals in their longitudinal studies as either Purists, Pragmatists or Critical Appraisers [Book 1 1986 p119]: the purists being the true believers

The true believers wanted to rid themselves of those undesirable selves. The way to do this was to join a movement, a cause, a revolution and make the world a better place. The process of doing this would produce a more adequate, loved and guilt free personality [Book 1 1986 p118].

Major reforming innovation then, seems to require some driven utopians, uncomfortable about themselves and their place in the world.

Miles, however, suggests that innovators may have less heroic characteristics and might be rebellious, alienated, excessively idealistic (and thus unable to cope with problems of the survival of the innovating unit) emotionally unstable and prone to resentment and rebellion in the face of adversity or disillusionment [Miles 1964 p642].
Not surprisingly innovation and change can give rise to resistance. This resistance can have a positive effect by making the innovator consider their programme more carefully [see Kleine 1976]. Gross et al suggests that resistance can develop through deficiencies in the support provided by those in authority and Gaskin summarises the reasons for resistance as (1) a sense of competence and self-esteem (2) feelings of threat and fear; (3) authoritarianism and dogmatism and (4) a belief in self-fulfilling prophecies [Gaskin 1969].

Research on models and strategies for the introduction of innovation or planned change has led to a variety of conceptualisations. Schein 1980 outlines the process by which individuals and organizations move from one way of operating to another. This process involves unfreezing - changing - and freezing. This movement can be brought about by using one of, or a mixture of, strategies aimed at individuals or groups designated by Chin and Benne as Normative - Re-educative, Empirical Rational or Power-Coercive strategies. Each of these involves a different vision of the educational practitioner [Chin and Benne 1976].
The conflicting views held of, and by, FE Lecturers as professional educators is revealed in this study and the implications of these for managing innovation in an F.E. organization is central to the study.

Other models of innovation adoption have related innovation to systems and organisations. Havelock's Research, Development and Diffusions model has been expanded by Guba and Clark [1967] to show how successful adoption can be achieved. The Social-Interaction Model and Problem-Solving model suggests stages that individuals in their organisational setting move through before they arrive at successful adoption [Havelock 1971]. Schon's Centre - Periphery Model is based upon the requirements that:

1. The innovation to be diffused exists, fully realised, in its essentials, prior to its diffusion.

2. Diffusion is the movement of an innovation from a centre out to its essential users.

3. Directed diffusion is a centrally managed process of dissemination, training and provision of resources and innovations.
This suggests that successful innovations are clearly thought out at the centre and diffusion is a managed process [see Schon 1971].

Finally Berman and McLoughlin in a thorough review of a centre/diffusion approach as exhibited by the management of a Federal programme of educational change in the U.S.A., examine four implementation patterns of which only one resulted in significant change in teacher behaviour. The successful pattern was that of "Mutual adaptation" in which the innovation and institutional setting adapt to each other. This relied on four important mutual adaptation strategies but "project outcomes depended more upon the characteristics of the projects setting them as any other factor" [McLaughlin and Berman 1975 p9]. They outlined the ideal adaptive [school] system as having 3 main elements:

(1) the response to external pressures for change is pro-active;

(2) internal demand for change is continually stimulated and considered legitimate;

(3) participation of staff at all levels in the formulation of proposals in response either to external pressure or indigenous demands which
leads to a sense of trust in the organisations willingness to change.

Organisations like this should be responsive to change and innovative in handling change and therefore it was these elements [see chapter 5] which Brown College and other Responsive Colleges claimed to own. The investigation of this claim forms the centre [chapters 6-9] of this Case Study.

The English Educational system has not experienced the amounts of innovation and change apparent from the American literature. The move towards comprehensivisation engaged energies for change through the 1960's and 1970's and a reform of the science curriculum was a major theme in the 1970's and 1980's [see Kelly 1976]. The Humanities curriculum also came in for attention [see Shipman 1974] and one particular innovation "Geography for the Young School Leaver" became the basis for serious research on the process of innovation and curriculum change [see Parsons 1987 and Dalton 1988].

and change has come from the government funded M.S.C., now the Training Agency [TA] and their interest in Youth Training

The point is that MSC has chosen to do things differently and it is F.E. and some other parts of the world of education, that are now following the MSC lead. There may be, on the part of many in F.E., a reluctance to follow, or an irritation sometimes with MSC methods, but increasingly MSC is expected to take the lead to get things done [Tolley 1987 P191].

MSC/TA is the change agent for Further Education in the 1980s and the 1990s and has spent considerable resources on evaluation literature which affirm progress to date and confirm the need for further development and change [see FEU 1987]

The Youth Training Scheme and the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative [T.V.E.I.] in many respects may be seen as first order changes: the restructuring of the system of vocational qualifications in this country and the restructuring of how they may be acquired may be seen as a second order change [Fullan 1982]. At least, the impact of N.V.Qs on an F.E. College should involve second order change unless the College was already highly flexible and responsive.

This research report provides a description and analysis of an educational organization and its
members responding to demands for change. The organization under study had claimed that as a Responsive College the capacity to innovate and change, including change in the goals and roles of its practitioners, was part of its organizational design. The examination of this claim is the central concern of this thesis.

The specific issues of the research will now be stated.

(iv) The research issues

The central issue for this research was the exploration of the ability of a Responsive College to respond to change using the introduction of National Vocational Qualifications as a focus. Thus this thesis seeks to describe -

How a Responsive College of Further Education responded to the idea of a changed system of National Vocational Qualifications and how it initiated and implemented the curriculum innovation necessary for the delivery of that new system of qualifications.

In order to illuminate this issue within the organisational structure and culture of the college a
naturalistic approach was adopted [see chapter 2]; as a result of progressive focusing a range of subordinate issues emerged around which the reporting of the study is organised. These issues are:

(i) Within an examination of the Historical Context - How does a responsive College arise and what was necessary for its success and survival in the education and training system of this country?

(ii) From an organisational perspective - what organisation and cultural characteristics could be identified as defining this Responsive College?

(iii) From its history and organisational form - How do these defining characteristics inhibit or facilitate a Responsive College's response to innovation and change?

and

(iv) How do staff in a Responsive College structure and culture react to reform in programmes of vocational education and training?
Finally as a result of the study the thesis seeks to consider the relationship between "responsiveness", "change" and "innovation" as (i) concepts and (ii) behaviours engaged in by professional practitioners in an educational organisation.

(v) The order of the thesis

Chapters 1 and 2 form Part I
The Introduction to the Study of a Responsive College

Chapters 3, 4, & 5 form Part II
The Historical Context of the Responsive College

Chapters 6, 7, 8 & 9 form Part III
The Responsive College - a Case Study

and Chapter 10 forms Part IV
The Conclusion of the Study
Chapter 2

RESEARCH METHODS

In this chapter I shall discuss: (i) the theoretical orientation of the study; (ii) the research strategy adopted for the study; (iii) the stages in that strategy; (iv) data gathering in the field; (v) the formal instruments adapted to generate data; and (vi) the fieldwork constraints. The chapter ends with (vii) concluding remarks.

(i) Theoretical orientation

An educational researcher dealing with human phenomena has to decide within which of the main research paradigms she and her research are more sympathetically located [see Rist 1977 pp 42-49 for a full discussion].

The first main paradigm may be described as positivistic based on quantitative, experimental nomothetic methods and is associated with the natural sciences. The other main paradigm, on which this study is based, is an alternative paradigm developed from the intellectual tradition of Kant, Weber, Schutz and others. This intellectual tradition is known as phenomenology and the paradigm developed from it in
educational research is referred to as the interpretivist paradigm.

The theoretical perspective which informs this research is phenomenological.¹

This theoretical position has been further developed and refined by researchers in education, who building upon the work of Mead, [see Mead, 1934] have sought to explore the inner world of the "me" as disclosed by the "I". Such exploration has helped to reveal the symbolic meanings attached by individuals to objects² and ideas [see eg Hargreaves, Hester and Mellor 1975] and how these symbolic meanings arise out of and affect their interaction with others. Researchers who take account of symbolic interactionism and a phenomenological theoretical framework carry out interpretivist research.

The interpretivist researcher seeks to explore and describe the social world she is studying and come to an understanding of it by gathering up the understandings of the other participants. These are available through qualitative data ie data in which people "reveal in their own words their view of their entire life, or part of it, or some other aspect about themselves." [Bogdon and Taylor 1975 p6].
Such data is likely to be available and appropriately recorded in an ethnographic study, in which the researcher observes a social group with a sense of wonder and discovery. Ethnographers are usually concerned to study the social group as it is, as undisturbed as possible by their presence, in the belief that this naturalistic inquiry will give them access to meanings and understandings in everyday use which more interventionist approaches might obscure.

Thus interpretivism, naturalistic inquiry, ethnography and symbolic interactionism are the approaches used within the phenomenological philosophy which is viewed by this researcher as the more theoretically compelling philosophy for educational research.

Techniques for data gathering within this framework were eclectic in order to disclose more completely what may be revealed through this interpretivist approach.

The remainder of this chapter deals with the process of the research.
Having decided to undertake a Case Study of the FE College in which she was working it was necessary for the researcher to consider how best to observe and, if possible, theorise about a complex dynamic social situation "over which the investigator has little or no control" [Yin 1989 p20]. A Case Study is a form of research aimed at describing a specific situation; it is not a prescriptive methodology in itself but rather an umbrella term for a family of research methods having in common the decision to focus an inquiry around an instance . . . a systematic investigation of a specific instance [Nisbet and Watt 1984 p74]

The systematic investigation took the form of an illuminative evaluation [see Parlett and Hamilton 1981] in which the researcher took an ethnographic approach [see Hammersley 1974] to achieve a non-disturbing naturalistic inquiry [see Guba 1974]

The research throughout the study was interpretivist building up a picture of the instance under inquiry based on the data gathered. This approach should not need legitimating but it may be helpful if it is justified here in terms of the purposes of this particular study. There have been case studies on organisations and on educational innovations which have been concerned to measure in a positivistic way
changes and outcomes; but as Ball states

Studies of educational innovation have failed, in general, to take account either of the perspectives of the teachers who are involved, or the process of social interaction through which the meanings of an innovation are exchanged and negotiated. [Ball 1981 p237].

The researcher's concern in the present study was to observe, from her position as a member of staff, the College's reaction to the changes implicit in the developments of National Vocational Qualifications. As the changes were not specified in advance, and indeed could not be, any attempt to impose a positivistic measure would have distorted the nature of the situation under examination. Ethnography was the most appropriate method for the gathering up of information in the non-pre-ordinate way required. Thus like Garfinkel's students in their homes [see Garfinkel 1967 p37-38] the researcher had to divest herself of her normal role in the field (and its assumptions) and consciously adopt another one - that of social anthropologist.

The divesting of the "Domain Assumptions" [see Gouldner 1971] would not only facilitate a greedy gathering of information in an unfiltered way, it would also allow the researcher to take a new view of her previously taken-for-granted organisation.
The consequences of adopting a different social status in the world can be very uncomfortable [see Rosenham 1973] or even extremely dangerous; [see Patrick 1973] but it is this possibility of glimpsing other worlds in our familiar world that gives phenomenology its power to generate new ways of knowing and thus new knowledge. It shows us

that ideas as well as man are socially located. .. It rejects the pretence that thought occurs in isolation from the social context within which particular men think about particular things [Berger 1963 p129]

As it was the ideas of the other participants in the social system of the College with which the researcher was concerned, a phenomenological, naturalistic ethnographic approach seemed to be the only appropriate way of getting access to these ideas - more formal approaches would have disturbed and destroyed what the researcher was hoping to explore.

Within this context the systematic framework of illuminative evaluation was used which involved the researcher in the five stages discussed in the next section.

(iii) The five stages of the illuminative evaluation

Parlett and Hamilton [1981] describe three steps in
the illuminative evaluation process. These are observation, further inquiry, and a search for explanation. These have been expanded in this research report to five stages which are stated and discussed here to give the reader as complete an account as possible of the progress of the research.

The stages discussed are:

(1) the setting up of the study
(2) open ended exploration
(3) the focused enquiry
(4) the interpretive phase
(5) the reporting phase

The place of each of these in the study will now be described.

(1) the setting up of the study occurred when the researcher, (a) having attended an F.E.U. Conference on Competence Based Education in February 1988 and (b) having attended College meetings which culminated in a document being produced outlining what would have to be done in the next two years by the College to meet the challenge of N.V.Qs, (c) decided to observe the College, responding to that challenge, between Sept 1988 and Dec 1990, as a study for an M.Phil. thesis. The researcher negotiated access to the institution.
for the purpose of the study by gaining the permission and co-operation of the Principal of the College and less formally, by enjoying the co-operation of all other colleagues at every level in the organisation.

(2) A period of open-ended exploration then followed between September 1988 and June 1989 during which a questionnaire was distributed to all the full-time teaching staff, [see Appendix 2] interviews and observations were recorded and documents were reviewed. Concept mapping was also attempted.

In order to systematically analyse the data collected the constant comparison method advocated by Glaser and Strauss was used. [see Glaser and Strauss 1967] This method consists of constantly comparing information from different sources and groups in the field of study in order to generate categories and, after further comparisons, detailed concepts and their properties. These, when linked together, should form a grounded theory on the area under investigation. This grounded theory is the result of theoretical sampling which is the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects codes and analyzes his data and decides what to collect next week and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges . . . The initial decisions are not based on a theoretical framework [Glaser and Strauss p45]
Thus the period of open ended exploration involved the researcher in gathering data and reviewing and analyzing that data in order to find recurring concepts and themes that would indicate which were the main emerging issues for the focused inquiry stage.5

(3) The focused inquiry phase from September 1989 to December 1990 allowed the researcher to concentrate on the course teams and units of the organisational structure [eg Section Heads see Chapter 6] which had emerged as significant for the research. However, data from all sources continued to be collected eg Minutes of College Committee Meetings, Documents published by F.E.U., interview data and ethnographic data from the daily comments of colleagues in the Staff Lounge or at the college photo-copier. A second questionnaire with the Organisational Profile Instrument attached [see Appendices 3 and 4 and Section V of this chapter] was circulated to all full-time members of the teaching staff in September 1989 and the Heller F.O.C.U.S. instrument (see section (v)) was used with specific groups of staff. During this period the researcher was thus living in two different but essentially compatible research camps - that of a continuing theoretical sampler, in order to progressively focus on the more specific issues for the research as they arose; and that of ethnographer
determined not to miss any data that could be of relevance to subsequently emerging categories or properties. Glaser and Strauss suggest that one precludes the other.

"Part of the sociologists problem about which groups to select is the problem of how to go about choosing particular groups for theoretically relevant data, not an ethnographer trying to get the fullest data on a group, with or without a preplanned research design" [Glaser and Strauss 1967 p58]

For this researcher at this period the roles overlapped.

(4) The interpretive phase occurred just before leaving the field [as a researcher]. As a member of staff it was possible for the researcher to check interpretations of the organisational and individual responses after the formal fieldwork was concluded, i.e. after December 1990. During the autumn term between September and December 1990 the researcher was able to clarify and codify in greater detail the judgements which the College and its staff were making about appropriate changes for N.V.Qs, was able to gather further supporting data for these interpretations and conceptualisations, and where necessary, amend them.

(5) The reporting phase took place between January 1991 and October 1992 when the research was written up
under the guidance of an academic supervisor.

Before leaving this section one further point needs to be made. The research did follow the stages stated here, but outlining them, as above, may give the stages a spurious discreteness -

Obviously . . . the stages overlap and functionally interrelate. The transition from stage to stage, as the investigations unfold, occurs as problem areas become progressively clarified and re-defined. The course of the study cannot be charted in advance [Parlett & Hamilton 1981 p18]

. . . nor perhaps can the course of the study be rendered absolutely in written form subsequently. These stages were certainly experienced by the researcher - but more clearly with hindsight than was apparent at the time.

(vi) **Data gathering in the field**
The two main approaches used to gather data in the field were: (i) observations and (ii) interviews.

(i) **Observations**

(a) Participant Observation

The central method for gathering data for this case study was that of participant observation.6
There is a natural association between ethnography and participant observation [see Malinowski 1961, Hammersley 1979] Participant observation was also a natural role for the 'researcher - as - ethnographer' to engage in as she was already present in and part of the situation which she was observing so . . . .

From the start every opportunity was taken to talk to as many other participants as possible, structuring the informal interviews when the opportunity arose, to probe what they thought and knew. [Haffenden 1989 p34]

The practical problems associated with participant observation have been summarised by T S Simey as 'Getting In, Staying In and Getting Out' [Simey quoted in Meredith 1979 p48] The researcher was already accepted in the situation in her role as lecturer so "Getting In" was not a problem.

"Staying In" refers to getting the acceptance of other participants in order to gain access to their natural thoughts and behaviour as apposed to performances given for observers known to be observers. Whilst the researcher was part of the organizational culture to which she was seeking access, she was also identified within this culture as a T.V.E.I. co-ordinator and the R.O.A/N.R.O.V.A. co-ordinator. Thus she may have been associated with a positive attitude towards innovation which may have affected the behaviours displayed for
her observation. Where this is known to be the case it is acknowledged in the text.

"Getting Out" was not the problem of leaving a field gradually or suddenly once sufficient data had been gathered as it has been for other researchers [see eg Parker 1974 or Patrick 1973] It was rather a problem of being unable to leave the field because it was the researchers place of work and the study of the organisation and its members had become a central part of the observer's life - "getting out" of the research role was almost a bereavement process which required considerable readjustment.

Other problems associated with the validity and reliability of Participant Observation will be dealt with in the concluding section of this chapter.

(b) Formal Observations - at the request of the observer

As well as the day-to-day observations that occurred because the researcher was present at the time, other observations [usually of meetings] took place at the formal request of the observer. In these instances she was there as an observer rather than as a member of staff who would normally attend such meetings, eg section heads meetings or a governors meeting. These
were usually pleasant experiences as she was often treated as a guest ie given the best biscuits or referred to obliquely in a joking manner eg "lets hope she missed that last bit". Nearly always the comment was some version of "You must have something better to do than sit through this lot". How much the normal progress of the meetings was disturbed by the observers request and attendance is difficult to judge - but those meetings attended on a regular basis eg Boards of Study meetings or BTEC committee meetings soon seemed to ignore the visitor.

(c) Formal classroom observations with a schedule

Some of the teachers from each of the three course teams which emerged as significant for the study were observed in their teaching roles in classrooms or workshops. A schedule was used to guide observation and to facilitate a simple comparison between the three groups. The schedule was developed from a reading of the literature on the competence based curriculum and an analysis of the interviews, questionnaires and other data available on the teachers concerned. The schedule is given in appendix 5.
(ii) Interviews - Semi-structured interviews and conversations

Over the period of the research some eighty interviews were carried out, at the researcher's request, based on a semi-structured interview schedule [see Appendix 6]. These interviews represented either a targeted whole population eg all the management team were interviewed and all members of the three significant course teams were interviewed; or a (random) sample (based on opportunity) of a population eg 18 out of the 26 Section Heads were interviewed; or an opportunity sample involving lecturers who were free at a particular time and agreed to be interviewed eg the lecturers in the researchers section and the lecturers from other sections who worked in the same large staff room. A large number of the Electrical Engineering lecturers were interviewed as some were part of the "innovative" course team, [see chapter 8] some were part of a BTEC National Diploma team who were approached as a group and who agreed to individual interviews, [these formed a comparison group for the innovators], and some were part of an HNC/D Electrical Engineering team of which the researcher was a member.

Many other members of staff were interviewed face-to-face in an informal way, ie without the interviewer
consciously working her way through the schedule, but
illicitling information about the same concerns
relevant for the study; and indeed often more
revelatory information emerged in these circumstances
as by allowing the "conversation" to develop the
researcher found that the interviewees revealed other
agendas and concerns.

Wragg states that

Depth interviews require considerable skill . . .
Consequently it is not something which can be
undertaken lightly or by anyone not well informed
about procedures or hazards . . . Yet sensitively
and skilfully handled, the unstructured interview
. . . can produce information which would not
otherwise emerge [Wragg 1984 p185].

The researcher would certainly agree with both of
Wraggs points. Firstly the cultivation of the skills
necessary to become a good interviewer takes insight
and practice; both were provided by the methods
programme for research students in the Department of
Educational Studies at Surrey University and this,
with other Open Learning material provided by the
Department gave the researcher a grounding in the
issues important for non-directive interviewing.
Secondly, the information gathered from interviews was
often surprisingly revelatory and left the interviewer
much to reflect on. It was often the information
added by the respondent after the formal termination
of the "interview" or "conversation" which produced the most important data.

The willingness of colleagues at all levels in the organisation to give up their time to an experience which

confronts the interviewee with the necessity to conceptualize and articulate experiences within their commonsense reality that are normally unquestioned and unnoticed features of their every-day life [Ball 1980]

shows how concerned those in education are to discuss and reflect on issues of innovation and change.

The notes from the targeted semi-structured interviews and the notes made as soon as possible after the "opportunity" unstructured interviews were reviewed and coded on a weekly basis and entered into a Research Design File. In the early days the reviewing and coding were for developing categories and their properties later, after saturation, they were for confirmation.

(5) Concept Maps

In the initial stages of the research, in order to explore respondents concepts in a non-directive way, the semi-structured interviews were concluded with a
request that the interviewee draw a concept map [see Appendix 7] for (i) National Vocational Qualifications and for the (ii) Organisational Structure of the College as it supports a Course which they nominated or which we had been discussing. Later in the research as the issue of Quality emerged as an important concept the members of the three Course Team groups whose meetings I attended were asked at these meetings to draw Concept Maps for all three concepts if they had not already done so. Also the whole cohort of new members of the Full Time staff [the staff induction group] were asked at their last induction meeting in June 1990 to draw maps for those concepts. Whilst these maps were often not a useful source of data, because without prompting respondents often found it impossible to draw anything, they were particularly revelatory for the view of the organisation which people held.

Thus the maps were not analysed in detail [see Hobrough 1987] in this piece of research but they provided important confirmatory evidence of the "ignor(e)ance" with which many of the staff were operating. Where they were a powerful source of information they have been acknowledged as such in the text.
(v) **Formal Instruments**

(1) **Questionnaires**

In September 1989 and September 1990 in order to gather some data to indicate the views of the whole College at the time (ie all the full-time lecturing staff below management level), questionnaires were circulated to all teaching staff - a different one in each year [see appendices 2 and 3]. These were designed to facilitate a comparison over time and to reveal any indication of a clear change having occurred in how lecturers managed their class time; or in their perceptions of the implication and importance of a competence based curriculum. They also gave a snapshot of the staff's understanding of "curriculum" [1989] and "quality" [1990] during the period of the study.

These questionnaires involved a mixture of pre-coded and open-ended questions and were useful as confirmatory evidence for the issues emerging from the observations and interviews. Both questionnaires were piloted with a small group of social science lecturers. Minor adjustments were made to the first questionnaire based on the feedback. However, no changes were made to the second questionnaire.
(2) Organisational Profile Instrument

By the summer of 1990 the researcher, through progressive focusing, had become aware that some measurement of the culture of the organisation was needed to confirm the picture which was emerging from the interview and observation data; a picture very different to that which was given in the literature about the dynamically innovative culture of Colleges designed to be responsive [see chapter 5]. Thus an instrument developed by Plant and published in "Managing Change and Making it Stick" [Plant 1987 p103-p111] was adapted in order to shed more light on the Organisational Culture issue [see Appendix 4]. The concept of anarchic rather than organic culture which emerged from this instrument (circulated with the second questionnaire in September 1990) proved to be very helpful in understanding the response of the College to N.V.Qs. It also helped to illuminate the findings of another pre-ordinate research instrument that was used in the research - The Heller Focus Instrument.

(3) The Heller Framework for Organisation Change and Underlying Style (F.O.C.U.S.) instrument

In examining an institution's response to innovation it is not always easy to be clear if the response
indicates a reaction to that particular innovation — or to innovation and change generally. As the research developed it was useful to have an instrument designed to measure the individuals disposition towards Change or Resistance to Change and this in a Noisy or Quiet way, and their perceptions of their organisation on these same continua. This could generate data on such positions as "the College is very innovatory and so am I" or "the College is very resistant to change and so am I" or "the College is very innovatory but I am resistant" etc. It would also allow the researcher to make some judgements about their disposition to change and their attitude to this particular innovation. The F.O.C.U.S. instrument developed by Harold Heller and published in "Helping Schools Change — A Handbook for leaders in education" 1985 again provided useful confirmatory evidence to support the data generated by the main illuminative strategy of the research. [see Appendix 8].

(vi) Fieldwork Constraints

The major constraint experienced by the researcher was that of engaging in the dual roles of lecturer/colleague and ethnographer/evaluator. I was fortunate to have access to a rich variety of
behaviour to study because I was seen as a colleague — one carrying out a research project, certainly (as was made clear in the letters that accompanied the College-wide questionnaires) — but therefore as an observer that could be trusted. Trusted, presumably, to give their account of the situation.

Surprisingly little has been written about the ethics of social research, [see Homan 1991], other than comments in published pieces of research about the vague unease that has been felt by researchers as they left the scene. Flinders has recently examined the ethical issues in qualitative research particularly the relationship between the participant observer and his subjects.

When does research constitute an imposition? . . . questions of this sort place a premium on human judgement in contrast to regulation. They "the researchers" go well beyond obtaining the proper signatures on a standardised consent form. [Flinders p112 1992]

Whilst there was no deception (of which the researcher is aware) involved in this fieldwork role, the trust accorded to the researcher as a fellow professional may have allowed her access to information unlikely to have been disclosed to anyone else. If this is so, then the responsibility for accurate analysis and reporting is considerable and is recognised as such and perhaps reflected in the length of this thesis.
The purpose of this chapter has been to give an account of the processes engaged in by the researcher in order that she might explore and describe the field under investigation. The interpretivist approach used here, with an emphasis on "meanings" and "understandings" [which must include those of the researcher], and the method of participant observation with its emphasis on being part of what had been observed has led to the "objective" "scientific" status of similar research being challenged. The pro-active defence and legitimation of this approach for gathering human data can be found in the literature referred to in this chapter. With regard to this particular study the researcher would make two points in response to challenges about "objectivity".

One is to point out that the researcher made a conscious attempt at triangulation via the use of different methods and instruments ie observations and interviews, questionnaires and conversations, a diary and pre-ordinate instruments all of which contributed to the picture which is to follow and which were used to test out each other before the researcher decided on what picture to present. The second is to argue that all research involves some degree of commitment rather than complete neutrality. As Jackson and
Marsden say

The very choice of any research project . . . inevitably presumes an act of judgement in which personal values and personal history play their own . . . hidden role. The true science lies in recognising this. [Jackson and Marsden P17 1966]

With qualitative methods, the researcher is necessarily involved in the lives of the subjects as his/her concern is to allow the subjects to speak for themselves. A degree of empathy is therefore necessary in order to present their picture mediated through, but not organised by, the research design.

To try to catch the interpretive process by remaining aloof as a so-called "objective" observer and refusing to take the role of the acting unit is to risk the worst kind of subjectivism - the objective observer is likely to fill in the process of interpretation with his own surmises in place of catching the process as it occurs in the experience of the acting unit which uses it. [Blumer 1969 p86]

Finally the account of the research methodology does not render the puzzlement and anxiety experienced by the researcher as she gathered often confusing and down-right contradictory data. The account of the field which constitutes the heart of this report is a synthesis arrived at after much reflection, analysis and even agonizing on the part of the researcher whose aim was to render an accurate account of what was going on in a Further Education College during the period of the study. The interpretive approach was
the correct way to arrive at the real picture. In Blumer's words:

The metaphor that I like is that of lifting the veils that obscure or hide what is going on. The task of scientific study is to lift the veils that cover the area of group life that one proposes to study. The veils are not lifted by substituting in whatever degree preformed images for first-hand knowledge. The veils are lifted by getting close to the arena and by digging deep into it through careful study. Schemes of methodology that do not encourage or allow this betray the cardinal principle of respecting the nature of one's empirical world. [Blumer 1969, p38]

This account of the methodology of the study has been a description of the researcher's attempt to respect the empirical world, and the actors that constitute part of that world.

1 A phenomenological researcher is concerned with understanding human behaviour from the actors own frame of reference. "The "forces" that move human beings, as human beings rather than simply as human bodies . . . . are "meaningful stuff". They are internal ideas, feelings and motives" [Douglas J. Understanding Everyday Life: Toward the Reconstruction of Sociological Knowledge 1970 Chicago: Aldine P(ix)].


3 Ethnography is defined and discussed in most texts on research methods. The definition which the researcher finds most appropriate for her view of ethnography throughout the research and in this thesis has been well stated by McNeil thus -

The ethnographer's central concern is to provide a description that is faithful to the world-view of the participants in the social context being described.
Explanations of social action may emerge from this description, but that is not the primary purpose. The test of its validity is whether the subjects of the research accept it as a true account of their way of life. The researcher must not impose any prior assumptions on the subject matter, and should allow any theory or hypothesis to emerge from what is observed and recorded. It is in this that the great strength of ethnographic research lies. Behaviour is observed in its natural setting, and it is possible to make a study of social process, rather than being limited to the snapshot or series of snapshots of the survey researcher. The emphasis is on describing the meaning of the situation for those involved in it. What makes the work scientific is the care taken to avoid error, to be thorough and exhaustive, and to check and recheck all findings. [McNeil P - Research Methods Routledge London & New York 2nd Ed. 1990 p83].

4 Gouldner defines "domain assumptions" as the background assumptions applied to members of a single domain. Thus the researcher had to try to strip herself of her taken-for-granted view of teaching/teachers in Further Education Colleges and study the College and its goings-on as an unknown way of life. The methods programme at Surrey University facilitated this.

5 The researcher would like to record just how uncomfortable the open-ended exploration and the early parts of the focused enquiry can be. Glaser and Strauss assure us that "Potential theoretical sensitivity is lost when the sociologist commits himself exclusively to one specific preconceived theory . . . for then he becomes doctrinaire: [Glaser and Strauss 1967 p46] Whilst this thesis hopefully evidences that it is possible to discover grounded theory as they argue, the period of exploration (and vaguely focused inquiry) from September 1988 to September 1989 was an anxious though, as subsequent reviews of the research diary shows, productive period.

Progressive focusing, which allows for the focused inquiry does have its own dramatic momentum - but only once the researcher has found the confidence to trust the data to produce the categories and concepts upon which the method relies. The initial production of categories and concepts happened between June 1988 and Oct 1988 but the researcher did not abandon a generally ethnographic approach until nearly the end of the fieldwork, through the fear that an item may be ignored and lost which could have contributed
something significant to the research. This holistic concern can, however, be very exhausting.

Participant observation is listed here as the method of data collection that helps define the naturalistic nature of the study. Ball states clearly that "participant observation should not be regarded as a research method ... Participant Observation is best understood as a research strategy". [Ball SJ Participant Observation - Research Strategy University of Sussex paper 1981 p1] as it encompasses a whole variety of techniques.

"'Participant observation' has always been the central method of ethnographers. It is often combined with data from other sources, especially informal or unstructured interviewing. In fact, the phrase 'participant observation' is sometimes used instead of 'ethnography' or 'fieldwork', but this is misleading. Participant observation is just one method of collecting data, not a complete strategy for social research."


This argument is outside the scope of this study - Participant Observation is listed here as a method for convenience rather than as a challenge to the view of Ball and others.

See also "The Verification and Application of Participant Observation Case Study" by Ball S J, a paper presented at the B.E.R.A. Conference Cardiff 2-4 September 1980 - for a clear defence of the importance of participant observation, the interpretivist paradigm and Case Studying in acquiring relevant knowledge of human behaviour.
PART II

The Historical Context of the Responsive College
Chapter 3


This chapter will after: (i) an introduction; (ii) describe the evolution of further education and the development of the maintained colleges before 1944; (iii) consider the defining influences upon these colleges traceable to that formative period; (iv) examine developments in the maintained sector of Further Education from 1944 to 1970 and (v) conclude with comments on the culture of these institutions by the 1970's.

Introduction

"Perhaps every system of public education must have its forgotten sector. In England and Wales such a sector is Further Education, the name used to subsume the variety of provision . . . for the full-time and part-time education of those who have left school (whether at statutory leaving age or later) other than that conducted in universities or colleges of education." [Fowler 1973 p180].
This chapter is concerned with exploring the background to a sector of education which even by 1970 could only be defined in terms of what it is not, ie not schooling nor Higher Education, and on the assumption that it is usually forgotten.

Whether or not we fully agree with Stephens' assertion that

We are all imprisoned by the historical experiences of the country in which we live. What we may or may not do is determined by the attitudes and institutions which have developed over the centuries. [Stephens 1990 p14],

in order to understand the present debate on vocational education and training it is necessary to examine the way in which the present "system" for delivering such education and training has developed over the past 150 years or so. Such an examination reveals the hybrid nature of Further Education as it sits, often uneasily and uncertainly, between full time schooling for children and full time Higher Education for an adult elite. It is often part of the transition process from one status and experience to the other. Further Education has also been seen as a compensation for one and an apology for the other.

Pursuing the history of Further Education is no simple task as it has to be traced through the history of
Technical and Scientific Education [see Cotgrove 1958 or Venables 1955], or through the History of Industrial Development [see Roderick and Stephens 1978] or through the history of adult education [see Stephens 1990]. It is often marginalised within the mainstream history of education eg "many important aspects are necessarily left aside - the slow evolution for instance of a system of technical education" [Simon 1965 p13] unless referred to as an adjunct to the main issues of the development of full time schooling in this country. What emerges then, is a picture of Further Education as a repository for the problems and deficiencies not resolved in other parts of the education system and as an entity only needing to be examined when a rhetoric of crisis about education and its relationship with other parts of the social and economic system becomes prominent.

Much of this section will deal with technical education which was the term used for what we would now call vocational education (see chapter 1 and chapter 4) in the 19th century ie education related to work. Indeed many FE Colleges until recently were called technical colleges. The college which forms the focus of this study was opened as a Technical College in 1952.

In view of the economic importance and the general social significance of technical education, which is now widely admitted, the
absence of a detailed authoritative study surely reflects the long continued low status and lack of prestige of technical education in this country. [Venables 1955 p14]

Such an authoritative study is still missing. What the next section of this chapter will do is trace from the available sources the development of this little studied system.

(ii) The evolution of Further Education and of the maintained Colleges 1820 - 1944

The Colleges of Further Education maintained by Local Education Authorities (LEAs) under central government regulations evolved from a variety of 19th Century enthusiasms, concerns and values. Their history could only by fully understood within a detailed account and analysis of the development of public sector education in that century. Such detailed history of education is beyond the scope of this study [see Simon 1965 and Simon 1974 for such a history of education in that period]. This section will indicate the major agencies that shaped further education which, in the 19th Century was usually identified as technical education, because it was information and skills of a mainly technical nature which were sought for in part time education outside the schools and ancient universities.
(a) The Mechanics Institutes

The organisations which could justly be said to be the forerunners of technical colleges were the Mechanics institutes which emerged from a concern in the early years of the 19th Century, mainly from the artisans themselves, that artisans (skilled workers) should develop technical skills required in employment. The "Institutes" as they became known "developed from 1823 onwards and by 1850 had a membership of well over half a million in some 610 institutes". [Argles 1964 p7] These institutes are significant not only because many of them evolved into institutions which are to this day delivering Further Education eg Leeds Technical College [see Venables pp47-68 where he lists and traces the transformation of organisations still delivering Further Education] but also because they displayed two defining characteristics of Further Education ie "voluntarism" (self-help without compulsion) and "individualism" associated with the self-help movement of Samuel Smiles [see Smiles 1877] -

There is a tradition which says that investment in child education benefits the country, whilst that in adult education is assumed to advantage only the individual [Stephens 1990 p80]

- a tradition now powerfully resurrected in the 1990's.
This emphasis on technical and scientific information as the way forward for the individual which will fortuitously benefit society and the economy can be seen in the Rules of the Leeds Mechanics Institute. When it was established in 1824 the rules stated that

The object of the Mechanics Institute is to supply, at a cheap rate, to the different classes of the community, the advantage of instruction in the various branches of science which are of practical application to their several trades or occupations. Such instruction cannot fail to prove important use to every working man who is employed in any mechanical or chemical operation; and the scientific instruction which will give a more thorough knowledge of their arts, will greatly tend to improve the skill and practice of these classes of men who are essentially conducive to the prosperity of this large manufacturing town. [quoted in Hole 1969 pp54-55].

Thus individualism, voluntarism and "vocationalism", ie making certain classes in society more efficient as employees, by adding understanding and knowledge to their work tasks, were very much the original concerns of the Mechanics Institutes movement. There was a demand for an element of liberal education also, but this could degenerate into diversion rather than development.

There is a natural tendency in most young people to the amusing rather than the useful, and these Institutes have constantly to guard against the danger of becoming more places of amusement to the exclusion of their more important objects [Hole 1860 p57]
The mode of attendance at the institutes ie part time and after working hours, also became part of the FE tradition despite the difficulties that such attendance entailed in the 19th Century when the working day could be twelve hours long.

Accounts of the Mechanics Institutes also reveal the dilemma between providing education for "The creation of intellectual pleasures and refined amusements tending to the general elevation of the character" [Hudson 1969 p54] and training "to exploit the workers technical and inventive powers" [Simon 1976 p158] for the good of the economy - in effect the tension between education and training.

Historians of education have also seen another important role for the education and training which took place in the Mechanics Institute, that of instructing the workers "in the right political and economic theories and to provide suitable distractions to divert their mind from independent political activity" [Simon 1976 p158].

Before moving on from the Mechanics Institutes it is interesting to note that whilst many of them survived to form the basis of some contemporary F.E. institutions (as already mentioned) they did so in a form very different from the model created by their
working class originators. For example, The London Mechanics Institution founded in 1823 by, and for working mechanics and tradesmen (with the radical reformers of that day) gradually and inevitably had the control taken away from them by "radical" politicians like Francis Place who argued that founding a stable institution simply on the subscription of working men would not be possible and opened the subscription list to all the notable members of the Radical group i.e. the middle class. A paid official was appointed to oversee the Institute "and the Institute of which the working mechanics were true originators slipped from their control" [see Simon 1974 pp154-155]. This happened to the majority of the Mechanics institutes and is part of a clearly discernable tendency in education for humble self help institutions set up to benefit the needy and/or worthy to be taken over by a socially/politically superior group, and away from the originators and their interests and needs - e.g. the original Grammar Schools and the ancient Universities.

This "social take-over" weakened rather than strengthened what was offered to the Institutes' students -

The classes of natural philosophy and chemistry (i.e. science) have long discontinued owing to the persons attending the establishment representing a different grade of society. The working
mechanics who generally prefer the sterner studies have given place to others who attend the dancing and the essay and discussion classes, as more congenial to their tastes [Hudson 1969 p98].

By the time that the Mechanics Institutes declined in the 1880s (during which period some had become closely linked with particular industries) several commentators had alerted governments to the need for some cohesive scheme for technical education in England based on clearly defined aims and objectives. [see Simon 1965 p166].

(b) Economic decline and government concern

From 1851 onwards the concern over "technical education" was being linked with England's economic performance. Whilst the Great Exhibition in London in 1851 initially led to some considerable complacency about the stage of our industrial development, by the time of the Paris Exhibition of 1867 this complacency had nearly evaporated. The Paris exhibition allowed a direct comparison with developments in other industrial countries especially with Germany and America, countries with which we have continued to compare ourselves when seeking to change, or implement new, aspects of Further Education policy (See Institute of Manpower Studies 1984).
Roderick and Stephens amongst others have seen the 1851 exhibition as "the beginnings of State intervention in the affairs of science technology and industry" [Roderick and Stephens 1978 p4] and generally the 1850s and 1860s can be seen as a time when it was recognised that "the diffusion of scientific education is an absolutely essential condition of industrial progress" [Huxley quoted in Roderick and Stephens 1978 p7]. Thus a view was formed that there is and would continue to be a clear relationship between educational development - of a particular vocational type - and economic and industrial growth and the view that the lack of one would inhibit the development of the other.

During this period government interest in Further Education as it then existed can be seen in the setting up by the Government of the Department of Science and Art in 1858, within the Board of Trade. This department, with the Society of Arts (which had established a union of mechanics institutes and in 1856 and organised examinations and awards for these institutions) and the newly instituted City of Guilds of London Institute for the Advancement of Technical Education instituted a system of grants classes and examinations still present in FE provision today.
The Guilds classes were for persons engaged in industrial operations, artisans, apprentices, foremen, managers and manufacturers .......... they were awarded certificates and prizes .......... regarded as diplomas of proficiency which enabled operatives to obtain better employment and higher remuneration. [Roderick and Stephens 1978 p68]

These classes and diplomas led to a considerable growth in the numbers of those attending a variety of private/voluntary evening classes at a variety of institutions in a variety of buildings - the result of an essentially laissez-faire approach to the "problem" of technical/vocational education. Indeed Cole, Secretary of the Department of Science and Art at that time stated

The work thus done is mainly done by the public itself on a self-supporting basis as far as possible, whilst the State avoids the error of continental systems, of taking the principal and dominant part in education. [Cole 1884 p285]

After 1870 there were evening classes provided under the code of the School Boards also: so that in effect the interference in an ad hoc system between 1850 and roughly 1880 came from (i) examining and validating bodies setting down standards for students to meet in their examinations and from (ii) the government providing money in the form of grants for those individuals and/or groups/institutions who, by providing courses, allowed students to acquire sufficient information and understanding to enter for those examinations.
After a period of economic recession, at the end of the 1870's a Royal Commission on Technical Instruction was set up in 1881 "to inquire into the Instruction of the Industrial Classes of certain Foreign Countries in Technical and other subjects for the purpose of comparison with that of corresponding classes in this Country" [Royal Commission on Technical Instruction 1882 (the Samuelson Report)]. The Report reflected the recurring concern with the apparently greater success of our industrial competitors as well as stating what seemed to have been taken for granted ie that technical education was for the working class and its purpose was to make them more efficient workers so that England would have a more efficient and prosperous economy.

Whilst this Royal Commission "did not lead to very bold conclusions (it) did provide a clear analysis of a very complex situation" [Ashby 1958 vol V p795]. However, the commission indirectly led, via the National Association for the promotion of Technical Education, to the Technical Instruction Act of 1899.

(c) Government Involvement

Under the Technical Instruction Act of 1899 the local authorities were enabled to raise a penny rate in support of technical instruction, the curricula of the classes and the colleges so established to be
subject to the approval of the Science and Art Department. Not all authorities took advantage of this Act but by 1898 all the counties and county boroughs in England had adopted it and its successors [Argles 1964 p35].

This marks the first involvement of Local Authorities as a providing system for Technical Further Education.

It is also worth noting that the Act defined for the first time in legislation what was meant by technical instruction (and it was instruction not education with which the Act was concerned).

The expression "technical instruction" shall mean instruction in the principles of science and art applicable to industries, and in the application of special branches of science and art to specific industries of employments. It shall not include teaching the practice of any trade or industry or employment [Technical Instruction Act 1889 Section 6].

This indicates the view that vocational education should be about applied theory rather than just narrow skills training for a particular task in industry.

The Act also referred to "the colleges so established" because the first English technical college had been founded at Finsbury by the City and Guilds Institute in 1881 for apprentices, journeymen and foremen, and others engaged during the day in industrial occupations of various kinds, who were desirous of receiving supplementary instruction in the art, practice,
and in the theory and principles of science connected with the industry in which they were engaged [Millis 1925 p61].

City and Guilds were also responsible for setting up The Central Institution intended for the education of technical teachers, engineers and architects and works managers. It was, therefore, one of the first places in the country to teach applied science at a high level [see Argles 1984 p23].

Thus it was during this period, as central and local government became responsible for the provision of further education, that the distinction between instruction and education in the technical/vocational area began to be stated. The distinctions so made were still attached to the social position of those receiving them ie workers needed instruction to perform more effectively (and profitably?) at work whilst those engaged in occupations which eventually became accepted as professions were given a theoretical education to make them authoritative practitioners.

The Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act of 1890 enabled local authorities to use certain sums of money from customs and excise duty which was allocated to them either to relieve the rates or to subsidise technical education.
Gradually this amount of "whisky money" as it became known increased and

Thus the County and County Borough Councils were told - as a member of the House remarked 'to distil wisdom out of whisky, genius out of gin and capacity for business out of beer' [Venables 1955 p22].

These two pieces of legislation gave a major spurt to the development of Technical ie Further Education with many institutions being built specifically for the purpose of teaching adults ie those past elementary school age and in employment; and many other private or voluntary institutes eg the Mechanics Institutes being developed in what was at the end of the Century an expansive period for Further Education.

The highly significant, and contentious Education Act of 1902 [see Simon 1965 Chapter VI and VII for a full discussion of the debate surrounding the Act] resolved the conflict which had grown up between two of these different providers ie purpose built institutions and evening classes attached to elementary schools. In what was now becoming a nationalised and rationalised system of education and training the school boards (responsible since 1870 for the development of elementary education which often included a form of secondary and technical education) were abolished as were the technical instruction committees of the local authorities (set up in the 1889 Technical Instruction
Act) and the Act put all forms of national education under the administration of the county councils and county borough councils.

The new L.E.A.s had to appoint education committees responsible for 'provided' (old school board) schools, for the voluntary schools and for other forms of educational establishments including technical colleges. In addition the L.E.A.s had a duty to consider "the provision as a whole of secondary, further and higher education "Argles 1964 p43-44]. It is important to note that this piece of legislation rationalised resources and provision under a state system and was thus a crucial landmark in the move away from 19th Century Laissez Faire - with regard to who the providers of Further Education would be. It is also interesting that this move had been urged by the Technical Instruction Commission in 1881 as a way of improving Technical Education and by the Bryce Commission on Secondary Education in 1894 as a way of removing "vested interests" which were inhibiting change. These vested interests were the local politicians on the school boards, the trade unions and the supporters of voluntary provision, each concerned to defend and extend their influence upon the emerging system of education.

By 1902 then, much of the structure which we would
recognise for the delivery of maintained Further Education was in place including some colleges which would eventually become part of the Higher Education sector. (The development of the London Polytechnic is well documented in Cotgrove 1958 p60-67 Argles 1964 p39-40).

The original variety of providers in the 19th Century could still be glimpsed in the provision available after the 1902 Act.

In a typical town (in the early years of 20th Century) there might be the following types of further education establishments:

1) Continuation schools (for day release and part-time classes) - These offered a two year general course for school leavers of 13 or 14.

2) Branch technical and commercial schools - These took school leavers (from secondary schools) of fifteen or sixteen or students of the same age from continuation schools.

3) Central technical and commercial schools - These offered courses for students of higher ability who had passed out of 1 or 2 above or who were otherwise qualified for entry.

It will be noticed that at this time what we would now call a college was known as a school. [Argles 1964 p61-62]

Argles goes on to quote from the Board of Education Report for 1908-09 to show that despite the thrust of the 1902 Act

Technical education actually fell into neglect as the Local Education Authorities found themselves compelled to meet (the demands) of the long-neglected requirements ... of Secondary Schools and the training of teachers. [Board of
an example of the needs of FE being squeezed by the seemingly more legitimate or pressing needs of schools or Higher Education.

Although subsequent legislation in 1918 [Education Act 1918, (the Fisher Act)] provided for compulsory continuation schools ie day release for young people at work this was not acted on, and despite being restated in the 1944 Education Act, has still not been formally acted upon. The Reports of various consultative committees (eg the Spens Report 1938) in the period between 1902 and 1944 did not significantly affect the structure of Further Education although there was concern over what was being taught to whom and for what purpose. - [see The Hadow Report 1926 which discussed secondary education for children and adolescence and included the recommendation that they should be encouraged to continue on to further education].

Even the 1944 Education Act which is arguably the most significant Education act this century was essentially "permissive" in its approach to how the L.E.A.s should discharge their responsibilities for FE.

Under section 41 the Act made it
the duty of every local education authority to secure the provision for their area of adequate facilities for further education, that is to say; (i) full time and part-time education for persons over compulsory school age; and (ii) Leisure time occupation in such organised cultural training and recreative activities as are suited to their requirements, for any persons over compulsory school age who are able and willing to profit by the facilities provided for that purpose [Section 41 1944 Education Act]

Section 42 of the Act required local education authorities to co-operate with "other providers" for these purposes and section 53 emphasised the need for adequate facilities for recreation and social and physical training.

As Stephens has pointed out "the amount of freedom of interpretation the legislation allowed has meant a range of levels of commitment by local education authorities to adult education" [Stephen 1990 p42] and, I would argue, further education. Whilst it is true that the New Towns and suburban areas which grew rapidly after the war were provided with custom built institutions for delivering post-16 education and training, school building programmes have tended to have a higher priority and to have been more politically sensitive. Where there have been new building programmes for the colleges since the 1944 Act they have often come with the "academic drift" [see Hall 1990 p110] towards higher level courses and, as often then follows, the regrading of the
institution out of Further Education and into Higher Education. [see Chapter 4]

(iii) **The defining influences on Further Education Colleges**

In the last section we have traced the development of what is now known as Further Education and in particular the gradual evolution towards the L.E.A. maintained colleges one of which forms the centre of this study.

We now turn our attention from how the maintained colleges came into existence towards how they are still defined in relation to the other significant elements referred to in that brief history. These are:

(a) **Industry and Employers**

(b) **Working Class Movements**

(c) **Other Parts of the Education System**

(d) **The Examining Boards**

(a) **Industry and Employers**

The presumed link between a technically skilled workforce and an expanding economy has already been discussed in the previous section. "The main argument of the supporters of technical and scientific
instruction (in the 19th Century) was its contribution to industrial prosperity". [Cotgrove 1958 p19]. However, it must be recognised that this linkage of education and industrial development came after the great leap of the industrial revolution which was achieved by industrialists who were not part of the traditionally and classically educated establishment.

Indeed they were not formally educated at all. The Industrial Revolution was achieved by the enthusiasm of the essentially self-educated.

Josiah Wedgwood, the youngest of a family of 13 left school at 8 to work as a potter ... John Metcalfe, James Brindley, Thomas Telford, John Rennie, George Stephenson all began their careers as ordinary mechanics and learned as they went along: picking up ideas in the workshops and on the new construction sites of developing capitalist industry [Simon 1974 p32].

Even Roderick and Stephens acknowledge at the end of their study of "Britains industrial decline" [Roderick and Stephens 1978 p160] that "A Scientific relationship between education and productivity has yet to be established". [Roderick and Stephens 1978 p149]

Indeed some commentators have argued that the reverse relationship was seen to be the case as applied to narrow particularistic views of productivity and profitability. Trade Instruction
would be against the beliefs of many employers and employees (in Victorian Britain) both of whom feared that industrial secrets and craft mysteries would be developed to the world at large [Argles 1964 p22] and "It was therefore this reluctance on the part of employers to have technical processes taught to potential competitors, combined with the equal reluctance of the state to spend its money on purely technical instruction, that was a major cause of England's backwardness in trade instruction". [Argles 1964 p25]

By 1902 the situation seemed to have changed little

"Today the English manufacturers are certainly lacking in their appreciation of the necessity of employing well trained chemists ... there is no big demand for highly trained chemists, and there is little encouragement given to their work [L.C.C. sub-committee on application of Science to Industry 1902 p21 quoted in Cotgrove 1958 p26].

Indeed the employers at the time of the 1918 Fisher Education Act opposed the provision in the original Bill that, after leaving school at fourteen (a provision which in itself would abolish the half-time system which allowed children to work rather than continue with their education full time) young people should attend continuation classes - or as we would now say day release, until the age of 18.

The Lancashire cotton manufacturers launched an attack on the Bill, claiming that the abolition of the half-time system would disrupt the textile industry [Simon 1965 p353]

and indeed

the secret opposition of a powerful group of employers .... determined to retain child labour
.... postponed for seven years part-time education between the ages of 16 and 18 [Simon 1965 p356].

Some employers, however, seemed to have been more enlightened

Johnson Brothers, dyers of Bootle were particularly enterprising. They paid evening class fees and released apprentices from work half an hour early on class nights. All their employees were encouraged to study mathematics and chemistry, and the firm even organised its own private classes in these subjects, as it felt that the teaching at the local technical school was not practical enough (a frequent cri de coeur from industry at this time.) [Argles pp63-64]

Although too specific a practical training was viewed negatively as it might give away trade secrets!

Possibly for that reason some industries and the individual firms amongst them [see Samuelson Report 1882-1884] had long taken the major responsibility for the training of their own workmen through an apprenticeship system.

During the 1920s there was disquiet as to the whole place of apprenticeship in industry. This was partly due to the wartime interruption in the supply of boys and partly due to the fact that the fall in birthrate in the war would mean a low supply of boys in the early 30s, but mainly it was caused by the increasing sub-division of labour to operate machines in place of craftsmen. [Musgrave 1967 p158].

There is also evidence that employers were very been
reluctant to become seriously involved with the Further Education of their young employees. When the Malcolm Committee reported in 1926 it found that

Only a small minority of firms were showing a practical interest in the further training of their employees and their action related mainly to part-time evening instruction and not to the more fruitful day release plan [Argles 1964 p68]

which we have seen previously had to be imposed by the 1918 and 1944 Education Acts.

If employers and industrialists were distrustful and critical of the colleges this was reciprocated by those involved in education.

There was a great deal of suspicion existing among the teaching profession and those in education, that what employers wanted was someone who could be efficient only for the purposes of their particular industry. [Hansard 5th Sev. vol 217 cols 1109-10 quoted in Musgrave 1967 p186].

This was reflected in the views of Technical College lecturers some of whom were part-time teachers from the schools or who had left industry because of an interest in education and training rather than instruction and profit.

(b) Working class movements

It is important to realise that much of FE culture has
been inherited from if not directly the "child saving" movement of the 19th Century [see report of 1842 "Children's Employment in the Mines", discussed in Simon 1976 p362], then the "adult emancipation" movement associated with Trade Union and Socialist organisations [see Simon 1965 Chapters IV and V]. In 1844, for example, the Rochdale Pioneers Co-operative Society which was founded in the textile manufacturing heartland of Lancashire, decided that it would grant 2.5% of its profit to education ie night schools in its area. The London Working Mens College founded by Maurice in 1848 (the year of the further French Revolution and of Chartist demonstrations) was part of the Christian Socialist movement. When the Chartist Convention met in London in 1851 it declared that

Education should be natural, universal, gratuitous and to a certain extent compulsory ..... while the system of apprenticeship, long outmoded, should be replaced by a system of (technical) schools where the young may be taught various trades and professions [quoted in Simon 1976 p276].

The Trade Unions in the 19th Century were particularly keen for the liberation and political development which education could offer. A Trade Union Congress (TUC) Circular of 1900 concerned mainly with the threat of the abolition of the School Boards (which, by often having elected socialists and Trade Unionists as members, had allowed for the direct representation
of working class interests in education) states that

The rights of those of humble birth are too precious to be left at the mercy of sects or social prejudices. The only safeguard of democratic interest is a democratic franchise and a free, direct and efficient popular control (of education in the nation). [33rd TUC report 1900 p112]

and although much of the concern of the labour movement at that time was for access to education for their children and access to continuing education after they had left school the demand was for a secondary education for the working class which must be to a large extent

technical and manual. The first necessity for them and for the industries of the country is that they should be skilful and expert workmen and workwomen" [a Memorial to the Bryce Commission presented on behalf of the Trades and Labour Councils and Co-operative Societies) 1897].

Aligned to the emancipation of the working class was a concern for what would now be seen as health and safety issues. The mining union in the 19th Century called consistently for their members to have access to education, both elementary and technical, urging that "ignorant miners are found to be reckless and dangerous miners" and "that children should not be given responsibilities until they had attended school" (ie College). [Trade School and Strikes 1860 Quoted in Simon p361] Thus a part of the cultural
orientation of colleges has been that they have been part of, if not a radical working class movement, then, at least an agency committed to improving the opportunities of working people by informing them of their educational and working "rights".

The view that working people should have the appropriate education for their station in life has been expressed not just by middle class entrepreneurs and politicians but also, as we have seen, by the working class themselves. We have already seen how this appropriate education though "liberating" was not to be "liberal". If the working class needed educating it was to be education for their working role in society provided in institutions whose curriculum would reflect this concern. Thus, certainly in 19th Century, the schools and colleges for working people were concerned with training and work related education (eg the evening schools which provided working people with the opportunity to reclaim basic literacy skills in order that they would be more employable).

We have also seen that once the institutions set up by the working class for the working class were taken over by the middle class (eg the mechanics institutes and the adult education of the Workers Educational Association [WEA] movement) their curriculum became
much more concerned with the liberal arts rather than with the pure and applied science and technology with which they were originally concerned. The reason for this is quite simply the long established pattern in this country of education being about the intellectual pursuits of the "gentlemen". These pursuits were elaborated by the universities committed to a liberal and classical curriculum, in no way related to the practical or narrowly vocational aspects of working life. [see Roderick and Stephens 1978 p53].

If employers have had any industrial or vocational education or training themselves (other than a degree - and often a humanities degree) it is much more likely to have been on the commerce rather than technical side. "In nearly all industries the road to management and control lies through the office side: it is the clerk, not the man at the machine, who carries the marshals' baton in his knapsack" [Percy 1930 p73]. Cotgrove [1958] supports this by stating "The chances of reaching a management position have been greater for those with an arts degree or non-technical qualification than for science graduates". Musgrave [1967] confirms that this is so and that this is very different to Germany and other European countries. This in itself generated a view within
"Technical" Colleges that employers do not share the values of the colleges.

(c) Other Parts of the educational system

We have already seen that many of the most gifted early industrialists had been excluded from the universities on the basis of class. It is important to note that many had been excluded on the basis of religion also. This aspect is outside the scope of this study but it is interesting to note that the university most amenable to recognising and developing industry in 19th Century was Glasgow University which was outside the strong influence of Anglo-Catholic orthodoxy which dominated the universities in England.

The controversy which surrounded the opening, by dissenting utilitarians, of University College, [1826] and later Kings College, [1828] showed the entrenched views of the educated middle class dominated by Oxford and Cambridge universities. The controversy arose not only because they pursued a secular curriculum, but because of the breadth of that curriculum. Unlike the traditional universities University College had chairs in Engineering and the Application of Mechanical Philosophy to the Arts, Chemical Medicine and Medical Jurisprudence and Political Economy. (It is interesting to note that at first students were taken
at the age of fourteen but by 1831 the age of entry had risen to fifteen).

The universities jealously guarded their "liberal academic" culture and despite the changes made in 19th Century as a result of two Royal Commissions (1865 and 1872) they resisted any attempts to become involved with anything of a technical ie industry related, nature. However, the introduction of the Clarendon science laboratory at Oxford in 1872 and the Cavendish laboratory at Cambridge at about the same time showed a slow accommodation with the world of pure science if not of applied technology.

Finally in this section it is worth remembering that "what goes on" in colleges in terms of course provision and the broader curriculum depends very much upon what goes on in schools. Sadler commented in 1907 that "evening schools were in some respects little but a makeshift for what should have been done in elementary day schools" [Sadler 1907 p3] which still applies to the contemporary picture. For many students FE is seen as if not directly remedial then at least as a 'second chance' for educational achievement (eg repeat "O" level or as now GCSE courses) or as a first chance for access to courses leading to academic qualifications that more selective schools' sixth forms would have denied them. In fact
the growth of these courses in Colleges in recent years has gone against the traditional vocational training culture of the Colleges and re-enforced their role as "second chance" providers of general education. [see chapter 4]

This duality of provision can be traced back to the unregulated period before the Fisher Act of 1918 and whilst "successful" in terms of attracting students it goes against the culture of institutions whose chief task "is to provide the country with opportunities for the training of the part-time student who is earning his living in industry". [Report on Higher Technological Education HMSO 1951]. The reconciliation of this duality of provision through the development of the Tertiary College will be discussed in the next chapter.

(d) The Examining Boards

We have seen that much of the provision in evening institutes and technical and commercial schools was led by the grants made available (from the government) for classes leading to awards from C&G and RSA. One of the most important developments in the inter-war years for Further Education was the inception and growth of the National Certificates and National Diplomas which were intended to meet three demands -
the need for a nationally recognised qualification in technology; the need for examinations which allowed for some flexibility of teaching methods; and the need in industry for a qualification that combined both practical and theoretical competence. The Certificates and Diplomas were Joint awards of the Board of Education and the professional bodies concerned. [Argles 1964 p66]

These were the forerunners of the Business and Technology Education Council [BTEC] courses which have traditionally trained and educated people for their roles in a particular, often local, industry and have been a defining provision of Further Education. These courses more than any others offered in FE relate to the difficult place which the colleges occupy in terms of industry related training and student centred education.

By the mid 1950s and early 1960s the need to expand to compete with other economies [see Musgrave 1967] reinforced the view that the Further Education Colleges had an important economic role to play as technical education became "recognised as a national asset". [Argles 1964 p136] This belief gave a boost to the role of Further Education as an agency that would help fuel the "technological revolution" as well as developing adults who sought "compensation" either for an education that in times of rapid change was no longer sufficient or for an educational experience
which had never really been adequate. [see Crowther Report 1959]

(iv) 1944 - 1970 - Post War expansion and the Maintained Colleges

This section will examine developments associated with
(a) Regional Planning and Academic Drift;
(b) Day Release and the Colleges.

Under the 1944 Education Act we have seen that the local education authorities were made responsible for the provision of further education for their areas; [Education Act 1944 Section 41] and were required by that act to submit schemes for such provision by 31st March 1948 at the latest. Many LEAs did not meet this deadline

Even by the end of 1948 only 59 out of 146 schemes had been received at the Ministry. By the end of 1949 the majority had arrived, 119, with only another 37 still outstanding. [Gosden 1983 p166].

This tardiness was probably connected with two of the issues which concerned central government most with regard to the maintained colleges during this period: one was the rationalisation of provision within regional areas and the other was the development of
High Level courses in technology to meet the demand for more sophisticated expertise in industry.

Both of these concerns were evident in the report of the Percy committee 1945 which recommended the setting up of regional advisory councils and "the selection of a strictly limited number of technical colleges in which there should be developed technological courses of a standard comparable with a degree course". [Percy Report 1945 Section 3 p11].

The committees proposals for regional advisory councils (which had already developed in a few regions between the wars) were incorporated into a government circular in 1946 which directed that such councils should plan, in accordance with industries' needs, the courses and curricula within the colleges. The development of a high level course and qualification in technology outside the universities proved much more contentious.

In 1948 the Ministry set up the National Advisory Council on Education for Industry and Commerce - N.A.C.E.I.C. - which tackled this issue in a report in 1950 upon "The Future Development of Higher Technological Education" [For an account of the politicking that this report gave rise to between the universities, professional engineering institutions
and the Local Education Authorities, as they each strongly defended their own interests see Davis pp120-144 1990]

Both issues were dealt with in the 1956 white paper on Technical Education in which a pattern of Local Authority Colleges and their provision was outlined and more detail was provided in a subsequent circular. The pattern was for:-

Local colleges - offering vocational part-time courses up to ONC.

Area colleges - offering courses above ONC, but mainly part-time.

Regional colleges - offering a substantial amount of advanced work [ie HNC/D or degree] especially full-time and sandwich courses.

Colleges of Advanced Technology - (C.A.T.s) providing a broad range and substantial volume of work at advanced level including some post-graduate research and work.

The debate about who should control the C.A.T.s was considerable as they represented Higher Education
under the control of the Local Education Authorities

reference was made to the impossibility of the colleges acquiring status equal to the universities so long as their governing bodies were sub-committees of the authority. [Gosden 1983 p175]

The Robbins committee report, (1963) on Higher Education stressed the need for whole scale expansion of the Higher Education sector, redesignated the C.A.T.s as technological universities and argued for new Polytechnics. These would be able to award degrees validated by the Committee for National Academic Awards [C.N.A.A.] whilst remaining part of Local Authority provision. These recommendations were accepted. In 1967 29 institutions were designated as Polytechnics able to award mainly C.N.A.A. degrees and this resolved the issues about regional planning and Higher Level courses in Technology.

(b) Day release and the Colleges

The publication of the Crowther Report in 1959 raised again the question of provision for those who left school early and continued with work-related studies as part-time students in the colleges. The arguments for "continuation schools" [ie for day release provision for all young people under 18 in employment] in the 1902 Act and the 1944 Act had been
unheeded by employers. In this report it was urged that no boy or girl under the age of 18 should be expected to follow a course of further education that relies entirely upon evening classes; those industries and professions that do now expect this of their young employees should be invited to reconsider their practices [Crowther Report 1959 p368].

The burden that evening classes placed on part-time students was linked in the report to the drop out rates on National Certificate Courses -

Only one student in 11 succeeds in climbing the National Certificate Ladder from bottom to top and only one in 30 does so in the time for which the course was designed . . . . these wastage rates are shocking [Crowther Report 1959 p367]

One other issue aroused concern in the report

The education provided in the colleges today is for too narrowly concentrated on the immediate vocational target. Some of it is perilously close to the line that separates education from mere instruction. [Crowther Report 1959 p369]

This issue of defending the Crowther Reports' commitment to education rather than cheap narrow skills training is a central concern of this research some 30 years later.

The Crowther report placed day release and part-time education at the centre of discussions about further education for young people over the following 3 years. The N.A.C.E.I.C. established a special committee on the Crowther Report to examine the practical
consequences of carrying out its recommendations. The Minister of Education set up a working party to study the practical and financial consequences of giving young employees up to the age of 18 the right to claim release on one day per week to attend a further education course.

The Minister accepted the general view that the right to day release could not be granted without holding back the prospects for other urgent educational developments [Gosden 1983 pp184-185]

... so the rights of the young workforce to education were again acknowledged and again deferred to a more appropriate time or until their situation created a significant crisis.

A subsequent report published by the minister (Day Release Report of a Committee set up by the Minister of Education 1964) maintained a permissive if encouraging approach. "Public authority employers ought to give a lead in granting day release, other employers were urged to do their best" [Gosden p183] but there would be no compulsion.

Instead a white paper on Industrial Training outlined a way forward for training (in particular for apprentices) based upon a concern that there may be skills shortages ...
it remains doubtful whether the number of new entrants into skilled occupations will be sufficient to match future needs. . . . The great majority of unfilled vacancies call for some degree of skill, while a high proportion of the adult unemployed are labourers [Industrial Training: The Governments' Proposals 1962]

In the same white paper the concerns which were raised again in the 1980s, and which are central to this study, were outlined and the decision to force employers to take some responsibility for funding vocational education and training was justified. It was stated that in order:

(i) to enable decisions on the scale of training to be better related to economic needs and technological developments;

(ii) to improve the overall quality of industrial training and to establish minimum standards;

and

(iii) to enable the cost to be more fairly spread

[Industrial Training: The Governments' Proposals 1962]

- Industrial Training Boards [I.T.Bs] would be set up, which they were under the Industrial Training Act of 1964.

The Boards themselves were to provide or secure training, to make recommendations on its length and content and on the further education to be associated with the training and to raise a levy on their
particular industry. Employers would be able to claim on this levy for reimbursement on all or part of the costs incurred in the provision of approved training. The colleges were involved in providing certain parts of this training - developing new courses where necessary or modifying old ones.

Thus by the mid 1960s employers in major industries were given a lead role in securing training and the colleges would be asked to play a part in the educational aspect of this provision. The implications of this Act will be discussed in the next chapter.

Concluding Remarks

Certain recurring themes have emerged from this discussion of the development of Further Education. One legacy from the 19th Century has been the belief in the central importance of a skilled workforce for a thriving economy. From Playfair onwards [see Playfair 1853] there was a concern that the liberal education available in the prestigious educational institutions (ie public schools and the grammar schools and the ancient universities) was not supportive of a technical manufacturing economy nor of the scientific and technical skills which it required. This reflected the low status of technical education [see Roderick and Stephens 1978] which was associated with
those who had to use their hands to work for a living.

The significance of the contribution of applied science and technological education was recognised in the 1950s and 1960s when "academic drift" took some of the L.E.A. maintained technical colleges into Higher Education and eventually into the grant maintained University sector.

This was accomplished, however, by distinguishing carefully between technology and technical ie craft activity. "...the fulcrum of the definition of technology is in scientific study, while with the craft it is in the exercise of a skill or technique, a way of doing things" [Venables 1955 p447]. Applied science had become academically acceptable; as had the practical Scientist/Technologist himself who, having acquired an Advanced qualification or degree via the Technical education route was now possibly part of the management structure of manufacturing or business enterprises. Both statuses were confirmed by the development of the Technological Universities who then fully legitimated themselves by providing a large number of humanities degrees for liberal arts students. [See Appendix 9]

Other Further Education colleges were modified and altered to become acceptable within mainstream
education provision by becoming Tertiary Colleges. [see chapter 4]. Those left as FE Colleges in the 1970s inherited the influences outlined in Section 3 of this chapter. These influences are often conflicting.

The requirements of industrialists and employers are not always reconcilable with the aspirations of working class movements as illustrated by the early Mechanics Institutes. The Institutes represented both individualism and collectivism; a concern for the skills required for a profitable capitalist economy and for the self-advancement of the artisan. They also had an educative agenda for a working class radicalism that could challenge the economic and political order. These potential conflicts have been dissipated to a considerable extent by the social mobility of, individuals within, and sections of, the working class. This mobility was often facilitated by the part-time and evening class provision of Further Education.

The demands made by employers for work-related knowledge and skill may also conflict with a desire by the Colleges, especially since the 1944 Act, to be seen as offering education in its broadest sense as opposed to narrow vocational instruction [see Crowther Report 1959 and Haslegrave Report 1971] Teachers in
further education have come from both traditions [see Gleeson and Mardle 1980] and may have ambivalent attitudes to schools for whom they act in a remedial role. They may also have ambivalent attitudes towards the universities for whom FE has been a feeder of students. FE has also been a provider of their validated external degree courses but without the universities' status because of its industry-related practical vocational image. FE teachers may have acquired their own degrees in this "second-best" way.

We have seen that the validation of such degrees caused difficulties in the 1950's and 1960's. The role of the examining and validating [EVBs] bodies has been a central issue in the formation of public sector FE. The level of funding for particular colleges and departments within them, and hence the promotions available, have all been dependent upon teaching courses which lead to qualifications that received grants from the Department of Science and Arts in the 19th Century and the Department of Education and Science in the 20th Century.

Thus historically the E.V.Bs have exerted a powerful influence upon the providers of Further Education especially the Technical Colleges. They have been a mediating source of stability amidst the rhetoric of concern from governments, academics, industrialists.
and others. Relatively uncritical of the other partners involved in the English system of vocational education and training, they have been regarded by the teachers delivering their syllabi as a legitimate defining influence upon their teaching [see chapter 8 and chapter 9]. They have been an authority, issuing directives, to whom F.E. teachers have historically responded as they have been a consistent thread in a system plagued by statements of intent, but little action, especially from government.

Finally, an abiding theme through this chapter has been the reluctance of governments of all political parties to insist on compulsory day release education and training for all young people under 18 in employment.

The shelving of the county colleges has been perhaps the most bitter of the post-war disappointments, fully justifying the cynics with their ineradicable memoirs of the failure of the Fisher Act. [Venables 1955 p575]

Very able and persistent students in Further Education had managed to climb a ladder of expanded opportunities in the 1950's and 1960's based upon the voluntary support of their employers; but as Crowther showed many other less resilient students fell by the wayside. This allowed Shirley Williams, ex minister of State for Education, to state (at a gathering of important educationalists defining the educational
we have the highest proportion of qualified scientific and technological manpower of any country in the world if you take the 24 to 30 age-group. This is almost entirely because of further-education qualifications. [Williams 1969 p11]

built upon the individualism and voluntarism inherited from the mechanics institutes of the 19th Century.

Thus the expanded post-war provision of Advanced and Higher Education within the vocational system of further education had allowed determined and talented students opportunities and achievements denied them in a socially and academically selective "mainstream" education system (ie grammar schools, sixth forms and traditional universities - [see Jackson and Marsden 1966]). It had also ensured employability and career opportunities for them within an expanding economy. This would not be the case, however, for the average and below average school-leaver in the 1970s. As economic prospects slumped and unemployment rose, vocational education yet again became a focus of concern, as had so often happened in the past, and it is to this debate on vocational education in the 1970s and 1980s that we now turn.
1 For a description of the development of the Society see Hudson D and Luckhurst KW 1954 - The Royal Society of Arts 1754-1954 London John Murray

2 Further Education for girls is part of the "missing" literature in Further Education. For an interesting study of this area see King S 1990 Technical and Vocational Education for Girls. A study of the central schools of London 1918-1939 In: Summerfield P and Evans E J (eds) 1990 Technical Education and the State since 1850 pp77-96 Manchester Manchester University Press. See also Hollings E 1955 Women in Further Education In: Venables P 1955 Technical Education London Bell and Sons for a beguiling account of women in FE and for a picture of the purpose of FE for women in the 1950's.

3 The Department of Science and Arts was merged with the Department of Education in 1899.
Chapter 4

VOCATIONALISM, QUALIFICATIONS AND THE COLLEGES

1970 - 1990

This Chapter will after: (i) an introduction; (ii) discuss the Employment and Training Act 1973 and its implications; (iii) outline the government led training schemes of the 1970's and early 1980's and their vocationalised curriculum; (iv) describe the employer-led qualification system developed in the mid 1980's; (v) discuss the implications of these developments for the L.E.A.s' Colleges of Further Education; and end with; (vi) concluding remarks.

(i) Introduction

This chapter will examine a period of government intervention which was directed at bringing about change in the education and training of the workforce. Against a background of high unemployment - particularly Youth unemployment - the government explored different ways of funding further education and training and different ways of involving employers with the funding and the programmes taught.

It will also trace the involvement and reaction of the other interested parties - the L.E.A.s', College

We begin with the consultations and discussions which surrounded the Green and White papers which led to the Employment and Training Act of 1973.

(ii) Employment and Training Act 1973

In the last chapter we saw that the ad hoc development of vocational education and training in the 19th Century reflected very much the laissez faire approach of the times. We also saw that despite attempts in 1918 and 1944 to secure compulsory training for young people at work (up to the age of 18) governments were unwilling to force employers to bear the costs of providing this training. The Industrial Training Act of 1964 set up, under the Department of Employment, Industrial Training Boards which encouraged the improvement of first year training of apprentices by encouraging that training to be full-time and take
place in either a Government Training Centre or a Technical College. This involved the Colleges in industrial training as well as vocational education. [for a full discussion of these issues at that time see Evans 1980].

The arrangements of the 1964 Act were dismantled in the early 1970's.

Initial Government plans outlined in a Green Paper in February 1972 reflected a desire among vocal Conservative industrialists to see a reduction in intervention on the part of the Industrial Training Boards and of Government supervision of training. It was thought that it was no longer necessary to encourage employers because 'a permanent shift in attitude in British Industry had been achieved' (Government Green Paper 1972) MacLure 1986 p381].

The Green paper "Training for the Future" prompted an immediate response from the chairman of the Association of Education Committees - (of the Local Education Authorities)

The encouragement to industry, indeed the pleading with industry, to provide effective training and release for related further education had proved to be ineffective over the years . . . it was recognised that there was virtually only one way to achieve our aims: to pass legislation which was embodied in the Industrial Training Act. . . . 'Training for the Future' sounds the retreat with the Government virtually proposing to abolish the levy/grant system. In so doing they will take us back to
pre-1964 days and will have to rely on exhortation, which they know, as we all know, did not work. [Alexander 1972 p121]

Despite this type of criticism the government went ahead with its plans and in 1973 passed the Employment and Training Act which established at the Department of Education a central training agency - the Manpower Services Commission -

directly responsible to the Secretary of state for Employment for the employment and training services at present run by the Department of Employment. The main purpose is to give responsibility to representatives of employers and workers and of local government and education interests for the management and development of these services . . . " [Employment and Training: Government Proposals, 1973].

It would co-ordinate and supplement the I.T.B.s' role and oversee the non-I.T.B. training sector. The ten members of the Commission represented the Trade Unions (3 members), the employers (3 members), the local authorities in England Wales and Scotland (3 members) and professional education interests (1 member) - The Secretary of State for Education and Science would be responsible for finding the educational representative but all the members were appointed by the Secretary of State for Employment as it was training for employability which concerned the M.S.C.

In that same year the Association of teachers in Technical Institutions [A.T.T.I.], (the then union of
the FE Lecturers), put out a policy statement based on their concern for the education of young people in employment. It argued that "increasing numbers of young people on leaving school should undertake pre-employment courses of integrated training and education." [A.T.T.I. 1973 p5]

The Association was aware that an expanding F.E. service for the young would

not only increase the development of skilled manpower potential but also reduce the extended unemployment of young people. It would also help to reduce the hard core of young unemployed who find considerable difficulty in obtaining work. [A.T.T.I. 1973 p5]

Assuming that employers would be given grants to take on such young people (which was already happening in some regions following suggestions in the White Paper "Industrial and Regional Development" 1972), the association recognised

the responsibility which the further education service and its own members will have in participating in this development. It has campaigned for many years for resources to be made available for curriculum development in further education. [A.T.T.I. 1973 p5]

Thus the lecturers association acknowledged that there was a problem of youth unemployment [Raffe 1987 pp218-243] and that as the natural providers of Further Education they would work with employers and
government to develop curricula appropriate for these new FE students.

Reminding its audience of the failure of the government in 1944 to establish the County Colleges which would have made comprehensive provision for all young workers, it argued that

Both the Department of Education and Science and the local education authorities must be prepared at an early stage to make appropriate financial provision, as they have already done for the schools sector. [A.T.T.I. 1973 p5]

- (a reference to comprehensivisation in the 1960's and the raising of the school leaving age in 1972)

The Employment Act however, heralded an era when funding for the training and education of young people would increasingly be with the Department of Employment and where the initial emphasis would be on skills for employment rather than on a provision which would take into account "the needs and abilities of the individual in relation to . . . . General Education in Vocational Education" [A.T.T.I. 1973 pp5-6] which were the concerns of the college lecturers.

Thus the representatives of the College lecturers had identified the issues which came to dominate Further
Education in the 1970's and 1980's - that of rising youth unemployment and appropriate provision for young people as they engaged in ever longer periods of "transition" from school to work - or increasingly from school to unemployment; [see Ainley 1988 pp66-80] and were prepared with appropriate funding, to address the curriculum issues which 'transition' for the less able implied.

(iii) Government led vocational training and the vocational curriculum

In 1976 it became apparent that as "Education was blamed for the lack of trained manpower imbued with the necessary attitude to work" [Ainley P 1988 p81] (and see speech by Callaghan the then Prime Minister, made at Ruskin College and reported in the Times Educational Supplement 22.10.76); more rigorous work-related provision was necessary to replace the liberal education available in the schools and colleges. Thus in 1976 as Callaghan pronounced that young people entering work "sometimes do not have the basic tools to do the job" [Ruskin Speech T.E.S. 22.10.76] the Training Services Agency (later to merge with the M.S.C.), at the Department of Employment together with the D.E.S. developed and announced the Unified Vocational Preparation [U.V.P.] scheme, the first of many such schemes in the 1970s and 1980s, designed to
deal with the problem of the transition from school to work for young people.

What was important about the UVP and its successors the Youth Opportunities Scheme [YOP] and eventually the Youth Training Scheme [YTS] was that they all involved the linking of schools, Colleges of Further Education and the employers in the provision of learning experiences appropriate for working life. This involved all the parties in some aspect of curriculum planning.

One crucial reason for the previous absence of serious attention to further education curricula was the status of further education itself in the British educational system - its image as 'low-level training' rather than education, lacking in a credible knowledge base, combining part time preparation for low-level qualifications with "second class opportunities for those who had not made it in the 'real' or mainstream 'education process' ...... British understanding of a liberal or academic education left technical, vocational or further education little space in which to develop either status or the kind of informed debate and scholarship that were often available to schools and higher education. [Silver 1990 p102]

The fundamental curriculum implications of these Youth initiatives were clear to the government, if not to the Colleges and the College lecturers. In 1977 the government set up the Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit, usually referred to as the Further Education Unit [FEU], funded by and part of the DES. (The role and impact of the FEU will be
discussed in chapter 8). It was the FEU together with the MSC which published a joint statement on the exact implications of the government's "A New Training Initiative - A consultative document" [ED/MSC 1981] for Further Education. The document calling for a new approach to training specifically requested responses from all interested parties, including the Local Authorities, Further Education Colleges, The Employers and the Trade Unions - and on the whole got none!

The document argued that "Training has been seen as a dispensable overhead rather than an investment for the future" [DOE 1981 para 12] "we now lack a reliable system or clear framework for providing . . . . the whole range of skills at many different levels which all firms increasingly need ". [ED/MSC 1981 para 15]

It stressed that three things needed to be done -

1) encourage the training of young people of all abilities to acquire agreed standards of skills

2) move to a position where all under the age of 18 are in full time education or undergoing training

3) involve all adults in lifelong learning

and that these would have to be paid for by a mixture
of government and employer funding. The White Paper also emphasised that the training provided must "ensure that high standards of skill are achieved" [ED/MSC 1981 para 36] and that

The objectives may well, however, require a new approach to identifying the achievements of trainees of all ages. It is clearly of the greatest importance to employers that they should know what each person can do and to the individual that his competence is recognised. [ED/MSC 1981 para 37]

Thus the paper had set out what were to be significant themes for training in the 1980s and 1990s. These were - that people were unemployed because they were unskilled; that the Youth Training issue would lead changes; that it was the employers' responsibility to lead a system of accessible training for all; and that such a system was to be based on agreed standards of competence.

Most importantly for this study the paper also said that these changes would require of the educational service "that some traditional approaches and values be modified or abandoned, that new techniques be adopted and that there be fuller use of resources." [ED/MSC 1981 para 34.3]

The FEU's joint statement with the MSC set an agenda for curriculum delivery which the Colleges mainly
ignored until it was articulated much more clearly in "The New FE" a report published by the Further Education Staff College in 1983. The influence which the FEU has been able to attain in the 1980s can be attributed to the curriculum vacuum which it was able to occupy. This vacuum was also apparent amongst the other interested parties, the employers and the examining and validating bodies, who responded with silence to the New Training Initiative.

Ultimately there was no agreement within education just what were the key questions, much less any agreement on what might be education's answers. The MSC started with a single defined problem and sought solutions widely. Education argued about the nature of the problem. Neither the DES nor the local education authorities took the lead in dealing with the situation. [Varlaam 1990 p6]

The response of the LEAs when it did come was after the White Paper "Training for Jobs" [ED 1984] in which the funding of non-advanced further education was altered involving a claw back by the MSC of some 25% of the LEAs spending on non-advanced Further Education. The LEAs responded by "agreeing" to plan provision with the MSC on the basis of national and local need - (referred to subsequently as an 'accord'). This apparent lack of initial response by the educational providers is explicable in the terms in which the New Training Initiative document was couched - it stressed "training" "skills" and the
"vocational" programmes.

The tension between the liberal and the vocational, the "academic" and the practical has long been a rumbling issue in education and was discussed in chapter 1.

The issue of the academic and the vocational had to be addressed when the comprehensive schools had to devise an inclusive curriculum for all students, [see Ball 1981] that is, for the practical or less academically able student for whom there are lower expectations and assumptions of a less satisfying future. Thus this "new vocationalism" retained its association with the worker rather than the professional to whom it used to be applied. [see Silver 1990]

We have seen how the universities under the banner of liberal vocationalism (ie that they prepared men for the 'calling' of gentlemen and scholar and for the two professions mentioned above - the church and the law) resisted any changes to their curriculum provision in the first half of the nineteenth century. Their accommodation with science and technology was only recently arrived at. [see chapter 3]

The reluctance of the school teachers to become part of the new vocationalism is understandable in the
light of the "child saving" movements of the nineteenth century which used educational legislation to liberate children from child labour.

The imposition of the "new vocationalism" was also a reminder that despite the tri-partite reforms and the subsequent comprehensive reforms the bottom forty per cent of school leavers have remained virtually untouched by the educational system and leave school as "failures" and as a testimony to the "failure of education" thesis. [See Chapter 8 section (iv)].

If the world of education ignored, resisted and as we shall see later in this study reluctantly complied with the "new vocationalism" prescribed for them by the MSC, the Trade Unions and the Employers were hardly enthusiastic or co-operative.

Individual Unions and individual Trade Unionists became less happy with moves that led eventually to the YTS scheme (which became associated with cheap labour and de-skilling), but because they were part of the inception of the MSC and indeed had direct representation on the MSC it was hard for them to complain.

Bill Keys stated the view of the General Council at the 1983 Congress to be that "The MSC was the concept of the Congress and indeed we fought for it and we got it. [Ainley 1988 p102]
It was difficult to challenge a policy which promised to provide all young people with the opportunity to participate in education and training up till the age of eighteen which other countries had long provided [see Musgrave 1967] and which our employers had always been reluctant to encourage. [See Chapter 3]. The employers' reaction to the NT1 was also a disappointment to the government though this reticence, as we have seen, was not new.

The facts which we have given, suggest that there must be a disquieting indifference on the part of many employers to the desirability of securing the best possible training for your workers, at least up to the age of 21. [HMSO 1928 p42] and "The continuation of general education by individuals is usually due to their own initiative, rather than to any concerted action on the part of industry" [HMSO 1927 p192]

The governments exhortations to the employers in the early 1980s met with little more success than they had done in the 1920s and 1930s which was a similar period of economic recession. The request that employers should fund more training was also ignored as training is seen as a cost and something unnecessary in an economic recession with high levels of unemployment. The governments disappointment was clearly expressed in the report of the Institute of Man-Power Studies published in 1985 and concerned with this country's performance on training compared to (yet again) Germany, the USA and also Japan.
British companies do not act on the USA model and themselves set up the facilities they need, but expect someone else to do it. Nor do they come to a long-term arrangement like West Germany and Japan. UK employers, individually and collectively rarely assess what they ought to spend. [Competence and Competition NEDO/MSC 1985 p90]

As the employers were unwilling to become involved in training through funding, instead of compelling the employers to engage in that role, the government tried an alternative approach to employer involvement. Employers were encouraged to determine the learning outcomes ie competences to be accredited in vocational qualifications. Thus perhaps they would be willing to fund the programmes that would lead to such outcomes. It is to this system of qualifications that we now turn.

(iv) The employer-led qualifications system

This section will consider: (a) the background to and development of a system of National Vocational Qualification and; (b) the characteristics of these new qualifications and their relation to the existing vocational qualifications.
(a) The background to and development of National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs)

Subsequent government White papers clarified some of the issues hinted at in the N.T.I. – particularly the development of a system of accessible training for all based upon agreed standards of competence. In Training for Jobs published in January 1984 it was stated that "Training must be firmly work-oriented" [E.D. 1984 para 2] and that outdated practices of time-serving age limited training must be abandoned in favour of training "to agreed standards of skill appropriate to the jobs available" [E.D. 1984 26] Decisions about "who is trained, when and in what skills are best taken by employers" [E.D. 1984 para 8] and that whilst training was to be seen as an investment it was also essential to keep training costs down by "cost-effective methods of giving and assessing competence". [E.D. 1984 para 9]

The role of government was "to assist the flow of information . . . . and to encourage the application and development of nationally recognised standards of competence." [E.D. 1984 para 11] The paper also stressed the importance and success of the YTS launched in April 1983 and the lead that this initiative was to have in a competence based system became apparent.
The Government and Manpower Services Commission will seek to define standards of performance and develop a system of certification which can be applied to both vocational education and YTS and which will link with other training standards and qualifications. [E.D. 1984 55]

These themes were further elaborated in "Education and Training for Young People" [DES/ED April 1985] - which, starting with a familiar comparison with other industrial countries stated that "employers in all our major competition countries are making significantly larger contributions to vocational education and training then has been the case in the UK" [DOE/DES 1985 23] and that "the UK is spending a relatively large sum of public money in an attempt to deal with youth unemployment" [DES/ED 1985 23] which other countries do not have to do "because of their better developed education and training provision" [DES/ED 23].

Hence the government decided to expand the YTS to a 1 year provision for 17 year olds and a 2 year provision for 16 year olds, to state again that the "Vocational Education and Training of young people are not an overhead but an investment" [DES/ED 1985 32] and was to be seen as such by employers. The governments' concern for accessible vocational qualifications for the YTS trainees led them to institute a Review of Vocational Qualifications as the present system of

133
qualifications "does not generally provide opportunity for

- individual achievement certified by one body or part of the system to be recognised by other parties or parts of the system
- testing of skills and competencies as well as knowledge and understanding
- recognition of learning outside formal education and training situations
- flexible patterns of attendance and learning [DES/ED 1985 para 37]

As was noted in Chapters 1 and 3, to achieve these changes would require a new attitude from employers to investment in training and a readiness by employers to make the resources of the work place available for learning and work experience. It would also require that further and higher education should become more responsive so as to ensure "that the interests of employers and other consumers are to the forefront of the concerns of the providers". [DES/ED 1985 para 43]

A working group to Review Vocational Qualifications in England and Wales was duly set up "to recommend a structure of vocational qualifications in England and Wales which -

- is relevant to the needs of people with wide range of abilities
- is comprehensible to users
recognition of competence and capability in the application of knowledge and skill

provides opportunity for progression including progression to higher education and professional qualifications

allows for the certification of education, training and work experience within an integral programme

and to design a timetable programme to achieve this which has the support of employers, examining and validating bodies and others concerned. [DES/ED 1985 para 44]

In the interim report of the Working Group it was also stated that "the system should be cost effective in relation to the cost falling on individuals as providers and on actual or potential employers." [MSC/DES 1985 Section 2.5]

The Review itself stated that

A coherent national system of vocational qualifications will make for greater competence in our work force, more competitiveness in our industry and improved quality of services. [RVQ MSC/DES 1986].

The major recommendation was for

the establishment of a new permanent national body - a National Council for Vocational Qualifications - to provide a framework for qualifications, ensure progression, and safeguard quality" [RVQ 1986 Chairman's Preface]
which would set up and monitor a national system of qualifications "to reduce the confusion of present provision" . . . and "the unhelpful divide between so-called academic and so-called vocational qualifications" and that "vocational qualifications should relate more directly and clearly to competence required in work" and that this should all be done by building on "what is good in present practice". [RVQ 1986 para 1.5]

However, in order to remedy the deficiencies in present practice the Review stated that

(i) there must be effective arrangements for specifying standards of competence across all occupational groupings

(ii) vocational qualifications must incorporate these standards and must give adequate recognition to work-based learning

(iii) Comprehensive and flexible arrangements must be established to secure credit recognition, accumulation and transfer of partial assessments of occupational competence

and

(iv) there will have to be a considerable expansion of facilities for testing of skills to specified standards. [RVQ 1986 para 7.5]

The review recommended that qualifications which satisfied these requirements would get approval for 5 years. The recommendations of the report were accepted
by the government in "Working Together - Education and Training July 1986" which in its introduction announced the success of its YTS and TVEI\(^1\) schemes and thus the extension of both and also flagged up

the beginning of a new partnership between the MSC and the LEA's to develop Work Related Non-Advanced Further Education so as better to meet the needs of a changing labour market". [ED/DES 1986 para 1.5].

This partnership, for a more vocationalised curriculum, was not just with the Colleges via the YTS scheme but also with the schools via TVEI and by implication both curricula would be affected by NVQ as the intention for a ladder of vocational qualifications for all in the 14 - 19 age group had begun to become a possibility.

Thus a National Council for Vocational Qualifications had been set up:-

1) to secure standards of occupational competence and ensure that vocational qualifications are based on this

2) to design and implement a new national framework for vocational qualifications

3) to approve bodies making accredited awards

4) to obtain comprehensive coverage of all occupational sectors

5) to secure arrangements for quality assurance

6) to set up effective liaison with bodies awarding vocational qualifications

137
7) to establish a national data-base for vocational qualifications

8) to undertake, or arrange to be undertaken, research and development to discharge these functions

9) to promote vocational education training and qualifications

A timetable for achieving these aims was set up with the requirement that the system should be in place by 1991. [Burke 1989 p3]

The employers' role in this was to be that of identifiers and establishers of the standards on which the vocational qualifications would be based

The Governments objective is, therefore, to see throughout industry and commerce standard setting bodies created by employers themselves to which they can subscribe and which will secure their continuing voluntary support - This approach is far preferable to one of regulation and compulsion. [Ed 1988 para 4.21]

The employers were also to be involved in a further development set out in the same White Paper "The key to economic vitality is an innovative, market driven private sector" [ED 1988 para 5.2] therefore

The Government now intend to build on the existing involvement and commitment of business by inviting local groups led by employers to submit proposals for the establishment of Training and Enterprise Councils to contract with Government to plan and deliver training .. In this way the government hopes to place "ownership" of the training and enterprise system where it belongs - with employers. [ED 1988 para 5.4]
The employers' response via the Confederation of British Industry (CBI) was to acknowledge that there had been "a general failure by employers to treat training as an essential investment" [CBI 1989]. The C.B.I. acknowledged the employers' responsibility towards training, that "the task force believes that there is no case for under 18 employment which does not give opportunities to gain nationally recognised qualifications" [CBI 1989 - Preface] and stated that "The practice of employing 16-18 year olds without training leading to qualifications must stop" [CBI 1989 para 9]. It also stressed that the "Government must offer the nation a coherent vocational education and training policy, especially for young people" [CBI 1989 p9] As for the funding of such a policy this should be shared by the employer - who should fund adult and youth job specific training; the taxpayer - who should fund the cost of training the unemployed and those with special needs and "broad based training for the young directed at giving them the foundation skills needed for working life" [CBI 1989 para 106]; and the individual employee - who "should fund the cost of training not relevant to their current employment, perhaps encouraged by tax incentives" [CBI 1989 para 106] - (The government gave such tax incentives in the 1991 Budget).

Thus by 1991 after a great deal of attention (on
paper) a training "system" (?) was in place based on individualism and voluntarism with the main thrust coming from a reform of qualifications which would somehow profoundly address economic problems. It is to qualifications that we now turn.

(b) The characteristics of those new qualifications and their relation to existing vocational qualifications.

We have seen in the last chapter how the National Certificate and Diploma scheme emerged after 1918 in response to the need for

a nationally recognised qualification in technology; the need for examinations which allowed of some flexibility in teaching methods; and the need in industry for a qualification that combined both practical and theoretical competence". [Argles 1964 p66]

The awarding bodies for these Certificates and Diplomas had been the joint Committees of the Board of Education and the professional bodies of that particular subject area (eg the Institution of Mechanical Engineers). The examinations were set and marked by the schools and colleges and moderated by external examiners appointed by the examining bodies concerned. The students' progress was also assessed by their teachers and work supervisors so that the final result depended "as much on their day-to-day
theoretical and practical studies as on the formal examination". [Argles 1964 p67] This scheme led to "a happier relationship with industry" [Argles 1964 p68] and the closer involvement of industrialists on local and national advisory committees and the development of regional divisions to influence courses designed to satisfy the needs of local industry.

This system of examinations along with those set by the City and Guilds of London Institute [C.G.L.I.], the Royal Society of Arts [R.S.A.] and various other bodies stayed very much the same until a Commission was set up, under Dr Haslegrave, reporting in 1969, to look at national awards in Further Education for Technician Courses. The main recommendation of the report was that "a new body should be created to co-ordinate all aspects of technician education" [Haslegrave 1969 para 142 p45] and that a similar body should be set up

To plan, administer and keep under review the development of a unified national pattern of courses in the field of business and office studies at levels below that of first degree; and in pursuance of this to devise or approve suitable courses, establish and assess standards of performance and award certificates and diplomas as appropriate. [Haslegrave 1969 para 173 p55]

Thus the Technician Education Council [TEC] and the Business Education Council [BEC] were established.
The Haslegrave report also observed that there were certain areas where these two councils would overlap (eg computer studies) and that therefore where appropriate they should adopt common policies on examination and other assessment techniques . . . . Such links would also ensure that the policies and plans of each Council were broadly consistent with any longer term plan to form a simple council for technician and comparable education [Haslegrave 1969 para 181 p57]

The BEC and TEC were merged in 1983 to form a single body (becoming the Business and Technology Education Council in 1991) the Business and Technician Education Council which is the largest examining and validating body in Further Education in this country. It is important to note that the title involves "Education" not "Training", an issue which will be discussed later.

Thus by the time that the National Council for Vocational Qualifications [N.C.V.Q.] was in place there were already various national examining and validating bodies who had for some time validated qualifications which were seen by the bodies themselves as industry related and based on skills and competence. However, the new Council wished to foster a sense of ownership of standards of competence attested by vocational qualifications amongst the
employers. It therefore sought to identify a lead Industry Body [L.I.B.] for each industrial sector to set those standards, which would then be the focus of educational and training qualifications in that occupational area. This sounds a fairly simple system to get into operation but L.I.B.s were often amalgams of different commercial and industrial interests and by 1992 not all L.I.B.s were operating as envisaged - despite NCVQ being flexible over provisional accreditation.²

NCVQ decided to give provisional accreditation to the Lead Bodies for two years in order to give the LIBs time to sort out their occupational area. NCVQ identified four criteria for conditional accreditation.

"Proposed arrangements must, as a minimum:

- test performance - not merely knowledge and understanding

- be endorsed as best current practice by an appropriate body in the sector (typically but not necessarily an LIB)

- provide for valid and reliable assessment methods

- ensure adequate quality assurance systems and resources" [FEU 1989A p4]

and therefore if the existing examining and validating bodies could show that they conformed to these
criteria then they could become part of the new National Framework.

"At least two bodies are usually party to each NVQ award: one industrial, the other an examining/validating body" [FEU 1989A p4]. The Examining and Validating Bodies [EVBs] involved by 1989 were C&G, BTEC, CCCEB, PEI and RSA. Thus the new system based on a new approach to accreditation of vocational qualifications retained a lot of "present good practice" [FEU 1989A p5] by absorbing the standing elements of the previous system indicating evolutionary adaptation rather than radical change.

The position of BTEC within the system is especially interesting. In the R.V.Q. 1986 it was stated that "many existing vocational qualifications do not adequately assess or indicate competence" but mostly knowledge relating to occupational skills (and that assessment commonly reflects performance in a written examination) or performance in stated skills assessed. Neither form of assessment in our view necessarily indicates occupational competence, by which we mean the ability to perform satisfactorily in an occupation or a range of occupational tasks (MSC/DES 1986 Para 7.2)

This emphasis on competence as a "performance" attracted immediate attention from the FEU amongst others not least because of the problem it poses for
assessment. At a course organised by the FEU in February 1988 Nick Brewster of the FEU raised these assessment issues (which are still being debated); in particular what would be considered successful performance? (ie what are the performance criteria?); where is the appropriate place for assessment? - does only real performance in the work place count and are learners to be assessed as only competent or incompetent? ie no graduation in achievement. Link this with assessment on demand and we have a very different approach to assessment to that taken by BTEC.

In its statement of assessment philosophy BTEC stated

A policy of criteria-based continuous assessment is promoted to strengthen the link between the assessment and taught curriculum, the aim being to increase the validity of the assessment in relation to the aims and objectives of the course . . . [FEU 1986 p 20/1]

this is hardly a "standards led" "outcomes led" approach! It goes on to say that

links with workplace competence must be tenuous for the reasons outlined above . . . . Standards, therefore essentially reside with the college concerned and they are expected by BTEC to relate their programme to the needs of local industry [F.E.U. 1986 pp20-21].

BTEC qualifications are also significant in that
whilst they are increasingly seen as the way to vocationalise the post 16 Curriculum (whether in school or College) their title indicates their concern with education rather than training. BTEC's literature makes clear that it has links with the Department of Education and Science rather than the Department of Employment and would seem to suggest that education rather than training is its priority [see BTEC Publications 1990 p(i)]. In its section on Achieving Quality in its Annual Report for 1986-7 it states that

BTEC's role in vocational education is to balance the interests of students and their parents, colleges and other learning centres, professional institutions employers and the national interest [BTEC 1987] -

the employers were the last stake-holders to be mentioned.

Perhaps these documents indicate a concern felt by BTEC that the opportunity to become part of mainstream post 16 Education and an access route into Higher Education should not be missed by being seen to be too firmly in one part of the academic/vocational divide.

As hinted at in the last chapter the division between the academic and the vocational, between education and
training and its resolution has occupied educational planners for some considerable time. The discussion of the bridging of this and a concern for General educational as opposed to over specialised provision was apparent in the Crowther Report.\textsuperscript{3} B.T.E.C. in the late 1980s was hesitating over which area to opt for.

The R.V.Q. made it quite clear that "the unhelpful divide between so-called academic and so-called vocational qualifications should be bridged" [MSC/DES 1986 1.2] and the CBI Task Force Report repeatedly stressed the need to raise the status of NVQs, that the reforms suggested by Professor Higginson in broadening the number of subjects studied by "A" level students needed to be acted on and that what was needed was broad based qualifications "offering more relevant transferable skills". [CBI 1989 p9] It also stated that "terms such as Diploma, baccalaureate and associate degreeship to which all qualifications would count would help to bridge the education and training divide." [CBI 1989 para 67]

The NCVQ's concerns for parity of esteem between academic and vocational qualifications in order to achieve progression routes, and the CBI's commitment to training and/or education for all up to the age of 18, were matched by the thrust of the Government White Paper. 'Education and Training for 21st Century' [HMSO
1991]. This not only indicated that future legislation would end the distinction between Universities and Polytechnics but also that two new Diplomas

over-arching vocational and academic qualifications one awarded for the achievement of GCSEs or their vocational equivalent, the other for "A" level and its equivalent were being developed to bridge the academic/vocational divide. [TES 24 May 1991 p4] ----

It has subsequently been suggested that

- - - "A new Technological Baccalaureate developed by the City and Guilds of London Institute is the first attempt at a "third route" qualification of the kind which the Government wants all schools and colleges to offer. [TES 21 June 1991 p1]

But whether a "third route" represents the coherence and rationalisation which the NCVQ desires remains to be seen.

That same White Paper "Education and Training for the 21st Century" [HMSO 1991] also gave the schools and sixth form colleges the right to recruit part time students and encouraged them to provide vocational courses on the same basis as Further Education Colleges and it is to these institutions and their position, in a challenging and changing scene that we now turn.
(v) The implications for the Colleges

As the publicly funded providers of vocational education and training (and as historically the only source by which working people could develop their work skills or explore education and personal development for its own sake) it could be expected that the LEA colleges would be a central reference point in the policy of change in the 1980s. What is striking is how marginalised the Colleges were in the whole debate. Colleges of Further Education were referred to favourably in the New Training Initiative for their efforts to adjust to the changing requirements of employers. [NTI 1981 para 19] However it was not long before commentators began to see that the implications of the New Training Initiative could be uncomfortable for traditional Colleges.

If one reads the NTI document carefully it is apparent that FE does not necessarily mean colleges of further education. There will be tremendous competition from other sources which may be more flexible and cheaper. [Shaw 1983 p145]

In the same publication the Principal of Sheffield City Polytechnic stated that

The role of FE under NTI is going to be very confused because we do not have a further education policy to set against NTIs three
objectives (see beginning of this chapter). I hope that pressure can be brought to bear upon the Government to secure some statement of policy and priorities for FE against these objectives [Tolley 1983 p118]

However, no such policy for FE was forthcoming other than rather threatening exhortations that

public sector provision for training and vocational education must become more responsive to employment needs at national and local level. The public sector needs a greater incentive to relate the courses it provides more closely to the needs of the customer and in the most cost effective way. [ED 1984 para 43]

and that paper also reminded FE lecturers that the public sector for post 16 education and training now meant the schools also, some of which would be piloting a Technical and Vocational Education Initiative with direct funding from the MSC (designed to link "general and vocational education with work experience" [ED 1984 2e] The MSC was also given the budget, previously given to Local Education Authorities, to purchase directly a significant proportion of Work Related Non-Advanced Further Education allowing the LEAs access to those funds only if they submitted local development plans for non-advanced further education "The planning system was itself a compromise as Ministers had advocated direct purchasing using market forces to push FE in a certain direction". [Mason 1988 p27] The explanation for
this centralised control of funding was that the LEAs and their Colleges were not providing the system of training that was wanted ie "training that is prompt, flexible and cost effective" [Training for Jobs para 34] This implied criticism of the LEAs also reflected on the DES. (There has been much speculation on the relationship between the MSC/TA and the DES and this will be discussed in Chapter 10). It is interesting to note that the inside of the back cover of "Working Together - Education and Training" is devoted to a statement of the Department's aims in non-advanced FE which were

- to increase the responsiveness of the service to the needs of employers
- to provide a sound education for young people and adults; and
- to secure improved use of resources - and in particular a significant tightening of student - staff ratios.

The position of Further Education Colleges as providers, amongst many other alternative providers, was made clear in "Employment for the 1990's" which when referring to the role of the new Training and Enterprise Councils stated "Local training providers
will, as at present, need to meet the criteria for award of Approved Training Organisation status if they are to deliver publicly funded programmes". [Ibid 5.16] It is hardly surprising that the FEUs publication "National Vocational Qualifications and Further Education" 1989 stated in its introduction that in terms of the implications of NVQ "The issues for FE institutes is what kind of action they can take to help assure both the quality of the system and an effective role for FE".

The FEU having posed the question also suggested some solutions which focused on the issues of staff development, institutional development and especially curriculum development. At a course organised by the FEU in 1988 the responses which Colleges would have to make in those areas if colleges were going to remain the major providers of what would now be competence based education and training were stated. The General Aims of Colleges were summarised as providing

- Opportunity and access, regardless of gender, race, age and ability
- Competence and progression, developing knowledge, skills and experience to facilitate progression to employment, education, training or other roles
- Role awareness, gained from an understanding of the economic and social environment and an appreciation of the variety of available adult roles
Personal development, based on increased self-awareness and a realistic appraisal of potential prospects and these could be achieved by a staff development policy that was located within a personnel policy, an institutional approach based on relating to local and national change and therefore negotiating and liaising with other agencies but above all providing a curriculum that was flexible, relevant and responsive to the new clients in a changing world. [FESC 1988]

Thus by the end of the 1980s colleges were being made aware that the changes hinted at in the New Training Initiative were under way and that only certain types of Colleges ie Responsive Colleges would survive. [see ED 1984 para 43]

The changes outlined here were by no means the only issues affecting FE Colleges in the 1980s. One general issue totally outside Government intervention was what has become known as the demographic downturn or the shrinkage of the number of 16-19 year olds in the population - a decline of roughly one third between 1981 and 1994. If Colleges wish to maintain their student numbers (against schools generously funded for each post 16 student they could retain) then they will need to look at a less traditional clientele. The TVEI initiative required collaboration between schools and colleges and the CPVE system may involve the 16 to 18 age group in attendance at Colleges whilst being registered as the students of other institutions. At the other end of the age/work
level spectrum FE Colleges had also been encouraged throughout the 1980s to engage in Access to Higher Education Programmes as one way to increase participation rates in Higher Education [see More Means Different Sir Christopher Ball].

The publication of "Managing Colleges Efficiently" [Report of a Study of Efficiency in Non-advanced Further Education HMSO 1987], following a study by the Audit Commission on Further and Higher Education [Obtaining Better Value from Further Education the Audit Commission of England and Wales HMSO 1985] indicated the pressures being put on LEAs and the Colleges to be seen to be giving good value for public money. A concern for (1) Performance Indicators that would allow for competitive comparison between Colleges in terms of their measured efficiency and effectiveness at producing learning outcomes (ie results in terms of exams passed and qualifications obtained) and (2) staff-student ratios showed clearly that Colleges now had to justify their existence in a much more commercially minded education and training environment. (Indeed commercial activities by LEAs and Colleges was actively encouraged by the 1985 Further Education Act : Commercial Activities in Further Education).
Thus when the CBI task force report [Towards a Skills Revolution: Report of the Vocational Education and Training Task Force CBI 1987] stated that "There are really only two ways to allocate public monies to a training market

(i) Government administrators can administrate public funds to those suppliers that they choose for training they decide the nation needs.

(ii) Individual customers can be given purchasing power in the form of credits, vouchers or bonds, which they can cash for the training they want from a training provider they choose. [CBI 1987 p8]

College managers who had kept abreast of the changes in the 1980s must have recognised the different climate that now existed for LEA funded Colleges. The CBIs voucher system was taken up by the Secretary of State for Employment in 1990 when he initiated a pilot for training credits to be organised via the TECs starting in 1991 whereby post 16 students would have training credits to spend on training programmes - by any provider of their choice. [Training Credits for Young People - A Prospectus, Employment Department 1990]

In March 1991 the Government announced that the post 16 Colleges ie FE Colleges and Sixth Form Colleges and Tertiary Colleges, would be taken out of the control of the Local Education Authorities and centrally
funded. At the time of writing the presumption must be that such central funding will depend upon the efficiency which had become the theme for the second half of the 1980s. The Education Reform Act of 1988 imposed a planning scheme on Local Education Authorities which should show "how college provision is to be planned, how annual college budgets are to be calculated, and how control over those budgets will be delegated to Governing Bodies" [Kedney & Parkes 1988 p13]. Whilst the removal from Local Authority Control seems to override this planning process it is important to realise that the removal is not scheduled until 1993 and that in the mean time Colleges will have to develop a planning programme for themselves whilst they remain part of the LEAs planning programme - a move back to the rationalisation of the 1960's, amidst the free market of the 1990's!

The Act also changed considerably the powers and duties of the Governing Bodies of Colleges as well as their composition. "At least half the members of the governing body of all maintained colleges will be required to be either representatives of employment interest or co-optives. Not more than 20 per cent will represent the LEA. Governing bodies should not be larger than 25". [Kedney and Parkes 1988 p83]
Under Section 139 of the Act the Local Authority has to delegate the planning, provision and setting of the college annual budget to this body which in effect gave them all other powers associated with planning college provision ie courses to be taught, the staff to be appointed, the purchase of equipment etc.

So by the end of the 1980s it is possible to see how the implications of the New Training Initiative have come to bear on the FE Colleges in terms of their place amongst other providers within a system of Vocational Education and Training no longer based on time-serving, or modes of attendance or even courses but on assessable competence-based qualifications which can be acquired and accredited in a variety of settings.

The past decade has seen unprecedented change in FE. There has been a major shift from Britain's historic manufacturing base towards the new technologies and an expanding service sector. And there has been major fluctuations in the pattern of youth employment and unemployment. These have had significant implications for the pattern of provision in colleges. [B Kedney and D Parkes 1988 p9]

They have also had significant implications for the survival of the Colleges.

The audience at the FEU course - 'Competence Based Education and Training' - [FEU 1988] were told very
clearly that only Responsive Colleges would survive and thrive and it is to an understanding of what constitutes a Responsive College that we turn in the next Chapter.

(vi) Concluding remarks

Following the continual failure of employers to invest their own money in training - a fault which we have seen was acknowledged by employers via the C.B.I. - they were given the Government funding - via the T.E.Cs - which had previously been available to the I.T.B's and the L.E.A's.

By the mid 1980's there was a growing rhetoric of concern from the government that the institutions which had been developed by state intervention over the past 150 years for the education of young people and adults, whether that was education for "delight" or education for "use" had in some way failed the economy. This failure was evidenced by the continuing high levels of Youth Unemployment and Adult Unemployment; the implication being that those who were unemployed were so because they lacked the skills which industry needed. Even if they had the skills, the fact that there were simply no jobs available was still seen as the failure of the education system to have provided the economy with enterprising
industrialists who would have been able to provide such jobs.

Educationalists have been swift to challenge the logic of this argument

Blaming education for the failings of the economy may seem ridiculous but was merely the obverse of Labours previous enthusiasm for solving economic problems through educational reforms. [Ainley 1988 p81] or

The root cause of the misconception and malfeasances described in this book is Britains economic decline . . . . . If getting jobs really were a matter of securing exam qualifications youth unemployment would scarcely exist. [Holt 1989 p165]

The L.E.A.s, Schools and Colleges when invited to participate in the New Vocationalism and to make their provision more relevant to the world of work basically retreated to their academic, liberal and educational values. Whilst this was possible for the LEA's and the schools it was a more contradictory position for the FE colleges to embrace. Their history, role and culture had placed them as the providers of vocational education and training as in the past no other institutions were prepared to do it on the scale necessary.

Thus the "new vocationalism" and its opposition generated a curriculum debate in which for the first time FE could legitimately engage. However, they
joined in as vocational institutions which could either support the new initiatives and be seen as the maintained sector's brutal provider of narrow skills training or be seen to hold the line on educational values with their "academic" colleagues whilst "other providers" gave the government and employers what they wanted. This ambivalent position was the result of FE's ambivalent history which

provides more than any other sector of education consistently clear examples of the interplay of policy and pragmatism. It is that part of the system that is required to be, and by definition is intended to be, most rapidly responsive to economic and social change. [Silver 1990 p100]

Though not rapid enough for the Conservative Government.

Having failed to get the kind of response it wanted from the employers, the Government began to question the efficiency of the public sector colleges and the defining system of vocational qualifications.

In order to get a response from the FE providers the government in the 1980s began to turn its attention to this qualification system and gave employers the lead in developing it. It was thought that rationalising this external factor would not only lead to a more qualified workforce by making qualifications more
accessible but would also have the effect on the organisational structure and culture of the Colleges (which was called for in "The New FE" document) of making colleges responsive. It is to the M.S.C. model of the Responsive College and the claimed realisation of this model at Brown College that we turn in the next chapter.

1 The Technical and Vocational Education Initiative [T.V.E.I.] is a curriculum development for the 14-18 age group funded directly by the M.S.C. since 1983 to "enhance" provision in the schools and colleges by making that provision more relevant to the world of work. Its aims are:

(a) In conjunction with LEAs to explore and test ways of organising and managing the education of 14-18 year old young people across the ability range so that:

1 more of them are attracted to seek the qualifications/skills which will be of direct value to them at work and more of them achieve these qualifications and skills;

2 they are better equipped to enter the world of employment which will await them;

3 they acquire a more direct appreciation of the practical application of the qualifications for which they are working;

4 they become accustomed to using their skills and knowledge to solve the real-world problems they will meet at work;

5 more emphasis is placed on developing initiative, motivation and enterprise as well as problem-solving skills and other aspects of personal development;
6 the construction of the bridge from education to work is begun earlier by giving these young people the opportunity to have direct contact and training/planned work experience with a number of local employers in the relevant specialisms;

7 there is close collaboration between local education authorities and industry/commerce /public services etc so that the curriculum has industry's confidence.

(b) To undertake (a) in such a way that:

1 the detailed aims can be achieved quickly and cost-effectively;

2 the educational lessons learned can be readily applied in other localities and to other groups among the 14-18 year olds;

3 the educational structures/schemes established to further the aims of the initiative should be consistent with progressive developments in skill and vocational training outside the school environment, existing vocational education for under 16 year-old people, and higher education;

4 emphasis is placed on careful monitoring and evaluation;

5 individual projects are managed at local level;

6 the overall conduct, assessment and development of the initiative can be assessed and monitored by the MSC and the TVEI Unit it has established for this purpose.

See T.V.E.I. Review 1984 published by the M.S.C.

The position of putative L.I.B.s in 1989 is fully discussed in National Vocational Qualifications and Further Education FEU 1989 p1 thus:

* ITBs (CITB, EITB, HCTB, RTITB) had developed strongly embedded systems of training and certification which, however, differed in the degree to which they met "competence-based" criteria.

* for others, industrially based qualifications or national standards already existed (ABTA - NTB) while in some cases these had not been developed (ASC).

* EVBs and FE often had a major role in current certification . . .

* the Youth Training Scheme had sometimes been the main focus for new standards and qualifications (ABS, HTB) which then became the basis for level I/II NVQs, while for others III/IV was the starting point" [National Vocational Qualifications and Further Education FEU 1989 p1]

The report was very critical of the part time day release and evening class mode of training for young school leavers (which was resolved in the White Paper Better Opportunities in Technical Education 1961 where concern about completion rates and failure rates as well as concern for the young people themselves led to the removal of one year preliminary courses in evening institutes and to a block release pattern for young school leavers). The curriculum reform which the Crowther Report argued for would have involved three elements - a specialised element, a common element for science and arts specialists to follow together and a complementary element to be pursued separately "to save the scientists from illiteracy and the arts specialist from innumeracy" [Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education [England] entitled 15 to 18 Volume 1 Chap 25 p275]
CHAPTER 5

THE SEARCH FOR AND DISCOVERY OF
"THE RESPONSIVE COLLEGE"

This chapter will after: (i) an introduction; (ii) explore the M.S.C./F.E.S.C. driven search for the market oriented model of the Responsive College; (iii) identify Principal B's Brown College as a Responsive College; (iv) examine learning, teaching and pioneering at Brown College; and end with; (v) concluding remarks.

(i) Introduction

We have seen in previous chapters how the crisis in employment was translated by government into a crisis in Vocational Education and Training [VET] caused partly by employer apathy but also partly by the inability of the established Colleges of Further Education to be sufficiently flexible and responsive to employers and students/clients needs. As well as this demand for flexibility there was also a concern that the colleges should provide a service which was highly efficient in terms of the use made of resources.

164
"The public sector needs a greater incentive to relate the courses it provides more closely to the needs of the customer and in the most cost effective way." [ED 1984]

That incentive was the introduction of a market in vocational education and training achieved by encouraging private providers of vocational-skills-based programmes to compete with inefficient Colleges which would then no longer have a monopoly on V.E.T. Those that would survive would do so because of the efficiency of their provision - an efficiency arrived at because of the pressure of market-forces to which they had been able and willing to respond. The Y.T.S. following on from Y.O.P. tested out such an approach, allowing as it did a variety of providers to work in a variety of combinations to deliver vocational training to young people. The initial caution of the Colleges and their somewhat slow response to this major change inspired the M.S.C. to fund a research project "to promote enhanced responsiveness of colleges of further education to the training needs of industry and commerce". [Theodossin 1986 p1]
(ii) The Search for the Responsive College

Using Non-Advanced Further Education [N.A.F.E.] as the main focus the project set out to complete 3 phases of research which were to

explore the literature on college responsiveness; identify and interview 'an informed group of observers' of the N.A.F.E. scene with a view to locating excellent/responsive colleges; interview in such colleges to discern what characterises most nearly the distinction of the excellent/responsive college. [Theodossin 1986 p2]

The first phase was dealt with quickly as there was "very little in the literature which dealt explicitly with college responsiveness" [Theodossin 1986 p2]

The third phase of the enquiry never materialised . . . . It was ultimately impossible to draw up an authoritative list of excellent/responsive colleges" because whilst the 'informal group of observers' "offered scores of colleges perceived as wholly or partly responsive and scores of criteria by which to measure college responsiveness . . . there was "little that could be described as consensual". [Theodossin 1986 p3]

Thus from the start responsiveness seemed an illusive idea; it was argued that the research should be seen as an "action programme" to generate a debate about what a responsive college would be like and hence clarify the meaning of the term to which the M.S.C. wished colleges to aspire, rather than apply the term as a definite description of such an institution.
However, the clear implication of the setting up of the project was that no truly responsive F.E. College as yet existed, a view which as we have already seen had been challenged by Kedney and Parkes. We have also seen [see Chapter 1] that the meaning of "responsiveness" was reshaped in government publications to include efficiency and marketing. In the report "Competence and Competition" [Institute of Manpower Studies 1984] colleges were urged to go to their potential customers with the offer of providing for their needs and wishes at times and in ways which suit the individual. They should "market" rather than "sell", and make customers welcome on their own terms rather than pressing them into college convenience. They should persuade people to look on the education service as an ally, counsellor and friend. [Institute of Manpower Studies 1984 quoted in Theodossin 1986 p4]

The main implication of these sentences can be gleaned from the language used i.e. "customers" and "individuals" rather than "students" and "classes". The emphasis on "marketing" rather than "selling" is crucial to the kind of changes which the M.S.C. was hoping to bring about. Whereas Colleges had traditionally provided courses which led to standard qualifications dispensed by the Examining and Validating bodies [EVB] (see chapter 3) and informed the public that these courses were available, the shift to marketing required a rather different
approach. It is necessary then, to examine in greater detail what is meant by marketing.

The Institute of Marketing defines marketing as "the management process responsible for identifying, anticipating and satisfying customer requirements profitably". [Wilmshurst 1984 p1] This definition invites us to see marketing as a central feature of how an organisation - essentially a business organisation - is run. Initially it may suggest . . . "a description for some part of the company's organisation or in the person's function or job title, such as 'the marketing department' or the 'marketing director'". [Wilmshurst 1984 p1] and indeed this is the soft option for Colleges which wish to be seen to be developing a marketing approach - ie designate a member of the management team or a Senior Lecturer to organise marketing or possibly a marketing department within the structure of the College - and thus leave it as a discreet and possibly marginalised activity.

The term "marketing" can also be used to describe "certain techniques within a company. Such activities as advertising, market research, and sometimes sales or product development, can be conveniently described by the collective term 'marketing' to distinguish them from other activities". [Wilmshurst 1984 p2]

These activities can be carried out by a variety of people in an organisation - or indeed in a highly
proactive organisation by all its members. A responsive College would have a focal marketing section in the organisation to liaise with its customers and presumably be staffed throughout by lecturers who saw aspects of marketing as an embedded part of their work in Further Education.

However, it is in its broadest sweep, as a particular approach to business, or a management attitude via relation to customers and their needs, known as the "marketing concept" [see Wilmshurst 1984 p3] that marketing is being used here. It is an exhortation to Colleges, intended to change the way in which Colleges relate to the community, particularly the industrial and commercial community. Basically a marketing college is a customer oriented college, concerned about meeting demands rather than continually supplying what it can comfortably deliver. (As the M.S.C. in 1984 [see ED 1984] became one of the main direct customers of vocational education it is not surprising that they were so keen to encourage market-led providers).

However, becoming "customer-oriented" also has implications for becoming "product-oriented" i.e. is this the product which the customer wants?; or how can we discover and then provide the products which customers want? By implication this may necessitate
change and innovation, if it is discovered that the customers want something different and new.

It is the customer who determines what a business is. It is the customer alone whose willingness to pay for a good or service converts economic resources into wealth, things into goods. What the business thinks of its products is not of the importance - especially not to the future of the business and to its success . . . .

What the customer thinks he is buying, what he considers value is decisive - it determines what a business is, what it produces and whether it will prosper . . . . Because its purpose is to create a customer the business enterprise has two - and only these two - basic functions: marketing and innovation. Marketing and Innovation produce results; all the rest are "costs". [Drucker - quoted Wilmshurst 1984 p4].

Thus marketing as a process will involve the College in a change of relationships with its community, will require it to review and change its products as necessary and also make it cost conscious as marketing is central to success in business terms i.e. giving value for money and keeping costs down. Exactly how logically all these concepts were linked into responsiveness was not quite clear but presumably a College offering the right product to the appropriate clientele would produce a large demand and thus have cost effective courses giving value for money.

The link between cost effectiveness and marketing was clearly made by the Audit Commissions report 'Obtaining better value from further education' [Audit Commission 1985] which exhorted colleges to improve
marketing, for the report estimated that an extra 75,000 students could be taught using existing resources. Poor marketing was also blamed for high drop out rates - "above 20% for full time courses or 30% for part time courses" and also for non-viable courses and unexpected shortfalls in enrolments". The report commended certain Colleges for good marketing practice

which could be more widely adopted: - a five-member consortium for collaborative marketing has been established in Coventry and - some colleges are functioning for 46 to 50 weeks rather than 36 weeks. [Audit Commission 1985].

The report also looked at other issues concerned with obtaining better value by controlling resources more carefully, notably the deployment of staff as measured by student/staff ratios. It also called into question the level of staff grading, lecturer contact hours and the number of hours and weeks teaching on any course. The Audit Commission in effect asks that college staff work harder (larger classes taught less often, fuller timetables for less pay (reduced remission, less over-grading of staff) so as to free them to 'market' their services more effectively, with an implied end of working still harder for even less pay. It would be interesting to attempt selling the idea to industry/commerce. [Theodossin 1986 p22]

Thus Responsiveness seemed to require Colleges to become much more flexible as to what was provided,
when it is provided and how it is provided (the emphasis on delivering to individuals and its implications for Open Learning will be dealt with later in this chapter) and much more concerned with profit! Yet we have seen in chapter 3 that Further Education arose out of a mixture of non-profit oriented needs; to make craftsmen more skilled and therefore more independent of a profit oriented labour market; to broaden the horizons of adult working people away from profit oriented vocationalism; and, in the light of these two, has always attracted as lecturers those who see a commitment to broader education [see chapter 4] as a way of liberating students from a purely profit driven work and/or learning experience.

Theodossin refers to such lecturers as "missionaries", characterised by a CBI spokesperson as someone "who is anti-industry and talks about the "whole person" and bull of that kind" [Theodossin 1986 p13] In effect, then, what the M.S.C. the Audit Commission and, by implication, industrialists were seeking from colleges willing to become responsive, and especially from their staff,

was selected aspects of the missionary (self-sacrifice) and the marketeer (hustling) approaches placed side by side without any acknowledgement that each derives from a different value system, and that they fit together uncomfortably. [Theodossin 1986 p22]
The values and orientation of Brown College staff will be explored in chapters 7, 8 and 9.

If responsiveness meant making colleges more business like and cost conscious as well as flexible and client centred then it is not surprising that Theodossin's respondents had such difficulty in identifying a group of colleges whose responsiveness had gained widespread acknowledgment. In effect the term "responsiveness" means different things some of which may be acceptable to "missionaries" or "hustlers" but not necessarily to both. However,

more than 80% of the respondents identified individual personality (especially that of the Principal) as the major determinant of college responsiveness, with considerably smaller proportions attributing any significant influence to situation/setting or organisation structure. [Theodossin 1986 p53]

With these considerations of what responsiveness might mean and this outline of what characterises and contributes to it the next section will look at a college which was redesigned in the early 1980's in a way which would allow it to satisfy and respond to all its clients at local, national and even international level - Brown College.
The information for this section and indeed for the claim that the institution which is being described here is the realisation of the 'ideal type' responsive college was made possible by access to two important sources of information. The first was the published literature and unpublished papers (e.g., handouts for management seminars) made available by a Principal - Principal Sheen - who had gone on record as having designed and developed an institution (a Regional College) which would be able as far as was possible to respond to the demands which he perceived that the changes in the 1980's (see previous chapters) would make upon F.E.

The second source was the papers and records kept by the Principal of Brown College - Principal B1 - which showed that his organisation had also been designed and developed along the same model of responsiveness as is described in Principal Sheen's papers. (This was confirmed by interview data from Principal B). Thus the literature about Principal Sheen's college applies equally well to Brown College and is representative of its Principal's philosophy. Principal B was appointed in 1977 and resigned in 1989 and the changes that made the college fit the Responsiveness model were essentially brought about by
the organizational structure he created in the College.

Much of the philosophy for FE Colleges held by Principal B can be seen in an article written in 1984 in which Sheen stated that

In my analysis, the nature of the work of the college was going to change, not in a single once and for all change, but in a continuous manner and the College needed to be able to identify the changes needed and to respond quickly and flexibly to the new circumstances. The existing departmental structure was too rigid to allow this. [Sheen 1984A p 26].

The article continues that

The future seems likely to produce changes in the work of the college which are even more radical and more frequent than those in the past. It will usually be impossible to predict the nature of these changes . . . and it is essential therefore, to have a structure which can sense changes and respond to them as quickly as possible. This means in turn that all staff have to be aware of changing demands and of the need to innovate. Decision making thus needs to be delegated as far as possible. [Sheen 1984A p27]

In the same article with reference to the District Auditor and the M.S.C. it was pointed out that as promotion prospects are likely to be less good in the future job satisfaction for lecturers would have to come from a sense of having a say in how work is to be organised. This could be achieved by having a small basic working unit - the section.
It should be unnecessary to state, but it is worth saying that the function of a college is to educate students, not to provide jobs for the staff. The structure should thus be student centred and learning centred rather than teaching centred, otherwise the College will be unable to adapt to the change to open learning and to make use of developments such as computer based learning which we are developing. . . No Principal can be expert at all of the aspects of work of his College. Innovation comes from staff in general. A Principal can encourage innovation or discourage innovation. What he cannot do is to order innovation [Sheen 1984A p27].

Thus what we have here is a view from a Principal convinced of the need to develop a flexible, dynamic organisation in order to respond to the demands that a variety of initiatives were going to make upon it.

Central to this view is a judgement about how staff should be managed to achieve innovation in an organisation. They must be permitted and encouraged to be innovative in their work, but they cannot be ordered to be innovative.

The view was fully shared by Principal B who restructured his College in the early 1980s. The full workings of the organisational structure will be explored in the next chapter.

It is important to note here that Principal B believed that the structure and the resulting culture meant that Brown College was singularly well suited to responding to the needs of industry.

176
In every major area of study there are Advisory Committees linking industrialists to the College and of course 6000 of the students work in industry so the feedback from them is very strong... I am often asked how staff at the College keep up to date with industrial change – the real situation is that industry comes to us to run courses to help people in industry to keep up to date. For college staff keeping up to date is relatively simple, they have time, opportunity and encouragement [Sheen 1984A p28]

Little room here for the charge made by the industrial/commercial respondents in Theodossin's study that colleges "are inflexible, slow and out of touch and out of date". [Theodossin 1986 pp13-14]

In another paper ('Manpower Services Commission Takeover of Non-Advanced Further Education') written as a specific response to the leaked news that the M.S.C. would be directly funding Work Related Non-Advanced Further Education Sheen again stressed the importance of the non-departmental structure in facilitating a response to M.S.C.'s demands, whilst also asserting that a section-based college's approach to marketing would put it in the forefront of other types of colleges.

The Assistant Principal (Planning) has direct responsibility for the overall marketing of the college ...(and as such acts as the main link between the College and Commercial interests in the Region) ... heads the Industrial Services Unit of the College ... and ... Chairs the Publicity Committee.

The College has an Industrial Liaison Officer whose role is to visit local industry, establish
their education/training needs and to market the services of the College.

With approximately 6,000 Part-time Vocational students, course tutors link direct with all the range of employers in the region . . . It is difficult to see how we could do more" and finally in the document the Principal says "On every count, we match, or surpass what M.S.C. are asking for. We should market ourselves very vigorously to M.S.C. to ensure that they know we can meet their requirements and are eager to do so." [Sheen 1984B]

We have seen that the M.S.C's view of responsiveness emphasised a particular aspect of marketing i.e. gathering market intelligence in order to use the information to provide flexible vocational education and training in an efficient manner. In a paper delivered to a CBI Seminar in November 1985 Sheen defined an efficient college as one "which meets the education and training needs of the Community which it serves with the minimum input of resources". [Sheen 1985C p2] How this may be measured had been resolved in a variety of unsatisfactory ways though the one most usually used, Unit Costing, was probably more unsatisfactory then most as its formula could best be represented by

\[
\text{UNIT COST} = \frac{\text{HALF TRUTH}}{(\text{GUESS} \times \text{ASSUMPTION})}
\]

[Sheen 1985C p2]

Fig 2 An equation for Unit Costing

The Manpower Services Commission stresses not Unit Cost but 'responsiveness to market demands' with a high value placed on rapid response, Marketing and adaptation to market trends . . .
a rapid response college --- makes inherently a high cost college simply because if it can respond quickly it must have spare resources both in rooms and in Staff - if both rooms and Staff are utilised with 100% efficiency there is, by definition, no spare resources and hence a slow response . . .

Each of these initiatives is a "feed-back loop" - everyone of these loops have common characteristics. They demand information from the College about our outputs, usually in incompatible formats and timescales and then feed to us either advice, directives or money (or all three) usually requiring the College to keep separate accounts and records to justify the money received. [Sheen 1985C p4]

The title of the Paper was "Colleges are Efficient Already" and the tone of it was that it was the context in which colleges operated, including the demands of the M.S.C. for responsiveness, that limited the efficiency of Colleges like his own. Whilst it was critical of the situation which colleges like his were beginning to find themselves in

someone is trying to maximise my efficiency by sandwiching me between the white heat of the Manpower Services Commission and the icy cold of the Audit Commission [Sheen 1985 A p1]

it made it clear that the Conditions of Service of College Staff could be seen as the most serious inefficiency imposed on a college - or at least the Principal of a College - and which he noted had been heartily criticised by the Audit Commission.

College Principals are not consulted when the
L.E.A.s negotiated with the Unions on Conditions of Service or Salaries and if the result is unworkable - which it often is! - then the blame should be placed where it belongs. [Sheen 1985C p6]

Interview data from Principal B confirmed that he also felt that the conditions of service were a great impediment to efficiency and a considerable limitation on a crucial development for Responsive Colleges ie the development of Open Learning provision (see Section V of this chapter). The kind of college which would have Open Learning as its defining method of delivery would require a very different role for academic staff.

With core and national subjects taught nationally via television they will have the important role of counselling, tutoring, explaining and feeding comments back to the programme-makers to enable experiments to be made. They will not make, or be permitted to make, a career in further education but will come from industry and commerce for three to four year spells after which they will have to return to industry. Updating will therefore be continuous and compulsory. [Sheen 1983 p244]

This ideal of moving staff effortlessly between College and Industry would be further facilitated by aligning F.E. and industry hours and developing comparable conditions between the two sectors. "Colleges have to fit in with industry ... this is not a school" [Principal B interview data]. As the Principal of Brown College did not wish his
organisation to be viewed as a school he did not think that the conditions of service appropriate for school teachers were appropriate for academic staff in F.E. Sheen's views recorded in 1985 may have seemed radical then but now are seen to fit with the increasing government-led drive for more flexible market led and economically efficient institutions.

In a paper written in the mid 1980s Principal B listed the major elements in an F.E. Lecturers job [see Appendix 10 – note points 7, 17 and 18] and laments that the present Conditions of Service concentrate attention wholly on 2 to 5 whilst the others are all necessary although probably in a different mix for each role. By a series of calculations the paper suggests that annual contact hours - for all grades - should be 1,786 with weighting for remission and unsocial hours, on the understanding that an F.E. College should be open to customers for 365 days per year. The writer's final word on Conditions of Service are "If you wish to be really radical this could pave the way to the abolition of F.E. salary scales in favour of recruiting at the market rate for the qualifications and experience of the individual instead of pretending that historians and systems analysts are worth the same and being unable to recruit the best systems analysts!" [Principal B 1985]
which is certainly a market oriented recruitment policy and flexible — at least for the recruiter.

Earlier in that same year that such radical suggestions about the appointment and payment of staff were being made by "Responsive" Principals a paper on "Change in Further Education" [Sheen 1985B] was published by a Principal whose College was effectively coping with the many changes that he could see had taken place since the mid 1970s — especially in Funding and in the control of that funding:

we have to keep separate accounts for

- Four Open Tech Projects
- Five European Social Fund Courses
- Ten Y.T.S. Consortia
- Multi-racial work (Section 11 funding)
- Educational Support Grant Expenditure

[Sheen 1985B p43]

and Principal B at Brown College could also have added T.V.E.I. and PICKUP² to the list — the latter also involving Local Collaborative Projects. Brown College was also part of a movement for the formation of "Consortia between the College and groups of employers to do research into the training needs of industry so that the Colleges can meet these needs" [Sheen p45]. Thus again these Principals showed that whilst the pace of change (as had been anticipated by these Principals) was speeding up here at least were
examples of Colleges serving their communities and adapting to the new scenario of the 1980's.

Hardly surprising then, that one of these Principals was invited to deliver another paper on the "treatment" necessary for success in Further Education provision to a staff conference in a large College of Further and Higher Education in the South of England in 1986. In "Further Education - a suitable Case for Treatment" Sheen warned that Doctor Audit Commission and Doctor Manpower Services Commission were standing at the bottom of the bed looking at a very sick patient indeed - FE Colleges - and debating whether to pull the plug on their life support system - the Local Education Authority. That FE Colleges - though by implication not responsive Colleges such as Brown College - had allowed themselves to get into this sorry plight could only be explained by the fact that Colleges "have been slow to recognise that they are a service industry or more correctly a service business". [Sheen 1986 p2]

It had happened because they had not asked the question

What Business are you in? - - - To many educationalists the questions may seem trivial 'I am a teacher therefore I teach' would be the reply - a reply which raises two points: the question was business not what occupation; what business are we really in? Both these aspects
are equally important to us in Further Education - we are in business so we had better find out what that business is . . . . For far too long we have lived with the cosy supposition that education is a process which can only take place in the presence of an educationalist . . . . In a traditional Technical College, it was true to say that there was too much teaching going on and not enough learning. Staff felt, and may still feel that at the end of a two hour lecture session they should feel exhausted - I say nonsense it is your students who should be exhausted!" [Sheen 1986 p3]

Principals concerned with responsiveness must challenge traditional teaching assumptions - especially that

What is taught, How it is taught, When it is taught, Where it is taught and How fast it is taught should all be determined by the teacher . . . (and that) only students deemed suitable by the teacher (or some other body) will be allowed access to the knowledge" [Sheen 1986 p4]

Instead at a time of rapid change when re-skilling will not be done by withdrawing from the productive process at four yearly intervals but by a continuous process of learning, possibly aided by a few short courses FE has to set up a system in which Access is open to all who wish to learn and this means

That the attitudes and structures of FE Colleges and their staff have to change . . . We are not the only supplier. Computer based learning can and has been done without colleges, and commercial organisations will offer the flexible cost effective training if we do not. [Sheen 1986 p8]
Principal B at Brown College was very aware of the threat from other providers and designed his organisation (see chapter 6) to compete effectively in the learning market which he could see emerging in the 1980s.

(v) Learning, Teaching and Pioneering at Brown College

We have seen that Principal B realised that in a flexible customer-orientated College, the staff would have to become more flexible about what they taught, when they taught and how they taught. Thus Open Learning or Flexi Study was a delivery system which he was proud to proclaim as being part of his responsive college. The emphasis upon new delivery systems grew out of the discussions of the same group of enthusiasts who helped bring about the innovation in the college structure [see chapter 6].

At that time Open Learning or Resource Based Learning was made available to students who requested it through bought in packages, "Low-cost tailor-made packages . . . This at its lowest form is not much more than a structured reading list plus access to a tutor" [Sheen 1983 p242]. Brown College had also pioneered Resource Based Learning by being one of the earliest Colleges to develop Workshops for Mathematics
and English which could be used by full- or part-time students as determined by the lecturers. Principal B justified the initial investment which was "a considerable amount of money at the time" by the "saving in lecturing hours" and "the saving in preparation time" [Principal B interview data].

Similar accounts suggest that

the cost of setting up the Maths Workshop was about £8,000 and about eight hours per week for two years - a total investment of about £13,000 which has been wholly justified by the results. The major cost was in fact the loss of one of the largest rooms in the college to house the workshop . . . .

The success of the Mathematics Workshop encouraged other staff to propose a similar workshop for English and communications . . . . Since coming into operation in September 1983 it has generated 1200 student-hours per week with 85 staff-hours (average class size 14:1) - above the college average and scheduled to increase [Sheen 1983 pp242-243]

The other major support at Brown to more independent student learning was the development of an Educational Services Unit. This unit was run by a group of staff responsible for in-college in-service training and for the practical resources for the independent learning which they were encouraging the staff to develop for the students. These resources, library, library tutorial room, AVA library, AVA workshop, print room and computer room were located in a series of inter-connecting rooms to give the maximum flexibility in use. However, moving rapidly to Open Learning has its
problems and complications mainly around staff development, student support, resourcing and administration. Sheen argued that

It is however, necessary to take a robust view of administrative problems. If an end is educationally desirable but administratively impossible, do not abandon the end but change the administration [Sheen 1983 p243]

and that was the view taken by Principal B at Brown College.

This robust proactive approach to solving difficulties in new delivery systems was typical of the approach of the Principal of Brown College to administration, management and leadership in his organisation. In a paper given on a Professional Development Programme run jointly by the Industrial Society and the MSC for College Managers a Principal of a responsive college emphasising the significance of the organisational structure for allowing a response to change, stated

Academic Leadership is the combination of attitudes and actions which produce in a College an ethos in which the pursuit of excellence is routine; in which colleagues feel themselves to be colleagues and are proud of their collegiality . . . . ( . . . . working towards a common purpose as part of a team) in which innovation flourishes not for the pursuit of the trendy but because it is seen as a means of achieving the aim of ensuring the best possible education for each of our students; in which Inspectors are redundant because each member of staff is self-critical and each group of staff collectively critical of all that they do . . . . To sum up, in
a thrusting innovative market oriented college, Academic Leadership is diffused through the structure. Not every member of staff is a leader - that for the moment is too much to hope for! But there are enough and their distribution is such that most every Section has within it a source of ideas and enquiry. [Sheen 1989 pp 5-6]

This diffused leadership was claimed by Principal B to be the defining quality of his responsive college. A more flamboyant expression of Principal B's view of what a college could be and what its staff at all levels could be was a paper he wrote about a 'Settler'-type college - which would be a suitable case for treatment and a 'Pioneer'-type college ie a Responsive College. This latter being characterised by Pioneer philosophy in which the college is a Covered Wagon permanently on the move "always where the action is". [see Appendix 11]

It moves in on the future and doesn't bother to glorify its own ruts. The old wagon isn't comfortable, but the pioneers couldn't care less. There is a new world to explore. . . . The Assistant Principal is the Scout. He rides out ahead to find out which way the pioneers should go. He lives all the dangers of the trial. The Scout suffers every hardship, is attacked by Indians, feared by the settlers . . . By looking at the Scout, those on the trail learn what it really means to be a pioneer . . . The lecturer is the Cook. He doesn't furnish the meat - he just dishes up what the system demands. He never confuses his job with that of the trail boss or scout. He sees himself as just another pioneer who has learned to cook. The cooks job is to help the pioneer -(student) - to pioneer . . . . In pioneer philosophy the Principal is the Trail Boss. He is rough and rugged - full of life. He chews tobacco, drinks straight whisky and can out-cuss any sailor alive. The trail boss lives, eats, sleeps, fights with his men. Their well-
being is his concern. Without him the wagon wouldn't move... The trail boss often gets down in the mud to help push the wagon which frequently gets stuck. He lugs the pioneers when they get soft and want to turn back. His fist is an expression of his concern". [Principal B - Appendix 11]

(vi) Concluding Remarks

If Theodossin's research on the responsive college is correct in asserting that it is the personality of the Principal that was seen to be the most important factor in responsiveness then we can see that on this basis alone this chapter has identified a Responsive College. Principal B indicated that Brown College was able to do more than respond to new initiatives - it was willing and able to identify what might be coming next and proactively prepare rather than reactively wait. We have also seen how a concern for efficiency and the full implications of being market oriented was a major pre-occupation in the post-N.T.I. 1980s for a Responsive College. Principal B realised the implications for staff recruitment and conditions of service. Through an early concern with open learning, access and flexible delivery Brown College was proclaimed by its Principal to be innovative with, rather than merely responsive to, curriculum change.

The ability of the Principal to market his College as an actual realisation of the Responsiveness ideal
loosely outlined in M.S.C./F.E.S.C. literature [see FEU 1982] is the embodiment of his right to claim responsiveness. He exemplified the marketing element of responsiveness by agreeing to speak at the gatherings of those concerned to develop responsiveness in FE and to deal with the innovations in FE necessary for the 1980s and beyond. However, this thesis seeks to argue that responsiveness and (curriculum) innovation are two different entities.

The next part of the thesis will observe the Responsive College so well marketed by its Principal as it responded to the new system of National Vocational Qualifications and a competence curriculum - the Government's "Trojan horse" for organizational and curriculum reform of Further Education. It is with the reformed organisational structure of Brown College that we shall begin our observations.
Since Brown College had been established there have only been 3 Principals. The Principal who redesigned the College structure and who was responsible for the College in the late 70's and 80's was the second Principal of the College - see chapter 6.

P.I.C.K.U.P. is the acronym for Professional, Industrial and Commercial Updating a D.E.S. based initiative for mid-career professional development.
PART III

The Responsive College

A Case Study
This chapter after: (i) an introduction will; (ii) discuss relevant aspects of organisational theory; (iii) outline the history of the College as an organisation in its environment; (iv) describe the restructuring of the organisation in 1984; (v) examine the new democratic structure and particularly the role of the Section Heads; (vi) discuss managing, leading and planning within this democratic structure; (vii) describe and analyze the culture of the organisation; and end with; (viii) concluding remarks.

(i) Introduction

We have seen in the last chapter how Principal B argued that Brown College would be responsive to, and innovative with, the new programmes and delivery systems implicit in the New Training Initiative and confirmed with the developments of N.V.Q's.

This Responsiveness and innovation was made possible by the organisational structure developed in the College [see Appendix 12] This structure was designed
to be very different to the traditional, hierarchical, autocratic structure found in department-based Technical Colleges. The intention was to create a "climate of participation" [Principal B interview data] ie a democratic structure and culture in which "people could initiate and nurture whatever ideas they had without them being trampled on at the embryo stage". [Principal B - interview data] This had implications for management and leadership in the College.

We shall see in this chapter that the relationship between organisational structure and culture is not simple nor deterministic. Also as Handy [1985] and Jeffcutt [1986] argue organisations contain a variety of cultures at different levels and within different groups. This chapter will trace the differing experiences of participants of the proclaimed culture of Brown college.

(ii) Organisational Theory

An organisation has been defined as

the rational co-ordination of the activities of a number of people for the achievement of some common explicit purpose or goal, through division of labour and function, and through a hierarchy of authority and responsibility [Schein 1970 p7].

More significant than the design of the organisation is the effect which that design has upon people's effort within the organisation.
Structure is created by management to establish relationships between individuals and groups, to provide order and systems and to direct the efforts of the organisation into goal-seeking activities. It is through the formal structure that people carry out their organisational activities in order to achieve aims and objectives. The focus of attention, therefore, is on the impact of organisation structure and design and patterns of management, on the behaviour of people within the organisation. [Mullins 1989 p3]

However, it could be argued that it is people who have goals, not institutions or organisations, and often organisational practice reflect an accommodation between the needs of the participants and the stated or formal goals of the organisation. [See Mullins 1989 p87]

The interface between the needs of the participants and the needs of the organisation is clearly seen in the means of and degree of control exercised by the organisation over its participants behaviour. This behaviour will depend upon the "fit" that there is between the needs of the individual and the goals of the organisation; where they are in harmony little overt control will be required.

Etzioni has examined this issue of control and suggests that:

Control based on application of physical means is described as coercive power. Material rewards consist of goods and services. The granting of
symbols (eg money) which allow one to acquire goods and services is classified as material because the effect on the recipient is similar to that of material means. The use of material means for control purposes constitutes utilitarian power. . . . The use of symbols for control purposes is referred to as normative, normative-social, or social power. Normative power is exercised by those in higher ranks to control the lower ranks directly as when an officer gives a pep talk to his men. Normative-social power is used indirectly, as when the higher in rank appeals to the peer group of a subordinate to control him (eg as a teacher will call on a class to ignore the distractions of an exhibitionist child). Social power is the power which peers exercise over one another. [Etzioni 1964 p59]

We shall see that the management at Brown College asserted that as a professional organisation or indeed a "collegiate organisation" [Principal B interview data] the only possible control was normative, and that with the section system (to be described in a later section of this chapter) there was an emphasis upon the "social power . . . which peers exercise over one another" [Etzioni see quote above]

We have seen in the previous chapter that the goals of Further Education Colleges, which have always been varied and complex, were shifted by the Government in the 1980s towards "Economic Reality" which according to Etzioni should necessitate a Utilitarian Compliance structure within the organisation. This chapter suggests that changing a structure in an organisation is relatively simple but changing the personal goals and the sub-cultures within the organisation -
including that of managers - is much more difficult - even when there is a proclaimed culture of normative compliance which is only possible if there are shared values.

(iii) The History of the Organisation in its Environment

Much of the information in this section is based upon interview data from the first Principal of the College - Principal A. Unless otherwise attributed quotations in this section are from this source.

As we saw in Chapter 3 the 1944 Education Act placed a duty on local education authorities to provide further education within their areas which may already have been provided on an ad hoc basis by evening institutes, day release workshops etc. Like many other authorities Brownshire was content to let provision remain at this level but under considerable pressure from an H.M.I. a site was found and tenders invited for the building of a Technical College for Brown City. Whilst the planning, and later, building was in progress a named person employed by the L.E.A. "was given a notebook and collection of Nissan Huts" with which to oversee and develop the F.E. provision which would eventually be housed on a purpose-built site. The main provision at this time being linked to
the needs of the engineering firms in the area.

That post-holder left in 1952 and the first Principal of Brown Technical College (an engineer by training) was appointed that same year to manage an organisation of 2 full-time lecturers, many part-time lecturers and a student body of "two dozen full-time and one hundred and fifty part-time students", some of them being taught in a boys school" which was empty because it had been condemned in 1925"

In the 1950s further building took place to accommodate Secretarial and Commercial courses. In the early 1960s under pressure from "Central Government policy on science education" and "an active H.M.I." a science block was built with money from the authority and "gifts from industry" as it was felt that the engineering and construction courses (which were the first to be provided and accommodated after building started in the early 1950s) needed an applied science input "from a good science department". Business studies and management studies and catering also developed in the 1960s. By the end of the 1960's there was the following internal organisation structure
The first Vice Principal was "the senior Head of Department in the College, - the Head of Engineering" but he returned to the Head of Engineering post and "a man from outside the College was appointed" as Vice Principal. College policy from the 1950's until the retirement of the Principal in 1977 was decided by the Principal, Vice Principal and Heads of Department who then informed their staff of the decisions made. During that time other parts of the College structure developed.

A College Governing body was set up in 1954, ("before that reports went to the LEA's Further Education Committee"); the Governors were chosen by the Local Authority - "half were members of the authority half were from key firms in the area".
"Advisory Committees for Construction and Banking were in place before 1952" and the other Advisory Committees emerged as the College developed.¹ In line with the Government Circular 7/70 which called upon local authorities to submit draft articles of Government for the Colleges Brownshire County Council instructed the College to set up an Academic Board "to advise the Principal on the planning, co-ordination and development of the academic work of the college as a whole" [Cantor and Roberts 1983 p28]

A College Council was also set up in the 1960's to discuss non-academic matters which might be of concern to students.

By the mid 1970s there was much discussion amongst staff about a more appropriate organisational structure, but the first Principal "refused to get involved with this agitation over structure from people". In 1977 Principal A retired and Principal B was appointed from outside the City and County. An engineer by profession, he had been Head of Department at one, and Vice Principal at another Technical College. The retiring Principal was "not consulted over the appointment".
The members of staff involved in the "agitation" before Principal A left continued to pressurise the new Principal for change. The change in which the group of "agitators" was particularly interested was the development of an educational services unit within the College to provide, via the City and Guilds 730 qualification for Teachers in Adult and Further Education, initial teacher training for new members of staff. The group presented their arguments for this and associated changes in a paper prepared for the Academic Board [see Appendix 13]. They argued for more College-based staff development in the college as changes to the then T.E.C. and B.E.C. courses, as outlined in the Haslegrave report, [1979] would require different methods of delivery, more student centred learning and more staff teamwork on courses.

The paper, which was put to the new Principal, was essentially arguing for a change of direction in the College towards the provision of teacher education for the wider community; - "Brownshire is one of only two counties in England that has within its boundaries no institution of initial teacher-training within its control" [appendix 13] - and thus a move away from the Technical College image towards that of a provider of academic courses on education for College staff, the staff of local schools, and other adult students.
The group was listened to by the new Principal when he embarked on a restructuring of the organisation of the College.

(iv) Restructuring for Innovation

Principal B, like his predecessor, had an industrial background (usually seen as essential in FE for understanding, and thus being able to serve, the needs of industry). He soon began to consider how the college could develop a structure "which could sense change and respond to it" [Principal B Interview Data]. He was also influenced by demands within the College for "greater democracy" [Principal B Interview Data], a demand from the staff which had built up in the last years of Principal A's rule.

This is usually expressed in the form of demands for Academic Boards with executive powers. This I do not feel is the answer to a justifiable demand of academic staff to have a say in the running of the College and it seemed better to build up a "grass roots" democracy based on small working groups. [Sheen May 1987].

This was the type of democratic College which Principal B was hoping to develop.

This was linked to the requests he was receiving at that time from the group gathering around the staff development issue who were arguing for a move away
from a departmental structure to facilitate curriculum development.

The Principal also felt that Management Structures must stem from the nature and function of the organisation in which they are implemented. No Principal (and by implication other managers) can be expert in all the aspects of work of his College [see Sheen 1987]; the expertise and the ability to innovate (as Principal B and others argued in the last chapter) should be with the newest and least senior members of staff therefore a structure should be devised whereby Management encouraged rather than inhibited innovation. This rationalisation and shrinkage of "Management" and the devolution of responsibility to smaller units in the College were the essential features of the restructuring as recounted in Principal B's papers and by those in the College who remembered the change.

However, on a more practical level "two events triggered off the change. Firstly, one Head of Department became Vice-Principal in another College and two of the other Heads of Department and the Chief Administrative Officer indicated that they were interested in early retirement.
Secondly, the college had a financial crisis . . . . "expenditure had to be reduced by £300,000 per year and this would require a considerable reduction in the academic staff of the College. If, however, we could reduce the number of Heads of Department, then we could reduce the number of lecturers who had to go. Reorganisation then was the only way out of a difficult situation, the crisis serving to clarify peoples minds". [Principal B Interview Data]. The defining elements of this new structure were to be the sections which would create a dynamic organic structure "to give flexibility and rapid response" [Principal B Interview Date]

Mullins has characterised an organic system by

- the contribution of special knowledge and experience to the tasks of the organisation
- the adjustment and continued redefinition of tasks
- a network structure of control, authority and communication
- technical or commercial knowledge located throughout the organisation, not just at the top
- superior knowledge not coinciding necessarily with positional authority
- a lateral direction of communication and communication based more on information and advice than instructions and decisions
- commitment to the common task of the organisation and
- the importance and prestige attached to individual contribution

[Mullins 1989 p157]
To bring this structure and attendant culture about the College was regrouped into Sections within Boards of Study.

(v) The new Structure and the Section Heads

The sections, composed of 6 - 10 members of staff - were designed as a unit to involve all staff "in both decision making and action" [Sheen 1984A p28] This would ensure that every member of staff felt that they had a responsibility "to respond quickly and positively" to changes in the community which the College served.

"The Section has a Section Head but it has been made clear to all of the Section Heads that they are NOT a mini Head of Department but working members of the Section team" [Principal B paper for governors 1983] - thus the job descriptions of the Section Heads is "a description of what the Section as a whole has to achieve. The Section Head is NOT a manager but a team leader and has to ensure that the TEAM achieve these activities and tasks. The Section Head is responsible to the management team" [Job Description for Section Head Brown Technical College 1983] Thus in the early 1980s the departmental structure was dismembered; groups of like-minded individuals with a subject area in common clustered around a natural team leader (who
"emerged" as their preference) in order that the College could be the dynamic institution necessary for the 1980s and beyond.

These team leaders would meet regularly in order to discuss the issues central to the development of the College.²

During the period of the research the role of the sections, but especially the role and status of the section heads, engaged much of the energy of the staff of the College. At every Section Heads meeting attended by the researcher it was mentioned either as a mumbling aside "yet they tell us we are not managers" or as an adjunct to a discussion of an Agenda item "why do we have to deal with this if we are not managers" or was listed as an Agenda item itself - "The Role of the Section Head".

The vagueness of the Section Heads Role was clarified a little in October 1988 when a working party under the chairmanship of the Deputy Assistant Principal [D.A.P.] staffing, (see section (vi)) published a report recommending that Section Heads should be elected by the full-time teaching staff of the Section after being nominated and seconded by those same staff. The nominations would have to be approved by the management team and in the case of a tie in the
voting the management team would have a casting vote. It also stated that the Section Head should be elected every two years. This became the method of electing a Section Head.

This "clarification" seemed to please the Section Heads. Whilst it did nothing to change their position from Team Leaders to Manager they felt that this legitimated their claim to having some authority to go with the administrative responsibilities [eg timetabling, staffing etc] which they carried. When the researcher discussed this issue, of Section Heads having responsibility without necessarily any authority, with Principal B, and suggested that this ambiguity was rather dishonest, Principal B replied that he should not be blamed "for using a knowledge of psychology for managing people. The British are very status conscious they will always arrange themselves in a pyramid, if members of staff choose to take on this role without being really clear about it that is their choice". [Principal B Interview data].

The Section Heads often felt under-valued and felt that the management team didn't "understand what we actually do" [Section Head interview data] The officers of the Section Heads meeting (a voluntary gathering every month without any formal status) ie The Chair and the Secretary, met with management twice
a term when they were invited to attend for part of a Management Team meeting. They also set up ad hoc working parties on such topics as communications in the College, Rooming etc. because "we are the obvious group to deal with these matters". As new initiatives came into the College the Section Heads meeting was seen as a suitable forum to raise the implications of new developments - which they then duly noted. The Management Team as individuals had a standing invitation to attend the Section Heads meetings. Usually, unless there was a specific invitation to discuss a specific Agenda item they did not do so because "it is felt by them (the Management Team) especially the A.P. Staffing that Section Heads need to discuss matters freely without them being present" [former Secretary of the Section Heads meeting and future Deputy Director of Board of Studies]

Several section Heads thought that their role, as a group was to "represent the views of the staff to the management team", ("they are too remote" - "they don't understand how things are changing"); and to survey and comment on, if not directly criticise, the management of the college and make some judgements about the course the College was and should be taking.

It was to the Section Heads that the Accreditation of Prior Learning (APL) Co-ordinator\(^3\) directed two days
"awareness raising" at expensive venues outside the college in 1990; and it was the Section Heads who were invited to a County Funded INSET day on the implications of the 1988 Education Act. It was the Section Heads who were addressed extensively by Principal B on 26 January 1990 on the major issues facing the College in the 1990s which he stated were N.V.Q. and Quality and Efficiency. At this meeting there was time for only one question and that was whether the College was being merged with another College in the area - a rumour circulating in the College and causing some immediate concern because of the staffing implications. The issues raised by the Principal were not commented upon. It was also the Section Heads who were targeted with another INSET day in May 1990 to discuss and decide on a plan for future developments in the college in the light of N.V.Q. This kind of planning and direction, however, was felt by them to belong to the Management Team - "but it was an interesting day" [Section Head].

When the then Acting Principal (following the departure of Principal B in July 1990) announced (in September 1990) that the Sections were to be rationalised (ie reduced in number) and that Section Heads were to be appointed on the Senior Lecturer extended scale there was considerable consternation expressed amongst the non-management staff. There
were deep feelings that "it is the sections that make
this College the kind of place that it is" "We don't
need fewer sections - fewer managers would be more
like it" (a reference to the increase in the number
of D.A.P.s and their absorption into the management
team) "Sections won't work if somebody (the Section
Head) starts telling us what to do." [Lecturer
Interview Data].

Despite protests the Sections were reduced (from 8 to
5 in the Business and Management Board of Studies
[BAMBOS]; from 8 to 4 in the Technology Board of
Studies [TECBOS]; and from 12 to 9 in the Personal and
Community Board of Studies [PACBOS]; and Section Heads
were appointed by 21 March 1991 with a job description
which stated that "The leadership style employed by
Section Heads in carrying out their management
responsibilities should be one of consultation,
persuasion, encouragement and participation." Thus a
democratic management style was still foremost but for
many of the staff the college "just isn't going to be
the kind of place it was . . . and "How many of us
will continue to work in the way that we have?" and
"why change something that is working?"

210
(vi) Managing, Leading and Planning in the College

We have seen in the previous chapter that Principal B had devised a management structure within the College which would ensure Responsiveness. He assumed that within a permissive supportive environment many members of staff would be capable of leading and managing themselves. His responsibility within this structure was to exemplify the "Academic Leadership" which others in the organisation would develop and emulate. This was leadership "not in any one particular academic field" but "at the conceptual level above that of the subjects taught by the College." [Principal B - Paper on Academic Leadership].

The minimal management structure after re-organisation in 1983 consisted of a Principal, Vice-Principal, and four Assistant Principals [A.P.s]. These latter were appointed in 1983 from the remaining Heads of Departments. Each chaired a Board of Study and was to be responsible for a Cross College function. Thus the previous Head of Engineering chaired the Technology Board of Studies and became responsible for site management (Resources and Technicians). The previous Head of General Education chaired the Full Time Courses Board of Studies with a Cross College responsibility for Tertiary and Continuing Education.
The previous Head of Food, Fashion and Health chaired the Personal and Community Board of Studies and was responsible for Staff development and Curriculum development; and the previous Head of Business and Management Studies chaired the Business and Management Board of Studies and became responsible for Planning and later Marketing. These four A.P.s with the Vice Principal and Principal composed the Management Team whose job was to "influence and support developments in the College" and "support professional autonomous lecturers in a professional organisation". [A.P. interview data]

The vacuum between the Management Team and all other members of staff was filled by the Section Heads in their highly ambivalent position, and a proliferation of committees which would represent the views and wishes of staff to either the Management Team or the Academic Board.

At the time of the 1983 restructuring three sub-committees were set up to report to the Academic Board. These three sub-committees on Educational Efficiency, Planning and Resources and Staff Development gave other Cross College Roles to the three of the newly appointed Assistant Principals who chaired them. Other committees gradually developed in response to changes in the 1980s and the profound
"the correct structure and approach". [Lecturer Interview Data] Whilst the interviews and observations revealed some criticisms of the personalities involved in the management team, and while many commented on "a lack of real leadership" the structure was seen to be acceptable because "it is democratic" or more frankly "it allows me to do as I want" or "I just do what I want". [Lecturer Interview Data].

During the late 1980's - from 1987 onwards - another level of management was introduced. Each A.P. acquired a Deputy Assistant Principal (D.A.P.) and one A.P., the Assistant Principal Tertiary and Continuing acquired two D.A.P.'s and the A.P.s job was retitled A.P. Curriculum. Thus by 1989 the management structure could be depicted thus:-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRINCIPAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VICE PRINCIPAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP STAFFING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAP STAFFING</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig.4. Management structure of College - 1989

214
However, a major over-spend by the College in 1987/8 despite warnings from the L.E.A. the previous year, meant that financial control reverted temporarily to the local authority. Following a major investigation of the College's Management structure by the LEA in July 1989, a College Management Review report was compiled for the Management Team and the Governors in the Autumn of 1989 based on interviews with the Principal, the Vice Principal the four Assistant Principals and the four Deputy Assistant Principals who had been appointed between 1985 and 1988.

The report stated that "No organisation is, however, perfect and the nature of the further education service is such that systems and structures require constant review if they are to keep pace with rapid change . . In general terms the college structure is appropriate to the scale and nature of its operations. A major structural weakness appears to be the absence of formal-middle-management roles. Great care has been taken to ensure that innovation is not impeded by superfluous tiers of organisation". [L.E.A. Report]

The Report recommended that the roles and responsibilities of the Management Team members should be reviewed including those of the Deputy Assistant Principals. This was acted on by the Governors who, with the L.E.A., provided the role holders with new job descriptions and with clear accountabilities. These removed the A.P.'s cross college roles and gave them to the D.A.P.s; allowing the A.P.s to concentrate on running the three Boards of Studies. The A.P. who
had chaired the Full Time Board of Studies (which had gradually declined into a Committee chaired by a Senior Lecturer), was given responsibility for Quality throughout the College. Each A.P. who chaired a board of Study was given a Deputy Director to assist them in this role - and thus a tier of middle management was developed.

It also recommended that the Section Heads role be reviewed which, as we have seen, it was. The recommendation that a Chief Administrative Officer be appointed to clarify financial responsibility was also acted upon, as when the incumbent Vice Principal was promoted to acting Principal and eventually to Principal the VPs role was frozen and a C.A.O. was appointed in 1991. At the time of writing the cross-college roles of various co-ordinators and the function of the committees - especially the Academic Planning and Resources Committee - was being examined.


There has been an assumption at the college that planning reduces flexibility - an assumption which can largely be refuted . . . The requirements of the Education Reform Act set alongside the emergence of Training and Enterprise Councils have emphasised the need for colleges and Authorities to be clear about their markets and to plan accordingly. [L.E.A. 1989]
The changes brought about by the management review to the Sections and Section Heads, and to the A.P.s and D.A.P.s who now formed a larger management team, were perceived by many staff as being driven by the Governors. There was an awareness (evidenced in the 1990 questionnaire - see q16 appendix 3) that the Governors were now a more powerful body, though this was not necessarily an awareness of the changes brought about by the 1988 Education Act. "They are interfering more and more" or "they think that they understand the College - but why don't they actually spend time here to find out how it really works" and a very familiar comment was "if I felt that they really understood about education and about teaching I would feel happier." [Lecturers Interview Data]

The three Governors interviewed for the research certainly exhibited a keen interest in the College and a concern for educational issues. All were in agreement that educational efficiency was connected with exam results and that the College needed to serve "the community". However, they seemed to have rather different views on what the community was. One had a major concern for the staff and for those whose needs as adults, social as well as educational, would not be met elsewhere. One saw Further Education being about providing High Level courses "a good comprehensive school is . . . like a Grammar school . . . The
College will move on to Higher Level degree work . . and should try to become a Polytechnic". The third saw Further Education as being about giving people "alternative opportunities" . . "second chances" for "different types of qualifications". Whilst these views are not necessarily contradictory they may be incompatible and reflect the complex legacy of F.E. They also indicate that individuals may use organisational roles to address agendas which arise outside the organisation.

Whilst many staff felt uneasy about the power of Governors who "might not understand about Academic issues if they are industrialists" they seemed unaware of the potential power of the Academic Board for developing and implementing College policy. Of the sixty concept maps of the Organisation gathered throughout the research only three included the Academic Board as a point of reference. As this would seem to be the natural forum for a discussion of educational issues and curriculum innovations which the College needed to address, the researcher was surprised at the low profile it had with those staff who had never served upon it. At one of its meetings in 1990, attended by the researcher, the Board chaired by the Principal, sat in judgement whilst the coordinators appointed by the College (often with external funding) as part of the organic/matrix
structure "marketed" their curriculum area to the board. One of the "marketers" was the co-ordinator for Open Learning (see chapter 5) who explained the implications of embedding this approach into the College curriculum ie developing Resource Based Learning. This was one of the less popular items being offered to the Board for its response some seven years after Open Learning had been proclaimed by Principal B to be part of the defining provision of a Responsive College [see Chapter 5].

The board responded with a discussion but there were no decisions made on the priority to be accorded to the items (which included profiling/competence recording and also A.P.L.) This evidenced the philosophy within the College that "we don't plan", . . . "we can't plan" . . . "the Principal doesn't believe in planning" - or "we respond and do what we have to just ahead of everybody else". [Management Team Interview Data]

Planning was not seen to be part of a responsive college in which an abundance of leadership at every level minimised the necessity for management at any level. Watson has made an interesting distinction between management and leadership which is relevant for this discussion of Brown College. He asserts that within the "7S" organisational framework of -:
strategy, structure, systems, style, staff skills and superordinate or shared goals: managers tend to rely on strategy, structure and systems whereas leaders tend to use style, staff, skills and shared goals to achieve effectiveness. [Watson 1983]

At Brown College the practicalities of management were sacrificed to the principles and rhetoric of pioneering leadership at the expense of planning. Non-planning was part of the Responsive College culture and it is to this culture that we now turn.

(vii) The Culture of a Responsive College

Professor Handy tells us that

In organisations there are deep-set beliefs about the way work should be organised, the way authority should be exercised, people rewarded, people controlled. What are the degrees of formalization required? How much planning and how far ahead? What combination of obedience and initiative is looked for in subordinates? Do work hours matter or dress, or personal eccentricities? Do committees control, or individuals? Are there rules and procedures or only results? [Handy 1985 p186]

More simply, organisational culture (whether of formal organisations or informal associations, such as "collegial groups" - which was the Principal's aspiration for the sections) can be summarised as "this is how we do things round here" and one of the problems facing a researcher is the different cultures
that attend different groups and levels within an organisation.

Colleges are culturally very complex with differing departments importing their "industrial culture" into their section in the College. [The researcher has switched between course team meetings in the Caring section and the Engineering section in the same one hour slot for course team meetings and has found the contrast among people practising the same profession in the same institution quite absorbing].

We have seen Principal B's commitment to a culture of "democracy". Interviews with the other members of the management team revealed a commitment to a culture of "professionalism" i.e. "this is a professional institution" "there are a lot of experts here" "we are not always good at telling people how good we are at what we do" and amongst two members of the management team a concern that we may find it "more difficult to sustain this professionalism in the future" . . . as there will be "Pressure on timetables and teachers" . . . and "if people can't develop they will have to go" [Management Team Interview Data]

Those involved in staff development and thus involved in transmitting the culture, stressed the "value" and
"respect" they had for the staff especially in times of "rapid change" or even "too much change" and that their job was to "support" staff in their development, thus indicating a belief in a "personal growth" culture. [see Rogers 1961 or Tillich 1952]

The Plant O.P.I instrument [see appendix 4] indicated that 84% of the respondents who replied experienced the College culture as ANARCHIC. According to Plant this would mean that "the organisational culture was Person Oriented, Individual personalities predominate, sharing and group decision making is low, and individuals find their own solutions". [Plant . Appendix 4] Thus "anarchic" is "personal" but not necessarily linked to "growth".

A further 11% of the respondents indicated that they had experience of an Organic Culture, which was what the restructuring was designed to achieve whilst 5% had experienced the organisation as Bureaucratic - (though these 5% were clustered in one particular Board of Study - the Technology Board of Study. With a industrial culture the approach of manufacturing which had been weakened from the "Autocratic" to a "Bureaucratic" approach within the College. [See Plant OP1 Appendix 4]).
Most organisations carry some element of personality culture but 90% of respondents agreed with the statement that "Ones job depends not so much on titles or activities but on what sort of position you can carve out for yourself" [Item 17 Plant Inventory] A similar view was given by members of the staff induction group [staff recruited for the Academic year 1989-1990]. When asked what they had absorbed about the College from the induction programme they responded "you've got to be the right sort of human being here". "Its all about what sort of person you are" "Its about finding out if you're their kind of person". "You've got to have the right kind of personality" [New Staff Interview Data]. Clearly any organisation in which section leaders were left to "emerge" from discussion must be about the force of personality or at least "force" and "personality".

We have seen that there were different cultures in this "non-status" college amongst the different levels of the "non-hierarchy" [descriptions from interview data]. One group with a particularly ambivalent position in the structure were the proliferating cross-college co-ordinators. Just as the Section Heads could "emerge" to fill those posts from any level [Lecturer Grade I through to Principal Lecturer], so college co-ordinators with a variety of responsibilities (the N.V.Q./OPEN LEARNING/
MODULARISATION Co-ordinator appointed in 1989 to develop/support those three areas in the college was an L1 on 8 hours remission) were appointed as co-ordinators on a remission basis irrespective of their Grade. Thus the BTEC co-ordinator up to 1987 was a PL the T.V.E.I. pilot co-ordinator on appointment was an L2, the Y.T.S. co-ordinator was an SL and the N.V.Q./Open Learning/Modularisation co-ordinator as already stated was an L1.

Whilst such appointments may be "democratic", ie anyone could participate as a co-ordinator, and part of a "personality culture" in which charisma alone will bring about the curriculum development which those co-ordinators should achieve, the most overtly successful of those co-ordinators (in terms of career) were: (1) the BTEC co-ordinator who subsequently became the D.A.P. staffing and; (2) the T.V.E.I. Co-ordinator who subsequently became the D.A.P. Tertiary Education. Charisma they may certainly have had but the former also had status power in terms of position in the hierarchy of the College as a P.L. and as the head of a traditionally very important Section, still referred to by its members as a Department; the latter had power in terms of financial resources - ie a very large budget to dispense in the College from the T.V.E.I. pilot. How much change either brought about during their co-ordinator role will emerge in later
Conversations with these two co-ordinators, revealed that those who had managed to cross the threshold, the vacuum between sections and the management team, were aware of the personality culture in the college and felt that this was inevitable but there they diverged. One was sure that an FE College "can't be democratic nor had The Principal intended it to be" and that "accountability" and "performance indicators" were now going to be the basis of what and how things got done; he had thus been affected by his dealings via T.V.E.I. with the M.S.C. The other, felt that the college was "all about giving people permission to do things". This view reflected his involvement with the push for change in 1983 and his management training with the F.E.U. However, permissiveness can affirm existing practice as well as encouraging change (as chapter 8 on curriculum issues will show) and the lack of overt resource power left many co-ordinators with no other approach but charismatic seduction - as they had neither status power within the structure nor resource power. Jeffcutts analogy of "all sorts of goings on that earlier would have been quite immoral are now commonplace" as a description of the changes in relationship with external bodies which FE Colleges have had to come to terms with in the 1980s [See Jeffcut 1986 p2] is highly appropriate here. The
permissive culture which was practised by those with no other form of power in the organisation other than personal resources, meant that each co-ordinator was in an increasingly competitive market for lecturers' attention. Thus there was a lot noise from the co-ordinators but not necessarily change in the practice of participants in the organisation; but the noise levels led to a commonly held view that the institution was swinging along with the times or more prosaically "in tune with developments". However as Jeffcut also observes "While some encounters appear to lead to abundance and progeny {real staff development and real curriculum change} others appear to lead to social diseases" [Jeffcut 1986 p2] - not just a serious overspend but perhaps limitations on quality and professionalism.

One of the consequences of a democratic or more realistically, an anarchic culture at the bottom and an organic/power culture at the top with a loud rhetoric of "responsiveness" and "participation" at all levels (how can people participate in a structure of which they are unaware?) is that you have a "noisy institution". Noisy institutions are not always dynamically changing institutions. The instrument developed by Heller (described in appendix 8) shows that noisy institutions may be noisy in the resistance to change and many of the respondents who completed it
saw the college as noisy but not necessarily innovative.

However the culture which the college enjoyed between the early 1980s and 1991 may be described, it was proclaimed as a culture for change and staff who moved between different sections and levels in the organisation certainly experienced changing cultures as it contained different cultures. One way of conceptualising the shifting cultures in the college changes may be to use Handy's four fold classifications of organisational culture. [see Handy 1985 pp188-196 from which the quotations for this discussions are taken].

These are:

1) The Power Culture

   The Power Culture - in which control is exercised by the centre, largely through the selection of key individuals, by occasional forays from the centre or summonses to the centre. It is a political organisation in that decisions are taken very largely on the outcome of a balance of influence rather than on procedural or purely logical grounds. [Handy 1985 p189]

The "coup" which originated the re-organisation in
1983 was led by a "handful of enthusiasts" all of whom had something to gain by - and were rewarded for - the change. The role of this group which profoundly influenced staff development will be dealt with in the next chapter. We may also see later that the allocation of individuals to staff development opportunities and curriculum roles may have been more about power than democracy for whilst committees may meet decisions can be made singly or in caucus. The interview with the first Principal (Principal A) contained many references to "having to battle it out with" - usually the L.E.A. This Principal is fondly remembered by many staff as "a real autocrat" or even "a little Hitler". That exercise of power and the reaction it creates in those deprived of power does not just vanish from an institution. Also despite deliberately restructuring his institution on democratic lines Principal B said at several meetings that he had been a Head of Department in another institution and recognised that H.O.D.s operated as "robber barons" because he himself had done so and he thought this "inappropriate now" and "a waste of energy for all concerned". In the structure he devised there were no Robber Barons to act in concert against the Principal.

the Role Culture which is often stereotyped as bureaucracy. There is an emphasis on procedures in
this culture (going through the correct committees, approaching the correct people)

Role Cultures offer security and predictability for the individual. They offer a predictable rate of climb up a pillar. They offer the chance to acquire specialist expertise without risk [Handy 1985 p191]

All members of the small management team (before the development of and addition of the Deputy Assistant Principals) were raised in this culture under the regime of the first Principal. They thus rose to a certain level within a bureaucracy and suddenly found themselves insulated in a position of control with a vacuum under them . . "The security of the role culture may be found to be built too much on the organisation and too little on the individuals capacities" [Handy 1985 p192] though after restructuring the development of the college relied on the leadership skills of its management team - who dealt with leadership by disseminating it throughout the structure. The most successful "natural leaders" to "emerge" who eventually joined the management team as D.A.P.s did so after acquiring specialist expertise without risk by climbing what was seen to be a respectable pillar - for them. Others tried the same pillar - Section Head Role or Co-ordinator Role but for them it was just not respectable - because of the strong personality culture in the College on which promotion depended.
3) - The Task Culture which is the culture overtly claimed by Brown College in the 1980s. Handy describes it as a culture with the emphasis "on getting the job done" it seeks "to bring together the appropriate resources, the right people at the right level of the organisation, and to let them get on with it" . . . "Influence is also more widely dispersed than in other cultures, and each individual tends to think he has more of it . . mutual respect based upon capacity rather than age or status . . . " the task culture is found "where the product life is short, where speed of reaction is important" (ie in a responsive college in the 1980s) However, Handy also states that "the task culture finds it hard to produce economies of scale" which at Brown meant a considerable overspend and an expansion in staff numbers (though staff-student ratios impressed all external agencies including the L.E.A. management review team). More significantly task cultures do not produce " great depth of expertise". Further "little control can be exerted over the methods of working . . . without violating the norms of the culture . . . the task culture tends to change to a role or power culture when resources are limited" as it is "inherently unstable". The changes in the structure which took place in 1990 and 1991 were moves away from a task culture and towards a role culture as a job performance and accountabilities approach was forced.
on the management team by the L.E.A. and the governors.

4) - The Person culture stresses the ability of individuals who "do what they are good at and are listened to on appropriate topics". This is a culture for self-oriented individuals

it will not be found pervading many organisations . . . . If there is a structure . . . . it exists only to serve and assist the individuals within it . . . . If a group of individuals decide that it is in their own interests to band together in order to better follow their own enthusiasms, to do their own thing . . . then the resulting organisation would have a person culture" [Handy 1985 p195].

The person culture was displayed by the group of staff who brought about the 1983 restructuring.

. . . a group of staff of all levels organised a series of seminars on the theme of 'Innovation at Brown Technical College'. The staff paid for themselves. . . . When it became clear that I had approved of these "subversives" a number of applications for early retirement came in. [Principal B Paper 1987]

Some of these subversives, as we have seen, became a core of lecturers who established the Educational Services Unit and thus had a major influence on staff and curriculum development, and on defining the "personal growth" aspect of College culture (as we shall see in the next chapter).
(viii) **Concluding Remarks**

The democratic "flattened" structure and permissive culture of the organisation allowed for the development of a draft action plan (for the College response to N.V.Q's) to be written and presented to the Academic Board in April 1988. This [see appendix 14] contained a strategy for whole college pro-active development to innovate ahead of employers and other colleges in the area. When presented over the next six months to other groups and committees in the College - eg the Management Team, the Boards of Study, Section Heads, it was thought by those groups and committees that a whole college approach was not necessary nor practical. The structure of the College had ensured that it was innovative and responsive. The kind of planning which was being suggested - whole College planning - was not possible in the Responsive College given the view of management on Leadership and Management and Planning within the College, which was that leadership should reside in individuals and small groups. An individual and small group had displayed their leadership by drafting the action plan - what seemed to be missing was planned followership for managed actions.

The anarchic culture in the College meant that "group decision making was low" [Plant O.P.1 Appendix 4]. There were plenty of groups but no decisions were
made. The whole scale innovation in staff and curriculum development which seemed to be required was not likely in a College where the most commonly used word to describe what kind of a college people thought they worked in was "comfortable". [Interview Data]

The draft action plan was subsequently published in a book concerned with the implications of N.V.Q's for training and education [see Haffenden and Brown 1989 p163-165] as an example of a college that had a whole College plan for the management of change. To that extent the Responsive College had responded quickly to N.V.Q's - by encouraging an enthusiast to consult widely and draft an action plan.

The College structure was designed to develop academic leadership amongst as many participants as possible. This then allowed for normative-social power to be exercised by the sections members over each other and by the management over the other members of staff. By asserting that this was the type of control present in the organisation, the management could wait for members of a professional organisation to decide upon when a response to external pressure was necessary and what level of response was necessary - and wait for the staff to then respond. But the N.V.Q initiative required central direction ie an element of coercion for the less responsive members of staff; and an
element of material support ie some utilitarian incentive (to which the staff were amenable eg being paid overtime for planning/writing new programmes); but the rhetoric of the institution was for affirming the judgements of a democratic professional group of people whom it would be inappropriate to force or bribe/reward to change.

By emphasising participation the College achieved a democratic response - in that a minority exercised their right to argue with established groups for the necessity for change. But real democracy requires an informed, listening, citizenry. Principal B argued that he achieved Academic Leadership by "relinquishing it . . . to . . . matured, self-reliant, self-motivating staff", "supported by an active staff development system". [Principal B 1985] It is to the staff and their development as F.E. teachers that we now turn.
1 See Venables P F R 1955 for a discussion of the role of Advisory Committees pl31-135.

2 It is interesting to note that in an article in The Tutor April 1984A Sheen argued for a matrix structure at his College thus "This structure gives another flexibility. A traditional department has a Head of Department paid on a salary scale based on student hours, a salary which is protected even if student hours fall. It is consequently very difficult to move a course from one department to another and departments often compete for new courses. A Section Head is on a fixed salary which does not depend on student hours and so the location of the course is far less contentious". Many Section Heads at Brown College were Lecturer Grade 2 - some Grade 1, which was well below the usual management grade of Senior Lecturer.

3 Brown College was one of a handful of Colleges generously funded to pilot the A.P.L. initiative - it is discussed in Chapter 8.

4 "This paper arose from a comment from one of HM Inspectors of Education following a major inspection of my College. Discussing the decentralised Management structure of the College he asked "Where in the College does Academic Leadership reside" This seemed to me to be a question so fundamental as to deserve a carefully thought answer". [Principal B - Paper on Academic leadership].
This chapter will after: (i) an introduction; (ii) examine the status of [F.E.] teachers; (iii) describe the process of becoming an F.E. teacher; (iv) describe the formal programmes for "becoming" a teacher provided within the College; (v) outline the staff development undertaken from other institutions; (vi) discuss staff development within the College; and end with; (vii) concluding remarks.

Introduction

We have seen in Chapter 3 that there were certain defining influences upon Further Education in the 19th and early 20th Centuries which affected not only what was taught ie technical education, general education, "political education", Higher Education - but also who taught it. This disparate provision, lumped together as a result of deficits in other parts of the education/training "system", depended upon a variety of amateurs, enthusiasts and conscripts to staff it.

This is still the case in the 1990s. Broadly speaking lecturers still come in to F.E. Colleges from a wide
variety of backgrounds; from various levels in industry, including management; from professions "outside" what is usually thought of as industry e.g. nursing or law; or from an academic background ie direct entry from university, possibly with a post graduate degree. They may or may not be qualified as teachers. This can be represented diagrammatically thus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industrial background</th>
<th>Industrial background</th>
<th>Professional background</th>
<th>Academic background</th>
<th>Academic background</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>apprenticeship</td>
<td>Part-time</td>
<td>full time training</td>
<td>New Graduate</td>
<td>Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ Technical College</td>
<td>&quot;night&quot; school for</td>
<td>course post 18</td>
<td>eg</td>
<td>degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course</td>
<td>Professional Qualifications</td>
<td>eg nurse</td>
<td>eg</td>
<td>eg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eg plumber</td>
<td>manager</td>
<td>school teacher</td>
<td>Mathematician</td>
<td>Chemist or Engineer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hairdresser</td>
<td>accountant</td>
<td></td>
<td>Physicist</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig 5 Routes into FE Teaching

Generally speaking these are not such discreet groups as appears from the diagram, which should be seen more as a continuum. It should also be recognised that the members of these groups may or may not be trained teachers. Moving from right to left, those on the right have had the most extended and most positive experience of education. Those on the left may have finished school as early as possible, have a negative
view of schooling (and possibly education), and have acquired their skills through "narrow skills training" which provided them with the necessary expertise to apply for and secure a post as a College Lecturer. Those on the right may see an F.E. College as the nearest that they can get to an academic appointment in a university. It is such disparate members of staff that a Responsive College has to develop into a professional teaching force to deliver a competence-based curriculum.

The process of the professional development of teaching staff commonly involves two different stages; that of initial teacher training, which can confer the status of qualified teacher (the certificated expert); and that of staff development "concerned with the professional and personal development of the further education lecturer". [Cantor and Roberts 1986 p189]

Of these, the second stage - that of staff development - can be modelled in a variety of ways. Harding et al have suggested four models. These are:

1) The Medical Model:— which prescribes specific treatments to the individual
2) The Athletic Model:— which encourages self-development through individual initiative
3) **The Public Health Model:** which operates through rewards

4) **The Authoritarian Model:** which lays down institutional objectives and requires participation [HARDING et al 1981]

These models will offer us a useful way of reviewing, at the end of this chapter, the approaches taken to staff development at Brown College.

**(ii) The Status of Teachers and Teaching**

In an article entitled "Teaching and Professionalization - an Essay in Ambiguity" Professor Harry Judge states that there is a great deal of difficulty in defining the status of teachers because the tasks being carried out by these teachers vary greatly along a number of dimensions. The scholarly university professor, grounding his life and its values in research and the uninhibited pursuit of truth, finds little in common with the hard-pressed teacher in an inner-city school. Nor does the teacher of 17 year olds in an academically selective private school feel very much professional affinity with a craft-based instructor dealing with members of the same age group in a college of further education. That is not to say that there are no gaps within the classical professions between the highly-paid metropolitan consultant and the rural general practitioner . . . . But among teachers, the gaps become chasms and certainly until very recent times, have been clearly visible in the institutional patterns of teacher training. [Judge 1980 - p341].
The historical patterns of teacher training which have contributed to the ambiguity of the status of and even nature of teaching are described and discussed in an article by Aldrich on "The Evolution of Teacher Education". In this article he points out that in the nineteenth century "the accepted method of preparation for holding the post of teacher or master in a grammar or public school . . . . was a master's degree from the university of Oxford or Cambridge [Aldrich 1990 p13] but that teachers for the elementary schools were provided via an apprenticeship scheme - the pupil teacher system.

The pupil-teacher system, which proclaimed that teaching a class of some 60 children was a task which could be entrusted to a teenaged apprentice, was a significant factor not only in depressing the status of teachers and teaching, but also of learners and learning. Parallel practices were not to be found in such professions as the Church, law and medicine. Pupil teachers reflected the low priority accorded by the governing classes in nineteenth-century England to the schooling of the poor. In many other countries schooling was a job for adults [Aldrich 1990 p17]

In the same article Aldrich outlines three very different approaches, taken by three different training colleges, to teacher training in the nineteenth century. One institution was committed to a long and arduous day to prepare its students to teach in the work house thus . . . "the master goes
forth into the world humble, industrious and instructed" [Aldrich 1990 p19] - another institution was mainly concerned with the education of the student involving an emphasis on Latin and church worship - "many of these students entered the church" [Aldrich 1990 p19] and the third approach identified involved "a large amount of work of a practical character . . . each were taught a trade cabinet making, book binding, leather work. Thus as teachers they would be skilled in industrial occupations". [Aldrich 1990 p19] Aldrich also points out that towards the end of the nineteenth century day training facilities for teachers were made available in universities and university colleges which eventually became university departments with Chairs in Education.

Thus the ambivalence of the place of the teacher in society should have started to be resolved as they joined other "professionals" in the universities but as research has shown this is not the case. Banks quotes the social mobility research carried out by Glass which indicated that

the elementary school teacher was ranked by members of the general public alongside the news reporter, the commercial traveller and the jobbing master builder, but below a non-conformist minister, and certainly below the traditional professions. [Banks 1971 p141 - see p128-158 for a full discussion of the social status of the school teacher]
If anything the ambivalence and ambiguity of the role and status of the teacher has been carried over to the university departments and colleges which train or educate teachers with an often chaotic mixture of apprenticeship, training and educational theory.

Historically teachers have desired that teaching should be seen as a profession alongside other skilled occupations - but

Professionalism perceived as the pursuit of academic respectability has come close to open conflict with professionalism interpreted as the promotion of sound practical skills at the expense of irrelevant theory taught by non-practitioners [Judge 1980 p346]

This contradiction formed the basis of the aspirations for and criticisms of the programmes offered to staff, especially new staff, at Brown College as they experienced the transition from plumber, accountant, nurse or academic historian to FE teacher. It is to this transition that we now turn.

(iii) **Becoming a Teacher**

It has been argued [see Taylor 1980] that for most teachers, ie school teachers, occupational socialisation is a process which often involves the following stages in the following order:
SELECTION ON TO COURSES - aged 18 after 6th form
- though there have been mature entrants

PRE-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING
- leading to

CERTIFICATION
EMPLOYMENT
INDUCTION - into a particular
  institution/culture

POST EXPERIENCE STUDY
PREPARATION FOR SPECIALISED ROLES

Fig 6 - Occupational Socialisation of School Teachers  [Adapted from Taylor 1980]

The order for new members of staff at Brown College is rather different -

SELECTION/SOCIALISATION INTO (ORIGINAL) EMPLOYMENT
(POSSIBLY) PART-TIME C&G 730 AT BROWN COLLEGE
SELECTION INTO EMPLOYMENT (LECTURING AT BROWN COLLEGE)
INDUCTION - INTO BROWN REGIONAL COLLEGE
SELECTION ONTO COURSES (EG B.ED)
CERTIFICATION
SPECIALISED ROLES
POST EXPERIENCE STUDY

Fig 7 Occupational Socialisation for Brown College Lecturers

This illustrates that in FE staff are not recruited as teachers; they have to "become" FE teachers (even if they have been school teachers) and rather than this status passage taking place at graduation or certification it takes place, though it is not completed, when they accept an offer of employment.

This is of great significance. FE lecturers are more often than not a lecturer first and then learn how to become one later. They receive their "identity" as lecturer from the offer of employment and have to "be"
a lecturer some days or weeks later; playing a role based upon possibly some previous experience of FE as a student; or possibly lecturers in other institutions eg university lecturers; or on how other people in their part of the organisation engage in and survive in the role of lecturer.

That such a transition and successful presentation of self does occur became clear early in the study. Data gathered from informal observations ie conversations with colleagues as part of everyday working life concerned with the changes in vocational education and training, were often composed of assertions that "we are the only folk who really understand this" "why can't they (ie Government and/or Employers) let us get on with it - we know what we're doing" "it should be left to the experts" "I'm the best judge - what do they know about teaching youngsters" These were comments made by staff who had been teaching for less than four years at the college.

This identification with expertise and professionalism was even clearer when there were discussions in the staff lounge about "other providers" in vocational training. Despite or perhaps because of their own recent backgrounds in non-educational fields it was very clear that non-teachers becoming involved in vocational education and training was viewed as very
"wrong" ie dangerous for the well-being of the learner if it was being handled by not only untrained deliverers but the "wrong sort of person". What was striking throughout the study was the unshakable belief that "we are the proper people for doing this" not based on a defensive professionalism [see Johnson 1977] concerned with narrow preservation of status but that all those other people out there (ie not in Brown College) were somehow "improper". Yet this difference between 'others out there' and the College lecturers may be hard to define and sustain.

Plumbett states that . . .

the new youth education and training programmes have had to be staffed by workers whose previous experience has been in other, not always related, fields. The staffing process has been a haphazard one . . . Thus a large body of workers suddenly, bringing together an array of career backgrounds. There were teachers, social workers, community organisers, churchmen, industrial trainers, women who had finished raising families and others for whom transition education and training seemed to offer a career opportunity or simply a job" [Plumbett 1982 p17]

This could well describe the personnel of Brown College (although few ie only four lecturers, during the course of the study referred to their work as "simply a job"). Yet a real sense of having an expertise in teaching was expressed very quickly after commencing at the College by the vast majority of new lecturers. "Something I've always wanted to do and
feel I am good at" . . . "you just know when it is going well" . . . "its nice when you know you are getting it right".

This could simply be a reflection of great astuteness on the part of those responsible for recruitment ie that they can see into the soul of would-be lecturers and just spot those who have an innate understanding of education. Whilst the interviews with the AP staffing and DAP staffing contain some evidence for this "must be good with people" "can see if they are a natural communicator" and more interestingly "those who are willing to change" or "make a definite contribution to the college" all of which suggest personality factors over and above technical competence in a particular field, it is much more likely that it was the process of socialisation into the culture of the College (a culture set by the rhetoric of the Principal, the organisational structure arrived at by financial necessity and the profound influence of the AP staffing) and it is to the formal aspects of this process that we now turn.

Before that, however, one more point needs to be made about recruitment. Like many other Colleges Brown has a large number of part-time lecturers who may teach anything between two to thirteen hours per week. These lecturers form part of what can be described as
the dual labour market of the college. "Good" part-timers may be offered full-time jobs, especially after a particularly heavy enrolment, and at the time of the study they would be offered a temporary contract for one academic year and subsequently a second temporary contract and finally a permanent full-time contract. Thus a "secondary" labour market operated in which a part-time teacher was gradually absorbed into the "proper" staff of the college, with the transition often accompanied by enthusiastic participation in the City and Guilds 730 course for aspiring teachers run by the College's Educational Services Unit. The primary labour market for "real" jobs in the technical areas, as opposed to jobs in the Humanities or Caring areas, was based on national advertising and conventional short-listing and interviewing — to assess whether the potential recruits are of "the right stuff". Part timers could demonstrate that they were of the right stuff not least by appreciating any opportunity for professional or personal development ie a college run course. The extreme examples of this are two members of staff who (without any teaching experience) were recruited to teach similar classes to the ones in which they had enrolled some few weeks before as students. They were approached in the class because "I seemed to know what I was doing and anyway I needed the work."
(iv) **Formal Programmes for Becoming a Teacher**

This section will consider the College provision for staff of:

(a) Induction programmes
(b) The City and Guilds 730 Course
(c) Progression to Higher Education Qualifications

Before discussing the Colleges approach to turning nurses, welders, secretaries, hairdressers and even an academic philosopher into teachers it is well to realise that concern for a qualified teaching force in FE was part of a wider national concern about a qualified teaching profession in the early 1970s. The most significant outcome of these concerns was the Formation of the Haycocks Committee and the publication of three reports which made recommendations on the training of full-time and part-time teachers in FE¹ essentially encouraging induction programmes for new staff and initial teacher training and staff development for all full time staff.

(a) **Induction Programmes**

Brown College followed these recommendations and implemented a one day induction programme in the late 1970s for those new full time members of staff who were commencing their teaching in the Autumn term. It also included those who had joined throughout the previous year. We have seen that one of the important
groups involved in the 1983 restructuring was committed to developing in-service staff development in the College in order to bring about a College able to respond to change. This group, through the formation of the Educational Services Unit shared responsibility with the A.P. and D.A.P. staffing for an induction programme appropriate for new members of a Responsive College.

From September 1986 this induction programme for all new full time members of staff was provided for two hours every week for a year on Wednesday afternoons, to introduce all new members of the teaching staff to College life. Attendance was compulsory even for those who have worked in the College part-time for several years or those who may have worked full or part-time in other Colleges as the purpose of induction is "to help new members of staff learn about the college what we do and how we do things". [AP staffing]. The contents of the Induction Course from September 1989 to June 1990 included one input on N.V.Q.s as had been included in the two previous years' programmes. The contents of the Induction Programme for that year could be summarised as information about the structure of the College and College provision. What is more significant for this study is how the recipients - the inductees -
perceived the programme and what they perceived it to be about.

All the "new" staff interviewed about induction found it "useful" "helpful" "worth going to" not least because in a hectic if not traumatic year it provided "a break in the week" "a break from teaching" or "at least you didn't have to do anything". Many said that they "found out things other people in the section didn't know" and appreciated mixing with other members of staff "being with people I wouldn't have met any other way". Most felt it was about "who's who in the College" "told me about who did what" or "who runs the College" or "who someone thinks is important in some way". Many said that they had no idea that there were "so many things going on" "lots of different courses" and several picked up a view that "there seems to be a lot of changes around" Though none could elaborate on what or why things were changing other than referring to their particular teaching programme, usually to a BTEC programme.

Curriculum issues such as teaching and learning styles or flexible delivery or counselling and guidance did not feature in any account of what the induction sessions had been about.
The Heller F.O.C.U.S. Instrument [see appendix 8] when used with the whole 1989/90 cohort of inductees revealed that whilst the majority of the cohort - 17 out of 25 - saw the College on the "noisy" side and 13 of these saw it in the Storm ie noisy change quartile, another 4 saw the college in the "fight" quartile. However 4 of the inductees had picked up feelings that the College was "old-fashioned" ie their responses fell within the "flight" quartile. This view of the College is supported by other data gathered from interviews and observations of meetings. The inductees and other members of staff had strong views on "proper teaching" as opposed to "leaving them to get on with it" which was seen as some sort of professional neglect. This seemed to be the main message picked up from induction ie the importance of being a proper teacher rather than over-accommodating to curriculum initiatives.

The inductees then, seemed to have arrived at a picture of a College which was "noisy" about the fact that there was a lot of change surrounding F.E. in the 1980s. Only a bare majority, 13 out of 25, saw the College as actively confronting these changes. This would have been the overt message of the induction programme (the researcher was herself a recipient of this programme in 1986-7) but behind this rhetoric
other messages had given inductees other information to reflect upon.

That Brown College was actually a traditional College is supported by other data.

(b) The City & Guilds 730 Course

As well as following an induction programme all new members of staff lacking a teaching qualification were required to follow the City & Guilds 730 Course run by the College's E.S.U. for any adult students interested in or involved in teaching in Adult or Further Education. This part-time provision took place on a Monday afternoon or evening and as well as training new staff in basic teaching skills and exploring issues such as lesson planning and assessment it also involved them in observed and assessed teaching practice. This meant that a small team of observers (which included the researcher), who were seen to be competent professional lecturers at the College, had access to the classroom performance of new colleagues and were thus part of the process of deciding whether they were becoming an appropriate teacher. Amongst the team of observers were the D.A.P. staffing and the D.A.P. Tertiary Education who also had in-puts into the programme. Both acknowledged that the 730 course gave them a chance to see if new staff were "settling
down alright" "were managing in the classroom" and how they "get on with students".

As a member of the observation team the researcher was part of discussions about any students on the programme who were giving cause for concern and if one of these was a new full time member of staff then part of the support given often involved an observation by the D.A.P. staffing. Cause for concern was usually directly related to a teaching style that was seen as inappropriate to the New FE i.e didactic, authoritarian and content based. Many of the course team discussions and training sessions revolved around the difficulty of helping people change their perception of teaching as something that was done "at" students to teaching as an activity which was about supporting learning. This need to change others perception of teaching and encouraging people to feel confident that it was something that they could do despite a non-academic background was a view which itself was surrounded by the contradictions of those who espoused it. The attempt to implement A.P.L. on the 730 course was firmly resisted despite assertions that the course was about encouraging people to realise that they already had the skills necessary for teaching: - they were just not prepared to certify this, shorten the course and lose hours on their time table. The attempt to shorten it from two years to four terms was also
strongly resisted but was eventually imposed by City & Guilds and by 1991 the course tutor and team were actively resisting a move to a competence based programme because "it just isn't that kind of course".

The judgements of the members of staff who were students on the course were often negatives they felt it unnecessarily drawn out and unproductive of new skills and knowledge. They appreciated that it was part of their apprenticeship and that a display of enthusiasm for it was important - but many thought that it could have been completed in half the time. They also expressed the view that they felt a need for immediately useful classroom skills such as disciplining students rather than "group work on what we think teaching might be about". The students seem to sense an ambivalent message that being a teacher demanded a special kind of person but that anyone could do it - given the appropriate - if lengthy support. A perception of it as a form of apprenticeship was commonly held, by both tutors and students, if not overtly stated.

(c) Higher Education Qualifications

In line with the Haycock Committee's recommendation the College encouraged all those who had achieved a City & Guilds 730 Certificate to proceed onto a
Certificate of Education course to achieve qualified teacher status. This involved members of staff pursuing a course outside the College - either at Huddersfield Polytechnic or at one of their franchised out-posts. A large number of staff were involved in Certificate courses and whilst some found them of direct benefit the majority were pursuing a qualification rather than a learning process. Some new members of staff actively resisted being sent on such a programme. "If I keep my head down I may avoid it for another couple of years" (lecturer who had just completed 730 course) whilst some felt it would make their position as a teacher more secure so actively requested to be sent on such a course.

The electrical engineering tutor who "innovated" so successfully on the City & Guilds 236 course - (see chapter 8) requested to be sent on a Cert Ed course commencing in 1987 in the hope that he could learn more about the implications of N.V.Q'S. He actually found it "useless" - "they were asking me questions about what I was doing" . . . "the only provision on it was a seminar - which I practically ended up giving" (The lecturer had been teaching in FE for twenty years without feeling the need to gain a formal teaching qualification. The A.P. staffing quoted this as an example of someone who was able to innovate
because of the Colleges approach to staff development).

The experience of the Certificate of Education course seemed to confirm this lecturer's opinion, and one very widely held in the College, that practitioners know best and that those delivering FE qualifications don't really know what contemporary FE is about, especially those in Higher Education.

As well as Certificates in Education some staff at the time of the study were pursuing first degrees and higher degrees in Education - two were studying for Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) degrees; five for Master of Art in Education (MA Ed), or Master of Education (M.Ed) degrees; and two for Master of Philosophy (M Phil) in Education degrees. The B.Ed provides a route to a degree for vocational staff which their vocational specialism may not provide - in these instances for staff in hairdressing and office technology. The two members of staff on B.Ed courses saw their degree programmes as an opportunity for personal development and as a compensation for a gap earlier in their education. The notion that it would lead to career advancement was not volunteered by either respondent - nor was that a factor mentioned by those pursuing higher degrees in Education. Those members of staff again stressed personal development.
in terms of "an opportunity to examine something I am interested in" "nice to get back to studying" "time to think about some of the things I've been doing" as the reason for pursuing the qualification. The notion that the Masters programmes should have direct relevance and application to the teaching situation arose in only two instances - one which involved modularising an "A" level science programme and one which involved an examination of an aspect of adult education provision within the college. The provision was judged to be fundamentally unsound by the member of staff writing the dissertation for the degree.

Before leaving this section on how staff become teachers and expert educators it is important to note that data gathered throughout the research suggests some contradictions amongst the views held by the teachers themselves about what being a teacher involves. This is linked to a separate issue (outside the scope of this research) but a related issue and that is the question of why people become FE lecturers. Almost all the lecturers saw teaching as a profession which involves a "morality" with regard to how you deal with students (the terms "clients", "customers" or even "learners" were very frowned upon); and an "expertise", though there was much ambivalence about whether this expertise was separate to being able to communicate a necessarily thorough
knowledge of a subject or skills area. However, these views were held by lecturers who also acknowledged that teaching was something they drifted into arbitrarily (as part of the Colleges secondary labour market); or they applied to do because of other circumstances eg leaving the air force and needing other employment; or because of losing a job; or needing to find work because of single parent status. Many lecturers reconciled these disparate views of teaching as an expert profession for the experts and a personal convenience for their personal difficulties ("and the long holidays are much better than industry") by asserting that good teaching is an innate unanalysable gift which some individuals just happen to own. Staff development as metaphysics will be dealt with in the conclusion of this chapter.

(v) Staff development from other institutions

Appendix 15 shows that many members of staff at the College receive development by participating in standard college courses. Thus management lecturers enrol on language courses special needs staff enrol on cookery courses and a variety of staff (eg the chief technician) enrol on management courses. This was most favourably commented on by the H.M.Is in their report of the inspection of the college in 1985 as "subjecting teachers to scrutiny of their colleagues".
A paper prepared by Principal B for the governors in 1986 announced proudly that the College was its own seventh largest customer.

However, the most important providers for staff development during the course of this research, given the topic of the research (ie a response to an external initiative - the introduction of N.V.Q.s) were other external providers. These included the L.E.A.; the Regional Area Council (disseminating information for the M.S.C./Training Agency via INSET for eg T.V.E.I. or C.P.V.E. or Access for adult returners); and development provided by the F.E.U. The validating bodies themselves eg BTEC were also becoming more involved in staff development during the period of the study.

Despite a clear college policy of access to development for all staff ("we ourselves know what we need . . . so I put on what people would find useful" Staff Development Officer)² and the belief that people will request the development which they need or actively respond to invitations which satisfy that need, there was a resistance to, and often a complacency or even cynicism about, any courses put on outside the college. This was again based on a distrust of those outside education eg the MSC/Training Agency interfering with something that
was not their proper concern, or on the belief that even those within this special orbit eg F.E.U. or BTEC didn't "understand our students in the classroom". There was an even deeper suspicion by staff of courses put on by other colleges because "we are so far ahead of everyone else" so presumably other colleges couldn't give such an advanced institution any help or any knowledge worth having.

The influence of the F.E.U. upon developments in the College can be seen as highly significant in several ways. It was courses provided by the F.E.U. that alerted and alarmed the original campaigner for the College wide changes necessary to prepare for N.V.Q. delivery (including a need for a policy on staff development). The engineering "innovator" [see chapter 8] was originally informed of the curriculum changes necessary for the N.V.Q. system when he attended an F.E.U. course on developments in engineering craft programmes. It was also the F.E.U. which informed other vocational areas in the College ie hairdressing and office technology.

More significantly, it was the F.E.U.'s model of personnel management/staff development for F.E. Colleges which influenced the approach which the management of Brown College took to both these areas. The F.E.U. model was grounded in the theory of
Transactional Analysis [TA] [see appendix 16]. As a "parenting organisation" within the "F.E.U. - recommended" model Brown College left those members of staff who were actively concerned with innovation (eg the co-ordinators) "nurtured" and "permitted" to do whatever they wanted; but unsupported in any practical way.
(vi) **Staff development within the College**

The organisational structure to support staff and their development in the College at the time of the 1983 re-organisation [see appendix 12] can be depicted thus:

![Diagram showing staff development support structure](image)

**Fig. 8 Staff Development Support 1983**
which had been expanded by the time of the study to:

- E.S.U.
- S.L.
- Curriculum
- Development
- STAFF
- A.P. STAFFING
- D.A.P. STAFFING [1987]
- STAFF DEVELOPMENT OFFICER [1990]
- STAFF DEVELOPMENT SUB-COMMITTEE

Fig 9 Staff Development Support 1990

We have seen that the structure for staff development within the College and the personnel who emerged to occupy the significant positions in that structure were settled at the time of re-organisation. The A.P. Staffing had been Head of the Food Health and Fashion Department in the college (for some seventeen years). The D.A.P. Staffing (appointed in 1987) had been the Head of the Electrical Engineering section and an S.L. and then P.L. in the previous Engineering department - for a similar number of years. He was also heavily
involved in the group who argued for a significant restructuring of the College.

The Senior Lecturer who worked closely with the A.P. and D.A.P. and who was the course tutor for the 730 course (until 1989), the leader of the college training for in-house evaluation, and with the above two ran the induction programme was also one of the group who agitated for a freeing-up restructuring of the College. (This Senior Lecturer was asked to decide on his own job title in 1986 - so he titled himself Head of Curriculum Development).

Both the A.P. and the S.L. would see themselves by background - (which was Teacher Training College and school teaching for the former and University, P.G.C.E. and school teaching for the latter) - and commitment, as "educationalists". Neither had worked in industry and both were clear in their interviews with the researcher that "staff development must be voluntary" . . . "you can send people on courses but you can't make them learn" . . . "The College needs staff to respect students . . . you won't respect students if you don't respect yourself" The importance of the latter comment being that self respect means that you don't do things that you don't want to do because "it wouldn't be right for you" The D.A.P. from an engineering background held very
similar views to do with "freeing up the structure so that people are free to develop".

Both figures (figs 8 and 9) show a lack of any formal linkage between curriculum development and staff development. Curriculum development seems to be an unformed idea perhaps unattached to anything in particular - [see chapter 8] - and staff development as we have seen was linked to a model of "personal growth" via the F.E.U. and T.A. on the basis of personally experienced need; rather than a preformed policy of college need. We can also see in [fig 9] that the co-ordinators who sprouted in response to the initiatives of the 1980's were left to float unattached to either the E.S.U. box or the staff development box. Their position will be discussed in the next chapter.

The part of the organisational structure responsible for staff development - the Educational Services Unit - did not appear on a single concept map constructed by a cross section of the staff. Whilst the S.L. who was the head of the unit was well known the unit itself seemed to have no existence.

However, the Staff Development Sub-Committee of the Academic Board did feature in twelve of the concept maps but all twelve of the respondents who included it
had some direct connection with it - either as a member or as a recipient of support from it for a particular course of study. The members of this committee were elected by the teaching staff to ensure a democratic allocation of staff development opportunities. [Three members were there ex officio]. However, with the imposition from L.E.A.s of national and local priorities for staff development in some of the spending control has gone outside the College and thus outside the Committee and its real concern was to respond to requests for development from particular members of staff "confirming OK people" (a committee member). Other committee members seemed to concur in describing it as "a pretence of democracy" and the chairperson - the A.P. Staffing - really decides what happens - "she is probably the only person who understands the budget!" [Committee member interview data].

As N.V.Q. emerged as an issue for the staff ie when external agencies began to call for changes from particular sections or course teams in the College, there had been no targeted staff development plan in place to be acted upon. Different course teams had to respond as best they could [see Chapter 8] and none of the three course teams focussed upon in chapter 8 had any structured staff development support.
Thus the course tutor for the hairdressing course recognised that they had responded to the Hairdressing Training Board [H.T.B.] drive for new approaches to learning by writing materials for each other which they could all use. This involved members of the course team informally covering classes so that other members were free to stay at home and write the materials. The College had made no development time as such available. When asked to link the course - on a concept map - to other structures in the college - the tutor was unable to link it with anything other than the Section (which the researcher gave as a starter), and eventually the board of Study. The formal structures for staff development did not seem to exist for her in relation to that course.

The Engineering Innovator was clear that "we got no help from anyone in the college" . . other than a generous allocation of development time from within the Electrical Engineering Section.

The Office Technology section head and lecturers were a group most immediately affected by N.V.Q's as the R.S.A. had responded rapidly and had laid down competence programmes to meet N.V.Q. requirements. The staff thus relied on the lead from R.S.A. and developed packages based on R.S.A. syllabi. But again between 1988 and 1990 they adapted their teaching
materials and aspects of their delivery in response to external direction rather than certain knowledge within themselves of how to interpret N.V.Q. principles and without any direction or involvement from those responsible for staff and curriculum development in the College.

(vii) Concluding Remarks

We have seen that F.E. Colleges draw staff from many different backgrounds with different values and expectations related to the status which they perceive teaching to have in comparison with the job which they (may have) left to come in to teaching. We have also seen that the initial staff induction programme and C&G 730 course were essentially concerned with settling people into an institution in which they could feel confident and comfortable in their role as lecturer. In this these courses were successful for staff felt little need to pursue subsequent courses outside the College in relation to particular initiatives for change during the late 1980's. They chose to pursue academic qualifications on a basis of disinterested curiosity, displaying a view very similar to the model of the "educated man" outlined by philosophers from Plato to Peters. [see Chapter 1].
Elements of the models suggested by Harding et al described in the introduction to this chapter, can be seen in Brown College's approach to staff development:

- the requirement for 730 participation is Authoritarian, though those who make this requirement are not authoritarian in any other way; - the advice to some members of staff to take a counselling course is part of a Medical Model, to help remedy difficulties they may be having in their personal lives or difficulties relating to colleagues or students; - the opportunity to study for an advanced degree particularly the opportunity for study on full time secondment is seen in itself as a reward - and by the staff (though never confirmed or denied by the management) as likely to lead to career advancement. This is part of a Public Health Model. However, the model which overtly operated at Brown is the Athletic Model. The most obvious development through personal initiative was the rise of members of the group who argued for re-structuring and who were listened to when there was a financial crisis.

The philosophy of responding to the perceived needs of the experts, ie the staff, relieved the management of the need to plan. All that was required was for them to respond to staff demands for development within a
loose framework of external demands and initiatives preferably accompanied by funding. We have seen in chapter six how this created a market in curriculum initiatives at the College with the various co-ordinators having to market their initiatives as solutions to course tutors' problems.

Less cynically the Athletic model is linked to a view of professional competence as artistry. Artistry is an exercise in intelligence, a kind of knowing, though different in crucial aspects from our standard model of professional knowledge. It is not inherently mysterious: it is rigorous in its own terms: and we can learn a great deal about it . . . by carefully studying the performance of unusually competent performers. [Schon 1987 p23]

It is this view which informed the approach to staff development of helping people to be teachers as well as or instead of being plumbers, engineers or mathematics graduates.

This emphasis on "being" in staff development for teachers has been summed up by Matheson - "If training is about how to perform then development might be said to cover how to be" [Matheson 1981 p19]

However, in terms of the needs of staff at a given time many felt that they got "development" in how to "be" on the 730 and induction courses when what they
needed was "training" in how to "perform"; and when they would have accepted education for "development" external initiatives led to imposed "training" from outside agencies eg N.V.Q. when what staff wanted was to be let to be.

Many new staff dealt with the problem of how to perform by imitating the most immediate artistry around them - they just did what everyone else was doing in their section to get by - (which had consequences which are explored in the next chapter).

A less philosophical but still significant contradiction between the needs of the College in the 1980s and the staff development available concerns the length of service of the staff. We have heard from Responsive Colleges' Principals that staff in a rapidly responsive college would come in from industry deliver what was appropriate and return to industry within five years. The elaborate process of becoming a teacher which from 730 to Certified teacher status took in 1986/87 at least four years does not seem to fit with the pioneering culture of the Principal's College. Suffice it to say that the A.P. and D.A.P. Staffing and the S.L. for Curriculum Development were more concerned with settling people down than preparing them for change. [See Appendix 17 for average length of service of staff at Brown College.
After all, they were there long before the Principal B arrived and were still there some two years after he retired.

The ambiguities that surround the issues in this chapter are associated with some of the issues which we have met before - specifically the distinction between education and training, and the status of Further Education and hence the status of the Further Education Lecturer or teacher within an education system. This in itself is too broad a debate to address here but the status of educational knowledge and whether there is such "knowledge" as opposed to "ignorance" or "opinion" [see appendix 1 and Plato The Republic BK VI] will be considered in the next chapter. This chapter indicated that Brown College was very good at moving new staff from ignorance to belief or opinion but as the next chapter will argue opinionated staff can resist changes; it takes knowledge to innovate.

1 see discussion of the three reports in Cantor and Roberts 1983 p174-179.

2 A staff development officer was appointed from September 1990 to help with the administration of staff development - which the LEA management review thought necessary. The staff development officer was an L2 given 4 hours remission. He had been at the College 3 years.
This chapter will after: (i) an introduction; (ii) examine definitions of the curriculum; (iii) examine the definition of the Further Education curriculum given by the Further Education Unit; (iv) discuss the curriculum issues surrounding the introduction and implementation of N.V.Q's; (v) describe the management of curriculum development within Brown College; (vi) describe the responses within Brown College to curriculum development for N.V.Q's; (vii) analyze these responses; and end with; (viii) concluding remarks.

(i) Introduction

We have seen from Chapter 4 that the economic crisis of the 1970's and early 1980's led to a view held by the Conservative Government in particular, that the crisis in the economy reflected a deep malaise in the education system - and especially in the provision made by the Local Education Authorities' Colleges of Further Education. The problem was not only what was taught but how it was taught - including the
transmission of anti-industry values. This chapter explores the response within Brown College to the idea of a work-related, employer-led curriculum appropriate for the new system of National Vocational Qualifications.

(ii) The Curriculum

The professional interest of teachers in curriculum issues is neither an exclusively post-war nor post Great Debate matter as it is often presented to be. The International Encyclopedia of the Curriculum tells us that "Fleury's 'The History of Choice and Methods of Studies 1695' has been identified as the earliest curriculum book." [Lewey 1991 p3]. The same Encyclopedia states that whilst the Latin root for the word "curriculum" means "race-course" - "Currently there is no widely accepted definition of the term. Its definition varies with the concepts that a researcher or practitioner uses in his or her curricular thinking and work". [Connelly and Lantz 1991 p15].

This variation is demonstrated by a list of nine definitions [see Appendix 18] which whilst displaying different approaches to the curriculum emphasise the aspects of the curriculum with which this chapter is concerned ie that the curriculum is a plan for
learning, with a content, a method of delivery and a philosophical view of the nature of knowledge and the world to which it applies. [See Lewey 1991]

These defining aspects indicate why the curriculum became such a contentious issue for practitioners in the 1980s.

In essence it takes as problematical what should be planned taught and learned in our schools. It is a central and centralising study organised around choices facing the practitioner. [Jenkins and Shipman 1976 p(vii)]

What became contentious for the schools was the drive to vocationalise the curriculum in order to prepare young people for work [see Holt 1987] - though there wasn't any - ; and to offer less academic students studies that were more relevant for their life role.

It is unsurprising that school teachers reacted so hostilely to this 'new vocationalism' [Gleeson 1987] as schools have traditionally upheld academic standards. However, there was much evidence in the 1970s from academic researchers that the academic curriculum was not the liberal vehicle of emancipation for working class students which teachers thought it to be. [See eg Jackson and Marsden 1966]
Bernstein's research in 1971 [Class Codes and Control] explored the cultural transmission of formal educational knowledge through the three message systems of curriculum, pedagogy and evaluation ie the way in which schools and teachers informed children about what place they could hope to hold in society on the basis of how they accepted the schools definition of what was valuable knowledge.

"Curriculum defines what counts as knowledge, pedagogy defines what counts as a valid transmission of knowledge, and evaluation defines what counts as a valid realization of this knowledge on the part of the taught". [Bernstein 1971 p203]

Using the terms "unit", which refers to a period of time allocated on a time table in an educational institution and "content", which describes how the period of time is used Bernstein defines two types of curricula - a COLLECTION type - where contents are clearly bounded and insulated from each other and an integrated type curricula where the contents stand in open relationship to each other. It is the collection curriculum which is seen by practitioners as "sacred" in terms of educational identity with its own power structure and market situation.
"Children and pupils are early socialized into the concept of knowledge as private property . . . Pupils and students particularly in the arts . . . appear to be a type of entrepreneur" [Bernstein 1971 p213]. When these learners have won or earned the right to this knowledge they have been socialised into an existing order "into the experience that the world's educational knowledge is impermeable" [Bernstein 1971 p213] and they are thus deprived of the insight that these orderings are provisional and permeable and that the ultimate mystery of a subject is not coherence but incoherence. Thus teachers who have absorbed this view of "knowledge" and "subjects" themselves (because they would not have progressed through the education system to have become teachers if they had not) pass this on to their pupils so that "the European form of the collection code is rigid, differentiating and hierarchical in character and highly resistant to change". [Bernstein 1971 p213].

Bernstein argues that the integrated type curriculum represents a real challenge to the power relations in educational institutions and is thus a radical theory.

Collection codes increase the discretion of teachers . . . whilst integrated codes will reduce the discretion of teachers. . . . the reduced discretion of the teachers within integrated codes is paralleled by increased discretion of the pupils . . . a shift in the balance of power [Bernstein 1971 p217].
Bernstein is also concerned with the social implications for the staff of delivering an integrated code curriculum which requires, he says, a high level of ideological consensus amongst staff and by implication, greater professional pedagogic skills. Traditionally the status of a subject - and hence that subjects teacher - reflects the subjects "purity" rather than its "promiscuity".

It is a matter of interest that until very recently the pure variety at the university level received the higher status of an honours degree, whereas the impure variety tended to lead to the lower status of the general degree. [Bernstein 1971 p208].

Finally Bernstein also argues that the evaluation within schools (and colleges) based on a collection code curriculum places emphasis upon attaining states of knowledge rather than ways of knowing ie an emphasis on outcomes of measurable "knowledge" rather than an enquiry into what different types of knowledge and methods of learning had been developed.

Bernstein's work was part of a movement of radical thinking about what was taught and how it was taught - and indeed in whose interest it was taught - and very much in line with French Marxists such as Althusser and Bourdieu who viewed the knowledge based curriculum as part of the process of undermining and manipulating
and controlling the working class. American liberals like Illich were also urging a complete rethink about who owned knowledge and the institutionalisation and professionalisation of the communication of knowledge which had taken place in American society. [Illich 1973]

Willis examined the implication of "sacred" knowledge valued and transmitted in the educational system and its effects upon power structures and social relations within the school and the wider society. [see Willis 1977]. He argued - using the voices of the pupils themselves - that male working class youngsters are prepared for a world of un-skilled and unsatisfying manual work by being separated from the world of knowledge as defined by the school curriculum.

It is the school which has built up a certain resistance to mental work and an inclination towards manual work. At least manual labour is outside the domain of school and carries with it - though not intrinsically - the aura of the real adult world. Mental work demands too much, and encroaches - just as school does - too far upon those areas which are increasingly adopted as their own, as private and independent. "The lads" have learned only too well the specific social form of mental labour as an unfair "equivalent" in an exchange about control of those parts of themselves which they want to be free. In a strange unspecified way mental labour henceforth always carries with it the threat of a demand for obedience and conformism. Resistance to mental work becomes resistance to authority as learnt in school. . . . . . . In a contradictory way . . . . this sense of labour power as an essential separation of the vital self from the hope of intrinsic satisfaction at work . . . does not lessen "the lads sense of
superiority, insight and true personal learning. Nor does it dampen their optimistic expectations. As we have seen, these expectations are partly the urge to get out of school no matter what. They are also the result of the subjective feelings . . . that they have penetrated, learned and understood through experience something that others . . . . have not. This is, of course, the experiential hook - the precise, unintended unexpected reversal of the conventional logic - which actually binds these kids to a future of manual work. [Willis 1977 p103].

Thus Willis showed that despite the teachers and educationalists concern for equality of opportunity the knowledge based curriculum effectively selected and excluded and prepared and committed working class male youngsters to practical working class occupations based on something other than knowledge and mental labour. Some of these youngsters formed the cohorts of craft students on day release and block release classes in the Colleges in the 1960's and 1970's until the economic crisis of the 1970's and 1980's destroyed both skilled and unskilled labour markets as manufacturing industry collapsed. As the government sought to develop "schemes" to deal with Youth Unemployment we have seen that the level of achievement of these youngsters and their lack of qualifications and educational attainment become a battle of rhetoric between the government and M.S.C. on one side and the educationalists and schools and Colleges on the other [See Holt 1987 Chapter 4].
Recent research suggests that the jobless 1980s have seen a change in the attitudes to schooling of working class youngsters - both male and female. In America Weiss found that the youngsters seemed to have a positive view of schooling, though this related to the form of schooling ie staying on in school to get a better job rather than the substance of schooling ie valuing what was taught. [see Weiss 1990].

This would seem to suggest that vocational training could be no more harmful than the alienating effect of inappropriate liberal academic education. Perhaps teachers' anxieties related more to a lessening of their professional control than informed concern for their pupils.

Curriculum invitations to vocationalise the curriculum in schools and colleges eg T.V.E.I., C.P.V.E. and Y.T.S. were resisted by practitioners but at the time of this research Brown College had been involved with all three examples just listed as well as Employment Training and Access to Higher Education programmes designed for non-traditional adult "clients". What then were the curriculum issues in Further Education in the late 1980s to which Brown College needed to respond in order to provide the programmes outlined
above and to deliver the new competence based National Vocational Qualifications?

Curriculum scholars argue that

There are four main topics treated in the curriculum (a) curriculum making, frequently referred to as curriculum development, (b) curriculum managing, frequently seen as an administrative and implementation problem (c) the study of the curriculum which is essentially the rules and methods for curriculum research; and (d) the nature of the curriculum, in which views of subject matter, content, disciplines, children and the like are presented [Lewy 1991 p15]

FE Colleges were asked to turn their attention to all four aspects of the curriculum to develop National Vocational Qualifications under the influence and guidance of the Further Education Unit.

(iii) The Further Education Curriculum and the F.E.U.

We have seen in Chapter 3 that the content of what has been taught in FE has been laid down by Examining and Validating Bodies; or arrived at because of a demand from adults for a provision for which vocational night school classes were not appropriate [see Stephens 1990] or on the basis of an enthusiast willing to instruct a group of fellow enthusiasts in topics ranging from smelting processes to bridge playing. We have also noted the changes brought about by the creation of BTEC in 1984 which also had curriculum
implications as it moved "technical" based courses towards assignment based assessment, and increasingly in the 1980's, assignment based learning. Whilst the growth of General Education within what used to be thought of as "Technical Colleges" may be viewed as curriculum development; [and indeed this was often mentioned by "A" level teachers during the course of this study "The college is very innovative - look how the "A" levels has expanded" A level tutor. "We are the only provider of psychology GCSE and "A" level in the area - we don't need any more change" [A level lecturer] the teachers are still involved in delivering courses the content of which is set by an external body.

Development of new courses designed by College staff has only recently become a feature of Further Education and even then external validating bodies (eg the Access Courses validating body) have had considerable influence. During the period of this study staff at Brown College often referred to "new" courses as if they were newly designed provision when they were often about a different timing for the course eg part time Nursery Nurse Examination Board [N.N.E.B.] courses to take place for 2 days per week over 3 years instead of 2 years full time; or combining two "A" level subjects with a GCSE as "a librarians course". Curriculum matters, and
The FEU was established to:

1. Review and evaluate the range of existing further education curricular programmes and to identify overlap, duplication, deficiencies and inconsistencies therein;
2. To determine priorities for action to improve the provision of further education and to make recommendations as to how such improvement can be effected;
3. To carry out studies in further education and to support investigations of and experimentation in and the development of, further education curricula and to contribute to and assist in the evaluation of initiatives in further education;
4. To disseminate and publish information and to assist in the dissemination and publication of information about recommendations for and experiments in further education.

[F.E.U. 1984 p11]

It has thus (1) an interventionist role in Further Education composed of its educative role - as all learning is a measurable change in behaviour (and we have already seen in chapter 7 how the management style of Brown College was affected by the FEU's management development courses); - and (2) an investigative role sponsoring research into a variety of projects within institutions [see FEU 1987C] or
case studies [see FEU 1983]; - and an evaluative role linked as a result of the previous two. This involves commenting upon the outcomes of curriculum initiatives [see Turner FEU 1987b].

Thus the FEU in 1987 and 1988 in its educative role, and adopting "a well-oiled social-interaction model" of Curriculum development [see Grosch 1987 p151] held a series of Conferences aimed at different vocational subject areas eg construction, engineering etc in order to explain a significant new curriculum development - the implications for colleges of competence based education and training with the coming of NVQs. These conferences expanded the traditional FEU triangle for college development.

![Fig 10 F.E.U. College Development Model](image)

and the traditional curriculum model based on Wheeler [1967] to produce a model which had implications for wholesale institutional development. [see Fig. 11]
Fig 11 F.E.U. Curriculum Development Model [F.E.U. 1987a]

The paper produced for the Academic Board [and published in Haffenden and Brown 1989 p163] was written - (as we have seen from chapters 6 and 7) - by the Head of Construction after a series of meetings with other interested staff who like him had attended FEU courses and had become concerned about what they had heard.
(iv) **Curriculum issues for the introduction of N.V.Q.'s**

The FEU also began to publish a series of bulletins for FE Colleges on the implications of the new system - most of which were presented as "curriculum implications". The first bulletin in May 1988 listed the implications in terms of Credit Accumulation, Assessment, Assessment of Prior Learning, Flexible Learning Opportunities, Learning from Work, Access and Progression, and Staff Development [see Appendix 19].

Brown College with its organic/flexible organisational structure, its emphasis on staff development and its reputation for innovation and responsiveness - (it was one of the very few Colleges in the T.V.E.I. national pilot and therefore had to engage in student centred learning and vocational relevance) - would obviously be able to move rapidly towards the demands of this new N.V.Q. era. Before examining what actually happened between 1988 and 1990 at Brown College we need to examine the mechanism within the College at this time for curriculum development.

(v) **Management of Curriculum Development**

We have seen from the structure of the responsive college that we are studying [Chap 5] that the
devolved organic system relied upon the cross college roles of the Assistant Principals to provide coordination. In 1988 Brown College had an AP in charge of Staffing with an S.L. who worked for her with the title "Head of Curriculum Development" upon his office door. This person's teaching commitment was mainly on the staff induction programme, C&G 730 Certificate for teachers in Adult and Further Education and providing staff development courses linked to BTEC developments and evaluation [see chapter 7]. Staff development and curriculum development were seen to be "naturally linked" [SL curriculum] and whilst this can be seen to be the case in, for example, the appointment of the D.A.P. Staffing no formal link can be seen in the diagram of the College structure [see figs 8 and 9] it had to occur in the minds of staff who were targeted by both.

We have seen from Chapter 5 that as Brown College responded to each funded initiative that came on stream from the M.S.C. (later the Training Agency [TA] it acquired a co-ordinator for that curriculum area so that during the course of this study there were individual members of staff co-ordinating the curriculum implications of BTEC, YT(S), R.O.A/N.R.O.V.A., TVEI [3 co-ordinators], ACCESS TO HIGHER EDUCATION, GENDER, SPECIAL NEEDS, ETHNIC MINORITIES, G.C.S.E., "A" LEVEL and NVQ/OPEN
LEARNING/MODULARISATION and from October 1989 – as the result of a successful bid for the national piloting of the Accreditation of Prior Learning (involving a budget of nearly 1/3 million pounds) an A.P.L. co-ordinator.

How did these co-ordinators view their roles and how did college staff view and respond to these co-ordinators? From the interviews and informal data it became apparent that the co-ordinators could be viewed on a continuum [see fig 12] from those who held their role to be administrative and supportive in the "bureaucratic" way:- ie

![Fig 12 Co-ordinator Role Continuum](image)

"I am the point of control for those outside college and the courses tutors" - Y.T.S. co-ordinator.

"I keep the teachers informed about timetables" - "A" level co-ordinator.

"I just keep filing booklets" - BTEC co-ordinator.

"As a co-ordinator I gather information .. and use it to develop the course" - Access to H.E. co-ordinator; to those who had a much more missionary view of their role with a desire to bring about much needed change,
but not to staff nor initially to the institution, but to the curriculum. (The curriculum was obviously a safer area than either of the other two. We have seen from chapter 6 the commitment of participants to the structure and culture of the institution and from chapter 7 that staff as autonomous professionals at Brown College, only needed developing if they themselves perceived that to be the case and chose to act on it).

"We need to make our provision much more flexible and accessible" - NVQ co-ordinator

"The core curriculum will help develop the average sixteen year old who wishes to stay on and is not your usual academic" - T.V.E.I. co-ordinator

"We must change what we do with many of our students" - Ethnic minorities co-ordinator,

For many their role was a mixture of the two

"to inform staff, raise awareness because I have remission to get access to the information and encourage them to look at what they teach and how they teach it" - Gender co-ordinator.

"to help us understand the changes from the examiners and develop the course - things like core as the subject teachers know about their own . . . . subjects best" - G.C.S.E. co-ordinator.
The respectability of the "administrator" as opposed to the "missionary" would seem to reflect a "settler" philosophy and culture rather than a "pioneering" philosophy and culture. [see chapter 5 and appendix 11]

The co-ordinators were frequently involved with staff development activities eg speaking at the staff induction course or to appropriate course teams - but only on the basis of invitation. The "missionaries" had views on the curriculum which had clearly been influenced by F.E.U. courses and literature. Most notably they would talk about "learning" rather than "teaching"; "learners" "clients" and "non-traditional" [learners] rather than students. Some (five) mentioned "needs" and "evaluation" in discussions about what the college should be providing and most of them (seven) were aware of the F.E.U. model of the curriculum [fig 11]

They all talked about supporting staff in terms of information and possibly advice but along with Principal B, the AP Staffing and Curriculum, and indeed the anarchic culture [see Chap 6] of the college as a whole it was not part of their role "to tell anybody to do anything in particular" [BTEC co-ordinator].
How did the college staff view the co-ordinators? During the formal interviewing and informal observations it became apparent that certain persons were recognised as having some curriculum role but who exactly did what was far from clear to most staff.

"well X is always going to meetings does she/he co-ordinate TVEI now?"

"Y used to be the BTEC co-ordinator have we still got one?"

"is A still the ROA co-ordinator or is she/he doing NROVA now?"

Such puzzlement may seem rather amusing but in line with the culture of the organisation, if not its rhetoric, lecturers' main commitment was to maintaining a status quo of provision of "proper courses" and they were willing to be judged on the quality of their students' development and their examination results "allowing for what we start with" [engineering lecturer] The NVQ/OPEN LEARNING/MODULARISATION co-ordinator and the Gender co-ordinator, and gradually, the YTS co-ordinator towards the end of the study began to realise that this "privatisation of what I as a subject lecturer do" was going to be a problem.

As members of the original working party on NVQ in the College had begun to realise - and as further
information from the F.E.U. began to make clear, curriculum change was the hook for the whole scale re-organisation of Colleges. Curriculum development was no longer dependent upon "enthusiasts" supported by Regional Curriculum Base training or LEA funded training for the appropriate responsive staff who could see the opportunities such change affords. Indeed the F.E.U.'s search for the responsive College, in order to identify good practice and thus give F.E. lecturers the credit for and ownership of change, seems to have disappeared; at the time of writing the F.E.U. was describing and extolling The Flexible College [see FEU 1991] and giving specific targets for institutional change. We have seen from the literature in Chapter 4 the threatening posture that the Government was taking to less than responsive and non-flexible colleges as change was no longer an option but was being offered as a means of survival.

The necessity for whole-scale change, particularly in delivery styles, was not apparent to the vast majority of lecturers. Despite the fact that many sections in the College had been involved with the national T.V.E.I. pilot and that the curriculum statements coming from the pilot consortium in extension in 1988 and 1989/90 were detailing the kinds of curriculum development that was only possible with a change of teaching and learning styles [see appendix 20] the
shift from "teaching" to "learning" was very slow (this will be discussed in the next chapter) and indeed resisted unless it could be seen to be to the individual lecturer's advantage.

This may be illustrated by considering Open Learning within the College - which was the subject of much comment by the Principal [see Chap 5]. During the course of the study the N.V.Q. co-ordinators title changed to that of "Development Officer for new delivery systems in F.E." suggesting a greater focus on flexible and Resource Based Learning, central for the approach needed to support A.P.L. We have also seen in chapter 6 how unimpressed the Academic Board was with suggestions for embedding Open Learning into the College curriculum.

During the period of the study the researcher observed directly the practice of enrolling groups of students as Open Learning students as a means of ensuring that an "A" level evening class or part-time day class ran despite low numbers - as each OL student was entitled to a quarter of an hour's tuition per week and thus eight Open Learning students would together make a two hour "class", which could be taught together in a timetabled slot. Ten would make up a two and a half hour class and could be taught like "a proper "A" level class" [A level lecturer].
It was also apparent that Open Learning students following grade III courses [Silver Book agreement] were much sought after by lecturers who were hoping to go through the advanced level work bar onto a progressed Senior Lecturer scale. Both these examples suggest responsiveness and flexibility in the use of Open Learning by staff but not quite in the F.E.U. "student centred" mode. It illustrates Jeffcutts point that people will do something different so that things can stay the same. [Jeffcutt 1986]

(vi) Responses in Brown College to the Curriculum Development Issues for N.V.Q's

We have seen that the College (in partnership with another College in an adjacent county) was awarded a large sum of money to develop a national pilot for A.P.L. in October 1989. It was thus the A.P.L. co-ordinator's task to develop some of the vocational areas so that their delivery would be flexible enough to allow for accreditation of competence gained in another mode. Certain vocational areas and courses had already been identified in a Credit Accumulation Pilot which had also involved some INSET delivered by the future A.P.L. co-ordinator. The INSET emphasised modularisation, individualised learning programmes based on learning packages, the accumulation of competence, and assessment on demand. The three areas
targeted were Electrical Engineering, Catering and Office Technology and each of these will now be examined.

Catering

The catering industry had been targeted early on by F.E.U. as an example of an industry whose Industry Training Board had developed an assessment based workplace led system of accrediting competence and thus accrediting competence based qualifications. The F.E.U. had also funded a case study at Burton-on-Trent College to assess the problems of developing a curriculum for catering students that would deliver traditional ie City and Guilds qualifications in a competence mode based on performance criteria, individual progression through tasks, recording achievements as they occur etc [See F.E.U./PICKUP 1987C] If it had been done successfully at one college then the same programme, City & Guilds 706/1, should be able to be developed as a competence based curriculum in "a responsive college of Further Education". [Job advertisement description of Brown College 1989]

As many workers in the catering industry were unqualified, though highly experienced, A.P.L. and a flexible delivery should help qualify workers in an
industry well represented in the Brown environment.

The C & G 706/1 had already been targeted for a student centred delivery as part of the College provision for its T.V.E.I. students and was accredited on a one year full-time course which was also validated by B.T.E.C. as a first certificate programme.

During the period of the study some packages designed to combine skills, knowledge, understanding and role for particular units of competence were written, but mainly by a part-time lecturer as part of a Certificate in Education course which he was following as a part-time student.

The section head's view that "this is just something else that will come and go" was shared by other members of staff who didn't really see it as their job to design these materials - "Can't N.C.V.Q. provide them like B.T.E.C?" [Catering Lecturer]

By 1988 many knew of Caterbase and doubted its status in the industry "employers want trained people to work for them but not to train them themselves" [Catering Lecturer] Some were puzzled by this new idea of competence and assessment "as the students already have log books for City & Guilds". Several lecturers
could see that a really flexible system with A.P.L. embedded "could affect our jobs". A real shift to assessment in the work place by work-place assessors was thought most unlikely as the catering industry was seen as "reactive - it doesn't take risks" [Section Head] and it "doesn't know what it wants" [Catering Lecturer]. There seemed little reason to re-design what went on in the kitchens or classrooms as "we have enough problems with some of our students anyway - making life more complicated when we haven't been told why doesn't seem very sensible" [Catering Lecturer].

The notion of re-designing a curriculum when "we already have one from City & Guilds" was seen as an inappropriate use of time especially as they were already coping with T.V.E.I. which was seen to be about "extra subjects on the timetable . . . I.T. and Economic Understanding . . . . and all those forms! (R.O.A.)" Catering Lecturer.

Two lecturers - (both married women with families and thus career returners) could see how adult returners would benefit from redesigned programmes but felt that unless time was made available for developing packages they would not get written.

This issue of resourcing was a constant theme - especially as T.V.E.I. was seen to have been a useful
source of funding for equipment and what were loosely described as "consumables". T.V.E.I. staff development had been "a pleasant experience - all those lunches!" [Catering Lecturer]

As a section the Caterers had the lowest response rate to the two College-wide questionnaires of the three sections discussed here. Three members of staff responded to the first and two of these to the second. The Heller F.O.C.U.S. instrument for measuring change was administered to the 706/1 course team and their general response came within the reform quadrant - but only just.

Essentially the Caterers position on the curriculum issues for N.V.Q. was that if the Industry Lead Body and the Employers demanded a response "we can come up with what's necessary" [Catering Lecturer] providing there was the funding for them "to do a bit more" [Catering Lecturer] but "the students and employers seem happy enough with what we are doing so far" [Section Head].

Office Technology

This section within the Business and Management Board of Study was profoundly influenced by the lead which R.S.A. took once N.C.V.Q. made clear what the
implications for learning and assessment were. R.S.A. took a more proactive stance than any other Examining and Validating Body involved with College courses. This was illustrated by the very positive tone of a presentation made at an F.E.U. Conference on Competence Based Vocational Education and National Vocational Qualifications. An R.S.A. spokesman stated to a group of rather shaken college managers and lecturers that despite the significance which N.C.V.Q. was giving to work-based learning and assessment and Industry Lead Bodies "N.C.V.Q. need the Examining Bodies and the Colleges and we should not forget that"

[David Bell, Assistant Director for Development R.S.A. Coombe Lodge F.E.U. conference February 1988]

R.S.A. designed the competencies for a competence based curriculum and gave the performance criteria, which made implementing the R.S.A./N.V.Q. programme easier than for the other vocational areas discussed in this section. The Office Technology staff spent part of their summer holiday of 1988 voluntarily developing packages to take individual learners through the R.S.A. courses as they became provisionally N.V.Q's. They decided amongst themselves (and involved the communication lecturer who serviced most of their courses) who would be responsible for developing modules within their courses and began to deliver their courses with those
materials from September 1988.

By September 1990 one of the Sections rooms had been made into a multi-skills workshop where different students on different programmes on three mornings per week could work at their own pace through packages which were appropriate for the different qualifications they were seeking.

Assessment on demand was difficult and not thought to be a particularly relevant concern for programmes that accumulated performances in a variety of settings rather than a snap-shot approach. However, one aspect of credit accumulation proved problematic throughout the period of the study and that was assessment in the workplace - because of the apathy of employers.

In September 1988 the Office Technology staff entertained employers who had students placed with them that academic year to a buffet lunch to explain the new approach to vocational education and the role of the employer within the new N.V.Q. framework. By the end of the study the lecturers were very disheartened with the lack of interest shown by industrialists in recording competence achieved in the work place "we try to make sure that they achieve nearly all of them in our simulated setting or by
giving them tasks in the college" [Office Technology Lecturer]

The programmes also became cautiously involved in A.P.L., and eventually provided the College's first provisionally accredited A.P.L. assessor.

After extensive interviews with the section head and staff (some interviewed within a course evaluation programme) and after analysing the sections responses on the two questionnaires it was clear that the lecturers felt confident that they had developed their curriculum along the lines indicated by the F.E.U. for N.V.Q. They were confident that they understood what a competence was:

"a learned action which the student can do - or prove he/she has done"

"a demonstration of an ability"

"an ability to perform an action to an employers satisfaction"

"the ability to perform a work related activity to an agreed standard"

Their responses also indicated confidence about the curriculum eg

"the curriculum is the planning/carrying out of
the whole learning experience on specific programmes"
"the curriculum is the process of what is learnt as well as the content of what is learnt".

The Questionnaires also indicated that the members of staff in this section had moved to a counselling and guiding mode of student support [q7 1989: q4 1990] and that this had increased in the period under examination.

Their averaged responses may be summarised thus:

In a typical 2 hour teaching session

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1988</th>
<th>1990</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LECTURING</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TUTORING INDIVIDUALS</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISCIPLINING</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COUNSELLING &amp; GUIDING</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The section head of Office Technology (who had been at the College for 4 1/2 years when she became section head in 1989) was well aware of the institutional implications of N.V.Qs in terms of different admissions procedures and college wide modularisation. She felt that they had changed their delivery system because of external agencies and that much of what
they had achieved had been without real management support i.e. "without paid cover" for the classes when one or two members of staff were writing packages and the classes were taken by their colleagues. They had "worked together to develop our provision" [Section Head] and had been helped by the fact that three members of staff had been on Cert Ed or B.Ed courses at Huddersfield Polytechnic. "There is no county curriculum group for our [vocational] area - can feel very isolated" Section Head.

The interviews revealed that only three of the staff could identify the College N.V.Q. co-ordinator and that the majority (8 out of 10) could not identify who was in charge of the curriculum in the college. Most of the responses placed the college in the REFORM quartile of the Heller instrument though one saw it in the STORM quarter and one in the FLIGHT quarter.

Their views on why "things had changed" and why they had been obliged to change their practice were based on the idea that "more people need training" and a concern about "other providers out there".

This latter remark is important in two ways - much of the development arose out of a concern about and fear of the private sector "as office technology is being done by trainers as a business" in the local area.
There was little indication of a broad sweep of ideas about access for non-traditional F.E. students, a move away from time-serving, or the implication of their greater efficiency on the number of jobs that may go within the College.

The office technology staff changed much of their practice for N.V.Q. with the support of external agencies and motivated by a small element of fear of other providers.

**Electrical Engineering**

The City and Guilds course in Electrical Installations [C & G 236] was identified as a provisionally accredited N.V.Q. by the N.C.V.Q. in 1988. The course tutor for this block release daytime and part-time evening course was made aware of N.V.Q. issues at an F.E.U. conference in the autumn of 1987. He was aware of the College paper received by Academic Board and was involved with the Credit Accumulation and competence pilot. It became clear early in the observation that the tutor had decided to move the C & G 236 programme toward the curriculum model outlined by F.E.U.
He requested a change in rooming layout so that a workshop was designed to allow students to complete the practical aspects of the programme when they were ready and in a flexible order. He requested and received for the course team all the development remission allocated to the Electrical Engineering Section in 1988/1989 "agreed without a vote" [236 Course Tutor] and rewrote the course on a package basis "without proper payment . . .they must be daft" [Electrical Engineering Lecturer] He did this by organising the 6 members of the course team to do all their preparation work along "packages" lines so that by the end of the research the two parts of C&G 236 were being delivered as a roll-on roll-off assessment on demand programme.

The workshop programme was available three evenings per week and part-time students enrolled for 30 hours at a time and could come as and when they chose for these 30 hours. When the researcher observed the workshop on three consecutive evenings and spoke to staff and students it was clearly successful not only in terms of "curriculum innovation" as advocated by F.E.U. but in giving access to students - many of whom were paying for themselves - who wished to acquire electrical skills but who could not get their employers to pay; or whose employers would pay but not release them during the day; or people working part-
time or full-time in a different field who wanted to "get some qualifications so that I can do something else". [236 evening student]

The achievement of this tutor and course team is remarkable because they had no support from the examining body which assessed the understanding element separately as a fixed in time (twice yearly) formal written time constrained examination and which gave no lead at all on how the two modules in each part of the course could be split up into units of competence and assessed. There was no definite Industrial Lead Body - (the J.I.B./E.I.T.B. acted in this capacity) but were not prepared to give a lead to designing 236 as an N.V.Q.

How and why had the course team designed a new curriculum to deliver an N.V.Q. in the absence of external pressure to innovate - "every one else is just waiting" [Course tutor returning from a regional conference 1988] - and in the organisational structure and culture described in chapter 6?

The course tutor was aware that the possibility of innovation was made greater because of change in staff. There were two new members of staff recruited in September 1988, another new member in April 1989 and another in September 1990 - they had thus not
adsorbed the college culture and as three of them were totally new to teaching, they had not acquired a view of "being a teacher" as moulded by the staff development programme. Their views on teaching learning and quality are discussed in the next chapter.

The individual influence of the course tutor was the most important factor in the change. The respect he commanded from his colleagues [as observed at the course team meetings of the H.N.C/D Electrical Engineering course on which he taught and on which the researcher also taught and thus attended] and the "charisma" he enjoyed "he's the sort of bloke you would do anything for" [H.N.C. and 236 Electrical Engineering Lecturer] gave him the "power" to get the others to follow his lead.

He developed a "policy" of innovation soon after attending the 1987 F.E.U. conference on N.V.Q's. "Maybe I was a bit bored and wanted a change . . . I could see we needed to train more people . . . I thought it would be interesting to see it through" [236 Course Tutor]

He also had a "professional" commitment to what he was doing. He believed in giving more people access to training, "as long as standards are maintained"
He was aware that employers could do more but did not see blaming employers as something he should be bothered about. He had always seen himself as "a trainer not an educationalist, whatever that is" and indeed only undertook a Certificate of Education course in October 1988 in the hope that "they might be able to help us out on this". He was unimpressed with the Cert. Ed. course [at a College in another County] and disappointed with their support because "they used to ask me about N.V.Q. . . . asked me to hold a seminar on it". He was fully aware of the principles for "student centred learning" and felt that their flexible provision had given people opportunities to "learn a skill that they could practice". The innovation was not connected in any way to career ambitions nor was it likely to affect his career - he just wanted to see "if we could get it right", which is an echo of some of the innovators in technical education in the nineteenth Century - [see chapter 3]

During the periods of fieldwork and reporting it was obvious that the innovation was a success in terms of student numbers [which doubled between 1988 and 1991] and successful completion rates. This despite problems, with inflexible College enrolment procedures, dates and administration and an institution still
firmly committed to courses; and a section which from extensive interviewing had section members at very different levels of awareness of N.V.Q. issues and curriculum matters generally.

(vi) **Analysis of the different reactions**

The reaction at Brown Regional College to the curriculum issues of N.V.Q's can be conceptualised by analysing the information in the preceding section. The reaction of the catering lecturers contains elements unique to their situation ie catering industry background and an unusually [within the college culture] directive section head. However, observations of and interviews with lecturers in other areas of the College as diverse as Social Sciences, Construction, Caring or Mathematics firmly support the reaction of the Caterers as typical of this Responsive College's reaction to innovation ie a RESPONSE, to a stimulus which can be evaded/ignored if it might be uncomfortable.

The Office Technology lecturers reacted to pressure from external agencies ie R.S.A., F.E.U., Colleges providing staff with Cert. Ed/B.Ed programmes and the threat posed by "other providers". They were aware that some development was necessary and therefore
decided on CHANGE in order to maintain their roles as professional lecturers.¹

The Electrical Engineering Lecturers reacted to the broad curriculum issues implicit in N.V.Q's and made more explicit in the literature from the F.E.U. by developing a new approach to the delivery of their programme. Following a determined lead from the course tutor the team, uniquely in the College, engaged in INNOVATION, as most of them were in a novel situation already and had not acquired how to "be" a Brown College Lecturer.

Using an Epistemic Base - [see Chapter 7 and Plato] - a Value Base - [see Chapter 6 and Etzioni] - and a Strategy Base - [see Chapter 1 and Benn and Chinn] these concepts can be modelled thus -

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF DEVELOPMENT</th>
<th>EPISTEMIC BASE</th>
<th>VALUE BASE</th>
<th>STRATEGY BASE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INNOVATION</td>
<td>KNOWLEDGE</td>
<td>NORMATIVE</td>
<td>POWER - COERCIVE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GAGE</td>
<td>OPINION</td>
<td>NORMATIVE/</td>
<td>NORMATIVE/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>INSTRUMENTAL</td>
<td>RE-EDUCATIVE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESPONSE</td>
<td>IGNOR(E)/ANCE</td>
<td>INSTRUMENTAL/</td>
<td>EMPIRICAL/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>COERCIVE</td>
<td>RATIONAL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig.13 Model of Response Change and Innovation at Brown College
(viii) Concluding Remarks

In this chapter we have examined the curriculum debate on what should be taught and how it should be taught. The government succeeded in imposing a National Curriculum, and post-14 a more vocationalised curriculum upon the schools possibly aided by the evidence from researchers in education that a knowledge based curriculum excluded many working class children from educational success.

Over the period of the research a competence based curriculum for vocational courses in Further Education had not as yet been imposed on Brown Regional College - because the history [see chap 3] and traditions of F.E. and especially the role of the examining and validating bodies made such imposition impossible.2 F.E. lecturers have traditionally delivered courses validated by agencies other than the F.E. College in which they work. Thus most lecturers at Brown College decided to ignore what information there was available on N.V.Qs until it became of immediate concern [there is a parallel here with BTEC Common Skills which will be discussed in the next chapter] ie until there would be some negative consequences.
Most lecturers because of pressure of time, a desire for comfort and the indulgent approach to staff development decided that not only did they not like the idea of a more vocational approach to learning, but also that without knowing more about the implications for the curriculum it could be ignored. Thus they opted for a Platonic view that if you were ignorant of it - it couldn't exist! When it becomes apparent that developments will be forced upon the lecturers by external bodies or autocratic leadership [the INSTRUMENTAL/COERCIVE value base] then enough information to form an informed OPINION is gathered to allow for CHANGE. After a period the value base becomes NORMATIVE rather than INSTRUMENTAL as lecturers experience the Benn & Chinn Normative - Re-educative development via staff development courses from external agencies.

The cliche that knowledge gives power is illustrated by the innovative engineering course tutor. The course team had no pre-fixed notion about teaching and learning styles on the G & G 236 course (other than 1 lecturer who only had a small involvement) and therefore were not in a position to resist or object intellectually or behaviourally to a curriculum innovation. Thus the tutor had the POWER to steer the team towards a new delivery system to which he had a NORMATIVE commitment - which he successfully
translated to the other members of the team. [They were prepared to defend Open Learning workshops when they became a contentious issue for staff at the College in 1991/2].

This unique innovation throws into sharper focus the response of the rest of the College during the period of the research. The lack of innovation, the limited change, and the far more general response of "we will if we have to if someone tells us how to", is explored in the next chapter in which resistance to change based on concepts of Teaching, Learning and Quality is examined.

1 The Hairdressing Lecturers felt themselves to be in a similar position to the Office Technology group. They developed their provision in line with the Hairdressing Council's Nationally Preferred Scheme by voluntarily covering classes so that lecturers were released for a week at a time to work on the curriculum development that was necessary for a change in learning and assessment.
Chapter 9 - The Learning-Led F. E. College
Teaching, Learning and Quality

This chapter will after: (i) an introduction; (ii) consider teaching and "being" at Brown College; (iii) consider "learning" centred F.E. (iv) describe the changes in teaching and learning which affected F.E. during the period of the study; (v) discuss issues of quality in the F.E. system and in the College at the time of the study; (vi) explore the lecturers' and managers' view of quality at Brown College; and end with; (vii) concluding remarks.

(i) Introduction
We have seen in the previous chapter how a responsive College reacted to the demands of a competence based curriculum. We have also seen how the F.E.U. definition of this "curriculum" became ever more expansionist and all-embracing, culminating in a return to an interest in College organisation as the crucial element for allowing delivery of this curriculum. [See F.E.U. 1991]

By 1988 the more "forward thinking" principles of the L.E.A. controlled F.E. Colleges were moving away from the "curriculum" led approach central to F.E.U's raison d'être towards a "learner led" approach which
fitted with the C.B.I. endorsed voucher system, which itself fitted with the government's development of a consumer led market in the provision of vocational education and training.

Curriculum-led development has a virtuous and moderate air, and wins ready support amongst lecturers who, as the most direct representatives of students given this approach, are also put at the 'heart of things'. However, for the circumstances we now find ourselves in, we must move forward and beyond a curriculum led approach as currently applied. We must question the implicit assumption of a curriculum-led approach that the college lecturer and student are one and the same, and give the student a separate identity and greater degree of autonomy. An outright learner-led approach is now essential in order to redefine the role and function of colleges, and of college lecturers [Shackleton 1988 p56]

This move to redefine F.E., in terms of learners rather than teachers, outcomes rather than courses and client satisfaction rather than professional expertise, in the F.E.U. literature seemed an endorsement of the approach to organisational structure and staff development [see chapters 6 and 7] at Brown College. The approach to staff development was certainly learner-led in that the staff decided what they wanted to learn, based on personal preference and enthusiasm, as much as professional need.
In this chapter we shall explore the views of those staff on "Teaching" "learning" and "Quality" as these were the change issues in F.E. in the period of the study.

More importantly for this research they were also the categories to emerge from interview and observation data, as the concepts used by staff to support their resistance to and/or ignorance of the developments necessary for a competence based curriculum.

This chapter will also explore the views of staff on another curriculum innovation which affected F.E. in the late 1980s, that of the development of Common Skills within B.T.E.C. programmes. [see Appendix 21] In particular it will explore the response of an Engineering course team to this B.T.E.C. innovation (a team which included the engineering "innovator") in order to discover whether the established engineering lecturers were more sympathetic to a change associated with "personal development" than we have seen them to be to the narrow skills training associated with N.V.Q.'s.

(ii) Teaching and "being" at Brown College

We have seen from Chapter 7 that the lecturers in Brown College learnt that the College was committed to education rather than training in its approach to
both staff development and student development. Staff development and the initial training via induction and C&G 730 reinforced the "being" of, a teacher. An analysis of the first questionnaire [see appendix 2] showed that most teachers spent by far the largest chunk of their class contact time lecturing. This emphasis on didactic delivery as part of identity emerged from all the data gathered including informal observations of conversations in the staff common room. "Lecturing is what I enjoy doing . . . and anyway it is what I am paid to do". [History lecturer] "I like talking about my subject . . . exploring it in a lecture . . that is why I came into F.E. I couldn't put up with teaching even G.C.S.E. level or below now". [Engineering Lecturer who had taught physics in a school]

Many lecturers felt that teaching was no longer valued as it ought to be, particularly "knowing all about your subject" [Science Lecturer] and "having academic qualifications is nothing these days" [Mathematics lecturer] Social science lecturers who in delivering courses on the inequity of access and achievement rates in Education would seem to espouse almost a deschooling approach to education [see Illich 1973] would defend a teacher-centred approach in relation to the Quality of the education provided in the College. They were opposed to "the way things seem to be going
narrow skills training getting them to do assignments . . what about time for explaining things to them" [Sociology lecturer]

In response to interview questions in relation to "how do you decide what you do in the classroom" the most immediate response was related to syllabus content i.e. "I teach what's in the B.T.E.C. unit" [Engineering Lecturer] "I teach what City and Guilds says" [Catering Lecturer] "I teach the topics likely to be on the exam paper" [English Lecturer]

Further probing often revealed a less didactic approach but, as noted before in chapter 8, for most staff their expertise was in knowing what was on the syllabus and getting students through this material "in the usual ways . . well, you know workshops and assignments all those things" [Engineering Lecturer] "Oh yes . . . they do exercises in class especially if I am teaching in the English Workshop" [English Lecturer] "Oh yes . . . they go off and do some research . . especially at the end of term when I am tired" [Caring Lecturer]

Other questioning around the issue of what teaching was thought to be about revealed that whilst there was very large agreement amongst staff that it was about "communicating" and it was about subject expertise a
real definition of it as a science, an art, a skill or a craft was too difficult for most respondents. Those who had taken a rather different approach to the previous questions, and who had spoken about learning rather than teaching from the start, were more able to discuss their teaching. "I do what helps the students to learn and master what they have to do ... different work-sheets depending on what they need to do ... I realised when I worked in an infant school what a lot of different things people could learn in different ways ... I think sometimes we forget that here ....we need to consider the students more." [Computing Lecturer]

Teaching, then, for most of the lecturers was central to their concept of their job and of their identity but a discussion of what teaching was led to a defensive amusement [at the researcher having to ask] .. "Don't you know then after all this time ... I thought you were supposed to know about these things" [Engineering Lecturer]. When asked whether it was a science or an art most without clarifying responded that it was both and many volunteered that "all this theorising is rubbish ... I think I am right in saying that most published works on educational research makes no difference to anything at all". [Engineering Lecturer]
Those involved in delivering the City & Guilds 730 Certificate for Further and Adult Education Teachers had to be able to specify aspects of good teaching as they had to assess students on this basis during classroom observations. Their responses indicated their use and application of the standard text book for such courses - "Teaching in Further Education - An out-line of Principles and Practice" by L.B. Curzon. Their comments generally acknowledged that teaching cannot be reduced to a list of skills [the resistance to a move to a competence based 730 course with a significant amount of A.P.L. was evident throughout the research] and that "Lack of agreement on definitions does not imply total uncertainty within a discipline; it may indicate, rather, the existence of a number of approaches to the areas of knowledge embraced by that discipline". [Curzon 1990 p16]

In the same chapter Curzon considers the assertion that "Teachers are born, not made. Theory can never help those who can't teach" [Curzon 1990 p17] and whilst he and possibly the 730 tutors disagreed with this as an absolute principle "people can always be developed . . . must be given the right support" [730 Course Tutor] (and this was restated in various ways by all those involved in the management of staff and staff development) most of the staff developers and managers were in sympathy with the philosophy behind
the assertion. Thus, as it was held as a truism in the College that it was staffed by the right kind of human beings, there was no need to investigate theory or new ideas in education once you had become a member of that staff, (though you might choose to out of curiosity). Teaching in the College was a way of "being".

Whilst the staff may have been vague and confused about what teaching was, they knew that it was important and that they could do it. However they were much clearer about what training was . . . "de-humanising, narrow. . . .just behaviour. . . .not about knowledge" [Engineering Lecturer] "not good for people or for society . . . just getting people to do things without knowing why" [English Lecturer] and that the College "must have nothing to do with it". [Engineering Lecturer]. So vocational training for teaching, or for particular aspects of teaching would have been unacceptable.

Before leaving this section it is interesting to note that Curzon states that teaching can be defined - as "a system of activities intended to induce learning, comprising the deliberate and methodical creation and control of those conditions in which learning does occur" [Curzon 1990 p18]. Whilst many lecturers' definitions of good practice would eventually have
included the learning of the student, observations and interviews indicate quite clearly that teaching was more about "knowing" and "being" than "doing".

Finally we have seen that the staff's conception of teaching, when they were prompted to conceptualise it, was much more to do with "art" than "science" and in stating this they were recognising that "teachers in their professional work must exercise qualitative judgements in the interest of achieving qualitative ends" [Eisner - quoted in Curzon p19 1990]. Thus the lecturers often expressed concern about what was best for students and justified what they did in the classroom as "what would get the students the best exam results" [Physics Lecturer] or "what the students needed to know to pass the unit" [Engineering Lecturer]. These qualitative professional judgements also gave them control.

Eisner also stated that "The teacher has to use his or her repertoires and routines in an innovative way so as to deal inventively with what happens in class" [Curzon 1990 p19]. This research indicated that whilst the staff were happy to "adapt" a particular repertoire to different circumstances, changed and innovated repertoires were much rarer "I used the material, on Gender from my "A" level notes" [Sociology Lecturer when asked about what he was
teaching on a new Access to Social Work Course].
A true art is not essentially a mystery least of all
to its practitioner see [Plato - The Gorgias and
appendix 1]. An art whose purpose can not be clearly
specified was seen by Plato to be a "knack" - engaged
in without understanding, an indulgence for the
practitioner not a craft based on science with
outcomes for the recipient that can be evaluated. By
emphasising teaching's mystery teachers may be able to
avoid scrutiny.

(iii) Learning Centred F.E.?

In a 1982 report on curriculum innovation in F.E., the
F.E.U. stated that -

Our perception of the present position with
respect to vocational courses in F.E. is that
there still exists a widespread and strong
adherence to the practice of traditional teaching
approaches. By traditional we mean those
approaches where learning is largely teacher-
directed and the learning outcomes are
predominantly teacher controlled and in which the
primary role of the teacher is that of a
disseminator of information. Without positive
action to initiate the appropriate curriculum
activities, this is a situation which is likely
to remain substantially unchanged for many years.

The background of this case study consists of the ever
more urgent exhortations of the informed and less
informed (Pratley and others refer to "the traditional
ignorance among policy-makers about what goes on in F.E. - [Pratley 1988 p61]) to change these traditional teaching approaches. This culminated in the literature at the end of the 1980's which asserted that "the prime purpose of the college is to facilitate student learning" . . . and that "all activities of the college should directly or indirectly be supporting that learning" [Shackleton p55] and that "The primary requirement is efficient and appropriate learning, and there can be no hiding behind "syllabus" in order to excuse tedium or irrelevance" [Stanton 1989 p96] - which was asserted by Principal B to be the reason for and the result of his changed organisational structure.

Before examining the staff's view of learning and then considering in the next section the role of the examining and validating bodies in the change necessary for a learning - not teaching - led programme we need to remember that Brown College had already - before the pressure of N.V.Q. could be felt - been involved in a learning styles innovation, that of T.V.E.I. [I will not discuss Y.T.S. here because as in many colleges, it had been marginalised and isolated in two ways: (i) geographically - the Y.T.(S) co-ordinator worked from a hut and the students were often taught in huts when not using "dedicated" workrooms for electronics, I.T. etc; and
(ii) educationally - in that Y.T.S. was something that went on in College or even went on in terms of individual lecturers timetables (though it was typically staffed by part-time lecturers), but it was not used as an example of a teaching session in any of the responses to the first questionnaire - [see Appendix 2]. As stated before many lecturers cited it as an example of all these "changes" which then disappear [- possibly because Y.T.(S) students were now no longer taught in discreet groups but had been absorbed into "legitimate" courses]

In the period of this case study Brown College was involved with three T.V.E.I. Consortia which used the College as part of the progression routes for the 14-19 year age group. In 1986 a small cohort of T.V.E.I. students who were part of the Pilot Scheme entered College courses which had been "enhanced" in terms of resources and staff development and became known as T.V.E.I. courses. In 1988 the College became the recipient for T.V.E.I. students who wished to study for G.C.S.E. "A" level in a non-school environment. The pilot had been handsomely resourced - which led to staff expectations for equipment and materials which, when not forthcoming after 1988, (the end of the pilot), led to much disappointment. Whereas the thrust in schools may have been the "vocationalising" of the curriculum [see Holt 1987] the emphasis in the
College was upon "Teaching and Learning Styles, Relevance, Breadth and Balance, Recording Achievement and the Entitlement Curriculum" [T.V.E.I. Pilot College Co-ordinator - (subsequently D.A.P. Tertiary Education) [Interview Data]

In the subsequent statements by the County on the entitlement curriculum, which evolved within its T.V.E.I. development, it was the Learning Process which was identified as entitlement's defining quality. The Learning Process was itemised as:

1. Negotiate formulate and if necessary modify suitable programme of study.
2. Regularly review and record each students achievements and developments through the tutor or course tutor.
3. Take part in problem solving and decision making processes.
4. Develop the skills of working in a team.
5. Develop a variety of appropriate learning methods and study skills (eg supported self study)

all linked to the ideas of "empowering students".

Thus the T.V.E.I. developments in the 10 pilot courses in the College and the staff development (linked to assessment strategies for Record of Achievement and
where appropriate individualised learning programmes) for T.V.E.I. extension should have helped staff prepare for other thrusts from N.C.V.Q. for learner-led, assessed-on-demand, and as appropriate, A.P.L'd programmes.

From her privileged position as the R.O.A./NROVA Co-ordinator the researcher observed the disbelief and hostility that accompanied requests for patterns of formative assessment and student feedback in programmes as required by the County's T.V.E.I. contract with the T.A. The different Boards of Study dealt with these issues (which were linked by the Co-ordinator to the Quality of the Learning Programme) in the ways which they had developed since the 1984 restructuring outlined in Chapter 6. The Technology Board of Studies (T.E.C.B.O.S.) both when meeting as a board and when approached directly in Course Team Meetings used their T.A. "Wooden Leg" game [see appendix 16] - ie "there can be no developments like this without resources" [Section Head at a TECBOS Meeting].

The Personal and Community Board of Studies (P.A.C.B.O.S.) played "Uproar" [see appendix 16] every time that R.O.A. was mentioned and when the R.O.A. Co-ordinator attended as an observer in her role as
researcher R.O.A. was raised as "a waste of time" . . "filling in all these bits of paper" . . "what has it got to do with "A" level courses" . . . "the students need teaching not all this business" [Staff attending P.A.C.B.O.S.] This meeting was presided over by the A.P. Staffing who said afterwards to the Researcher that the P.A.C.B.O.S. meetings were so lively "because the staff there, more than in the other Boards of Study are concerned with and want to express their views about education" [Chair of P.A.C.B.O.S. and A.P. Staffing]

The Business and Management Board of Study (B.A.M.B.O.S.) which play a mixture of "Now I've got you" and "See I told you so" [see Appendix 16] did not discuss R.O.A. at their Board Meetings. During the time of the study they had relatively few full time students - mainly part-time Business and Management Students - and as their main full time course the BTEC National Diploma in Business Studies, had been in the T.V.E.I. pilot, it had thus by 1988 already been developed for at least three years. Basically the staff on this course were co-operative and amenable to filling in documents but seemed unaware of reasons for so doing (in terms of student learning) other than that they were funded to do so. Over the course of the research B.T.E.C. began to apply more pressure for student centred learning
styles and so new members of staff began to read the
documents put out by the Council related to this. As
external bodies such as employers began to value the
R.O.A. profile, the Business Studies Course Team
consisting mainly of new appointments, or staff who
had been at the College less than three years, were
less resistant to the principles behind R.O.A. This
was because many saw it as about "nicely presented
reports for the students" [Business Studies Lecturer]
rather than as "about student support and development"
[New Business Studies Lecturer and 1st Year BTEC
National Tutor]; or about a Learner Led curriculum "I
don't know what a curriculum is" [Course Tutor]

In summary the move towards a learning led approach to
delivery had not begun in the hearts and minds of most
of the practitioners at Brown college during the time
of the study despite its reputation for
responsiveness, change and innovation. Lecturers were
teachers, teaching what was laid down in the syllabi
of Examining and Validating Bodies; T.V.E.I. was
slightly more acceptable than YT(S) but this final
comment sums up the response to the innovative
approach to curriculum design called for by an
Entitlement Curriculum and a recording process mapping
skill development, formative assessment and good feed
back for students "This is a BTEC course - we don't
have to bother about any of that" [Electrical
(iv) Changes in Teaching and Learning

We have seen in the previous section that by identifying themselves with courses and syllabi specified by external examining and validating bodies and by identifying themselves as subject specialists, lecturers were able to ignore and resist a shift from "being" and "teaching" to "doing" that which would bring about "learning". At the time of writing the expression "learning facilitator" was often used in a joking but highly defensive manner about "all these daft schemes" that seemed increasingly to be encroaching on College provision, if not on the lecturers themselves.

During the period of observation the Business, Technician and Education Council was becoming more proactive in monitoring, via its moderation system, the way in which Colleges were delivering BTEC programmes in the light of desired curriculum change. This change had begun with the merger of B.E.C. and T.E.C. in 1983 and its elements were vaguely outlined in a seminal document "Policies and Priorities Into the 1990's" published in 1984. The document emphasised BTEC's commitment to "a wide range of employment related education, to the mutual benefit of
the students, their current and future employers, and the national interest". [B.T.E.C. Sept. 1984] It outlined the areas which BTEC would be attending to in order to prepare for the 1990's and these were listed as:

- relevance of provision
- availability of programmes of study
- core studies
- inter-disciplinary themes
- updating the curricula and learning strategies
- national creditability and qualifications
- external moderation and quality standards
- liaison and participation
- cost and resource effectiveness
- monitoring and review


This list would seem to be in harmony with, and therefore a useful precursor to, T.V.E.I. The learner centred, industry related, approach was also in sympathy with N.V.Q. philosophy; and its emphasis on resource effectiveness and monitoring in line with demands for greater efficiency, was a good fit with the Joint Efficiency Study. More importantly the strong emphasis on personal development and education -
all BTEC programmes of study should provide students with a motivating and intellectually challenging experience —— {The Council} expects approved centres to offer courses which provide their students with a stimulating culture . . . and welcomes ... the diminishing of the distinction between education and training [B.T.E.C. 1984 p21]

should have made it a very attractive document for the teachers at Brown College concerned with "educating students . . allowing them to grow up and develop . . and know about themselves as well" [B.T.E.C. Science Lecturer].

Thus a College and its staff delivering B.T.E.C. programmes should develop in ways which would make further adaptation and innovation easy.

Throughout the 1980's BTEC published documents on major areas of its original outline. These "Golden Guidelines" on "Teaching and Learning Strategies" "Course and Unit Design" "General Guidelines on Assessment" and "Course Review and Evaluation" eventually formed the basis of the much firmed-up moderator's reporting system in place by 1991. However, the development which BTEC sought to publicise and obtain a response to most immediately was that of the issue of Common Skills and Core themes and their delivery initially through a Programme of Integrative Assignments. By 1986 BTEC had published

333
General Guidelines on this area and held a variety of regional seminars to inform College Lecturers of the implications of those developments [one of which was attended by the researcher in October 1986]. The College responded to these publications and seminars by holding a day long Seminar at the College, on the issues of Change in B.T.E.C. Policy, First Awards, Course Implementation, Assessment in Higher Awards and the topics of Core Skills and Themes and Cross Modular Assignments were dealt with by various members of staff who had received some staff development from BTEC in these areas. [see Appendix 22] All the staff were circulated about the College Seminar: 13% attended.

The documents on Common Skills and Core Themes elaborated what should be contained within an integrative programme and emphasised a whole team approach to constructing assignments and outlined what the Common Skills and Core Themes were. During the period of the study the researcher was a member of the course team delivering an HNC/D course in Electrical and Electronic Engineering and as BTEC had specified that a strategy for Programme of Integrated Assignments (P.I.A.s) would need to be included in all course submission by 1987; the team had begun to deal with this by 1988.
The anarchic and creative culture of the college could be clearly seen as this course team dealt with Common Skills. The course was largely assignment based in design, delivery and assessment. The very slow response on the Common Skills was the result of a belief that "BTEC keeps changing its mind" [Engineering Lecturer] "Yes but what does any of it mean" [Engineering Lecturer having dabbled in some of the BTEC documents] . . . "it might be OK for business type courses but what has it got to do with engineering" [Engineering Lecturer] and most important of all "We'll get bothered when the moderator shows an interest in, or even an understanding of any of this" [BTEC Engineering Course Tutor]. There was certainly a concern that "we could all be in for a lot of work . . . which will be a waste of time . . . until somebody who knows what they are doing can give us a lead on it" [Engineering Lecturer]. It was assumed by all members of the team that neither the BTEC Committee in College nor anyone involved in staff development/curriculum development in the College could possibly give them any help "as this is an engineering course" [Engineering Lecturer].

This position represented the departmental tradition in the College and its origins as a Technical College built around the Engineering department, designed to serve the needs of a City with a thriving engineering
industry. The Engineers in their Engineering corridor led a life both central to the main business of the College as a Vocational College and yet detached from its development as a College of Further Education post 1983. It must also be remarked that one of the reasons for the Electronic Engineers being allowed so independent an existence within a "macho" Board of Studies was that, particularly the lecturers on the HNC/D course, were the most highly qualified and specialised members of staff [academic first degrees from Cambridge, Loughborough and London Universities and Masters degrees from similar specialist university departments] "These are some of the brightest, cleverest men in the College" [Head of the Evaluation Team evaluating the HNC/D course]. It should also be noted that after the period of observation when the moderator decided that an appropriate vehicle for a competence based Common Skills delivery had to be designed the course tutor was able to provide a sophisticated programme for formative, learner-centred development more easily and effectively than many of the other course tutors.

The same course tutor took an active part in employer liaison and found what other lecturers in other sections found in relation to N.V.Q. - the reluctance of employers to become involved in designing or assessing assignments. BTEC's exhortations for
development of the P.I.A. were weighed against the fact that an assignment based programme had already involved the engineering staff in much change; and there was also a reluctance to seek out "help" from possibly less able members of staff in other sections. Both these observations mirror the comments made in a report of a study undertaken on behalf of BTEC and the FEU investigating the degree to which Teaching and Learning Strategies appropriate for the delivery of Competence based Common Skills had been developed in various Colleges. The report stated that

Coming to terms with a new role as a learning resource and a facilitator can be difficult for teachers whose status and experience are based on subject expertise. Even those committed to change felt that sometimes "it was difficult not to lecture" and hard to admit 'we don't know all the answers' It was easy to shift emphasis from content to process" . . . . The need for more time, help and guidance on PIA design was widely felt . . . . Course teams often kept to themselves: it was not common to seek or exchange ideas with teams in other departments or other Colleges [F.E.U. 1990]

Before leaving this section it would be fair to say that other BTEC course teams "got their act together" more quickly on Common Skills and the P.I.A; one example being the BTEC National Diploma in Health Science. This was a new programme introduced in September 1988 and which in terms of the observers judgement as a member of that course team and on the
basis of a very positive moderator's reports on "integration" "common skills" and "integrative assignments" met many of the requirements of the steer coming from the BTEC documents on the delivery of these items. The tutor for this course designed her submission around information received from colleagues in other colleges.

The HNC/D programme in Electronic Engineering has been discussed because as we saw in the last chapter the main college innovator on N.V.Q. was a member of the Electrical/Electronic engineering section characterised by a "we'll worry about that when we have to" ... and "what about some resources then" culture; he was also a member, like the researcher, of the HNC/D course team and as such saw his role as "leaving it to the course tutor to get on with this". ...and ..."are we going to get any time for this?" in relation to developing a P.I.A. Thus he was an innovator within his own locus of control - but he would not innovate or interfere in another tutor's programme unless specifically requested to do so.

Finally the reluctance of the engineering and other BTEC lecturers across the college to become involved with some of the implications of N.V.Q. was often stated by them to be not only a dislike of what they perceived N.V.Q. to be about "diverting the
unemployed" [IT Lecturer] "behaviourism not proper learning" [BTEC Science Lecturer]; but also an awareness that BTEC, as an educational body, was not fully enthusiastic from the start about the coming of N.V.Q.. Despite discussions with the N.C.V.Q. it was not until October 1990 that an agreement was signed between the two bodies which committed BTEC "to ensuring that the reformulation of all BTEC programmes leading to N.V.Q.s will be based on the competencies defined by the lead bodies for each major industry" [BTEC Briefing No 4 November 1990 p1] This meant that after considerable delay BTEC had acknowledged that all qualifications had to be slotted in to the N.V.Q. framework and that the learning outcomes for these qualifications would be specified by employers rather than validating bodies no matter how work related those qualifications had been. The "we'll worry about that when the time comes" approach of the Engineering Lecturers in particular may have been the most appropriate, if not necessarily the most informed or proactive approach, - and a typically "responsive" approach - as there was no funding for immediate development.

(v) Issues of Quality
We have seen that Principal B argued that his reorganised responsive College put the Learning Process and Educational Quality at the centre of its
activities. An important part of a Responsive College was the Educational Services Unit [See appendix 12] "The primary role of the E.S.U. is to support this drive for higher educational quality and innovation". . . . it would also make "the staff aware of the new developments in educational methods or technology by presenting papers to the Academic Board or otherwise". [Sheen 1987]

We have also seen that Quality would be a natural outcome of the closer working of a small number of staff working together as a section. Before examining this Quality Circles approach in greater detail it is worth noting that this approach to sections did not in the early days of re-organisation apply to course teams. We have seen that the changes in BTEC were addressed by holding a seminar in which Course team meetings were identified as key areas for change - and in the record of that seminar it was stated that "we are leading many colleges in this field" [See appendix 22] However, this lead did not originate from the matrix structure of re-organisation but from one of the criticisms made in the H.M.I.s report of the Inspection of the College in 1985 where a lack of co-ordination between staff was commented on.

The Quality Circles approach has been discussed in several F.E.U. documents but it was an approach more
suitable for a non-status college than for the traditional hierarchical college. The conditions which allow for the effective introduction of Quality Circles were outlined by Collard to include "Considerable devolution by management . . . a proper explanation of the objectives of quality circles . . . publicity of their achievements . . . even publicity in the local press". [Collard 1981 p17]

These conditions were part of Principal B's approach to organising an F.E. College

Quality circles are small groups of employees who work together meeting regularly to agree ways of improving quality, productivity and other aspects of their day to day working arrangements. Although there are many varieties, they consist of five to ten members with attendance being voluntary, they are led by an immediate supervisor or by someone chosen from among the circle, they meet regularly and they have the authority to implement agreed changes [Collard 1981].

Essentially they were developed in Japan from an originally American idea to allow problems to be identified and solved by those closest to them. The original enthusiasm for Quality Circles in British management literature had begun to subside by the late 1980's [see Dale and Barlow 1987 pp 5-9] mainly because of a realisation that what may be appropriate for one culture may not transfer happily to another different culture.
This belief in a Quality Circles approach ie "groups of lecturers can solve any problem related to their work themselves" [Principal B Interview Data] does not from the evidence seem to have given rise to a body of professionals who were pro-active in dealing with issues of change. Whilst they appreciated the freedom they enjoyed ["it is assumed that lecturers know how to use their time most effectively" A. P. Marketing] the anarchic culture meant that those who had a responsibility for curriculum development, the funded co-ordinators, often had great difficulty in convincing tutors that their curriculum issue should be on their professional problem-solving agenda. That would have required a pro-active approach whereas problem solving in a Responsive College (see previous section on B.T.E.C. Common Skills) is reacting to crises as they arise, not professionally taking action to control and direct their practice to some vision of changed provision. As long as teachers were concerned mainly with teaching and they were by definition the experts on what good teaching was [and this was the view with which most staff were operating] on the whole there were no problems. "Change" for many lecturers meant teaching more courses without altering delivery methods [including the use of open-learning within mainstream provision]. Change was not an issue for many members of staff unless they themselves were in some developmental role e.g. the
BTEC Co-ordinator who was fully aware of the need for more flexible delivery but also aware that "not many people have grasped this yet".

The F.E.U. in 1987 outlined the Quality issues for Further Education in response to the MSC's drive for proper planning by the L.E.A.s of their Further Education provision in order for them to attract MSC funding [see "the accord" in chapter 4]. The document "Quality in N.A.F.E." linked Quality with the F.E.U. model of curriculum development involving the processes of

1. Values and needs - of local employers, the community and individuals

2. Programme design - assessment serves rather than dominates learning with an emphasis on competencies to be attained

3. Implementation - check that the learning processes are of the highest possible quality and that achievement and competencies are fully recognised

4. Support systems - ensure that staff development prepares all staff to contribute as appropriate to all elements of the curriculum development process
5. Evaluation and Review - establish mechanisms and instruments including data collection systems - consider how development plans can introduce performance evaluation systems designed to integrate measures of efficiency and effectiveness into an educational audit.

[Summarised from Appendix 2 Checklist of Ground Rules "Quality in N.A.F.E. FEU 1987A]

This document was written in a "prescriptive style" and began to make it clear that the "efficiency" issues in the documents published by the Government and M.S.C. in the early 1980s [see Chapter 4] were now being converted, from a philosophy of unease about F.E. provision, into a statement of what the colleges must do to survive in a market-regulated system. The document outlined essential factors in quality support for the curriculum as including

- teaching staff qualifications and experience
- support staff
- staff development
- specialist and general accommodation including library
- utilisation of equipment and other learning resources

344
We have seen from the previous chapters that these support systems were fully available to the teaching staff at Brown College. A Learning Resources Unit was developed in 1985 as part of the E.S.U.'s support for staff. Indeed it was the over availability of the final item that led to the L.E.A. management review in 1989.

(vi) What view of quality did the staff at Brown College hold?
An analysis of responses to the questions on quality in the 1990 College-wide questionnaire [See appendix 3] revealed that only 34% of those who responded answered the two questions about quality although the majority of the non-answering respondents completed the subsequent question - and all the respondents went on to complete the Organisational Profile. This would seem to indicate a lack of confidence about this whole area - and perhaps a growing awareness that quality issues were becoming important - and that the issue was not the quality of teaching, which we have seen from the beginning of this chapter, the staff felt confident about, but something other than being a teacher.
The responses to the question on a definition of quality suggested that there were four approaches being taken by the lecturers based on:

1) Outcomes - "Good pass rates"
   "a quality course results in a skilled student and a motivated student"
   "achieving stated outcomes"
   "producing an independent student with personal confidence"

2) Methods - "Delivery of Professionalism to the highest standards"
   "Highest possible standard of teaching"
   "Appropriate teaching and learning strategies"

3) Holistic Approach - "Good teaching, resources, environment tutoring etc"
   "provide the best possible learning environment"
   "Classrooms, resources staffing to highest level"

and possibly for three respondents
4) a learner-led model - "meeting the needs of the customer"
"adjusting teaching to individual needs"
"giving the students what they need to be successful"

The response rate suggests that only those who had some model of "Quality in education" were able to respond and that the models they had relate to the three models that were discussed with the staff during interviews i.e. (1) a "Professional" model which reflects how teachers manage the situation. This was the most immediate response at interview and the second most popular result i.e. "Methods" in the questionnaire. (2) An "outcomes model" in terms of Performance Indicators was the most popular on the questionnaire and was beginning to be accepted as legitimate - though several staff felt that this might put pressure on teachers who were also responsible for assessment on their courses (e.g. B.T.E.C. programmes) in a difficult position - "have to maintain standards" . . . " have to be able to fail students without feeling under pressure"

The interviewer also raised with members of staff (3) the British Standards model BS5750 and in the second year of the research Total Quality Management [TQM] -
which are holistic models of quality. [For a full discussion of these and their application in Further Education see F.E.U.1991C] both of which are about whole systems. BS5750 is about "saying what you are doing in an organisation, documenting it, and consistently sampling against your documentation" [Management consultant on devising quality systems] Total Quality Management "is a process for managing and measuring continuous quality improvement of everything that a company does" [F.E.U. 1991C p3]

The debate about importing either of these systems from a non-educational environment into Further Education is now – at the time of writing – highly contentious but the Training and Enterprise Councils are beginning to impose BS5750 on Colleges by only funding institutions which have BS5750 in place.

BS5750 and T.Q.M. relate to the third Holistic model which emerged from the questionnaire but the researcher found little enthusiasm for it in her observations and interviews. Whilst Principal B made it clear that he sought to be the first Principal of an F.E. College to get BS5750 in place his successor felt no such enthusiasm feeling that it would not transfer easily to an educational environment. This was also the view of all Senior managers interviewed who were aware of the difficulties of specifying
standards and processes in education and especially in "the kind of college we have made this". [A.P. Interview Data]

With some reluctance senior managers acknowledged that Performance Indicators were going to play a greater part in definitions of quality - but their hearts were with a "Professional" or "Methods" model especially the A.P. Staffing for whom quality was about "good teaching by good teachers . . . which will lead to good results"

Principal B, as we have seen from his descriptions and endorsement of re-organisation, believed that Brown College was already learner/learning centred and from his interview "would become more client centred" [Principal B Interview Data]. He maintained that this did not in any way diminish the expertise of the college but that being client centred in the appropriate way would "allow us to compete more successfully" [Principal B Interview Data].

The resistance, by teaching staff, to quality in education being determined by client or customer satisfaction was extremely high in every source of data gathered. Whilst student satisfaction was acknowledged to be part of how quality could be recognised or assessed; and whilst employers often got
Of those who replied to question 15, [see Appendix 3] the clear majority [72%] mentioned Evaluation as an appropriate way of recognising or assessing quality, which reflected the policy adopted in 1989, and implemented from September 1990, of evaluating all College courses every three years and presenting a report of the evaluation to the Curriculum Development and Quality committee, a sub-committee set up in 1989 of the Academic Board.

Training courses for evaluation had been run since 1986 by the then course tutor for the C&G 730 course, who was also the main provider of the induction programme, the subsequent course tutor for the Cert.
Ed course, (run at the College from September 1990) and the Head of Curriculum Development. (The model on which the training courses and subsequent evaluation policy was based was that of "illuminative evaluation" which is explained in chapter 2).

This leader of the evaluation programme saw it as essentially "a formative process . . . helping us to develop and think". The approach taken was essentially that of "encouraging professionals to think about their (good) practice". It was also a way of checking that this good practice was being communicated to students, and where appropriate, employers, as they would be interviewed during an evaluation. It was essentially "non-threatening" and should develop practitioners confidence and could possibly indicate what further staff development or support was necessary for individual members of staff.

Thus this model (in its illuminative form) was expected to act as a confirmation of the good practice of the College staff and an indicator of where more "personal growth" was desirable. It thus fits with the "Professional Teaching" model of quality which this chapter has argued the vast majority of staff at Brown College held. It also fits to some extent into a model of Total Quality Management with its assumption
of good practice already engaged in by self-monitoring staff.

The model's inappropriateness, however, for a "measurable outcomes" or "Performance Indicator" approach to quality was seen clearly after the period of this study when the BTEC moderator for the HNC/D Electronic Engineering course imposed the BTEC quality system, as formalised in a pre-ordinate report, upon the course and course team - to their utter confusion and dismay. BTEC was now measuring the curriculum process (eg did induction occur?) as well as the outcomes. The illuminative model, which exposed teachers' perceptions and feelings and the issues and concerns of the course participants could not illuminate a curriculum delivery not yet in place.

At the time of writing the course evaluation at Brown College was moving towards a promiscuous evaluation process involving a pre-ordinate list of questions. Principal C (appointed in January 1991 after acting as Principal since September 1990) had considered cutting the evaluation programme completely because of cost - some £30,000 per year. He relented, possibly because he recognised that it was the only scrutiny of quality existing in the College; and in a firmed up pre-ordinate measurement form, based on feedback from students, rather than on feelings from staff, it could
form part of the checking process in a T.Q.M. system which as a manager of a "privatised" "incorporated" College he would have to have in place after April 1993.

(vii) **Concluding Remarks**
This chapter has examined the key concepts that arose from the research in this study - Teaching, Learning and Quality in Further Education. Resistance to innovation in the College revolved around these concepts as they were held to be the defining elements of education. By defending *traditional* views about all three, professional teachers were defending education itself. That defence was essentially based upon "being a teacher" which made the practitioner an expert on Learning and Quality in education.

This professional expertise however, depends upon the exclusivity of the individuals and organisation claiming it. A "professional" (Regional) College, as a monopoly provider for the area was, in the early 1980s, in a position to defend and justify its activities against any other intruders eg private providers or "in-house" industrial trainers. Even the Examining and Validating Bodies could be side-stepped on their requests for curriculum innovation as that was the area of expertise of the teachers. E.V.B.s could specify knowledge content but "teaching and
learning styles" [see B.T.E.C. documents] were the province of professional ie certificated teachers.

By the late 1980s the government had imported and imposed elements of "the market" into F.E. Colleges by manipulating funding mechanisms. Whilst Principal C was reluctant to see quality in education reduced to a Performance Indicator model [interview data] he was managing a College, many of whose courses may, in 1993, be funded by a Training and Enterprise Council [T.E.C.], only upon the successful completion of an award by the learners enrolled upon it.

The model of quality emerging in the College at the time of writing represented a compromise between the views of (i) a highly articulate if traditional and "comfortable" professional workforce, unused to any scrutiny of their performance; (ii) E.V.B.s which were setting their own standards for any institution "public" or "private" to follow in the delivery of programmes leading to their qualifications; and (iii) paymasters, at national and local level. The latter included emasculated L.E.A.s who would still be funding some programmes, and the T.E.C.s who by attempting to impose BS5750 upon Colleges were seeking to influence Teaching and Learning as well as defining the Quality of desired outcomes.
Beneath the rhetoric of response, change and innovation we have found some very traditional and uncritical views of teaching. Beneath a structure designed to make the college a centre for "the learning business" [Principal B interview data] were sections and teachers operating in ways very similar to the autocratic Technical College from which the Responsive College evolved in the 1980s. A reappraisal of the claims made for the innovatory nature of a Responsive College forms the theme of the following, concluding, chapter.
PART IV

The Conclusion of the Study
Chapter 10

CONCLUSION

This chapter will after: (i) an introduction, return to a discussion of the issues stated in Chapter 1 and discuss them in the light of the information presented in this thesis. Thus the chapter will; (ii) consider how a Responsive College responded to the new system of National Vocational Qualifications between April 1988 and December 1990; (iii) consider how the College's organizational structure and culture contributed to what took place; (iv) consider how the values of the staff within that structure and culture affected their response to change and innovation; (v) consider how the persistent historical issues, which have emerged from part 1 of this thesis, affected the context within which the College was operating; and (vi) consider how the terms "responsiveness" "innovation" and "change" in education need to be redefined. The chapter will conclude with; (vii) some comments on the methodology and some suggestions for further areas of research.

(i) Introduction

This study has been an examination of an organisation - a Responsive College - responding to a change in a
system of qualifications. The Responsive College programme run by the FESC was an exhortation by the FESC and MSC to the LEAs' Colleges to reform their approach to vocational education and training (and their approach to general education) to fit an employer-led model of work-related training. However, the "responsiveness" model was developed in the literature to become a "marketing model" based on a product cycle. It was difficult for any organization to maintain its claim to responsiveness as this definition shifted throughout the 1980's and as a focus of that definition - N.V.Q.'s - were still not fully in place. However, Brown College did maintain its claim to not only responsiveness, but to innovation. How it responded and innovated will now be discussed.

(ii) How a Responsive College responded

Brown College did not respond to N.V.Q.'s and the competence based curriculum by changing its practice and delivery. We have seen from the introduction above [and see chapter 4] that such a response to two almost contradictory elements - being led by employers and leading employers - would hardly be possible. Whilst elements in the organisation responded appropriately ie "ignored" or under pressure adapted and "changed" according to examining body dictate, a
College response was not possible. The F.E.U. may have hoped that a truly Responsive College would adopt a pro-active policy of identifying competencies required by individuals within companies for the employers by an "Analysis of appropriate company records and reports: turnover/accident records, balance sheets, audit and budget reports or evaluation studies" [FEU 1989a p18]. Such a centralised pro-active policy was impossible for a fragmented, re-active institution which Brown College was designed to be. An expectation of an holistic policy-based response from such an organization as we have been investigating involves a "category mistake" [see Ryle 1963 pp17-25] of identifying associated groups of people [the sections and the separated management team] as a co-ordinated goal orientated institution.

The College structure created in 1983 and the culture which developed within it resulted in a highly fragmented institution committed by the rhetoric of the "Pioneering" Principal B to a rhetoric of innovation and change. The rhetoric was marketed very effectively to groups who were keen to hear it [eg CBI FEU]. Meanwhile back at the College [Court House] a body of mainly "critical appraisers" [see Smith Prunty et al 1986] confident and comfortable in the "respect for persons" "indulgency" culture, adopted educationalists arguments as rationalisations of their
practice [see Gleeson and Mardle 1980 p118] which made accommodating to the new vocationalism inappropriate and unnecessary.

These responses were the results of the organizational structure and culture and to examine these outcomes more fully it is to these features of the Responsive College that we now turn.

(iii) (a) The results of the organizational structure

The original reform of the structure of Brown College in 1983 arose from the pressure to save money (after an over-spend) from the L.E.A; and from internal pressure from a group of "subversives" [see chapter 7] who sought reform from the traditional autocracy of Technical College structures in order to bring about developments (especially in teacher education) which would benefit the College - and their position within it.

When a similar group of ad hoc enthusiasts got together under the guidance of the P.L. Head of Construction and prepared a plan for a College response to N.V.Q. - which with foresight indicated the changes in the organization that N.V.Q. would necessitate - there was no system able to receive or respond to that plan. The reorganisation by the
"subversives" in 1983 had brought about a democratic college with a large number of sub-committees reporting to the Academic Board in an environment in which discussion ie "critical appraisal" was actively encouraged. Planning, and acting on plans, was not provided for. It was a democratic free-market college - plans, views, enthusiasms had to be marketed to the management - and to fellow members of staff. This could mean a lot of noise about change [see the Heller Focus instrument appendix 4] without the reality of change disrupting the community.

The co-ordinators funded by pilots for innovations linked to the "new vocationalism" and N.V.Q. eg the A.P.L. co-ordinator, were given opportunities to inform the organisation about the changes that the funding was hoping to encourage but the Academic Board, the Boards of Study, and the Section Heads Group in "critical appraisal" mode heard without listening and without feeling any necessity to act. Section Heads in particular felt that they needed to be kept informed of developments, but were preoccupied with their own position in the organisation.

At the time of writing cross-college co-ordinators are seen as an important source of curriculum and quality development within Colleges [see Limb 1991] When the co-ordinators at Brown College met with the new Acting
Principal (Oct 1990) to explain their roles neither the BTEC co-ordinator nor the IT co-ordinator could say who they were responsible to in the College and many other co-ordinators did not consider a line manager as something to be recorded in their role description. Floating co-ordinators unattached to any structure or manager cannot co-ordinate or ensure that others innovate.

The management team existed apart from the main democratic body of staff in the College. As the L.E.A's management review pointed out, there was no intervening layer of management in the organisation of the College. This, as we have seen, was linked to a belief in the professional expertise and autonomy of the staff - they did not need managing. The management of innovation and change was not an issue for the responsive college. The autonomous professional lecturers would respond to pressure for change from other agencies eg E.V.Bs [see chapter 9] usually by ignoring that pressure for as long as possible. The management, as nurturing parents, would then indulge that response.

N.V.Q as a second order change (see Fullan 1982) challenged this process and "second order changes are rarely successful" [Fullan p27]
The "flattened" organisational structure relying on horizontal co-ordination and the responsiveness of individual members of staff failed to bring about planned change. There was no plan and very little change. Haffenden's conceptualisation of the process of planned change in F.E. Colleges - [see Fig 14]

Fig 14  Haffenden's Framework of Strategic Elements for Managing Change

focuses on three strategic elements: the management element, the communications element and the staff development and support element. [See Haffenden 1990]. This study has shown that the organisational structure appropriate for a rhetoric of responsiveness lacked these elements. The fragmented structure, linked to assertions about the importance of professional autonomy for the lecturers, relieved the
management of the functions of co-ordination and control. The belief that "staff know best" [AP staffing] and will work "with whoever they need to work with" [DAP staffing] meant that the emphasis within the organisation was upon "informal" rather than "formal" structures [see Roethlisberger and Dickson 1949] with a reliance upon "collegial" cooperation. Thus formal communications were minimal.

Chapter 7 showed that staff development, whilst linked to a very broad version of personal development and empowerment, was not related to any plan or strategy for the organisation - only for the individual and on the basis of individual enthusiasms. Often this enthusiasm was for legitimate academic qualifications rather than development linked to competence in the changing job-role of the lecturer. Thus the structure and culture of the organisation made holistic planned change impossible.

(iii) (b) The results of the culture of the College

The cultures of F.E. Colleges are a result of the importations of personalities and expectations from other social systems - particularly the recruitment of staff from business and industry. Gleeson and Mardle speak of the "negativity" which motivates staff to
enter F.E. [see chapter 1] ie a desire to get away from industrial and business enterprises and cultures.

The culture of Brown College was also influenced by the personalities and values of Principal B and the Assistant Principal Staffing. The former had been a fire engineer before entering Further Education, the latter had taught domestic science in a school. The former marketed a pioneering College; the latter was concerned to nurture "settled" staff. The former was astutely aware of the significance and power of the M.S.C./T.A. The latter had followed the staff development model promulgated by the F.E.U. before the advent of N.V.Qs.

The F.E.U. had also influenced the College through its management development programme which all the influential managers in the College in the late 1980's had experienced. The emphasis from F.E.U. was upon developing the Parenting Organisation [see FESC 2247 1987] one which empowered its members - through nurturance to be fully themselves. The theoretical support for this was from the psychology of Transactional Analysis [see Jongeward et al 1976 and appendix 10] and we have seen how the behaviour of the Boards of Study can be conceptualised within this model.
The Parenting Organisation would not use compulsion and this sense of freedom was demonstrated in the "anarchic culture" revealed by the Plant O.P.I. The "natural child" within T.A. is likely to be anarchic - this is not the same as creative or innovative, however.

The anarchy can also be related to the transition which many members of the organisation had made from hierarchical business and manufacturing enterprises and their controlling environments to this nurturing, democratic environment. This may have made them inclined to 'play the system' - the BTEC engineering team did nothing on innovating for Common Skills until they were compelled to by BTEC and then reacted with elegant curriculum development - but did not seek or expect help from the BTEC committee in the College.

A theoretical insight into the culture of the organisation and its effect on permitting yet stifling innovation can be found in Gouldner's study of a Gypsum plant [see Gouldner 1965]. Here is set out an "indulgency culture" based on expected leniency from management in the day-to-day running of the organisation -

motivating workers to fill the roles for which they had been employed, expressing a commitment to a set of beliefs as to how the plant should run and generating loyalties to the Company and management. [Gouldner p21]
For the College the set of beliefs included not being told how to do anything either by management or by the curriculum initiatives co-ordinators (see chapter 8).

"Leniency" was expanded by Gouldner into the elements of "workers roles preferences" "workers obligations in other roles" and generally the workers being able to utilize "standards that would be relevant in some other situation". [Gouldner 1965 p22]

These elements were present in the culture of Brown College - staff development was based on "role preferences" - "what would you like to do next year"; management was sensitive to time tabling that allowed the staff to meet other obligations either to family or particularly to study commitments (attendance at fixed times when not teaching to meet the requirements of the 30 hour attendance for lecturers has never been enforced). Standards applied by the staff to the job were that of being in a family which entails duties of concern rather than patterns of behaviour ie "being" a good teacher and colleague rather than "doing" anything to a particular standard.

However, "paradigmatic experiences", [see Gouldner 1965 p165] which generate values brought to a situation to allow us to interpret that situation, were imported from the culture of work in other less
congenial organizations. The Nurturing Parent can also stimulate an "adaptive child" state - ie "I don't have to - so I wont - see if you can make me!" [See appendix 10]

Miles has suggested that innovators are unhappy unstable risk takers [Miles 1964] and Fullan and others remind us that not all innovations are progressive. Brown College, under the direction of the A.P. staffing developed a culture of personal development which assumed that all would seek to develop and that curriculum development would spring from this. If there was no curriculum innovation perhaps it meant that happy stable nurtured persons secure in their being felt able to reject the "strange chatteries" of the M.S.C. and get on with their own and their students education.

(iv) Staff - Their values and response to changes in vocational education and training

We have seen from chapter 7 that staff induction and development in the College was related to "becoming" and "education", which led to an emphasis on personal development and the pursuit of academic qualifications. The appropriate development model from Harding et al [1981] was the Athletic Model in which individuals took responsibility for, and used initiative in, seeking out appropriate courses.
We have also seen that in effect an internal market operated for staff development. Within the culture of the college in which staff knew their own needs best information on courses was freely available and pro-active staff were expected to request support from the A.P. staffing for a particular short course; or argue at a special meeting of the Staff Development sub-committee for funding for a degree course or post graduate course or higher degree course. Thus development depended upon the enthusiasm of the particular member of staff.

The arrival of targeted staff development (after the L.E.As' "accord" with the M.S.C.) in the late 1980's, in which certain curriculum areas were designated as "national priority" or "local priority", put pressure on the College system for a change in direction. Even by 1990 county or Regional Curriculum Base programmes for staff development for profiling or a competence based curriculum were poorly attended by the College staff and seen as an intrusion into the normal planning and delivery of College courses.

We have seen from the chapters 1 and 3 what a central role the examining and validating bodies have played in the history of FE. We have also seen that BTEC and City and Guilds were not pro-actively involved or
committed to the new qualifications system. BTEC in particular had seen the opportunity for it to become the provider of an alternative (vocational) education route into work or Higher Education; and had worked hard upon curriculum development since it's inception in 1984. A brutally narrow skills based vocational qualification system would not aid its academic ambitions to be an alternative to "A" levels.

The staff at the College were prepared to respond to changes directed at them by the external examining boards because it was their qualifications and their syllabi that they were delivering and that the students [or clients or customers] came to the College to receive. This was consistently the reason most often given by staff for not embarking on any change in their curriculum delivery and represents the surviving strength of the E.V.B's in the F.E. system.

We have seen that other than the engineering innovation there was little innovation in the College over the period of the study. The Office Technology staff responded and changed in accordance with the lead from R.S.A. Other staff "ignored" the competence curriculum as it was not directly stipulated by the examining and validating bodies and therefore they were under no compulsion to deliver in that way.
We have also seen how ambivalent a role Further Education lecturers occupy. They are not school teachers - (and are viewed by school teachers as being non-caring and lacking in a pastoral role [see chapter 7]). They are not academics as University lecturers are - (their association with manufacturing industry and vocationalism makes such an identity historically difficult [see chapter 1]). Increasingly throughout the 1980's F.E. lecturers were proclaimed by government agencies [M.S.C./F.E.U.] to be out of touch with what industry needed for specific skills and not as yet able to supply the generic skills also being called for [see F.E.U. 1983]. Thus F.E. lecturers were left without any certainty about their competence as non-academics and non-teachers in a pedagogic role itself rapidly shifting to an androgogic role.

It would be hard to "pioneer" on all these fronts at once and indeed very demoralising to have to confirm this "deficiency model" of the FE lecturer. As staff induction and development at Brown College was linked to the Transactional message for emotional health - "I'm OK - Your OK" [Berne 1966] it allowed the staff to be relatively untroubled by the criticisms, contradictions and exhortations coming to them from outside the College.
Indeed despite Principal B's assertions that Academic Leadership was devolved within the organization, in his witty and characteristic paper on Settlers and Pioneers [see Appendix 13] he makes it clear that the lecturer's job is not to provide a curriculum but just to "dish up what the system demands". The lecturer/cook should never "confuse the job with that of the trail boss, scout or buffalo hunter. He sees himself as just another pioneer who has learnt to cook". When staff had to make a judgement on appropriate pioneering behaviour for developing a curriculum for N.V.Q's they waited for somebody else "to furnish the meat". [see Appendix 11]

The emphasis placed by the AP staffing and the staff upon Cert Eds, BEds and MEds at least ensured that in a free market for vocational education and training they would have the right to declare that they were the best qualified "cooks" to dish up whatever was required in a rapidly changing situation.

The majority of staff had already experienced a major personal change in becoming lecturers; they often embarked on programmes of learning (eg for a degree) which they must have found very challenging from a non-academic background; and the nature of the non-hierarchical college meant that some staff were carrying a lot of responsibility at a low level of
authority (e.g. L1's as Section heads) In many respects the staff development model fits what Berman and McLoughlin saw as the most crucial factor for effective innovation i.e. "natural demand for change is continuously stimulated" [Berman and McLoughlin 1975]; but it was linked to a personal growth model via Transactional Analysis and the Carl Rogers view of learning [see Rogers 1990] - (these were models from the F.E.U.) - and confined to learning within the college. Rhetoric from external agencies particularly those not clearly associated with education, e.g. M.S.C., could be ignored whilst staff were "pioneering" on the personal growth side in the comfort of an indulgency culture. Vocational education reforms were not something to be concerned about but something in which staff could choose to take an interest whilst delivering professionally to students within the indulgency culture of an institution committed to the learning and growth of its staff.

This comfortable environment with an emphasis on personal fulfilment may prove to make tolerable a job which in the 1990s will become much more pressurised and less likely to be part of a career structure. Just as Y.T.(S) has been seen by many [see chapter 4] as work based training for those without work or prospects of work, so staff development may
increasingly become a vehicle for personnel diversion and make the lack of any career prospects more tolerable.

(v) The issues from history
This examination of a single College of Further Education at a particular time supports Stephen's view [chapter 2] that we are prisoners of history. We have seen that whilst there has been a rhetoric of crisis surrounding the lack of vocational training (technical education in 19th Century) in this country the one element missing has been government compulsion upon employers to bear the cost of training. Every comparison with Germany, for example, shows our young people undertrained in terms of the number of people attaining vocational qualifications or staying on in the training system. What is often forgotten is that

"In Germany in the late Fifties, legislation was passed to ensure companies trained their own employees - but it has never been used. The German industrial culture has ensured it was never needed. The French insist that at least 1.2 per cent of a company's payroll goes towards the development of skills" [Clement 1991 p17]

In the same article Sir Bryan Nicholson - head of the National Council for Vocational Qualifications is stated to have told the Independent newspaper that

"within the next five years legislation should be introduced to force employers to provide training up to the age of 18. He believes that there
should be a period in which voluntarism should be allowed to work so that the law would be respected when it was introduced." [Clement 1991 p17].

We have seen how the introduction of the levy/grant system was abandoned in 1973 and seen that recent history particularly with the youth riots in 1981 has been concerned with making training available for the unemployed - but without deciding who has the responsibility of paying for the training of the employed.

"As unemployment falls the level of Government funding can be expected to adjust accordingly, but the training of those in employment is all the more important and employers and individuals must accept a correspondingly increased responsibility in this area" [Department of Employment 1988 p28]

In the same publication it was stated that "Government have a role in setting a framework in funding the training of unemployed people" but that with the setting up of the T.E.C.'s "the Government hopes to place "ownership" of the training and enterprise system where it belongs - with employers". [Department of Employment 1988 paragraph 5.7]

Employers, through the CBI, acknowledged in 1988 that "By international standards, Britain's employers have been slow to accept the need for consistent investment at significant levels in the nations skills base".
The CBI as we have seen has supported a market-based voucher system for training for young people, including education programmes in Further and Higher Education. During the period when the College was responding to N.V.Q's and a competence based vocationalised curriculum the continued infatuation of the middle classes with academic qualifications became more apparent.

"For their part, the chattering classes are far more concerned with an academic education for their children. Such a preoccupation ignores the welfare of the two-thirds of the nation's 16-18 year olds who are not in full-time education." [Clement 1991 p17]

Despite the exhortations to value vocational qualifications as an alternative route to achievement, [see Ball 1989] vocationalism in the 1980's has been associated with provision for the unemployed [see chapter 4]. On 27 July 1992, the Guardian newspaper commenting in its editorial upon rioting amongst young people stated that

"by now eight towns have suffered serious trouble. It is hardly surprising. Unemployment has continued to increase . . . job training prospects have continued to decline . . . So much for the Government's pledge to provide every unemployed school-leaver with proper training. It was under the guise of this training promise that
the government withdrew the rights to benefits from this age group. Without work, training or income, what does a young person do?" [The Guardian 27.7.92]

Those with parental support will stay on in education using the provision for access to academic courses in Further and then Higher Education.

The Daily Telegraph reported on 7 August 1992 on the number of young people staying on in full-time education beyond 16 and whilst it stated that 60% of students in Further Education College were pursuing vocational (mainly BTEC) courses 40% were pursuing academic courses ie G.C.S.E. or "A" level.

We have seen the impact of Academic Drift on Technical Colleges in the 1960's and 1970's [see chapter 4]. A similar pattern is emerging in the response by individuals and institutions to the government's exhortations to increase participation rates in vocational training and education.

Steedman's study of Workforce Qualifications held by Britain and France provides confirmation of expansion in academic rather than vocational qualifications. France, starting in the 1970s from a similar position to Britain, increased significantly the percentage of the workforce holding intermediate vocational qualifications in 1988 - 40% compared to Britain's
26%. This was done by compelling French employers to fund vocational training. The study also shows the "over-qualification" in terms of degree or equivalent of British Technicians and Foremen compared to their French counterparts. 3% of British Technicians had a degree or equivalent compared to 1% of the French. 12% of British Foreman had degrees compared to 3% of the French. [Steedman 1991]

This represents educational qualifications as an inspiration for a route out of working in industry rather than vocational qualifications serving the needs of industry.

At the time of writing Brown College was expanding into franchised humanities degrees hoping to have some 90 undergraduates on a humanities programme and some 30 students on extended engineering or science degree programmes from September 1992.

M^Clure in his summary of the history of vocational education and training as it affects the 1990's states "Looked at in perspective, it is a remarkable and deeply shameful story of the persistent failure of government, industry and education to grasp basic national needs." [M^Clure 1991 p74] If this is true then the lack of consistent planning by Government within its own Department of Employment and Department
of Education and Science may offer a partial explanation

"At the 1990 Conservative Party Conference in Bournemouth, Michael Howard, the Secretary of State for Employment, assured delegates that he and John McGregor, the Secretary of State for Education did work closely together. His statement came in response to one delegate who, in the employment and training debate, had questioned the effectiveness of having two Whitehall departments seemingly responsible for giving people the relevant skills and opportunities for personal development which together produce a capable workforce" [Raggatt and Unwin 1991 p(x)]

This anxiety over the involvement of different government departments in V.E.T., (three in all as the Department of Trade and Industry is also connected with training) was an echo of Huxley's concern voiced in 1872. In his evidence to the Devonshire Commission on the introduction of science (then viewed as a work-related intrusion into a liberal curriculum) into elementary schools he suggested

"would it not be desirable that there should be a more intimate connection between the Education Department, and the Science and Art Department . . . I must confess that I think the present state of affairs an anomaly which could only exist in our own country . . . when one half of the department of state which had charge of education was opposed to that which the other half was doing [Devonshire Commission 1872 Volume 1 p26]

Further Education survived the Laissez Faire Ad Hocracy of the 19th Century. We have seen how an F.E.
College coped with the conflicting and confusing demands of the late 1980's by retaining and developing connections with the "academic" and the "educational" and resisting the "new vocationalism". This resistance often had more to do with seeking to import into and display within an industry-related organisation traditional status values which in this country have denigrated industry [see Weiner 1981]. We have seen from Chapter 3 how the "new vocationalism" has generally been challenged and resisted in literature, but other authors [see for example Ranson and Travers 1986] have recognised that a new synthesis of education and vocational development may be necessary for social/educational as well as economic/instrumental reasons [see chapter 8 for review and implications of Bernstein 1973 and Willis 1977]. This synthesis would require innovation based on real knowledge and understanding on the part of professional practitioners in education - not more opinionated rhetoric.

(vi) Responsiveness, Change and Innovation

We saw in the introduction how unspecific many writers were in their use of the terms change and innovation. We noted Miles' definition of innovation as a species of the genus of change that was specific, novel and deliberate change for accomplishing the goals of a
system. This thesis has been examining at least two innovations and attempting to see if there was any connection between them - one innovation was in the structure of an organisation the other was what may be referred to as a curriculum innovation.

The curriculum innovation was different to most other innovations in research literature as it was virtually unspecified - and at the time of the study unspecifiable. Gradually the curriculum innovation required for N.V.Q.s has grown to become a metaphor for how Colleges should be planned, managed and structured [Employment Department 1992 pp72-73] - and financed.

The expansion from designing learning so that measurable competences was the outcome, to whole scale changes in institutions is similar to the megaphone metaphor outlined by Smith Prunty et al [1988] whereby what goes in as small scale alteration is gradually magnified into noisy whole scale change. Those authors also used the expression "practical reasoning" which they said was necessary for innovation. Echoing Aristotle's "Ethics" they saw this practical reasoning as the outcome of values and rationality or as Aristotle says "reasoning well ...."
Aristotle's teacher, Plato, saw reason and values as part of the same overarching ideal of truth. For Plato "change" was an indication of a flawed world trying to imitate the absolute perfection and certainty of ideas in the "real" metaphysical world. Flux and change are linked to uncertainty and those content with change were content with imperfect opinion of how things might be [see Appendix 1] instead of driven to know absolutely how things could be and ought to be. (Similar to, Smith, Prunty et al's driven true believers [Smith, Prunty et al 1986]).

Reviewing the history of F.E. we have seen flux and change but little certain directed policy based on knowledge and vision and aiming at some absolute point. There have been many statements of intent concerned with "raising standards" and "increasing participation" but little indication that changes are aimed at some fixed goal.

The "Changers" in the study [the Office Technology staff] were informed about where the pressure for change was coming from but the "what" and the "why" for change were linked very much to "pragmatism" (fear of losing out to other providers).

The "Innovator" had a moral commitment to, as well as an intellectual understanding of, what he was doing.
Did he in Plato's terms have a glimpse of the Form of the 'Competence-led programme' which he was able to reconstitute in the Engineering Workshop? Leaving aside some rather metaphysical speculation, the innovation which the Engineers delivered was the turning into reality of a concept or idea and that certainly took a commitment and a knowledge not present in other parts of the College or indeed F.E. at that time.

"Responsiveness" is neither a value nor an intellectual idea. The responsive Brown College was a pragmatic solution to an overspend - almost an arbitrary occurrence - which was then most astutely marketed by the Principal as an entity designed to achieve change and innovation.

The Responsive College Programme was in every sense a search for an idea unformed and lacking content - a "strange chattery" that could be continually redefined. Plato would tell us that there can be no truth in anything so shifting.

The Innovator in the College was not a member of staff associated in any way with change. He had been at the College a long time, he had no great interest in jumping into the curriculum change which BTEC was demanding at that period. This suggests that he did
what he did because he thought it was "right" ie morally correct to do so.

The member of the management team most committed to the innovation in the structure and culture of the College was the AP Staffing. Her commitment was also based on a value system about how people could "be" (if nurtured in an appropriate environment). For her the College was an experimentation in the education of adult learners - ie the staff, and was based on the Carl Rogers model of learning as "becoming". Her staff were not to be judged on outcomes linked to doing ie their "competence", but on their "being" ie their role as teacher in an innovative College.

(vii) Review of Methodology and suggestions for further study

Chapter 2 of this thesis may give a rather more certain and ordered sense of the methodology than the researcher experienced. The formal instruments used provided some very important confirmatory data to support the main strategy of the research, ethnographic participant observation. In retrospect the researcher can see the power of the Glasser and Straus approach which yielded the important categories of "comfort" "ignor(e)ance" and "being a teacher".
The role of participant observer raises issues of ethics which, with the completion of this thesis, the researcher feels, at least in this instance, have been resolved. The researcher left the field determined to give as honest and accurate account as possible of the actors, their perceptions and their behaviour; and whilst all analysis and synthesis disturb reality this account seeks to render the community of the College as it was experienced to be by the researcher-as-ethnographer at the time of the study.

The subject of the study, Brown College, has not been identified by its real name. Attempts to preserve anonymity may be futile; informed, curious and determined readers will probably be able to recognise it despite the pseudonym. The picture presented here is no longer a picture of that College now. Case studies are snap-shots which may disclose concepts and patterns of relationships which may be generalised or usefully applied elsewhere - as the "indulgency culture" concept from Gouldner's case study has been here.

Case studies may be seen retrospectively as histories. Further education existed for many years before the first Technical College was set up. We have seen that N.V.Q.s and the responsive College programme are connected to operating a market in vocational
Further Education can exist outside the Colleges. Parkes stated in 1986 that he saw the Responsive College Programme "as one of the last means of providing a base ..... to ensure the survival of the current system" [Parkes 1986 p4]. As indicated in this chapter Brown College is now "an innovative College of Further and Higher Education" [advertisement for a new Principal at Brown College October 1990] no longer a Technical or Regional College. Whilst this is not intended to be an obituary for the post-war L.E.A.-funded further education colleges it may well be seen later as an account of an institution which evolved into something very different, unable to resist the market forces towards academic drift; and therefore no longer directly involved in the rhetoric of vocationalism.

The Responsive College movement has now been overtaken by the Flexible College movement. There is now a search for a College that is "flexible, accessible and learner-centred ...... and able to respond to the individual Training Plans of Young People with Training Credits" [F.E.U. 1991 pp2-3]. However, the emphasis in this movement is the same - that a certain "flattened" organisational structure with developed staff will be more able to serve the needs of V.E.T. customers, and will be more accessible to a market-led
V.E.T. system. This ethnographic study would indicate that this is not the appropriate organisational model to follow.

In Chapter 1, we noted the alternative models [see fig 1] in sociological and organizational theory, and intended to address the management of change in educational organizations necessitated by the 1988 education act. The authors see the bureaucratic, top-down, goal oriented prescriptive/authoritarian Model "A" as inappropriate for developing a climate or culture of professional development and change in schools (and colleges) Model "B", with an emphasis upon personal empowerment and Holism based on collegiality [see Shulman 1989] is thought to be far more appropriate.

This research challenges that assumption. Whilst Model "B" may give staff the opportunity to engage in change it will not ensure that change occurs. At Brown College as a result of the L.E.A.'s management review and at the bidding of the governors a more formally fragmented structure, with clear line management based on accountabilities and linked to set goals (including an expansion of Higher Education provision) has been put in place since 1990 in order to ensure that change in programmes and delivery takes place.
Ethnography does not usually allow for prescriptive policy, "Ethnographic work .... is most obviously relevant to .... studying the effects of policy, than it is in policy-making" [Finch p191 1988] This ethnographic study has traced the reactions of various participants in an FE College as they absorbed the external directives, exhortations and inducements for change. At different levels in the organisation, depending upon where they felt their accountabilities lay [see Haffenden 1989] the participants reacted differently. The majority of lecturers coped by feeling empowered to ignore any uncomfortable messages about teaching and learning as this may have eroded their sense of identity [see chapters 7 and 9]. The culture of a Responsive College allowed them this "ignor(e)ance".

Further Case Studies of Colleges in the 1990s could show whether "flattened" "democratic" structures and the management philosophy and staff development that accompanied these are features that always occur together independent of a particular location and specific personalities. The defining historical influences upon the FE sector are common to all FE Colleges.

Another case study of an FE College, or a series of case studies around the issue of organisation
structure and curriculum innovation, would support and confirm or at least illuminate and modify the picture presented here. This has been a picture of a group of people involved in a common endeavour but with very different levels of awareness of the role of Further Education as it has developed over the last one hundred years or so and very different visions of who and how that FE system serves within a national economic culture. That culture may be theoretically committed to V.E.T. but specific agencies eg the employers, particularly in a period of recession, seem unable to turn that commitment into a practical reality. This case study suggests that until that broader issue is addressed, "academic drift" and market-led V.E.T. will, combined, with the dislocation from the L.E.As, make Further Education Colleges seek for the security of funded higher level programmes, and as Steedman's work has suggested, may diminish the amount of lower level and intermediate level training available in this country.

Other Case Studies of Colleges in the 1990s could indicate whether the "flexible" College will be able to provide for the academic, the skilled employed, and the troubled unemployed in an educational learner-led (as opposed to teacher-led) environment. Or whether, as this research indicates, the will to do this is missing at national, local and institutional level.
Without the realisation of this will ie prioritised funded policy, again at all three levels, V.E.T. provision will be based on "negativity" ie providing something that is less unattractive than the alternatives.

There will be little change from "bottom-up" systems - within (i) Colleges where change is left to the choice of many uninformed lecturers - or within (ii) the national system of Vocational Education and Training where change is in the hands - via vouchers - of uninformed consumers. This study shows that real innovation is a top-down phenomenon based on a vision of change - a policy; a determination and position to bring that change about - power; and a knowledge of educational matters to bring an idea into existence - professionalism. The management of change requires management of the "why" and the "how" and the "what" of change; in a system, whether that system is national provision of V.E.T. or institutional provision of V.E.T., the "why" and the "how" and the "what" need to be linked and supported. Where this does not happen no significant change will occur.
Plato's Theory of Knowledge

In several of his thirty-four surviving dialogues Plato sought to discover the defining characteristics of knowledge in order to distinguish it from other entities and/or states of awareness with which it may be confused. His dialogues pursued this rather abstract enquiry by relating knowledge to what people actually do and how well they do it.

Activities engaged in by people who have a full conceptual understanding of what they are doing and of what they are intending to produce Plato describes as "arts" or "sciences" or "crafts". Activities engaged in by practitioners who are concerned with what will please (uninformed) others and which produce outcomes judged as pleasant and acceptable by shifting public taste he describes as "Knacks". In the dialogue in which he makes this distinction - "The Gorgias" - Plato's central concern is with the relationship between that of knowledge and full understanding and moral behaviour. For Plato the judgements of right and wrong applied equally to intellectual reasoning and its outcomes and moral reasoning and its outcomes - thus knowledge was the source of right behaviour in both a "craft" sense and a moral sense.
"I have often heard you say that a man is good in those things about which he is wise, and bad in those things of which he is ignorant". [From the 'Laches' - quoted in Melling D (1987) Understanding Plato Oxford Oxford Paperbacks p27].

In the "Republic" Plato argues that a just state (a moral concept) can only be achieved when the government of the state is based upon knowledge (an intellectual concept) rather than shifting opinion or ignorance. This dialogue distinguishes between three levels of awareness or cognition ie Knowledge - Opinion - Ignorance by attaching the awareness to different "objects" - "we were compelled to correlate ignorance with what is not, knowledge with what is . . . . and opinion occupies that intermediate position". [Plato (1987) Republic Harmondsworth Penguin Classics pp273/274].

This difficult (and philosophically contentious assertion) was clarified by Plato by three analogies the most useful being the analogy of a line, divided into sections which show the different Cognitive states available to people and the objects of those states which distinguish them from one another. The length accorded to each state/object on the line represents their value in terms of the truth to which
they give access and thus their value relative to each other.

Plato's theory of knowledge as described in the The Republic and portrayed by this line asserts that we can only have "opinion" about things which we not fully understand. We cannot fully understand everyday objects in the world because they change from day to day and appear to conflict with other examples in the world [eg a student on Thursday can look very different to how he looked on Monday if he has had a hair-cut, put on a suit and stands erect instead of slouching. He can look very different to how other students look in the same group - both on the Monday
and on the Thursday; and he and they can look very
different five years ago or five years hence).

For Plato knowledge and understanding can only be
attached to things that do not change because they are
independent of the vicissitudes of the every-day
world. Mathematical concepts are one example of these
unchanging "Ideas" or "Forms" which Plato argued,
exist independently of the knowing mind. Ideas, then,
can give certainty and truth - the person who is able
to think about abstract ideas can arrive at definite
solutions and judgements on which to base his
behaviour in a changing world.

Plato's theory is philosophically contentious [see
discussion in Cross R C and Woozley D. "Plato's
Republic - A Philosophical Commentary MacMillan 1986]
but his threefold classification of intellectual
awareness - IGNORANCE - OPINION - KNOWLEDGE offers a
useful model of, and explanatory framework for, the
understanding displayed by staff about N.V.Qs and
general educational matters at Brown College.
Analysis and discussion of questionnaires

Each questionnaire was circulated early in September (in 1989 and 1990) during the first of the two weeks set aside for administrative duties for teaching staff at the College. This time was chosen to encourage a high response rate as the teachers would be attending College daily but would not have any teaching duties. A summary of the analysis of, and some comments on, each of the questionnaires now follows.

The questionnaires were essentially instruments for generating supporting data rather than central methods for the study. The response rates were disappointing but the 1989 questionnaire provided some useful pointers for the interviews; and the 1990 questionnaire provided information consistent with the other data gathered.

The questionnaires were numbered in order to allow a follow-up interview if the researcher wished it. This occurred naturally as some of the more interesting comments on the questionnaires came from members of staff who were within other targeted groups ie Section Heads or involved with Staff development for the first questionnaire. The most informed respondent with the most elegant response to the second questionnaire, especially on the issue of quality, was interviewed. He was the course tutor of an Electrical Engineering Course and was important as a member of the section from which the "innovator" (see Chapter 8) came.
Dear Colleague,

As part of some research I am carrying out on the college for a Masters degree, I am circulating this questionnaire to all members of the teaching staff. I would be grateful if you could complete it and return it to me in room 130. The questionnaires are numbered to allow me to follow up any important and interesting comments you may make. All the information is, of course, confidential to the researcher.

I need a good response rate, so please try and find time to complete and return it.

Thank you

DEIRDRE EDEY
**QUESTIONNAIRE**

1. In which of these general areas do you do most of your teaching? Please tick box.
   - SCIENCE and MATHS
   - CATERING
   - CONSTRUCTION/MVM
   - HUMANITIES
   - SOCIAL SCIENCE
   - MANAGEMENT
   - BUSINESS/ECONOMICS
   - COMMUNICATIONS
   - SPECIAL NEEDS
   - LEISURE/TOURISM
   - SPORT
   - OFFICE TECHNOLOGY
   - INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY
   - OTHER
   - Please specify

2. How many years have you been teaching? Please tick box.
   - 0-5
   - 6-10
   - 11-15
   - 16-20
   - MORE THAN 20

3. How many years have you been teaching at this College? Please tick box.
   - 0-5
   - 6-10
   - 11-15
   - 16-20
   - MORE THAN 20

4. Have you worked in industry? Please tick box.
   - YES
   - NO

4a. If YES, how many years have you worked in industry? Please tick box.
   - 0-5
   - 6-10
   - 11-15
   - 16-20
   - MORE THAN 20

5. Which of these qualifications do you hold? Please tick box.
   - HNC/HND
   - DEGREE
   - TEACHING CERTIFICATE
   - HIGHER DEGREE
   - OTHER
   - Please specify
The next section will ask questions about interacting with students on a particular course.

6 Please nominate a particular course type in which you have a major teaching commitment, eg. BTEC, City & Guilds, 'A' level, EMFEC and the subject you are involved with, eg. technology.

7 In a typical 2 hour teaching session with the students on the course you have nominated above how much of your time, as a percentage, is spent in the following. Please tick box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Spent</th>
<th>LECTURING</th>
<th>TUTORING</th>
<th>INDIVIDUALS</th>
<th>DISCIPLINING</th>
<th>COUNSELLING</th>
<th>AND GUIDING</th>
<th>OTHER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8 Do you assess your students? Please tick box.

- YES
- NO

8a If YES, do you assess them at regular intervals? Please tick box.

- YES
- NO

8b If YES, please specify the intervals. Please tick box.

- WEEKLY
- MONTHLY
- TERMLY
- OTHER

8c What form does the assessment take?

- essay
- test
- coursework
- percentage report
- on a known basis
- during the term
- other

8d Do you inform your students of their assessment? Please tick box.

- YES
- NO

8e If YES, how do you inform them, eg. in the class group, one to one, place notice on a board?

- one to one
- other

9 Is the course which you nominated modular? Please tick box.

- YES
- NO

398
10 If NO, are there plans to modularise it? Please tick box.

YES / NO

11 Please write your definition of a MODULE in the space below:

Independent elements of a course that a student may study and be credited for that particular element.

12 Please give your definition of a COMPETENCE in the space below:

Ability to attain a required standard.

13 Please give your definition/description of CURRICULUM in the space below:

Includes all the required aspects of a course undertaken.

14 Did you observe any changes in the organisational structure of the College in the last academic year? Please tick box.

YES / NO

14a If YES, could you describe in the space below what they were?

15 Has N.V.Q. affected any areas of your work in the previous academic year? Please tick box.

YES / NO

15a If YES, could you specify what has been affected and how it has been affected in the space below?

16 Could you write in the space below how you think N.V.Q. and a competence curriculum may affect (a) your work this coming academic year (1989/90) and (b) the organisation of the College in the coming academic year (1989/90)?

(a) will have little or no effect
(b) difficult to say

Thank you very much for finding time to complete this questionnaire.
Appendix 2

Questionnaire 1 - September 1989

Of the 221 full-time members of staff circulated with the questionnaire 132 responded giving a response rate of 59.7% ie approximately 60%.

In the summary that follows the numbers have been rounded up to present the responses as percentages.

(D. Questionnaire insert)

Results

Question 1
The received a response from every section in the College.

Question 2
60% of the staff had been teaching for more than 15 years and 84% more than 5 years.

Question 3
Very similar figures indicated - as was confirmed by Management Information data - that virtually all the respondents had taught only at Brown College.

Question 4
82% had worked in industry, of which -

  4a  14% had worked for up to 5 years
  72% between 6 and 10 years
  14% more than 11 years

Question 5
48% of respondents had a degree or HNC/D
54% of respondents had a degree or HNC/D and
21% of respondents had a higher degree
41% of respondents had a teaching certificate
10% of respondents had other professional or skills qualifications eg D.M.S. or City & Guilds qualifications
8% did not respond to this question
This was an academically well qualified group of staff.

Question 6
All types of F.E. courses were represented but B.T.E.C. diplomas were most often nominated.

Question 7
Lecturing occupied the most time 57% of time
Other activities - practicals/workshop assignments 31% of time
Tutoring 5% of time
Disciplining 4% of time
Counselling and Guiding 2% of time

Question 8
Yes - 100%
8a. Yes - 100% All respondents assessed their students at regular intervals
8b. 2% did not respond
42% assessed weekly
47% assessed monthly
Appendix 2

9% assessed as they thought appropriate

8c. The assessment took various forms eg "reports" "assignments" "phase tests" "essays" - but virtually all were based on written assessment.

8d. Yes - 100% All informed their students of their assessment.

8e. 22% one-to-one
74% class group
4% no response

Question 9

78% - No
5% - Yes
6% - Possibly/not sure entered
11% - No response

Question 10

Of the 78% who said no to question 9:

86% - No
10% - Not sure
2% - Yes
2% - No response

Question 11

The majority of definitions included "stand alone unit of learning" "will link with other learning units to form a
qualification" "can be taught separately". One respondent stated that a module could be "taught and assessed independently". One respondent stated that a module was a course.

14% did not respond.

**Question 12**

54% linked competence with a "standard"
67% mentioned "skills"
12% mentioned "under different conditions"
73% linked competence with "performing" "doing" "carrying out"
22% did not respond

**Question 13**

47% related it to, and used the term, "syllabus"
29% related it to "knowledge and skills"
5% related it to a "course" or "programme of study"
2% linked it to its Latin derivation
13% did not respond.
Appendix 2

Question 14

84% - No
6% - Yes
10% - No response

14a
60% commented on "co-ordinators", "mad-co-ordinator disease"
30% more managers, fewer teachers
10% could not comment

Question 15

89% - No
9% - Yes
2% - No response

15a
Of those who said yes to the last question all indicated an awareness of a link with "practical activities" - "linked to work" materials "had begun to be developed" - "more student centred approach"

Question 16

80% - No or "No idea yet"
10% - "Not in the space provided"
7% - It would involve them in more work
Appendix 2

3% - No response

The most significant information to emerge from the questionnaire was that an academically and professionally (ie in terms of teaching qualifications) well qualified staff, seemed to have little knowledge or understanding of the curriculum.
Analysis and discussion of questionnaires

Of the 228 full time members of staff circulated with the questionnaire 110 responded. All of these had responded to the previous questionnaire. As this questionnaire is thus unrepresentative the responses will be summarised briefly.

**Question 1**

There was no response from 3 sections in the College ie Trade Union Studies, Mathematics, and Leisure and Tourism.

**Question 2**

A similar picture to the 1989 questionnaire.

**Question 3**

A variety of courses were nominated representing the most important (in terms of student numbers) in the College.

**Question 4**

48% Lecturing
30% Other Activities - supervising practicals, workshops, assignments
18% Tutoring
2% Disciplining
2% Counselling and Guiding

**Question 5**

100% - Yes
Appendix 3

5a  100% - Yes
5b  As 1989
5c  As 1989
5d  As 1989
5e  25% one-to-one
    75% class group

Question 6

73% - No
5% - Yes
16% - Possibly/not sure
6% - No response

Question 7

Of the 73% who said no to question 6:

75% - No
14% - Not sure
10% - Yes
1% - No response

Question 8

As 1989

Question 9

As 1989

Question 10

As 1989 but:

8% discussed "whole learning experience", or "total learning experience", and one respondent
mentioned "structured learning experience".

**Question 11**

80% - No  
15% - Yes  
5% - No response  

11a As 1989 - comments on "co-ordinators" - "more managers" - "lots of D.A.P.s and deputy deputies". Two similar responses stated "The A.P.'s were emasculated. The emphasis moved to line management and away from the matrix structure".

**Question 12**

As 1989 but:  
82% - No  
10% - Yes  
8% - Wrote in "Not sure"  

12a As 1989 - with addition of "writing new materials" from two respondents.

**Question 13**

80% - No or "No idea yet" - "Not yet"  
8% - More work for teachers -
and from one respondent "if we want to hang on to our jobs we will have to work harder"

6% - thought that the College would be affected

6% - Not enough room to say but thought N.V.Q. was "significant" "important" - one respondent stated "will probably disappear in a year or two so why should college be affected?"

**Question 14**

50% - No response

26% - Good teaching/qualified teacher/professional standards

12% - Results/awards

10% - Accommodation/environment/good workshops

2% - "Facilitating a learning experience which brings about change and development in a group of people in an enjoyable and relaxed way" . . . "satisfying the often
Appendix 3

conflicting requirements of all the stake holders".

Question 15

(a) 62% - No response
25% - Qualifications obtained
7% - Orderly atmosphere/teacher control
6% - Some aspects of student behaviour eg "confidence" "creativity"

(b) 62% - No response
22% - Good moderators/moderation
10% - Evaluation - "non-threatening programme of course review and evaluation"
6% - Asking students/employers

Question 16

100% mentioned - Examining and Validating Bodies
90% mentioned - Employers
90% mentioned - Parents
68% mentioned - Moderators
52% mentioned - Government
33% mentioned - Students
20% mentioned - Governors
The most significant information to emerge from this questionnaire was that 50% of the respondents were unwilling or unable to define or describe "Quality" in vocational education and training.
Dear Colleague,

You may remember that you completed a questionnaire for me last year as part of a research project I am doing for a Masters Degree.

Could you please complete the attached and return them both to me in Room 130? The questionnaires are numbered to allow for a comparison - the organizational profile is not. All the information is, of course, confidential to the researcher.

I need a good response rate, so please try and find time to complete and return them.

Thank you,

DEIRDRE EDEY.
QUESTIONNAIRE.

1). In which of these general areas do you do most of your teaching?
Please tick box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCIENCE and MATHS</th>
<th>COMMUNICATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CATERING</td>
<td>SPECIAL NEEDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONSTRUCTION/MVM</td>
<td>LEISURE/TOURISM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HUMANITIES</td>
<td>SPORT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LANGUAGES</td>
<td>OFFICE TECHNOLOGY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOCIAL SCIENCE</td>
<td>INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MANAGEMENT</td>
<td>ENGINEERING - ELECT.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BUSINESS/ECONOMICS</td>
<td>ENGINEERING - MECH.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TU STUDIES</td>
<td>OTHER - PLEASE SPECIFY:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2). Which of these qualifications do you hold?
Please tick box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HNC/HND</th>
<th>DEGREE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TEACHING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CERTIFICATE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HIGHER DEGREE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OTHER - PLEASE SPECIFY:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This next section asks questions about interacting with students on a particular course.

3). Please nominate a particular course type in which you have a major teaching commitment, e.g. BTEC Nat, City & Guilds Cert, "A" level, EMFEC; and the Unit/Subject you are involved with, e.g. micro-electronics, early childhood studies, maths etc.,

4). In a typical 2 hour teaching session with the students on the course which you have nominated above, how much of your time, as a percentage, is spent in the following. Please tick box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LECTURING</th>
<th>TUTORING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INDIVIDUALS</td>
<td>DISCIPLING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COUNSELLING AND GUIDING</td>
<td>OTHER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please specify:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5). Do you assess your students? Please tick box.
   YES: [ ]
   NO: [ ]

5a). If YES, do you assess them at regular intervals? Please tick box.
   YES: [ ]
   NO: [ ]

5b). If YES, please specify the intervals. Please tick box.
   WEEKLY: [ ]
   MONTHLY: [ ]
   TERMLY: [ ]
   OTHER: [ ]
   Please specify: [ ]

5c). What form does the assessment take?

5d). Do you inform your students of their assessment? Please tick box.
   YES: [ ]
   NO: [ ]

5e). If YES, how do you inform them e.g. in the class group, one to one, place notice on a board?

6). Is the course which you nominated modular? Please tick box.
   YES: [ ]
   NO: [ ]

7). If NO, are there plans to modularise it? Please tick box.
   YES: [ ]
   NO: [ ]

8). Please write your definition of a MODULE in the space below?

.................................................................
.................................................................
.................................................................
.................................................................
9). Please give your definition of a COMPETENCE in the space below.

10). Please give your definition/description of CURRICULUM in the space below.

11). Did you observe any changes in the organisational structure of the College in the last academic year? Please tick box.

[ ] YES
[ ] NO

11a). If YES, could you describe in the space below what they were?

12). Has N.V.Q. affected any areas of your work in the previous academic year? Please tick box.

[ ] YES
[ ] NO

12a). If YES, could you specify what has been affected and how it has been affected in the space below?

13). Could you write in the space below how you think N.V.Q. and a competence curriculum may affect (a) your work this coming academic year (1990/91) and (b) the organisation of the College in the coming academic year (1990/91)?

14). Please give your definition/description of "QUALITY" in Vocational Education and Training.
15). How do you think that "QUALITY" in Vocational Education and Training can be:
   a). recognised .................................................................
   b). assessed .................................................................

16). We often hear that there are many other "stake holders" in Vocational Education and Training than just the teachers delivering the curriculum. Could you write below any other groups/bodies who are able to influence what we teach and how we teach it.

Thank you very much for finding time to complete this questionnaire.
Organisational Profile Instrument

This was taken from "Managing Change and Making it Stick" by Roger Plant 1987 Fontana Collins. Its origin lies in the work of other organisational behaviour theorists. It was used in this research as a measure of participants' behaviour within, and judgements of, the organisational culture of the College as opposed to their rhetoric of it - or the management's view of it. ie it indicated what people did and thought rather than what they said.

Instead of an expected "Organic Culture" an "Anarchic Culture" emerged as typical 78% of the respondents being located in that quartile.

The three targeted course teams emerged thus:-
Innovative陈ixture of Organic/
Engineers - Bureaucratic

Change orientated Mixture of Organic/
Office Technology - Bureaucratic

Ignor(e)ance Mixture of Autocratic/
orientated Caterers - Anarchic

The only amendments made to the inventory were to
substitute "College" for "organisation" and to remove statement 8 and statement 24 on the original inventory. This was done because statement 24 was inappropriate in using "Managers" and "departments"; but as it gave a score of 2 on the Fragmented/Integrated axis another item had to be removed which had a score of 2 on the Autocratic/Permissive axis. The most neutral statement to exclude was "I am proud of my Company".

I acknowledge gratefully Roger Plant's permission to use the instrument - see letter attached.
Dear Ms Edey

Thank you for your recent letter regarding Roger Plant’s MANAGING CHANGE and MAKING IT STICK. In fact I sent a copy of your letter to the author to confirm that he would have no objection to your use of the material, which indeed he does not, so this letter confirms that you have permission to go ahead as specified in your letter.

Please acknowledge the author, title of the book and the publisher (Fontana, an imprint of HarperCollins Publishers Limited).

With best wishes,

Yours sincerely

Lynda Ballinger
HarperCollins Permissions
"How to complete the Inventory".

Here are some statements about certain aspects of this organization and your experience of it. Please read each statement carefully and decide whether you agree or disagree with the statement in terms of your own work experience, then tick the appropriate box alongside. You may complete it about the organization or a division of it, e.g. your section, but whatever level you choose - be consistent throughout.

There are no right or wrong answers, so work steadily through it, and be frank, please.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Everyone in the organization generally knows what contribution he/she makes to the whole.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Management is not very approachable.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Loyalty to one's own section tends to come first.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Everyone is pleased when the College is successful.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>People spend a lot of time blaming others for their own mistakes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I generally know where to go when I want help.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>They tell us we are here to carry out instructions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Decisions always seem to come down from the top.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>There seems to be quite a lot of friction and not much co-operation between</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Management encourages superiors to discuss new proposals with their subordinates.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>People normally consider the effect of their actions upon the whole organization.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>The only way we learn of changes is by the grapevine.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>It is not uncommon to get conflicting orders and instructions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
14). On the whole, people do not feel very free to speak their minds. 

15). People seem to prefer to get on with the job by themselves. 

16). One's job depends not so much on titles or activities but on what sort of position you can carve out for yourself. 

17). Normally lecturers are expected to accept orders without question. 

18). People in the organization only get together when there is a crisis. 

19). Managers place value on the opinions of subordinates. 

20). In my job, I am rather unclear about what goes on in other areas of College work. 

21). I don't think many people below senior management really understand the organization's objectives. 

22). I often find it difficult to know who to approach for information. 

23). Management is pretty intolerant of error and is not very good at listening to explanations. 

24). On the whole, communication in the College seems to be pretty full and free. 

25). In this College, subordinates are not afraid to say what they think. 

26). Wider participation in management is seen as a desirable objective by the organization. 

27). All too often no one knows what his counterpart in another part of the organization is doing about things that affect them both. 

28). Managers tend to use their power to coerce subordinates. 

29). In this College, I think lecturers exercise quite a lot of influence on their Line Managers.
30) Most people feel good about working at this College.

31) Management is pretty good at discussing its proposals with subordinates.

32) Subordinates do not seem very involved in decisions related to their work.

33) It's only by experience that you get to know the right people to go to.

34) Bosses seem to keep changing their minds without consultation.

35) Better results, it is felt, are obtained by involving everybody in the problems.

36) The general direction of communication seems to be downward.

37) Team work is a feature of everyday life.

38) There seems to be a lot of informal and voluntary co-operation amongst most people in our organization.

39) You're not paid to think in this College.
Scoring Organization Profile

Check back on your answer to each question and then refer to the score key which follows. You will need to set up two vertical columns on a separate piece of paper headed I and P respectively. The numbers in the boxes on the score key should then be transferred to the appropriate column.

For example if you have agreed with question 1 you score 2 under your I column. If you disagree you score 0. If for question 4 you have agreed you score 1 under the I column and 1 under the P column. If you disagreed with question 4 you score 0.

When the totals under your I and P columns are added up they can be plotted as a single point (rather like plotting a map reference) on the quadrant provided.

**Organizational profile**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Integrated</th>
<th>Autocratic</th>
<th>32</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The characteristics of each quadrant are defined on the following page.*

**Quadrant Characteristics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BUREAUCRATIC - Role Oriented</th>
<th>ORGANIC - Task Oriented</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Role and status predominate</td>
<td>Overall task predominates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication up and down</td>
<td>Group consensus about decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision made by leader</td>
<td>Some shared influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answers sought/few ideas offered</td>
<td>Solutions sought jointly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependence on leader</td>
<td>High participation/high interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate dependence on group</td>
<td>More ideas generated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low interaction</td>
<td>High dependence on group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High leader satisfaction</td>
<td>Share satisfactions – lower for leader</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AUTOCRATIC - Power Oriented</th>
<th>ANARCHIC - Person Oriented</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Power/politics predominate</td>
<td>Individual personalities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answers demanded/rejected</td>
<td>predominate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti-participation/divide &amp; rule</td>
<td>No decision by group/sharing low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withholding of ideas</td>
<td>Individual influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High integration against leader</td>
<td>Low interaction/no participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejection of decision by group</td>
<td>Possessiveness about own ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No dependence on group</td>
<td>Individual solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low satisfaction to members and leader</td>
<td>Low dependence on group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individual satisfaction variable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

423
Appendix 5

Classroom Observation Schedule for requested observation of the teachers in the three targeted course teams

This was devised from the F.E.U. literature on a competence based curriculum and was used to observe the learning experience offered to the students by the three course teams - ie it is an attempt to operationalise the concept of "the curriculum in competence led programmes".

Itemised Observation Schedule

Resource Based Learning - was there material available for use and being used by all/some of the learners as a normal part of the session?

Negotiated Programmes - were different learners proceeding differently through the programme on the basis of discussion between learner and tutor?

Participative Learning - were learners engaging with practical activities and/or worksheet exercises,
Tutor Support Available -

Individually or in groups, without a didactic teacher lead?

Individualised Learning -

Was there a teacher(s) available in class at all times to inform, explain, or encourage as needed by the learner?

Formative Assessment -

Was each learner proceeding through a programme appropriate for them at their own pace and with tutor support when needed?

Assessment on Demand -

Was there feed-back available on the practical activities/written materials which informed the learner of the standard which they had attained and if they needed to repeat any element?

Were the learners able to request summative assessment for parts of

Appendix 5
the programme or for the whole programme as they felt ready?

Flexibility of Attendance - were the learners able to attend different sessions at different times and still proceed through the programme?

Judgements about these elements were made on the basis of observation in the classroom/workroom, discussions with the learners in the classroom/workroom and discussions with the teachers during or soon after the observations. This is what is referred to by "observation" in the following summary.

The Observation of the Engineering programme (C&G 236) demonstrated that all these elements were available for the learning experiences of the learners. Packages for the theoretical component of the qualification and packages related to practical work were available to the learner, who after discussion with the teachers present, could use them in almost any order.

The observation of the R.S.A. Higher Diploma in Administrative Procedures indicated that, whilst these elements were available in class time, the learners were still seen to be on a course with a fixed entry and exit date, with fixed times for submitting course
work. Thus the elements were supporting the teaching and learning. The teachers were supervising the learners' progress through a fixed pre-planned course with the support of prepared materials. The observation of the Catering programme (C&G 706(i)) indicated that few of these elements were present. Learners were taught a topic as a group, asked to perform the same task ie cook a particular dish and present it, and were then, assessed upon it. The result was recorded in a learner's log book. The group moved through the programme together and were summatively assessed together at the end of the academic year.

Thus the Catering programme was a traditional course available at Technical Colleges: the R.S.A. programme was a planned programme with prepared materials which allowed students to work at different paces through the pre-set programme for the group; but, the Electrical Engineering programme had been restructured to make it individualised, flexible, and accessible. It was package based and geared to formative and summative assessment on demand - (within the constraints of the C&G fixed date written examination).
Appendix 6

The Interview Schedule

This schedule formed the basis for all the interviews (both formal and informal) which took place. The elements in it emerged during stage 1 and the early part of stage 2 of the illuminative evaluation stages. Thus all the issues listed were discussed and explored with the 3 Principals, the Management Team, the 18 Section Heads, the members of the targeted course teams and all the other lecturers interviewed.

The Issues Explored

The purpose of Further Education.
   eg What is Further Education for?
   Who is it for?

The Role of Brown College.
   eg What is the College for?
   Who does it serve?

The Organisation of Brown College.
   eg How is the College organised?
   Who is in charge of/responsible for . . . ?

The Culture of Brown College
   eg What sort of a place is it to work in?
Teaching and Learning in the College.

eg  How do you decide what to teach on your courses?

   How do you get students to learn?

Changes in Further Education.

eg  Have you noticed any changes in F.E. recently?

Changes in the College.

eg  Have you noticed any changes in the College recently?

National Vocational Qualifications.

eg  What are N.V.Q's/why have they been developed?

   What do you think of them?

Quality in Further Education.

eg  What do you think Quality in F.E. is?

   Prompt (if necessary) for discussion of:
   "Professionalism"
   "Learning Outcomes"
   "T.Q.M."
   "B.S. 5750"
The concept mapping used here is based upon the work of Novak and Gowin, [see Novak and Gowin 1984] and upon the work of Hobrough [see Hobrough 1987] and also upon sessions on methodology at the Department of Education Studies at Surrey University.

The concepts which the respondents were asked to "map" were 'N.V.Q's', 'the relationship of a particular course to any/all elements of the organisational structure of the College' and also 'Quality'.

Lecturers who were willing to discuss matters in an interview situation were much more reluctant to engage in mapping. Several asked to be allowed to "draw them later and send them to you" which they all subsequently did.

The lack of elements in most maps made taking formal analysis further almost impossible. The four that are included here are to illustrate how the maps confirmed the information about staff views and awareness arrived at from the interviews and observations.
This represents one of the fullest maps of how a course is supported by the organisation of the College. It was produced by a member of the "innovative" engineering team. There is no reference to any curriculum development/co-ordination elements in the college, nor to any aspect of staff development which was typical of almost all maps of this concept.
The concept map for N.V.Q. of the innovative course tutor. Note that it is positive towards change - and shows an awareness of the de-skilling possibility - but that "we" ie the teachers, could control that. Curriculum understanding without the rhetoric.
A more typical map for N.V.Q. - from a member of the "innovative" course team - but representative of the majority of maps drawn by staff of this during the study.
A representative mapping of "Quality" - drawn by a humanities lecturer who teaches on "A" level and Access and B.T.E.C. courses.
The Heller F.O.C.U.S. Instrument

This instrument was devised by Heller to elicit a picture of the dispositions of individuals and their organisations to engage in change. It was devised for schools and thus more appropriate for an educational organisation like a College than other instruments designed primarily for use in industrial organisations. All references to "school" were removed on the sheets given to the lecturers.

An introduction to the instrument and to the sheets for completion by the lecturers was given verbally but was based upon the information from Heller [see p436].
F.U.C.U.S. (Framework for Organisation Change and Underlying Style)

The attached questionnaires attempt to explore your own personal response to situations at work. They will help to build up a picture of the way the school as a whole and the individuals within it approach the management of change so that this can be achieved more effectively, taking account of the views of the widest range of staff members.

It would be helpful if you could answer the questions as spontaneously as possible without spending too much time on each particular reply. It should not take longer than 20 minutes or so to complete. It would be helpful if you did not discuss your answers with colleagues before you have completed the questionnaires. There are, of course, no exact answers to such general questions. Please give a response which most nearly matches how you feel at the present time.

You will note that the questionnaires are anonymous and you may wish to complete duplicates so that you can retain one set for your own information and later use.

For collation purposes only, a sequence number may be used on the forms. In fact, the only individual who can be clearly identified, despite the anonymity of the forms, will be the Head Teacher.
Appendix 8

2.4

SCORING

1) Ensure that the totals at the foot of columns C, R, N and Q on all three scales are checked and correct.

2) If all further scoring, processing and analysis is to be referred to the author, please consult Appendix A at this point.

3) If the school is to process the data, the following scoring procedure should be used:

   (a) Each score can now be plotted on the focus grid (an example follows and a blank is available in the loose pack for photocopying). A separate grid is used for each score. The most important scale is the personal (as in the example) and schools may wish to concentrate initial analysis on this.

   (i) The C (Change) and R (Resistance to Change) scores correspond to the central vertical axis of the grid ('C' above and 'R' below the Centre line). The difference between the 'C' and 'R' totals will provide the vertical axis co-ordinate. If 'C' is greater than 'R' the point will be above the Zero, if 'R' exceeds 'C' it will be below (using the unit scale depicted on the upper half of the vertical axis).

   (ii) Using a similar procedure for the horizontal axis, calculate the difference between the 'N' (Noise) and the 'Q' (Quiet) totals. If 'N' exceeds 'Q' the point is plotted to the left of the Zero by that amount; if 'Q' exceeds 'N', to the right.

   (iii) The co-ordinates are then plotted, as on a graph, from the central zero point.

   (b) In this example, I have used symbols to describe the individuals as fully as possible (H=Head; D=Deputy/Senior Teacher; As=Scale 3/4; Bs=Scale 1/2; Upper case figures signify Male, lower case female teachers). Plain dots or crosses or indeed the code number of each respondent's questionnaires could equally be used.

   (c) To illustrate the method, the Head's raw totals (on the personal scale) were C R N Q 28 24 29 13

   This produced a positive 'Change' score of 4 and a positive 'Noise' score of 16, i.e. 16 points to the left and 4 points above the central zero point. This position is also shared by a Scale 1 teacher. We can also look at the Female Deputy's scores (d):

   C R N Q 18 30 26 31

   A positive 'Resistance' score of 12 and a positive 'Quiet' score of 5.
SCHOOL F.3

STORM

'Drive'

PIONEERING (trendy)

- A

ADVENTUROUS (reckless)

ENERGETIC (over-active)

ASSERATIVE (pushful)

CHALLENGING (abrasive)

FIGHT

TOUGHNESS

REFORM

'Flexibility'

PROGRESSIVE (inconsistent)

- b

ADAPTIVE (malleable)

REFLECTIVE (tentative)

SELF-CONTAINED (withdrawn)

CAUTIOUS (evasive)

DETERMINED (uncompromising)

TRADITIONAL (old-fashioned)

FLIGHT

'Independence'

(Fig 1.)
INTERPRETATION AND SIGNIFICANCE

The main section (3) which follows will describe the origins and meaning of the FOCUS concepts in some detail. At this stage, only a brief description will be provided, to give some initial sense and direction to the grid. (Fig. 1).

QUADRANTS

There are four main quadrants or 'Temperaments' - styled 'STORM' (Noisy Change) 'REFORM' (Quiet Change) 'FIGHT' (Noisy Resistance) and 'FLIGHT' (Quiet Resistance).

Each of these Domains has been further subdivided into 3 sections to represent in a more continuous way the individual style within the quadrant. Thus while 'Energetic' and 'Pioneering' are both 'STORMY' behaviour, the former is closest to the 'Western' NOISE dimension and the latter to the 'Northern' CHANGE pole. Similarly in order to reflect individual differences in degree of style, concentric circles have been drawn. The inner circle (radius score of 3) is termed BALANCED, since it is felt that such small differences between the paired scores cannot be interpreted as showing significance in any one direction. The next circle (outer radius 10) is the plain or positive term (e.g. in the example F.3 one Male Deputy depicts himself as 'Adventurous' (with a 'change' score of 7 and a 'Noise' score of 6). The third circle (outer radius 20) is termed VERY (adventurous), while any point lying beyond radius 20 is styled 'extremely' (adventurous). After each style-name, there is a second (bracketed) term, which is intended to indicate the risky or negative aspects of that particular style. Otherwise I have tried to describe each style in a positive way, since (as we shall see) each may be appropriate and useful in particular circumstances. Remember, however, that the style names are, in a sense only, examples and should not be treated as if they carry any lasting or objective significance.

TENDENCIES

These simply measure the separate positions on vertical and horizontal axes. A positive Change score is termed 'a tendency to innovation'; a positive resistance score 'a tendency to conservatism'; a positive 'Noise Score' 'a tendency to extroversion'; a positive 'Quiet Score' 'a tendency to introversion'. Thus for each individual or group two tendencies are scored (unless the opposite scores are equal, when no tendency emerges on that axis). Degree is measured as follows:

1 - 5  A slight tendency to -(conservatism)
6 - 10 A moderate tendency to -(innovation)
11 - 15 A marked tendency to -(introversion)
16 - 20 A striking tendency to -(extroversion)
21 + An overwhelming tendency to -(conservatism)

RANGE OF BEHAVIOUR

The plotted point depicting the 'characteristic style' is merely the indicator of how one might most typically respond; it does not measure or determine all our potential behaviour. This can more readily be judged from the Field or 'Range of Operations Behaviour' which would appear as a rectangle bounded by the 4 C, R, N and Q total scores. This must comprise some behaviour in each quadrant (since there is a minimum Score of 8 on any one measure). It is the distribution of behaviour across the quadrants and its overall size which is of interest (and is calculated in detail by the computer programme).
To sum up the scoring, consider the Head in F.3. His scores:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERSONAL</th>
<th>LEADERSHIP</th>
<th>SCHOOL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C R N Q</td>
<td>C R N Q</td>
<td>C R N Q</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 24 29 13</td>
<td>31 22 28 15</td>
<td>21 26 16 21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Would be interpreted as follows:

**Dominant Tendencies (Personal Scale)**
- Shows a slight tendency to innovation:
- Shows a striking tendency to extroversion:

**Ranges of Behaviour (Personal Scale)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STORM</th>
<th>REFORM</th>
<th>FIGHT</th>
<th>FLIGHT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>37%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

i.e. $\frac{(C \times 10) \times (N \times 10)}{(C+R) \times (N+Q)}$  

**Characteristic Styles**
- Pictures self as very energetic
- Pictures leadership as very adventurous
- Pictures school as cautious

**Temperament**
- (STORM) (personal scale)
- (STORM) (leadership scale)
- (FLIGHT) (school scale)
For each of the sentences 1 to 7 rate the phrases given under the headings C, R, N, G on the scale 1 - 5. You would score each phrase rating it independently to the extent you feel it applies to your situation. 1 would indicate very low application and 5 would indicate the highest application. Enter the scores in each box. After completing the grid please enter the total score under each column C, R, N, G.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. The leadership of the college is characterised by</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>an openness to experimentation and fresh ideas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>its safeguarding of existing practices and traditions</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>its lively interaction with the staff</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>its quiet and.normal performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. The leadership's past achievements have been marked by</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the implementation of new strategies and approaches</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the defence of established values and practices</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the encouragement of collective discussion and interaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the establishment of a claim and trouble for leadership</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. The college leadership solves problems by</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>looking for new or adventurous solutions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>using tried and traditional methods</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sharing them openly and actively with colleagues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>producing solutions itself on its own initiatives</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. The leadership of the college is most successful when</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>when using novel or creative approaches</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>when relying on its experience and established strengths</td>
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<tr>
<td>when interacting positively with a wide range of people</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>when concentrating on its own unwise resources</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. Outsiders see the leadership as</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ready to risk new ideas and policies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keen to hold on to traditional values and practices</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a busy and outward looking group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a quiet and self contained group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6. The basic philosophy of the leadership is</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to promote fresh thinking and experimentation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to protect the school's record of achievement</td>
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<tr>
<td>to encourage internal debate and positive links with the community</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>to create a quiet and trouble free school</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7. The attitude of the college leadership towards individuals is</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to encourage creativity and experimentation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to expect them to maintain traditional standards of work</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>to demand that they play an open and active part in school life</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to expect them to keep to their own job areas and strengths</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>8. The attitude of the leadership towards groups in the college is</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to encourage them to develop new areas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to direct them towards maintaining standards and past achievements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to encourage dialogue and 'creative tension' between groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to expect them to work quietly and within their own job allocation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Herald Heller 1983**
For each of the sentences 1 - 8 please rate the phrases given under the headings \( C, R, N, Q \) on the scale 1 - 5.

You should score each phrase rating it independently to the extent you feel it applies to your situation. 1 would indicate very low application and 5 would indicate the highest application. Enter the scores in each box. After completing the grid please enter the total score under each column \( C, R, N, Q \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( C )</th>
<th>( R )</th>
<th>( N )</th>
<th>( Q )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The present character of the College is marked by -</td>
<td>its willingness to take on new ideas and experiments</td>
<td>its careful preservation of established practice and values</td>
<td>its lively debate and air of 'creative tension'</td>
<td>its quiet and self-sufficient atmosphere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The College's past achievements have been marked by -</td>
<td>an openness to new ideas and approaches</td>
<td>a regard for traditional values and practices</td>
<td>a high level of interaction with the outside world</td>
<td>the establishment of a quiet and untroubled atmosphere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Individuals within the College tend to -</td>
<td>come up with many new ideas and policies</td>
<td>protect their own established practices and achievements</td>
<td>seek active discussion and involvement within the school and outside</td>
<td>work things out for themselves whatever colleagues might do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Groups within the College tend to -</td>
<td>act as a pressure point for new developments</td>
<td>act to preserve the school's traditional practices</td>
<td>promote much discussion and active debate with others</td>
<td>work quietly and without intruding on others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Outsiders tend to see the College as -</td>
<td>ready to adapt and implement new ideas and policies</td>
<td>keen to hold on to its traditional values and practices</td>
<td>a busy, active and lively community</td>
<td>a quiet, self-contained and conflict free community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The College's basic philosophy is -</td>
<td>to welcome the future as an exciting challenge for staff and pupils</td>
<td>to seek to transmit to pupils established values and achievements</td>
<td>to expose pupils to the variety and richness of different values and beliefs</td>
<td>to offer a safe and undisturbed environment for each individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The College seems to resolve its problems by -</td>
<td>mobilising the creative energies and experimentation of staff and pupils</td>
<td>using a cautious and methodical approach based on past experience</td>
<td>encouraging group effort and interaction</td>
<td>allowing individuals to make their own contribution as they choose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The College is most successful -</td>
<td>when experimenting and developing new ideas and approaches</td>
<td>when doing what it's learned to do well</td>
<td>when using the power of groups and their interaction</td>
<td>when allowing individuals to get on with their own jobs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Appendix 8**
for each of the sentences 1 to 8 please rate the phrases given under the headings C, R, N, Q on the scale 1 - 5. You should score each phrase rating it independently, to the extent you feel it applies to your situation. I would very low application and 5 would indicate the highest application. Enter the scores in each box. After completing your please enter the total score under each column C, R, N, Q.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Q</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. My present work performance is marked by -</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. My past achievements have been marked by -</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Within working groups of colleagues, I tend to -</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. With individuals at work I tend to -</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Others tend to see me as -</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. My basic beliefs about work are that -</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. If I have a problem at work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I believe that I'm successful at work -</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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| TOTAL C | TOTAL R | TOTAL N | TOTAL Q |
### The Growth of Humanities Courses in Polytechnics

<table>
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<td>Education</td>
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<td>4,466</td>
<td>5,106</td>
<td>18,595</td>
<td>17,794</td>
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<td>(3.1)</td>
<td>(3.5)</td>
<td>(9.6)</td>
<td>(8.6)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Medical health, welfare</td>
<td>3,613</td>
<td>5,404</td>
<td>5,913</td>
<td>7,462</td>
<td>7,455</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(2.8)</td>
<td>(3.8)</td>
<td>(4.1)</td>
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<td>Engineering and technology</td>
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<td>42,488</td>
<td>37,744</td>
<td>40,885</td>
<td>43,593</td>
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<td>(34.4)</td>
<td>(29.8)</td>
<td>(25.1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>Science</td>
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<td>16,666</td>
<td>16,304</td>
<td>19,110</td>
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<td>(11.2)</td>
<td>(11.7)</td>
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<td>Social, administrative</td>
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<td>48,959</td>
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<td>and business studies</td>
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<td>(34.3)</td>
<td>(37.9)</td>
<td>(33.6)</td>
<td>(33.3)</td>
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<td>Professional and vocational</td>
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<td>11,480</td>
<td>11,883</td>
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<td>14,098</td>
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<td>subjects*</td>
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<td>(8.0)</td>
<td>(8.2)</td>
<td>(6.6)</td>
<td>(6.8)</td>
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<td>Languages, literature and</td>
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<td>3,364</td>
<td>4,113</td>
<td>5,112</td>
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<td>area studies</td>
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<td>(2.3)</td>
<td>(2.3)</td>
<td>(2.1)</td>
<td>(2.5)</td>
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<td>Arts (other than above)</td>
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<td>1,877</td>
<td>1,202</td>
<td>1,103</td>
<td>4,692</td>
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<td>(1.3)</td>
<td>(–)</td>
<td>(–)</td>
<td>(2.3)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Music, drama, art, design</td>
<td>5,498</td>
<td>7,237</td>
<td>8,095</td>
<td>9,471</td>
<td>10,557</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>(5.1)</td>
<td>(5.6)</td>
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<td>(5.1)</td>
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<td>GCE and CSE</td>
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<td>892</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>310</td>
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</tbody>
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444
WHAT IS THE NATURE OF THE JOB?

FE Staff do more than simply lecture. The major elements of their work are:-

1. Preparation of Lectures
2. Delivery of Lectures.
3. Marking of Students' work.
4. Preparation of Practical work.
5. Supervising Practical work.
6. Marking Practical work.
7. Preparation of Open/Distance Learning Material.
8. Tutorial Support of Open Learning Students.
9. Interviewing and Admitting Students to Courses.
10. Pastoral and Tutorial Care of Students.
12. Course Administration.
14. Service on College Committees.
15. Service on Regional or National Committees.
17. Marketing - visits to employers.
18. Marketing - Careers Evenings.
19. Setting, invigilating and marking examinations.
20. Research.
21. Organising Short Courses, Residential Courses etc
22. Liaison work with Schools.
23. Travelling between sites, travelling to courses
There are two views of life and two kinds of people. Some see life as a possession to be carefully guarded. They are settlers. Others see life as a fantastic, wild, explosive gift. They are pioneers.

A college is an outfit with an abundance of settlers and a few pioneers.

To no-one's surprise there are two kinds of philosophy: Settler Philosophy and Pioneer Philosophy. Settler philosophy attempts to answer all the questions, and to define and housebreak the Educational Establishment. Settler philosophy establishes the status quo on Golden Tablets in Cinemascope. Pioneer philosophy is an attempt to provide education in its widest meaning. The pioneer philosopher sees education as a wild adventure, a journey of discovery, complete with Indians, saloon girls and the haunting call of what is yet to be discovered.

The wild west offers a stage for picturing these two philosophies. Settlers and pioneers use the same words, but that is where it stops.

1) THE COLLEGE

In settler philosophy, the college is the COURTHOUSE. It is the centre of town life. The old stone structure dominates the town square. Its windows are small. This makes the thing easy to defend, but quite dark inside. Its doors are of solid oak. No-one lives there except pigeons, and they of course are most unwelcome.

Within the thick courthouse vails records are kept, fees collected, trials held for bad guys. The courthouse runs the town. It is the settler's symbol of law, order, stability, and most important - security. The mayor's office is on the ground floor. His eyes and ears collect the smallest details of town life.

In pioneer philosophy, the college is the COVERED WAGON. It is a house home. The covered wagon is where the pioneers eat, sleep, fight, love and die. It bears the marks of life and movement - it creaks, is scarred with arrows, bandaged with bailing wire. The covered wagon is always where the action is. It moves on the future and doesn't bother to glorify its own ruts. The old wagon isn't comfortable, but the pioneers couldn't care less. There is a new world to explore.

2) THE PRINCIPAL

In settler philosophy, the Principal is the mayor. The Hon. Alpha O. Mega, chief executive of settler city, is a sight to behold.

He lounges in an overstuffed chair in his courthouse office. He keeps the blinds drawn. No-one sees or knows him directly, but since there is order in the town, who can deny that he is there? The mayor is predictable and always on schedule.

The settlers fear the mayor, but look to him to clear the payroll and keep things going. The mayor controls the courthouse which in turn runs the town. Peace and quiet are the mayor's main concerns. That is why he sends the departmental sheriff to check on pioneers who ride into town.

In pioneer philosophy, the Principal is the TRAIL BOSS. He is rough and rugged - full of life. He chews tobacco, drinks straight whisky, and can out-cuss any sailor alive. The trail boss lives, eats, sleeps, fights with his men. Their well-being is his concern. Without him the wagon wouldn't move; the pioneers would become fat and lazy. Living as a free man would be impossible. The trail boss often gets down in the mud to help push the
wagon which frequently gets stuck. He lugs the pioneers when they get soft and want to turn back. His fist is an expression of his concern.

3) THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL

In settler philosophy, the Assistant Principal is the Sheriff. He is the guy who is sent by the mayor to enforce the rules. He wears a white hat — and out-draws the bad guys. He saves the settlers by offering security. The sheriff decides who is thrown into jail. There is a saying in town that goes like this: those who believe that the mayor sent the sheriff and follow the rules won't stay in boothill when it comes to their time.

In pioneer philosophy, the Assistant Principal is the Scout. He rides out ahead to find out which way the pioneers should go. He lives all the dangers of the trail. The scout suffers every hardship, is attacked by the indians, feared by the settlers. Through his actions and words he shows the true spirit, intent and concern of the trail boss. By looking at the scout, those on the trail learn what it really means to be a pioneer.

4) THE STUDENT COUNSELLOR

In settler philosophy, the Student Counsellor is the Saloon Girl. Her job is to comfort the settlers. They come to her when they feel lonely, or when life gets dull and dangerous. She tickles them under the chin and makes everything O.K. again. The saloon girl squeals to the sheriff when someone starts disturbing the peace. (Note to settlers: the Vino Sacra served in Settler City Saloon is of the non-alcoholic variety).

In pioneer philosophy, the Student Counsellor is the Buffalo Hunter. He rides along with the wagon train and furnishes fresh, raw meat for the pioneers. Without it they would die. The buffalo hunter is a strange character — sort of a wild man (radical priest). The pioneers never can tell what he will do next (sort out his filing cabinet perhaps). He scares the hell out of the settlers. He has a big, black gun that goes off like a cannon. He amuses himself by riding into town (Walsingham) on Sunday to shake up the settlers. You see, every Sunday morning, the settlers have a little ice cream party in the local courthouse. With his gun in his hand, the buffalo hunter creeps up to one of the courthouse windows. Men jump out of their skins, women scream, dogs bark. Chuckling to himself, the buffalo hunter rides back to the wagon train, shooting up the town as he goes.

5) THE STUDENT

In settler philosophy, the student is the Settler. He fears the unknown open frontier. His concern is to stay in good faith with the mayor and keep out of the sheriff’s way. He tends a small garden. “Safety First” is his motto. To him the courthouse is a symbol of security, peace, order and happiness. He keeps his money in the Bank. The banker is his best friend. He spends his time playing cards in the peaceful shade of the “Palm Court” area of the courthouse. He never misses an ice cream party.

In pioneer philosophy, the student is the Pioneer. He is a man of risk and daring — hungry for adventure, new life, the challenge of being on the trail. He is tough, rides hard, knows how to use a gun when necessary. The pioneer feels sorry for the town folks and tries to tell them about the joy and fulfillment of a life following the trail. He dies with his boots on.
6) THE LECTURER

In settler philosophy, the lecturer is the Banker. Within his vaults are locked the values of the town. He is suspicious of strangers. And why not? Look what he has to protect! The banker is a highly respected man in town. He has a gun, but keeps it hidden behind his desk. He feels that he and the sheriff have a lot in common. After all, they both protect the bank.

In pioneer philosophy, the lecturer is the Cook. He doesn't furnish the meat - he just dishes up what the system demands. This is how he supports the movement of the wagon. He never (?) confuses his job with that of the trail boss, scout or buffalo hunter. He sees himself as just another pioneer who has learned to cook. The cook's job is to help the pioneers to pioneer.

7) EDUCATION

In settler philosophy, education is trusting in the Safety of the Town. Obeying the laws - keeping your nose clean - believing the mayor is in the courthouse.

In pioneer philosophy, education is the Spirit of Adventure. The readiness to move out. To risk everything on the trail. Faith is the obedience to the restless voice of the trail boss.

8) FAILURE

In settler philosophy, Failure is breaking one of the town's Ordinances - and getting caught!

In pioneer philosophy, is wanting to give up when results are not as good as expected.

9) AFTER COLLEGE

In settler philosophy, Leaving college is equated with living close to home. Hanging round the courthouse after collecting the dole.

In pioneer philosophy, Leaving college is more complicated. Advancement means being more afraid of sterile town life than death on the trail; the joy at the thought of another day to push on into the unknown. It means trusting the trail boss and his scout while living on the meat provided by the buffalo hunter.

10) THE SYSTEM

In settler philosophy, the system goes like this. The mayor makes the laws, the sheriff enforces them and the saloon girl helps people to forget about their troubles.

In pioneer philosophy, the system goes like this. The trail boss built the wagon and keeps it moving. The scout reveals the purpose of the trail boss. The buffalo hunter furnishes meat to sustain the drive.

(Liberally adapted from: Western Theology, by Wes Seeliger.)
The Organisational Structure of a Responsive College

Appendix 12

449
The Development of an Educational Services Unit - a longitudinal study of an innovation in FE

1 Aim of the Study

Many studies of educational innovations are inaugurated some time after the experiment has begun, so that the earliest ideas of its originators have either been forgotten, or, more likely, modified in the subsequent development of the venture. Additionally, there seems to exist relatively few accounts of the progress of innovations within FE, and in a period when FE will, in the writer's opinion, have to undergo a process of radical change in its aims, methods and ethos, such an account may provide useful operational data for other staff within FE.

Hence this opening paper is intended to begin a long-term study of an attempt to introduce some significant change of educational direction within a traditional FE college by the establishment of an Educational Services Unit, together with its attendant activities, at Brown College. This paper will begin a process of subsequent, periodic evaluative papers which will trace the progress of the innovation, and the intentions and perceived hopes and problems of the participants. It is hoped that some independent evaluators from outside the institution will assist in the study - eg from the FE Staff College - and thus afford some external, perhaps more objective perspectives of the experiment.

2 This Inaugural Paper

It is the aim of this paper, written at the outset of the innovation, to outline the initial intentions and thoughts of those involved, so that these objectives may be used as a starting point for the judgements that may be made in any future evaluation. In synopsis, the paper will aim to provide,

2.1 the context of the innovation;

2.2 a description of the individual components of the Units, together with the reason underpinning them;

b the reasons for integrating these activities within one Unit;

2.3 the administrative and organisational intentions;

2.4 a forecast of the possible outcomes and
Appendix 13

the context within which it is set is of vital significance. For this reason a brief description of the College and its recent history is included, despite the recognition of the implicit danger that it may be considered value-laden.

Brown College is a fairly typical, conservative college of FE, but possesses certain characteristics that require highlighting, for they significantly affect the innovation. Some of these features will be described in this general section, whilst others will be included in that section of the paper where they most appropriately apply. Perhaps the most significant of these characteristics is that of extreme stability, not only of the College itself, but also, until recently, of its environment.

3.1 The Environment:

Brown existed until the last ten years or so as a quiet provincial town, with an industrial background that was largely made up of skilled engineering firms. It has recently undergone two local government re-organisation, resulting finally in its inclusion within Brownshire. More important was the decision to make it a development area, aimed initially at increasing the population from c.65,000 to around 180,000. The incoming population has assumed a much more cosmopolitan character, and the City is now probably unique in that it includes amongst its number representatives of practically all the ethnic minorities present within the UK, including the recently arrived Vietnamese. The development has also aimed at attracting 'service' industries rather than more engineering companies, and all this, together with the other factors, have combined to change the nature of the College's clientele.

It is also worthy of note, that in an area of scattered population, no other comparable institution of FE exists within a radius of some 40 miles.
3.2 The College:

Within this erstwhile 'stable state', it is hardly surprising that the College exhibited this similar characteristic of extreme stability.

This was further strengthened by a series of inter-related factors;

a The Principal

An important feature of the College's development has been the presence, for 25 years, of a Principal with particularly strong views on the role of the College, and who exercised a paternalistic style of management. Within this period, he had the opportunity of appointing practically all the present staff, particularly in the 50's-60's expansion during which the staff more than doubled.

b The Staff

The College portrays a very low turnover of its staff. A significant number have been in post for over 20 years, and because of expansion and the Principal's policy, most promotion was given internally; until recently, most of the management team had served in the College for at least 14 years. A further characteristic of the staff was a natural acceptance of a relatively non-participatory role in College affairs, and its decision-making process.

c The College's Role

Attendance upon the preceding factors, was the widely accepted view of the College's role, which was seen as one of industrial training. Thus, only relatively recently has it entered the fields of general education for the 16-18 age group, and adult education - for which in the City there exists dual provision. Hence it is argued, the advent of TEC and BEC and MSC work, together with the City's expansion plan, has placed somewhat extreme demands upon the College, its staff and its organisation, caused by the disparity between the 'stable state' to which it has been accustomed, and the degree of flexibility and adaptability it is now called upon to display.
The College has developed in the traditional organisational manner - an apparent 'line' management, comprising seven departments. It is perhaps significant that the establishment of an Academic Board came late to the College, amidst considerable opposition. Even when created, it enjoyed practically no influence upon the College's decision-making. The College is presently a grade VI college, with some 213 permanent teaching staff, and some 7500 students (1000 of which are full-time). It is set upon a magnificent site within easy reach of the City centre, and with ample car-parking space.

Certain factors have recently produced a more fluid and uncertain situation in the College; these are:

a) the appointment of a new Principal;

b) the appointment of a new Head of Department;

c) the pressure of TEC and BEC etc;

d) economic constraints.

A lack of accommodation and financial resources, together with the strains of TEC and BEC means that the former FE ethic of continual expansion along the stereotyped lines of face-to-face teaching and attendance etc is no longer possible. It is within the context of these factors that the innovation that is the subject of this paper was formulated.

4 The Innovation - the establishment of an Educational Services Unit

The aim of the innovation is the establishment of an Educational Services Unit (ESU) within the College that will incorporate 4 inter-dependent activities:

1 integrated teaching/learning support facilities - Resource Centre + Library + Print;

2 in-service development for College staff;

3 in-service courses for the staff of local schools;

4 'open access' courses for adults within both the vocational and non-vocational fields.

This diagram encapsulates the writer's view of the relationship between the activities that will be more fully explained later in the paper.
Two members of staff have been withdrawn from the department structure in order to form the basis for the unit. Other members of staff will be seconded from departments for teaching with the Unit.

5 The Philosophy of the ESU and its Activities:

5.1 In-Service Development - College Staff:

a Philosophy:

The College has practically no tradition of any form of the in-service development of its staff. The value system of the College concerning its role emphasised subject expertise, and tended to de-value the necessity for educational expertise.

Thus, for example:

until five years ago, more than 60% of
the staff had no teacher training;
to date, there have only been five or six secondments of staff over the last 30 years.

Some five years ago, the College began to send between 4 and 7 members of staff per year to the Huddersfield Certificate of Education course conducted at Bedford College of HE, some 40 miles distant. Despite that fact that other colleges of FE in the County have been granted remission at c.3+% - not in itself overly generous, the College is granted only 1.9%, hardly sufficient to cover the Bedford course.

The attempt to establish in-service activity within the college has been pursued by two strategies:

1  the persuasion of staff of its benefits in the face of their present problems, and hence the conviction of the management to its efficacy;

2  the creation of a number of sub-committees of the Academic Board, one of which has responsibility for staff development. This sub-committee met for the first time in June 1979, and it is hoped that a more formal pressure can be added to bring more quickly the creation of a suitable and graduated policy of staff development.

This year (1978-79), with the support of the Vice-Principal and one Head of Department, but with a certain resistance from some College quarters, timetable time was granted to two members of staff to conduct the C & G 732 course in Achievement Testing. Seventeen members of staff enrolled, with no remission of their contact time. During the early days of the course, they established, largely by ultimatum, an important principle in two stages, that they should have their course and examination fees paid by the College. Sixteen of these members of staff, after regular and conscientious attendance, have now taken the examination. A programme of courses for the next academic year (see Appendix I to this section) is already well-subscribed, and some of the present course-members will assist on the next courses on a voluntary basis. This account of events is included as an illustration of the staff's perceived need and valuing of such activities.

The reasoning behind the establishment of this activity, which obviously influences its nature and character, includes the following significant considerations:
Traditional courses of the past, C & G, Joint Committee – seemed to demand little educational expertise of staff, since syllabus design and assessment were largely external in origin and conduct. An important, though less obvious, is the factor that these older courses were not as ambitious in their aims as those of TEC and BEC.

The advent of TEC and BEC has produced problems at two levels of intensity:

i  the problem of design:

Courses were 'designed' in a hurry to meet submission and start dates. Frequently they were constructed with scant expertise, by a relatively small number of staff at the higher levels, and as a largely administrative task. Amongst a very small number of staff this gave rise to the need for, and credibility of some in-service work. At the outset, this was carried out on a very informal basis amongst those few who were interested, whatever the Department of their origin.

ii  the problem of conduct:

When these hastily-designed courses came to be conducted, the second level of problems became apparent. These problems were of a greater dimension, since they affected more of the staff, and in that important area of their contact with students. Also of significance is the increasing disparity between the nature of the courses, and the traditional College organisation and 'modus operandi' within which they are expected to conduct them.

Thus the time and perceived needs within the situation have coincided to favour the establishment of in-service work amongst many of the college's staff, if not entirely so with certain elements of the senior staff.

The fact that the underlying principles of TEC are those of modularity and cross-disciplinarity, and of BEC, integration implies not only an altered emphasis in curriculum, but also a
consequent change in organisational form and practice. In an environment where vertical line management, and 'hard' departmental boundaries have been strong values, in-service activity, even in its present limited form, has already had the peripheral but none the less vital effect of encouraging and intensifying cross-departmental contact. Significantly this contact has been at the horizontal, general staff level, where it will be essential if such courses are to be conducted effectively.

a3 In the light of the possible implementation of the recommendations of the Haycock Committee, it will be necessary for colleges to establish some formal system of in-service courses, so that teachers may progress from the point when they enter the College, perhaps with no teaching experience, to that when they gain the Certificate of Education.

In addition, some means of support is necessary for new staff as they begin teaching. It is postulated that this is best provided by other staff whose prime task it is, and who are not perceived as having the influence over career that may be ascribed to departmental staff.

a4 Another argument emphasising the importance of in-service work is that of the development of new areas of work, and new ways of conducting them. These will demand great changes of attitudes of staff, and considerable flexibility. The growth of work involving the young unemployed, the development of learner-centred courses, and the college's proposed excursions into the areas of adult education in ways involving distance learning techniques, will only be possible with largely the present staff, given the current constraints on expansion and staff mobility. The skills required will have to be acquired by the co-operative effort of the staff presently within the college.

a5 The concept of in-service work that is envisaged, more fully described below, will require the encouragement and utilisation of expertise wherever it may be found within the college. In-service work with colleagues is different from work with more 'normal' students, and if staff are to be involved with courses for external teachers, the in-service within college will provide the opportunity for 'cutting their
Underlying all the foregoing reasons is a commitment to a particular ethos of in-service work. Two principles that are pre-eminent in this commitment are:

i that in-service work will need to become a 'way of life' in the rapidly-changing environment that FE is facing. Hence it will not seem to be an additional feature of a teacher's life, but rather an integral part of it, accepted as naturally as an assumed responsibility of senior staff as the preparedness of junior staff to enter upon it. Above all it is seen as a self-supporting activity, so that, for example, some of the staff on the present C & G 732 course will assist in the conduct of the next, with all the attendant advantages of subject and departmental relevance.

ii that to be relevant and effective, in-service work will need to be based firmly within the college's - and the teachers' own environment. The arguments in this direction are various, but two of importance are:

a the vested interest the college will have in its own product - a stimulus not necessarily as strong when the in-service agency is external;

b in contrast to the typical, rather remote, disciplines-of-education-based courses (History, Sociology, Psychology etc), 'in-house' courses will more easily permit a relevant, task/problem-based character, resulting in a real and useful product.

b Methods of Operation:

The Staff Development Sub-Committee has begun the process of formulating its policy for the College, and it is hoped that the ESU will be recognised as the agency for that policy. It is likely that the policy will include many of the features that are commonly associated with staff development eg secondment for further qualification
long and short-term attachment to industry
in-college courses/seminars

These represent the formal, direct methods
of staff development; but it is acknowledged
that there are also informal and indirect
methods to which some staff may wish
recourse. Thus it is the intention to
provide the maximum number of routes by
which the staff may seek the assistance they
may require.

b1 Formal Courses:

The aim is to provide in the college a
graduated system of in-service training that
will take the untrained newcomer from
Induction through to Certification. It is
intended also, to offer a changing range of
risk-oriented courses, appropriate to the
situation within the college, as well as 'ad
hoc' seminars and meetings.

The formal courses offered for the next
academic year are:

C & G 730 FE Teacher's Course

this course is aimed at any member of staff
new to teaching, and based upon the
hypothesis that it:

i will provide support for a new teacher
in the early days of his career, some
operational expertise, and a FE-
recognised qualification;

ii a 'qualifying' pool of staff from whom
will be chosen those to attend the
Bedford Cert Ed Course; this choice at
the present is somewhat unsystematic
and at times unfair.

Induction Course

this course is intended to support those
new, unqualified staff arriving at the
college in the Spring and Summer terms - ie
too late to enrol upon the C & G 730. It
will consist of regular meetings, during
which, in an informal manner, any
difficulties may be raised, and some basic
teaching practices may be discussed.
Appendix 13

C & G 732 Achievement Testing

this course has been extremely successful this year, mainly because staff are currently faced with assessment problems, but also because it resulted in a relevant, usable product, together with many beneficial cross-departmental contacts. It is limited, however, by

a narrow view of assessment and educational technology, implicit within the course structure

an examination board-based syllabus

an inappropriate method of examination.

Course Design:

many staff at senior levels are already in the process of designing, and in some cases, re-designing a number of their TEC and BEC courses, so that this course is deemed appropriate to their needs. Because of the college's intention to conduct 'distance learning' courses (see later 'Open Access'), it has been decided to base the course around the design of self-instructional courses, thus hopefully accomplishing two aims at once.

Certificate of Education, Bedford:

the decision to send staff out-County to Bedford is rooted in history, and perhaps not worth describing; suffice it to say that the arrangement has not proved satisfactory. It has not been possible to establish the Huddersfield Cert Ed course within college and the LEA, without consultation with the college, has perpetuated the system in anticipation of Haycock. It is a future intention to challenge this decision, and attempt to establish a more suitable 'in-house' course at the college.

b2 Informal Methods:

it has earlier been acknowledged that informal and less direct methods of staff development are at least as those described above. Some of these indirect methods are already in operation, and it
is hoped to be able to exploit them further.

They include:

i sitting in on course-teams, a practice that perhaps represent the ultimate in task-based development. This has already proved a most effective form of activity.

ii consultation with individual teachers

iii the design of learning resources, for which reason the in-service work is linked with media resources. It is anticipated that with the move into 'distance learning' courses, and the development of learner-based techniques, this form of contact will become increasingly productive.

iv the preparation of educational papers for the Academic Board. Based upon current experience, it is apparent that many of its debates begin at a very uninformed level, and it is hoped that such papers might provide an improved initial level of discussion.

5.2 In-Service Courses - Schools:

a Background:

a1 Brownshire is one of only two counties in England that has within its boundaries no institution of initial teacher training within its control. The erstwhile Kesteven Training College - in Lincolnshire - had an Annex at Brown for the training of mature students. Kesteven was closed during the 're-organisation' of teacher-training in the early seventies, and at that time the college was visited by Lord Crowther-Hunt, possibly with a view to a merger between it and Kesteven to form a college of HE. This arrangement would have provided an in-service base for the schools in the northern area of the country; S Brownshire is well provided for by the services of Homerton and the Cambridge Institute of Education. The prevailing ethos of the college at that time was probably deemed unsuitable for such a merger, so that the LEA was left to pursue other in-service solutions. The eventual solution took the form of the proposed establishment of a Professional Centre on
the Westwood Annex site, served by the staff from the Bishop Grossteste College in Lincoln - some 60 miles distant. At this time, the technical college had no aspirations in this field.

One member of staff had been worked with the Warden of the local Teachers' Centre on in-service curriculum courses, and had attempted to open the College's Resources Centres' facilities to the local schools for reasons that are outline below. The college, whilst seeming to afford its official support to this policy, in fact gave it no resource backing. The advent of a new Head of Maths and Science some eighteen months ago, gave rise to a submission to the Institute of Mathematical Education for permission to conduct its Diploma in Maths Education. The quality of that submission was widely praised by the Institute, but permission to conduct the course was denied by the DEA on the grounds that the college was not an institution of initial teacher training. The submission was to be reconsidered, and in the meantime, the college conducted a non-award-bearing course in maths education with 20 of the 50+ local teachers who had expressed interest in the original diploma course. This 'ad hoc' course has been extremely successful, and has greatly impressed the LEA's Advisory Staff.

The college has now expressed its desire to be involved in this field of activities, with the approval of the Advisors. A range of intended courses has been published (see Appendix II to this section), and an encouraging number of enquiries have ensued. It is a matter for interesting conjecture, that had the interest and credibility on the part of the college been established earlier, other area in-service arrangements might have been forthcoming. As it is, the college's involvement, together with certain existing political and economic doubts, has made the in-service situation fluid once again.

a2 The College and the local Secondary Schools:

Brown was amongst the latest areas to 'go Comprehensive', with the result that a number of
the local schools, whose previous 16-19 students had been recruited onto the colleges 'A' level courses, began hastily to establish VIth forms. This brought them into a situation of rivalry with the college, and greatly hampered co-operation in the 16-19 area of education, a co-operation embodied in some LEAs by the move towards some tertiary style of solution. In some way or other, it seemed beneficial to establish contact between teachers of the college and the local schools, at a time when contact at the institutional level seemed at least unlikely.

b  Methods and Considerations:

Against the background already described, it is hoped to establish the college as a credible and significant force in this area of activity to the mutual benefit of both the schools and college. Some of the considerations behind these proposals are:

b1 there probably exists no other institution in N Brownshire as large, centrally-located, and as richly and diversely resourced as the college. These factors, combined with appropriate college attitudes could make it a natural in-service centre to the benefit of all concerned;

b2 there would ensue certain advantages to the college:

i contact with the schools at the important general staff level, which would assist in avoiding the present dysfunctional competitiveness, and in acquainting incoming teachers of the facilities available in the college for their pupils;

ii if contact between staff of the schools and the college can be developed, some of the 'Primary' expertise that might be needed for some of the 'lower', almost remedial work that is entering the college, might become available to its staff.

b3 the in-service work will represent a welcome diversification in the college's areas of activity. Also for the more able staff in the college, who have through the internal in-service scheme, and for whom future promotion
opportunities may be limited, it will provide particularly rewarding and fulfilling work.

May of the courses will provide indirect advertisements for the colleges courses, and more importantly, spread a better image of the technologies as a career than presently exists. Many of the enthusiastic staff in the Technologies and Science feel very strongly about this, and the associated necessity for better links to be made between subjects in schools and those subsequently required in the college.

Central in this policy is the importance of the college's offer to the schools of access to its resources. The college, within the locality, possesses the largest bank of AV resources - soft and hardware the best academic library the most diverse range of technical facilities - eg workshops, labs, the computer

It has been recounted earlier how the college pursued with something less than enthusiasm and commitment the proposal to establish the college as the AV Centre for N Brownshire. As a consequence the schools division set up their own servicing centre, with a technician, at the Teachers' Centre, and an opportunity was lost. Concepts of economic considerations like centralised equipment servicing and print-production are not over-fanciful, given the prevailing financial constraints, and the centralised area that Brown now is. The offer of such support facilities, if properly resourced and operated, will probably act as one of the most important factors in attracting teachers into the college.

5.3 'Open Access' Courses:

a Background:

Three background factors have been of importance in the development of this concept:

a1 the 'drop-out'/non-completion rate that was experienced on the one-year part-time 'A' level
Appendix 13

courses in History and Geography.

a2 under financial pressure a year or so ago, proposals were made to merge the College of Adult Education and the Technical College. This overlapping, wasteful and again competitive provision for adult education is rooted in that strange parochial history that seems so much a characteristic of the Peterborough situation. The merger did not take place, but two subsequent factors caused the writer to consider ways by which the college might enter this more general adult field in some significant manner.

i the Principal's expressed desire to expand the college's adult work;

ii the writer's perceived need to extend the variety of work undertaken by the Liberal Studies Department - a member of which he then was. Much of its work was relatively low-level, and there seemed the need to attract some proportion of more satisfying, fulfilling work in order to maintain the interest of the more able staff.

These factors (a1 and a2) were combined to produce the first Open Access (OA) in March 1978. The college and this department is much more prone to respond to obvious demand than to innovate against future needs, and this cautious attitude provided scant support for the idea. But other evidence began to appear that invited persistence with the OA concept.

a3 Activities at Barnet - Flexistudy - and in the North-West - the Open College scheme - showed the possibilities of such work. Of greater significance to the writer was the growing conviction of the inevitable spread of this ethos and associated methods into the whole FE field of operations;

i the distance learning commitments of TEC and BEC, and their lack of demand for attendance as a criterion for qualification;

ii the prevailing economic climate of the country in general and of the college in particular. As a result, it seemed important to persist in the promotion of the concept, even by taking it, if necessary, outside the boundaries of a single college department.
b Considerations:

b1 FE has traditionally tended to 'over teach' its students, and made scant, conscious concession to their high motivation and abilities. Techniques such as those envisaged in the OA courses may well be encouraged in the more general work of the college, and thus move the emphasis from teacher to learner-based methods.

b2 The college is situated within the dense population of the city, but also within an area of comparatively scattered population - civil engineering students, for example, often travel single distances of 34-40 miles to attend college. With different techniques, different solutions to attendance problems may arise.

b3 The college's resources, particularly in terms of classroom accommodation, are now extremely stretched; OA courses represent a means by which the college may expand its work without too great an extra commitment of either accommodation, not eventually, of its staff. A visit recently to the National Extension College revealed a relatively small permanent staff - c.20 - serving a 'live' student population of c.15,000. The college with some 200 full-time staff, and as many part-timers is currently handling c.7,500. Even acknowledging the different circumstances, there must be, it is argued, some midway position between these situations in terms of the more economic use of what are rapidly becoming scarce resources.

b4 The advent of TEC and BEC with their:

i lack of college-attendance requirements;
ii stated 'distance learning' policy,

has been a very important consideration, for it has moved the concept of OA courses into the vocational area. This commitment has been intensified by the activities of the NEC, and the distance learning investigation jointly financed by TEC and CET.

b5 The wider context of the possible industrial and social future, as a result of employment predictions and characteristics have also been of considerable significance. Either in leisure or for the frequent re-training that the widespread use of the micro-
Appendix 13

processor portends, the colleges of FE would seem to have a vital part to play, if only they have the vision to prepare for it. Institutions of HE seem somewhat unsuited for the general scale and diversity of the future that is envisaged, for they are often remote not only from the point of view of geography, but also from the needs of industry and commerce. FE colleges, on the other hand, exist in every locality, and with their considerable resources and contacts in most industrial and commercial fields, they would seem to represent the natural foci for this future type of educational activity, unless, by neglect, they abrogate the task.

It is readily acknowledged that of the three areas of innovation thus far described as the projected activities of the Educational Services Unit, the concept of OA courses represents the most difficult of which to convince the college's management. The other elements - in the in-service areas - have already been afforded some credence by virtue of some evidence of apparent need or demand. The concept of OA courses, on the other hand, requires a commitment to a view of the future and action in anticipation of a demand that is not yet readily recognisable; neither philosophy about the future, nor a response to anything but immediate expedience are strong characteristics of FE. Concepts like individual and distance learning, no regular attendance at college nor face-to-face teaching, the considerable administrative flexibility that will be required, all place considerable strains of credence upon the average FE institution. For this reason, the OA scheme will have to be introduced:

i on a small scale, but in a manner representative of vocational as well as non-vocational activity, and so that it can contribute its material into the more 'traditional' work of the college;

ii by teachers who are committed to the concept of OA courses, both in terms of a belief in its efficacy, and of their own capabilities to operate within it. These qualities are seen as best encouraged and identified through the medium of in-service work.

c Description:
The aim of OA courses is to remove many of the constraints that bind the learner following more conventional courses. Some of these are:

- common purpose - eg exam, non-exam
- common pace
- common attendance pattern
- teacher-decided methods/sequence
- the necessity for class-sized groups

The courses that the college intends to conduct may be characterised by the following features:

**c1** students, when they join the course, in fact, 'buy' teacher-time. Based upon the present provision for the existing part-time 'A' level courses, which is three hours per week, this would amount to one hour per month for each member of an 'economic' group of twelve students. How they 'sped' this time will be the result of negotiations between the individual student, the teacher and the other students on the course; they may decide upon a variable mix of individual tutorials, small-group sessions, or class-sized groups for more formal methods.

**c2** students will be provided with a range of distance-learning materials - print, tape and slide - and will be afforded access to other college facilities as necessary - library, workshops, laboratories and the computer.

**c3** it is the intention to provide various routes through courses upon which this approach may be appropriate - eg the course in 'A' level Geography,

- standard course pitched at base pass level
- additional material
  - higher academic level, based on Univ entry
  - more general, based on non-exam needs

**c4** there will be no time constraints, so that the possibility for an individual student to 'pace' himself will be available. Thus, for example, students may enrol year after year according to their desires and capabilities.
it is also the intention to conduct 'courses within courses', and so provide a means whereby the college may acquire a wider clientele, and not unimportantly, greater revenue. To illustrate this practice, let us take again the example of the 'A' level Geography course. The teacher and the students may decide to 'spend' their time allocation in a six weeks x 2 hours 'mini course' on local Geology. To this series of lectures/lessons would be invited a more general audience, paying the fee for a 'short' course. In this respect, it is hoped to link the OA courses with the in-service scheme. On the course used as the example, to the OA and general adult students might be added to local teachers in the topic.

6 The Case for Integrating the Components:

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<tr>
<th>In-Service</th>
<th>Open</th>
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<td>(Staff)</td>
<td>Access</td>
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Earlier in the paper, the diagram above was used to indicate the perceived relationship between the various activities of the new unit, and it is the purpose of this section to explain it further.

6.1 To conduct either in-service courses for teachers or OA courses will require, for many members of staff, considerable shifts of attitude and the acquisition of new skills. Thus both these areas of activity necessitate the support of, and conscious links with internal in-service work. Thus, the next academic year's course in 'Course Design' will be based upon the consideration and design of self-instructional courses, in the hope that not only will staff acquire some expertise in the design of more 'normal' courses, but also be prepared to work within the OA area.

6.2 For both the teacher' in-service courses and those within the OA area, the support services of Print, the Library and Resources Centre are absolutely vital. In addition, as earlier postulated, their use by staff provides a
valuable method of internal in-service work.

6.3 The link between the internal and external in-service work, and the OA courses may beneficially provide contact between:

a. teachers from the college and the schools
b. teachers and other learning adults

6.4 The unit will provide, by way of its work in these fields, a mode of cross-departmental working, that, it is believed, will more closely reflect the manner in which the college will need to operate in the future.

6.5 That innovators require support is a factor revealed in research, and in the establishment of the unit, this has been an important consideration. The departments of the college are perhaps more suited to the continuance of traditional courses; for the relatively few - at present - innovative teachers, they can seem an overwhelmingly stifling environment. Now and in the future, it is deemed vital that these innovative teachers should, for the benefit of the college, be

a. encouraged,
b. enabled, as a conscious policy, to exert a greater influence in the college's affairs, and with its staff.

The unit will be able to bring these teachers together so that they can be mutually supportive, and as the unit's work develops, form something of an 'elitist' group, afforded, as a consequence, greater influence within the college.

It is also common research knowledge that teachers who have been encouraged to attempt new practices by means of in-service work, frequently have to return to a conservative environment; there, their attempts may fail, not because they are invalid, but rather because they are set within an unfavourable context. It is hoped that the unit will be able not only to influence, by means of the internal in-service work, the attitudes and methods of the staff, but also proffer them a supportive teaching environment of the unit's own work in which they may employ what they have learned. Success and support in the unit's areas of work may well enable such staff to persist in their efforts, and thus influence
the more conservative areas of the rest of their work.
College Draft Action Plan for N.V.Q.

NATIONAL VOCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

DRAFT ACTION PLAN

ACADEMIC BOARD MEETING WEDNESDAY 13TH APRIL 1988
Appendix 14

N.C.V.Q. (A College Action Plan)

The National Council has accepted the premise that "Industry" is in the best position to establish its training needs. Competences decreed by "Industry Lead Groups" will indicate the skills, knowledge and application required by trainees to achieve the various levels in the N.C.V.Q. structure. No one can argue against the principle of a training structure which adequately reflects the needs of industry and thereby produces a properly trained and educated work force. N.C.V.Q. is convinced that industry is prepared to meet this challenge and have the backing of a government determined to see its policies with regard to this carried through. Coincidentally they are quite prepared to see the F.E. system exposed to whatever competition the process happens to generate.

I believe that it would be prudent for the College to assume that all the aims will be achieved with the effect that that implies. If we take steps to prepare ourselves for the changes in our practices and curriculum which will result, then anything less than full realisation will, in effect, result in a bonus for the College.

The main features of the N.C.V.Q. qualifications, their implications for the College and the positive responses which might be considered by us could be summarised as follows:

Feature

1) Competences in particular occupational areas to be established by industry lead groups.

They will:
(a) be established nationally
(b) be very detailed and will lead to modularisation
(c) reflect the skills, job knowledge and application of these skills in the work environment.

Implication
(a) Competences will be specific to trainee - i.e. groups may contain trainees from a variety of areas, leading to the possibility of a considerable restructuring of our traditional courses.

(b) They are not syllabuses. Much of the traditional content may be eliminated.

(c) In most cases the job knowledge elements will be associated with an awarding body such as BTEC, C&G, but emphasis is placed on the fact that the delivery system or attendance on a course are not necessarily to be criteria. The exact position with regard to this will be established by the industry lead groups.

While it is likely that in the majority of cases the lead group will opt for a college based course to cover the job knowledge elements of the package, we would be foolish to ignore the attraction which might be seen in open learning packages, work based job knowledge elements or even competition from the private provider. This latter element would certainly not attract any opposition from the present government, with its preoccupation with competition and the provision of the widest possible range of options in any situation.

473
(d) Skills testing and the assessment of the application of skills and job knowledge in the working environment may or may not take place in industry, may or may not involve simulation, depending on decisions arrived at by the industry lead body and any conditions applied to accreditation by N.C.V.Q. Because these elements envisage the full, active and enthusiastic participation of industry, they are the most inponderable as far as the future is concerned. I believe that this part offers colleges the best opportunity to influence the future pattern of training.

The packages which have been accredited to date, e.g. those in Electrical Contracting, Heating and Ventilating, Motor Vehicle etc., have been based on established schemes involving skills testing and G & G qualifications. These accreditations have been approved for limited periods, the assumption being that continued recognition will be dependent on the introduction of enhanced elements of industrial involvement. On the evidence of past experience local industry will lean heavily on the colleges for guidance in these matters.

(e) Assessment in the work place will depend on the accreditation of work based assessors. This will be another area where the colleges could capitalise on their expertise.

Positive Responses from the Colleges

(a) Establish a body of knowledge and expertise on competence led learning and the curriculum implications of modularisation.

(b) Market N.C.V.Q. in a positive way with industry, stressing the benefits which can be derived from co-operation and collaboration in the fields of skills testing and work based assignments.

(c) Promote a training programme for work based assessors.

(d) Take positive steps to establish responsibilities in these areas.

2) Credit Accumulation and Transfer

This is being given a lot of prominence and is one of the main platforms of the programme. It is of particular significance when considered in the light of the decline over the next few years of the F.E. 16+ age group and the expansion of the adult training programme. Access to the programmes is to be as widely available as possible, with the emphasis moving towards a recognition of prior learning, however that might have been acquired, with the removal of limitations with regard to method of delivery, the length of the learning process and positive moves towards equality of opportunity for perceived apparently, disadvantaged groups, e.g. females, ethnic groups and the handicapped.

Implications

(a) Enrolment procedures will have to be drastically altered, so that they become client centred, counselling sessions, with the pattern not dictated solely by the need to gather fees.
Appendix 14

(b) The need for the recognition of prior learning and the accumulation of a potentially large range of competencies will require a much more sophisticated college-wide and nation-wide system for the recording of student records than exists at present. This point relates to the previous point and also to developments, considered later in this paper, in measuring the successful outcome of programmes of study.

(c) The accumulation of modules of competence will imply that these modules could have common currency in a wide range of programmes. The changes required in the method of delivery resulting from this will be profound.

Positive Responses from the College

(a) Reconsider the enrolment procedures.

(b) Establish a working group to consider the implementation of an adequate and reliable data base of student achievements.

(c) Reinforce the work of those engaged on student counselling, achievement testing, student profiles and course tutoring.

(d) Implement marketing strategies aimed at those potential clients who have hitherto been outside the training process.

Recommendations

These points have been considered by an ad hoc group of staff who have shown a particular interest in NCVQ and were discussed at a meeting held on Friday 25th March.

The staff who attended that meeting (see attached list) recommended that the following strategy be adopted to deal with the challenge of NCVQ and this should form the basis of any "action plan" presented by the Academic Board.

1. Establish a liaison group to ensure that the L.E.A. officers are fully briefed on NCVQ matters and take an active part in the development of the co-ordination of these matters across the Authority.

2. Establish an adequate and accessible data base capable of providing the sophisticated records of student achievement and credit accumulation envisaged in the NCVQ documents. (This item is particularly relevant since it will be a vital element in the process of producing the information required in the Joint Efficiency Study).

3. Initiate an enrolment procedure which adequately reflects the need for the recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and credit accumulation and which recognises in a structured way, the implication of student counselling, achievement testing, student profiles and the full range of modes of delivery and costing implied in the documentation.

4. Initiate a marketing strategy to establish the College as the focus of NCVQ in the eyes of local industry.
5. Initiate a college wide review of the I.T. provision and a process of ongoing appraisal of that provision in the light of the competencies in this field likely to be highlighted by the various industry lead groups.

6. Establish 2 - 5 above as the main areas of staff development for the college, recognising the resource implications that this implies. Prioritise these areas requiring most staff development and having done so be more directive in implementing this staff development policy.

7. Generate the ideas required to develop the procedures outlined in 1 to 6 above by reinforcing the work of some existing individuals or groups, or by establishing new groups and by allocating time and responsibility to these individuals or groups to perform the following tasks:-

(a) to establish a pool of expertise in competency based learning and its implications for the curriculum.

(b) to establish a marketing strategy to ensure that the College is in the forefront in the development of NVQ in local industry and commerce. This strategy may have to encompass the needs of industry and commerce with regard to:

(i) training programmes for work based assessors
(ii) offering a consultancy service on assessment in the work place
(iii) the provision of simulated work experience in the College
(iv) the integration of "college" based and "work" based experience.

(This task could be divided between two groups).

(c) to recommend the procedures to be adopted for enrolment, recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and credit accumulation.

(d) to recommend the procedures to be adopted with regard to student counselling, achievement testing, student profiles and course tutoring.

(e) to recommend a suitable data base system capable of dealing with the sophisticated demands described above and the procedures required to ensure that the flow of information both into and out of the system will be sufficiently detailed.

(f) to prioritise the staff development implications relating to NCVQ and recommend the direction of staff development funding towards prescribed areas.

(g) to assess the resource implications of these recommendations.
8. Appoint a NVQ Manager and Deputy who will be responsible for implementing the Action Plan. A suitable amount of time should be allocated for the execution of this task.

9. Appoint an Assessment Co-ordinator and Deputy who will be responsible for implementing procedures for student counselling, achievement testing, student profiles, recognition of prior learning, credit transfer and credit accumulation. A suitable amount of time should be allocated for the execution of this task.
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Transactional Analysis

The psychological theory of Transactional Analysis was developed by Eric Berne in the 1950's and 1960's based upon observations he made whilst practising as a psychotherapist.

It is a theory of personality which seeks to account for human behaviour by recognising that the infant need for physical "stroking" is carried through into adult life where the "strokes" that are sought are not only physical but social and emotional also.

It also asserts that we learn in our childhood proper behaviour ie behaviour that will get us "strokes" for a "child", for a "parent" and for an "adult" from the behaviour and interactions around us. We absorb this information and learn to engage in the behaviour states of the adult, the parent or the child to the extent to which these states are rewarded.

These states - Berne defines them as "ego states" - provide a repertoire of possible behaviour and responses for us but many people become stuck in one ego state more than another because of childhood experiences. This "stuckness" can lead to unsatisfactory relationships and unhappy lives (hence T.A's association with psychotherapy). When imported
into the work place it can account for ineffective behaviour and inadequate communication with those with whom we have to work.

The F.E.U. adopted Berne's model for their programme for managers in the F.E. Colleges and Berne's analysis informed much of the F.E.U.'s thinking and material on staff development generally. [See C M Turner 1987 The Parenting Organisation: An exploration of Transactional Analysis Bristol F.E.S.C.]

The F.E.U. model for the parenting organisation which would develop its children - staff relied on Berne's more detailed model of ego states which are:

In "The Games People Play" [1966] Berne outlines games and rackets that people engage in because they give them a "pay off" even if this is negative in the long
term. From observations throughout the research it became appropriate to conceptualise the behaviour of staff at different Boards of Study meetings within the games outlined by Berne. Thus the behaviour at the Technology Board of Studies meetings with its emphasis on why it was not possible to develop curriculum issues can be conceptualised as "Wooden Leg" [see Berne 1966 pp140-142].

The behaviour of staff at the Personal and Community Board of Studies meetings with its emphasis on long discussions of personal feelings about curriculum issues can be conceptualised as "Uproar" [see Berne 1966 p114].

The behaviour of staff at the Business and Management Board of Studies meetings with its emphasis upon "following these initiatives as we are asked to only leads us into trouble" can be conceptualised as "See what you made me do" [see Berne 1966 pp76-79].
This print-out of the length of service of members of staff at Brown College shows the tendency for settling rather than pioneering. The expansion of the College [arguably responsible for the overspend in 1989] meant that whilst many new staff joined few ever left.
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**Appendix 17**
1. A sequence of potential experiences is set up in the school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting. This set of experiences is referred to as the curriculum (Smith et al. 1957).

2. All the experiences a learner has under the guidance of the school (Fopshay 1969).

3. A general over-all plan of the content or specific materials of instruction that the school should offer the student by way of qualifying him for graduation or certification or for entrances into a professional or vocational field (Good 1959).

4. We hold that curriculum is a methodological inquiry exploring the range of ways in which the subject matter elements of teacher, student, subject, and milieu can be seen (Westbury and Steimer 1971).

5. Curriculum is the life and program of the school ... an enterprise in guided living; the curriculum becomes the very stream of dynamic activities that constitute the life of your people and their elders (Rugg 1947).

6. A curriculum is a plan for learning (Taba 1962).

7. The planned and guided learning experiences and intended learning outcomes, formulated through
the systematic reconstruction of knowledge and experience, under the auspices of the school, for the learner's continuous and wilful growth in personal-social competence (Tanner and Tanner 1975).

Curriculum must consist essentially of disciplined study in five great areas: (i) command of the mother tongue and the systematic study of grammar, literature, and writing; (ii) mathematics; (iii) sciences; (iv) history; (v) foreign language (Bestor 1955).

The curriculum is considered to be the increasingly wide range of possible modes of thinking about men's experiences - not the conclusions, but the models from which conclusions derive, and in context of which these conclusions, so-called truths, are grounded and validated (Belth 1965). [In Lewy A (ed) 1991 p15]
Curriculum Issues for the delivery of N.V.Qs

Assessment - involving deciding what range of evidence is necessary.

Assessment of Prior Learning - involving assessing relevant evidence and devising appropriate tests.

Flexible Learning Opportunities - involving individual learning programmes and a variety of study modes such as open learning.

Learning from Work - involving integrating work experience into learning and assessment - and providing for work-place simulation.

Access and Progression - involving clear statement of the intended learning outcomes of programmes, guidance and statements of threshold competencies for entry to a course of study.
Staff Development - "key issues which will have to be considered are: -

- assessment techniques and procedures, including the assessment of prior learning:
- guidance: flexibility of delivery: open learning:
- marketing training: acting as a consultant to industry and commerce: and recording achievement including record keeping.

Institutional Development - colleges will need organisational structures which will be able to offer flexible learning provision, appropriate guidance and support, opportunities for modular programmes and integrated work
Appendix 19

based and college based learning, and provide for the assessment of competence, including the assessment of prior learning activities.

Summary of Curriculum

Implications of N.V.Q's - F.E.U. May
POST-16 CURRICULUM PHILOSOPHY IN TVEI EXTENSION

Post-16 TVEI Extension is about:

FRAMEWORK

Access
Equal Opportunities
Guidance and Counselling
Record of Achievement
Careers Education and Guidance
Experience of Work
Progression and Continuity
Core Curriculum

PROGRAMMES OF STUDY

Mixed Academic and Vocational Programmes involving:

A/AS level subjects (modular?) } 2 year
Vocational units/modules } 2 year

One Year Modular Course (GCSE, CPVE, B/TEC First etc.)
Special provision

DELIVERY

Action planning and review
Learning by doing
Project-based learning
Cross-curriculum teamwork
Continuous assessment
Community involvement
"Enterprise"
Appendix 20

3. ENTITLEMENT CURRICULUM

a. CONSORTIUM STATEMENT

In TVEI there is a need to plan entitlement, continuity and progression in the 14-18 curriculum. In planning for coherence and balance at 16 plus we have been concerned by the division which still exists between F.E. and schools regulations and the traditional and specialist nature of 'A' levels.

The schools and colleges by themselves cannot overcome all these constraints and would be grateful for the support at senior level both within the D.E.S. and the Training Agency in gaining greater flexibility in course provision, assessment and accreditation.

However, the consortium will vigorously pursue ways in which such flexibility can be achieved at local level by negotiation within the consortium.

The consortium has discussed the LEA's Post 16 Curriculum Development Plan and has identified the following areas as being elements of the Entitlement Curriculum to be considered by establishments:

1. The Learning Process
   1.1 Negotiate, formulate and if necessary modify a suitable programme of study.
   1.2 Regularly review and record each student's achievements and developments through the tutor or course tutor.
   1.3 Take part in problem solving and decision making processes.
   1.4 Develop the skills of working in a team.
   1.5 Develop a variety of appropriate learning methods and study skills (e.g. supported self study).
   1.6 Experience a variety of appropriate assessment methods

2. The Context
   2.1 Credit received for prior learning experience
   2.2 Cross-curricular activities
   2.3 Experience of work and enterprise
   2.4 Involvement in the community
3. **Support**

3.1 Have access to careers guidance and counselling, including information about further study and progression routes.

3.2 Have access to extra specialist support e.g. Careers Officer, S.E.N. support, Open Learning systems.

4. **Content**

4.1 Equal Opportunity issues

4.2 Community awareness

4.3 Issues relating to adult and working life

4.4 Economic and Industrial Awareness

4.5 Numeracy

4.6 Communication including language skills

4.7 Information Technology

4.8 Science and Technology

4.9 The Arts, including creative and expressive experience.

4.10 Social and Political Awareness

4.11 Religious beliefs

4.12 Environmental issues

4.13 Recreation and physical activities

4.14 Enterprise

4.15 Health issues
Common Skills

Defining Common Skills

5 The term skill is not limited to purely technical or manipulative abilities but encompasses abilities that enable students to apply knowledge and understanding to real situations, to cope with problems of an unpredictable character, and to acquire new knowledge.

6 BTEC has identified the following major common skill areas:

• self-development skills, eg
  — self-appraisal and evaluation;
  — learning and study skills, learning from experience;
  — planning, organising and completing tasks working independently and under instruction;
  — exercising qualitative judgement;

• communicating and working with others, eg
  — presenting information effectively for a particular purpose;
  — listening to and interpreting information/communications;
  — relating to others, negotiating, making/accepting criticism;
  — working in a team and taking a variety of roles;

• problem tackling, decision making and investigating, eg
  — analysing situations and questioning assumptions;
  — identifying problems and defining tasks;
  — formulating objectives and reviewing possible approaches;
  — implementing and monitoring, and evaluating results;

• information, quantitative and numerical skills, eg
  — identifying information needs and sources;
  — obtaining a range of information for a specific purpose;
  — analysing, classifying and evaluating such information;
  — using a range of techniques — mathematical, numerical, graphical, computer software packages — to analyse data, solve defined problems and present complex information;
Appendix 21

Common Skills and Core Themes

7 Common skills will be specified and grouped differently for different courses. Course teams should produce statements of common skills that take full account of the major common skill areas identified above and that are related to the needs of their vocational area and the provisions of the relevant course guidelines.

8 Further guidance on specifying common skills is in Annex A.

9 The purpose of core themes is to broaden the relevance of courses and units and to enrich the assignments in which students develop common skills. They do not constitute subject matter for particular units but link work across the whole course. Course guidelines identify a number of themes that relate, for example, to:

- particular jobs and the need to prepare students for adult life and work;
- important concepts not treated in specific course units or subjects but relevant to the course as a whole;
- vocationally-relevant cross-disciplinary studies.

10 Course teams should regularly review the core themes used in their courses and consult employers and students on:

- their effectiveness in enhancing course integration;
- their relevance to students' vocational needs.

11 Further guidance on core themes and their use is in Annex B.

12 Effective development of common skills and core themes depends on the whole course team's being involved in setting up and implementing appropriate curriculum strategies. In particular:

- staff with special expertise in developing common skills and core themes have a crucial role in teams;
- all members of a course team should be concerned with developing common skills and core themes, both in their own teaching and over the course as a whole.
College Seminar on BTEC

College Seminar on 'Changes in BTEC Courses' 7th November 1986

Apologies received from:

All staff were invited to the seminar. Of these:

- 24% replied
- 11% sent apologies
- 13% attended

Of those who attended:

- 54% were TECBOS
- 29% were PaCBOS
- 10% were BaMBOS
- 7% were Cross College

BTEC - Changes in Policy

Present:

The Technician Education Council was set up in 1974 and they wanted us to design our own schemes. TEC was very flexible, de-centralised and unit based.

The Business Education Council was set up in 1975 and was more course based. Their emphasis was more on teaching/learning than assessment. The moderator was much more involved at the beginning of the academic year. TEC moderators were involved at the end. BEC also had annual reviews.

BEC and TEC were merged in 1983. BTEC is now administered by 9 sector boards:

- Agriculture
- Business & Finance
- Computing
- Construction
- Design
- Distribution, Hotel, Catering & Leisure
- Engineering
- Public Administration
- Science
Business & Finance and Engineering are the largest in terms of student numbers.

**Changes since 1984**

Jan. 1984 Discussion document
Sept. 1984 Policies & Priorities into the 1990's
Sept. 1984 Report on responses to discussion document
May 1986 Circular 15 - this is the key to major changes
June 1986 Staff Development for BTEC courses
July 1986 The 'A' forms
BTEC 1st awards - Engineering, Construction General Guidelines

Circular 15 - from September 1987 Diploma courses will **usually** be full time but Certificate courses will **always** be part time. There will be no fall back certificates. Entry to the National awards will be by 1st Certificate or 4 'O' levels. Certificates of Achievement will be available if students do not obtain full certificate. National certificates will be 2 years duration, as from September 1987.

**Key Areas - involving change**

Course team meetings - we are leading many colleges in this field.

Common skills and core themes.

Student centred and work related learning.

Integrative assignments.

Course review and evaluation.

1. Principal objectives
2. Indicative content
3. Process based objectives

Experiential learning.

Resource implications.

**Conclusions**

We need an awareness by the following:

- Local industry
- PRC staff
- PRC management
- Local schools
- LEA

We need Staff Development:

- Workshops or more seminars
- Paid stand-ins
- BTEC inspired seminars
We need Resource Provision:

- Staff time
- Student centred Labs/Workshops
- Assignment based learning means change in teaching style
- Student access to learning media
- Smaller teaching groups.

During the discussion it was stated that these changes should be resourced properly - not ‘paid stand-ins’ as this was a misuse of resources.

Timetable should be devised to allow sufficient inbuilt ‘time’ for staff development.

First Awards

Present:

From September 1987 there will be new 8 unit 1st Diploma and 5 unit 1st certificate courses. National Certificates will still run. Entry to the 2 year National Certificate or Diploma will be 4 ‘O’ levels - if students do not have these entry qualifications or equivalent they will have to go on a 1st certificate/diploma course.

Aims

Developing competence in students to pursue a realistic career and enhance their working life. This is in the interest of students, employers and the national interest.

Student Market

The emphasis is on the likelihood to succeed and student benefitting from the course. Students should be 16+ having completed their secondary education. They should also be vocationally committed and either be in employment or preparing for employment. The student should have the following:

- Literacy
- Scientific reasoning
- General competence
- Potential
- Previous experience e.g. CPVE
- Employer support

Course design & structure

The course will be unit based and each unit requires 60 hours of learning support - work based experiential learning or 90 hours learning support.

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<tr>
<td>1 year part-time</td>
<td>2 or more optional units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 x 60 hours + experience</td>
<td>1 year full-time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 x 90 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ 90 hours vocational experience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some units which are core studies in Engineering are optional studies in Construction and vice versa.

Course Implementation

How - will largely determine the extent to which the aims will be achieved.

1. Role of course team, co-ordinator and moderator.
2. Recruitment policy.
4. Involvement of industry.
5. Integration and work relevance.
6. Course review and evaluation.

The course team should be given time to carry out its responsibilities. It will be the key to achieving course aims.

Resource Implications

Time for:
- Meetings
- Development of learning materials
- Liaison with employers

Access to:
- Properly equipped specialist rooms
- Academic and Technician staff support

Staff dev:
- Personal and career development
- Identification of needs - staff, course
- In-house training
- Residential training (FT)
- Short and long term secondment to industry

The Management Team should:

- Acknowledge resource implications
- Facilitate effective operation of course teams
- Support judicious timetabling

Discussion

In the following discussion it was stated that induction and recruitment of students is very important to BTEC.

Hopefully there will be a College based formal assessment.

Students should be given wider information on all available courses.
We must be more closely involved with employers, to facilitate experiential learning.

Timetables should include time for visits etc.

Employers may not wish to be involved in assessment and extra paperwork.

Money from TRIST could be used for BTEC staff training.

Core Skills and Themes

Present:

All programmes should educate students for work and adult life and include inter-disciplinary themes and student skills, very similar to CPVE and TVEI.

Core Studies consist of:

- Core Units - essential
- Core Skills - for each particular course
- Core Themes - inter-disciplinary

These are developed through integrative teaching. All staff should be involved in core themes. Integrative assignments are the way we will achieve common skills. These should give a balanced approach to all major skill areas. No BTEC course can opt out of these common skills and core themes. Integrative assignments will be timetabled as a specific course activity. There will be one 60 hour unit for integrative assignments. The course team should look at integrative assignments - this cannot be left to one lecturer. Integrative assignments will be assessed and will be as important as the other units. The 9 boards will all have slightly different guidelines.

Assessment trends in Higher Awards

Present:

BTEC are currently looking at the problems of students who wish to take single units or re-sit units. They are also going to look at project and assessment work in our submissions and are talking about integration e.g. - Business Studies with Engineering courses.

The main areas to consider are as follows:-

1) Time to be set aside from main subject units, for integrative assignments.
ii) Need for plenty of projects - 120 hrs plus for HND
60 hr project for HNC

It may be difficult to fit assignments into part-time courses.

Discussion

BTEC are insisting that we identify which core skills are being covered by integrative assignments. There is currently a lack of guidelines relevant to assignments etc. - these should be available in March/April 1987.

Assignments/Cross Modular Assignments

Present:

Business Studies have been using cross modular assignments for some time. BTEC keep a much closer watch in the first few years of CMA's and want to see you moving over to practical exercises, case studies, role plays, oral presentation and progress at work. The number of pieces of work has decreased but students input has increased. We need a strong team approach to find a good balance.

The assignments should reflect:

- Core themes
- Skills
- Unit content

CMA's are no longer required on Business Studies courses because the courses are so integrated. This will also happen with Engineering courses.

Discussion

It is very difficult fitting in individual students doing individual units rather than the whole course. TEC courses are rather bitty and this could be a way of solving this. CMA's only apply when students are doing a complete course and not to those who are doing an extra 2 specialised units. CMA's run on core areas.

Continuing Education Certificates could be the topper-up vehicle rather than traditional courses.
Guidance Notes 8 - Ex. TEC  Speaker - C.C. McLelland

Present:

The courses were very assessment led when TEC started. We thought it was a very flexible approach.

Industrial consultation - expect industry to input to the course - very time consuming.

Phase tests.

Test - retest - retest until the student passed.

Standard units - 8 or 9 topic areas - very content orientated.

Rationalisation.

Guidance Note No. 8 TEC - was their attempt to rationalise assessment.

Model J - 50% end test
50% assignments

The student was to have no choice in the end test to make sure they had covered all the elements of the unit.

Model J may have caused an overload of assignments.

Moderators View

It was shown at a moderators conference that moderators differ greatly in their views.

An example of a Moderators Training Exercise was given. Those present completed the exercise.

Conclusions

There was a proposal from C. Slidel that this sort of seminar should be held more often. This was agreed.
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